



# Introduction to Extension Education and Development

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Block

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## **INTRODUCTION TO EXTENSION EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT**

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# **COURSE MAE-004: EXTENSION EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT**

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## **Block 1 Introduction to Extension Education and Development**

- Unit 1 Extension Education: Concept, Principles, Philosophy and Approaches**
  - Unit 2 Development of Extension Education in India**
  - Unit 3 Extension Methods and Media**
  - Unit 4 Development: Concept, Dimensions and Factors**
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-

# **COURSE MAE-004 EXTENSION EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT**

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## **Introduction to the Course**

Adult educator is required to have proper understanding of different aspects and issues involved in extending the benefits of education and development to diverse categories of needy adults and communities. It is particularly essential for him if he has to play an effective role in reducing different kinds of disparities in development of the society and the nation. Hence, this course attempts to introduce you to extension education and development with emphasis on the relevant concepts, principles, philosophy, dimensions, dynamics, models, issues and problems, among others. It presents a perspective of desirable developments within the framework of the national economic and social policies involving all the sub-sectors of development. It thus attempts to enable you to play an effective role, as an adult educator, in promoting extension education for development of the adults, the communities, the society and the nation as a whole. This course consists of the following four Blocks together containing 16 units.

**Block 1** "Introduction to Extension Education and Development" deals with fundamental aspects of extension education and development with emphasis on the concept, objectives, scope, principles, philosophy, history, approaches, methods and media of extension education. It presents the structure of the Indian extension system along with various agencies involved in it. It focuses on the concept, dimensions, factors and indicators of development. It also presents current trends and policies in adult and extension education in India. This Block consists of five units.

**Block 2** "Dynamics of Extension and Development" highlights different dynamics of extension and development. It presents comprehensive picture of relevant models, approaches and some case studies vis-à-vis broad nature of extension goals. It discusses different theories and dynamics of development. It also focuses on the aspects of developmental disparities and the measures for reducing these disparities with a view to bring in the marginalized into the mainstream of development. It contains three units.

**Block 3** titled "Problems and Issues in Development" deals with the basic problems and issues related to development such as population, illiteracy, poverty, infrastructure and socio-economic inequalities. It lays emphasis on specific issues and problems of different sectors of development such as agriculture, industry, energy, transport and communication, information and communication, and unorganized sectors. It highlights different dimensions and issues of social development such as education, health, nutrition, gender, marginalization and exclusion, and culture. Further, it discusses various aspects, characteristics and issues of governance in general and of good governance in particular. It has four units.

**Block 4** is about "Extension and Development: Planning, Management and Evaluation". It deals with different aspects of planning, management and evaluation. It highlights the process of planning and developing an extension programme. It discusses the theories of management, covers the aspects of manpower planning and personnel management and their significance in extension and development. It touches upon the design, tools and techniques of monitoring and evaluation and their relevance to extension and development. It comprises of four units.

# **BLOCK 1 INTRODUCTION TO EXTENSION EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT**

## **Introduction to the Block**

This Block deals with fundamental aspects of extension education and development. It highlights the concept, objectives, scope, principles, philosophy, history, approaches and methods and media of extension education. It presents the structure of the Indian extension system along with various agencies involved in extension education. It discusses the concept, dimensions, factors and indicators of development. Further, it touches upon current trends and policies in adult and extension education in India. This Block consists of the following five units.

**Unit 1** "Extension Education: Concept, Principles and Philosophy" highlights the significance of extension as a potential means for inducing people to help themselves in using their own and local resources as well as the government aid in the process of their development and of the communities. It focuses on the meaning, concept, components, objectives and scope of extension education. It presents the philosophy, the key principles, and the process of extension education including different approaches to extension. It discusses the interrelationship between extension and development and the outcome of the extension process. Further, it presents the structure of the Indian extension system, as a part of the efforts of institutionalization of extension education, including various agencies involved in it.

**Unit 2** is about "Development of Extension Education in India". It presents the history of extension education starting from the birth of the department of agriculture to the present extension systems and programmes. It focuses on the extension efforts made by different national leaders at different places like Shriniketan, Marthandam, Sevagram, Gurgaon, Firka Development Scheme, etc in the pre-independence era. It describes the developments in the post-independence era touching upon Grow More Food Campaign, Etawah pilot project, Community Development, National Extension Service, and Democratic Decentralization, among others. It also describes the recent intensified efforts made for development of extension with emphasis on the gradually shifted focus from purely agricultural and community development to technological development to development with social justice to infrastructure development.

**Unit 3** titled "Extension Methods and Media" explains the significance of teaching methods, media and aids in teaching-learning process or communication process in extension education. It deals with individual-based extension methods such as Farm and Home Visits, Office Calls, Personal Letters; group-based methods such as Method Demonstration, Result Demonstration and Meetings, and mass-media methods such as Farm Publications, Circular Letters, Campaigns, Exhibition, Radio, and Television (TV) including their advantages and disadvantages. It explains the Edger Dale's Cone of Experience and the interrelationships of various types of audio-visual materials as well as their selection and use in extension teaching-learning process.

**Unit 4** deals with "Development: Concept, Dimensions and Factors". It discusses the concept of development, its significance, dimensions, factors, and indices/

measures. It focuses on human development, social development, political development and economic development and provides comprehensive picture of inter-linkages between these dimensions, their factors and indices.

**Unit 5** "Current Trends and Policies in Adult and Extension Education in India" presents major shifts in policy approach to adult education — shifts from marginal to nation-wide programme of adult education, from dispersed projects in selected areas to total area approach (Campaign Approach to Total Literacy), from literacy to post-literacy and continuing education including the current scheme of Saakshar Bharat. It also highlights recent developments in extension education including the shift in their emphasis.

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# **UNIT 1 EXTENSION EDUCATION: CONCEPT, PRINCIPLES, PHILOSOPHY AND APPROACHES**

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## **Structure**

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- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Concept, Process and Scope of Extension
  - 1.2.1 Concept of Extension: Origin, Expansion and Diversification
  - 1.2.2 Objectives, Components and Process of Extension
    - 1.2.2.1 Objectives of Extension
    - 1.2.2.2 Components of Extension
    - 1.2.2.3 Process of Extension
  - 1.2.3 Scope of Extension
- 1.3 Philosophy and Principles of Extension
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- 1.5 Practice of Extension Education in India: A Brief Overview
  - 1.5.1 The Indian Extension System: Phases and Programmes
- 1.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.7 Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions
- 1.8 References

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## **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

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'Extension' is a term which is open to a wide variety of interpretations. It is a dynamic concept subject to multiple interpretations and thus has been changing. It is a relatively new operational concept in India. It became diversified due to its increasing relevance and contribution to different sectors of development. Extension education as an applied science derives its contents from research, field experiences and behavioural science, among others. It employs diverse means, techniques, technologies and approaches to deliver its contents. It has its philosophy and principles that focus on addressing the problems of people in rural, remote and disadvantaged or backward areas.

Extension is an important means for inducing people to help themselves in using their own and local resources to the maximum and government aid to the minimum for their development. Extension stimulates desirable developments within the framework of the national, economic and social policies involving different sectors of development. In this Unit i.e. the first Unit of the first Block of this Course MAE-004, the focus of our discussion will be on the concept, scope, philosophy, principles and approaches of extension education.

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## 1.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through the unit, we expect you to be able to:

- Explain the concept and scope of extension;
- Discuss the philosophy of extension education;
- Describe the principles of extension education;
- Establish the relationship between extension and development; and
- Analyse the approaches to extension education.

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## 1.2 CONCEPT, PROCESS AND SCOPE OF EXTENSION

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In this section we will discuss the concept, objectives, and process of extension which together will enable us to have an understanding of the scope of extension.

### 1.2.1 Concept of Extension: Origin, Expansion and Diversification

The term 'extension' has its origin in the Latin word, *tensio*, meaning stretching, and *ex*, meaning out. The literal meaning of extension is stretching out. Extension basically extends education; its purpose is to change the attitudes and practices of people with whom the work is done. The common use of the term 'university extension' was first recorded in the 1840s in Britain. The first practical steps were taken in 1867-68 when James Stuart, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge gave lectures to women's associations and working men's clubs in the north of England. James Stuart is often considered the 'Father of University Extension'. In 1871, Stuart approached the authorities in Cambridge University to organize centres for extension lectures under the university's supervision. Cambridge formally adopted the system in 1873, and was followed by London University in 1876 and Oxford University in 1878. By the 1880s, the work was being referred to as 'the extension movement'. In this movement, the university extended its work in the areas beyond its campus.

The growth and success of extension work in Britain influenced the initiation of similar activity elsewhere, especially in the United States; in many states, comparable out-of-college lectures became established practices by the 1890s. Later, the extramural work of the land-grant colleges, concerned with serving the needs of farm families, expanded dramatically and became formally organized; but the use of the term 'extension' continued and has persisted as the designation for this work. All these activities indicate that the target group for university teaching should not be restricted to students on campus, but should be extended to people living elsewhere. Extension was thus seen as a form of adult education, in which the teachers are staff members of the university. However, for many years, this was mainly an activity of the college of agriculture, which employed county extension agents all over the state. Later, extension agents started serving other sub-sectors of development in addition to agriculture and allied activities.

In India, the University extension gained momentum with the establishment of the State Agricultural Universities (SAUs) on the pattern of Land-Grant colleges

in the US. The first SAU was established in Pantnagar in 1960, and by 2010 there were 45 SAUs in the country. These universities have the statewide responsibility for extension education and have integrated teaching, research, and extension at all levels — Individual, Department, College and University.

The University Grants Commission of India, in its landmark policy framework of 1977, has recognized extension as the third dimension, equivalent to teaching and research. With this policy, extension has emerged as third major function of universities in general, and of agricultural universities in particular. This policy framework also led to the establishment of departments or centers of adult and continuing education and extension in general universities. On similar lines, IGNOU has also started the Centre for Extension Education, and recently the School of Extension and Development Studies.

Nevertheless, the concept of extension was expressed in varied terms in different countries as presented below.

**Global Perspective of Extension Terminology:** Extension was first used to describe adult education programmes in England in the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. These programmes helped to expand or extend the work of universities beyond the campuses — into the neighbouring community. The term was later adopted in the United States of America, while in Britain it was replaced with the term ‘advisory service’ in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. A number of other terms are also used in different parts of the world to describe or denote extension work.

| Country   | Local terminology             | Meaning                                   |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| Arabic    | Al-Ershad                     | Guidance                                  |
| Dutch     | Voorlichting                  | Lighting the path                         |
| German    | Berating/Aufklarung/Erziehung | Advisory work/Enlightenment/Education     |
| French    | Vulgarization                 | Simplification                            |
| Spanish   | Capacitacion                  | Improving skills                          |
| Thai, Lao | Song – Suem                   | To promote                                |
| Parsian   | Tarvij & Gostaresh            | To promote and to extend                  |
| Indonesia | Penyuluhan                    | Lighting the way ahead with a torch       |
| Malaysia  | Perkembangan                  | Lighting the way ahead with a torch       |
| USA       | Cooperative extension         | Teach people to solve problems themselves |
| Austria   | Forderung                     | Furthering / Stimulating                  |

**Source:** Van den Ban, A. W., and Hawkins, H. S. 2002. *Agricultural Extension*. New Delhi: CBS Publishers and Distributors.

The Dutch use the word *Voorlichting*, which means lighting the pathway ahead to help people find their way. The term *penyuluhan* in Indonesia, and *perkembangan* in Malaysia are used which also mean ‘lighting the way ahead with a torch’. Germans talk of ‘advisory work’ or *berating*, which implies that an expert can give advice on the best way to reach your goal, but leaves the way for your selection. The Germans use the word ‘*aufklarung*’ (enlightenment) in

health extension to highlight the importance of learning the values underlying good health and to stress the point that we must know clearly where we are going. Germans also speak of '*erziehung*' (education), as in the USA, where it is stressed that the goal of extension is to teach people to solve problems themselves. The Austrians speak of '*forderung*' (furthering) or stimulating you to go in a desirable direction. The French use '*vulgarisation*' which stresses the need to simplify the message for common man, while the Spanish use '*capacitación*' which indicates the intension to improve the people's skills, although normally it is used to mean training. The terminology related to the concept of extension thus presents the panoramic picture of the diversity with which the term 'extension' is viewed, understood and used in different parts of the world.

Notwithstanding the above, the individual experts in the field have also conceived and defined the term 'extension' differently keeping in view its developmental objectives, reach, delivery, funding, etc. Some selected definitions given below provide us comprehensive understanding of how the meaning of extension has changed overtime.

- 1949: The central task of extension is to help rural families help themselves by applying science, whether physical or social, to the daily routines of farming, homemaking and family and community living (Burnner and Hsin Pao Yang, 1949).
- 1961: Extension education is an applied science consisting of content derived from research, accumulated field experiences and relevant principles drawn from the behavioural science and synthesized with useful technology into a body of philosophy, principles, content and methods focused on the problems of out-of-school education for adults and youth (J. P. Leagans, 1961).
- 1965: Extension has been described as a system of out-of-school education for rural people (Saville, 1965).
- 1966: Extension personnel have the task of bringing scientific knowledge to farm families in the farms and homes. The object of the task is to improve the efficiency of agriculture (Bradfield, 1966).
- 1973: Extension is a service or system which assists farm people, through education on procedures, in improving farming methods and techniques, increasing production efficiency and income, bettering the levels of their living and lifting social and educational standards (Maunder, 1973).
- 1974: Extension involves the conscious use of communication and information to help people form sound opinions and make good decisions (Van den Ban, 1974).
- 1982: Extension is to help people identify and analyse their production problems and become aware of the opportunities for improvement (Adams, 1982).
- 1988: Extension is a professional communication intervention deployed by an institution to induce change in voluntary behaviours with a presumed public or collective utility (Roling, 1988).
- 1997: Extension is the organized exchange of information and the purposive transfer of skills (Nagel, 1997).

1999: The essence of agricultural extension is to facilitate interplay and nurture synergies within total information system involving agricultural research, agricultural education and a vast complex of information providing businesses (Neuchatel Group, 1999).

2004: Extension is a series of embedded communicative interventions that are meant, among others, to develop and/or induce innovations which supposedly help to resolve (usually multi-actor) problematic situations (Leeuwis and Van den Ban, 2004).

From the above definitions we can understand that extension: i) is an intervention — a communication intervention, ii) is an educational process, iii) intends to induce voluntary change in behavior, iv) focuses on a number of target groups, follows different processes, and produces different outcomes, v) has an altruistic orientation, and vi) has a technological, research and professional dimension. Extension is, thus, an educational intervention aimed at bringing a desirable change in knowledge, skills, attitudes and practices/behaviour of people so as to involve them actively in the process of development. How, then, is extension education different from formal education? Table 1.1 makes the difference between formal education and extension education them very clear.

**Table 1.1: Differences between Formal Education and Extension Education**

| <b>Formal Education</b>                     | <b>Extension Education</b>                                                                                                    |
|---------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Starts with theory and works up to practice | Starts with practices and may take up theory later on                                                                         |
| Students study subjects                     | People study problems                                                                                                         |
| Fixed curriculum offered                    | No fixed curriculum or course of study and people help to formulate the curriculum                                            |
| Authority rests with the teacher            | Authority rests with the people                                                                                               |
| Attendance is compulsory                    | Participation is voluntary                                                                                                    |
| Teacher instructs the students              | Extension worker teaches and also learns from the people                                                                      |
| Teaching is only through instructors        | Teaching is also through local leaders                                                                                        |
| Teaching is mainly vertical                 | Teaching is mainly horizontal                                                                                                 |
| More or less homogeneous audience           | Heterogeneous audience                                                                                                        |
| Rigid                                       | Flexible                                                                                                                      |
| Pre-planned and pre-decided programmes      | Freedom to develop programmes locally based on the development needs and expressed desires of the stakeholders of development |
| More theoretical                            | More practical and intended for immediate application in the solution of the problems                                         |

As already made clear, extension is a dynamic concept in the sense that the interpretation of it is always changing. Therefore, 'extension' cannot be defined precisely and in universally acceptable manner; but it can be described as a continual and changing concept and process. Nevertheless, we can rather sum up the concept of extension in the following statements.

- ✓ Extension is an informal educational process directed towards the rural population. This process offers advice and information to help them solve their problems. It aims at increasing the efficiency of the family farm and increasing production in particular and increasing the standard of living of the farm family in general. In other words, it involves helping farmers to improve the productivity of their agriculture and also developing their abilities to direct their own future development.
- ✓ The objective of extension is to change farmers' outlook towards their difficulties. Extension is concerned not just with physical and economic achievements but even with the development of the rural people themselves.
- ✓ Extension is a process of working with rural people in order to improve their livelihoods. Extension agents, therefore, discuss matters with the rural people, help them to gain a clearer insight into their problems and also enable them to decide how to overcome the problems.

## **1.2.2 Objectives, Components and Process of Extension**

In this sub-section we will present you the objectives, components and process of extension.

### **1.2.2.1 Objectives of Extension**

The fundamental objective of extension is to stimulate desirable development. Following are the five specific objectives of extension:

- To transfer knowledge from researchers to the end-users.
- To advise people in the decision-making process.
- To educate people to enable them to take similar decisions in future on their own.
- To enable people to have clear goals with knowledge about their possibilities and how to realize them.
- To stimulate desirable developments within the framework of the national, economic and social policies involving all the sub-sectors of development as a whole.

### **1.2.2.2 Components of Extension**

Based on our understanding of the concept and objectives of extension we can identify *four main elements* which form part of the process of extension viz.: i) knowledge and skills, ii) technical advice and information, iii) motivation, involvement and self-confidence, iv) farmers' and peoples' organisation for practice. These four elements can be reduced to the following *three broad components or activities of extension*:

- Extension Education
  - Extension Services
  - Extension Work
- i) **Extension Education:** It is basically a need-oriented, local resource-based, problem-solution-oriented system interrelated with education and research.

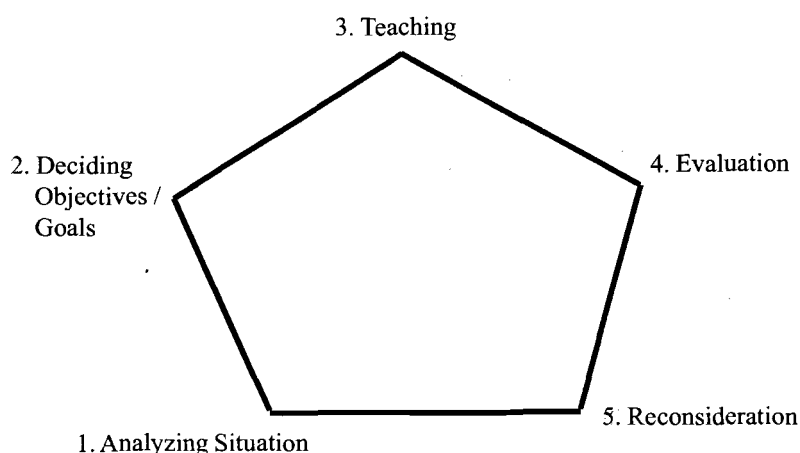
The extension efforts are related to research in terms of new technology, processes and products. The extension education role is generally performed by higher learning institutions, viz. Research Institutes, Universities and Apex-level Training and Extension Organizations.

- ii) **Extension Service:** Extension service is the mission and mandate of development. Extension service is a programme for development implemented by way of adopting the extension process. Extension service is location-specific, input-intensive, service-oriented, and field level professional activity with two objectives of: a) transferring new technologies or innovations and advising the people on improved methods, and b) communicating development constraints to research institutes / development organizations / policy makers as feedback for participatory-technology development. Thus, extension service serves as a link between researchers, development workers and people. Extension service also works hand-in-hand with other development departments, and input agencies to multiply their efforts and effects.
- iii) **Extension Work:** Extension work is to assist people through both education and service. Through extension work, people are stimulated to adopt changes that result in more efficient production and marketing, conservation of natural resources, improved livelihood security, health, and more satisfying family and community life. Extension work is at the lowest in hierarchy, but extremely broad-based in usage. It is also extremely location-specific and usually susceptible to outside criticism. Extension work is to help people to help themselves.

The process of extension subsumes the above components and elements of extension.

### 1.2.2.3 Process of Extension

The process of extension, as applied to development programmes, involves five essential phases or steps. Figure 1.1 shows the sequence of steps that result in progress from a given situation to a new or a more desirable one.



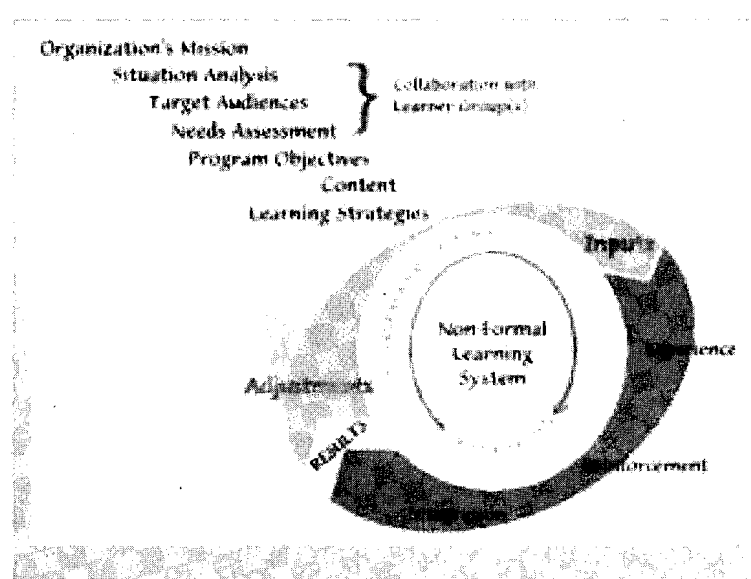
**Figure 1.1: Steps in the Extension Process**

**Source:** Leagans, J. P. 1961. "Extension Education for Community Development", in *Extension Education in Community Development*. New Delhi: Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.

- i) **Analyzing the situation:** This requires a large amount of facts about all aspects of the situation where extension work is to be taken up. Information is needed about the peoples' interests, needs, education, social customs, farming systems, water bodies, etc. These details can be obtained by conducting participatory rural appraisal / rapid rural appraisal. This information helps in formulating a suitable developmental programme to overcome the identified problems.
- ii) **Setting the objectives or goals to be accomplished:** The beneficiaries of development programmes must be involved in setting and selecting a limited number of objectives which should state clearly the expected behavioural changes in people as well as the economic or social outcomes desired.
- iii) **Teaching:** It is the process of arranging situations in which the things to be learnt are brought to the notice of the people, their interest is developed, and a desire for change is aroused i.e. they are stimulated for action for their development.
- iv) **Evaluating the teaching:** Evaluation is to determine the extent to which the objectives have been reached. Plans for evaluation should be built into the plans of work during earlier phases. A distinction should be made between records of accomplishments and original objectives stated.
- v) **Reconsidering:** This step consists of a review of previous efforts and results which reveal a new situation. If this new situation shows the need for further work, then the whole process may begin again, of course, with new or modified objectives.

These steps are necessary in carrying out planned extension educational efforts. These steps are not necessarily separate from each other. Past experiences show that planning, teaching, and evaluation can also take place continuously but in varying degrees throughout all phases of the extension process, depending upon the systemic and institutional context.

**B) Extension Education Learning System:** We can elaborate the above process by presenting it in the form of extension education learning system. It (extension education learning system) is a dynamic, non-formal system for



developing and implementing programmes. The system consists of numerous complementary and interactive components, each contributing to the success of the total system. The individual components are: the organization's mission; situation analysis; target

audiences; needs assessment; program objectives; content; learning strategies; and the non-formal learning system, which includes inputs, evaluation and adjustment. Key supporting components of inputs include: experience, reinforcement, and integration. Other components vital to the total system include collaboration with learner groups and learner motivation.

**Organization's Mission:** An organization's mission defines reason for its existence and forms the foundation for its operations and functions. A mission statement sets forth an organization's purpose and helps clarify and define the organization's goals and program thrusts. As an organization evolves, its mission is subject to change. These changes may be influenced by social, economic, political or other factors, and may be gradual or rapid depending upon the conditions influencing the need for change. The mission continuously clarifies and defines the programs of an organization.

**Situation Analysis:** Analysis of the situation is a deliberate process that accurately assesses situations and circumstances influencing the lives of people in a defined geographical area. This process is important for obtaining a perspective for identifying the needs of individuals and communities. The situation analysis may be focused on one community or broad-based to encompass a region as a whole. A situation analysis includes a study of an area's demographics: its economic infrastructure, the availability of public services, its topographical features, number and characteristics of its communities, the attitudes or motivations of specific groups within the area, resources available, etc. The information must be continually updated to reflect the dynamics of human and societal change, and to incorporate new information along with an understanding of its significance.

**Collaboration with Learner Groups:** Continuous and effective collaboration with groups and representative members of the groups is vital to the success of any educational program. Collaboration can be greatly enhanced by effective use of the Extension Advisory Leadership System. Collaboration is the only way for an educator to ensure that groups are appropriately targeted and their needs are addressed with highest priority. Effective collaboration motivates people to participate more willingly and to support efforts in which they feel personal ownership. Therefore, collaboration and consultation strengthens program development, implementation and participation.

**Target Groups:** When the situation is analyzed, specific groups can be identified for enlisting their participation. Groups have a wide array of attributes that influence their receptivity to educational programs. Knowledge of different segments of the population can be useful in structuring program delivery systems that respond to the preferences and needs of those specific groups. By clearly targeting groups, needs can be more accurately assessed, and program content can be identified/developed and appropriate delivery systems can be structured to provide the information.

Factors that may be considered in segmenting groups include: i) known personal characteristics and preferences of a population segment; ii) their known sociological and cultural characteristics; iii) their receptiveness to educational opportunities; and iv) how their informational needs are currently being met. Many other factors like the location of the groups, their available resources,

their economic opportunities as well as their needs or circumstances fitting into the extension's overall mission, vision and strategic plan may be considered.

**Needs Assessment:** It is a highly focused process that analyzes the specific groups who have been targeted by particular organization for emphasis in educational programming. The needs assessment focuses on determining the specific needs of the targeted groups. It seeks to identify current circumstances or conditions faced by the targeted groups. This gap between what is and what should be possible is considered the need. In addition to direct interviews and/or a random survey of members of the target group, the needs assessment will include observations by the extension professionals as well as by other collaborating individuals or groups.

**Programme Objectives:** Once information has been obtained about the educational needs of the targeted groups, objectives can be developed with focus on meeting those needs. These objectives should focus on the changes desired in the targeted group based on the identified needs.

The educational objective(s) should include information that will answer the four questions, "how," "who," "when," and "what". A brief statement that answers these four questions should form a usable objective that will guide an educational program. The objective specifies the means for providing needed information (how), to a specific learner group (who), and answers the question of "when" by describing the time constraints under which the program will be conducted. The objective should also include what the learner is expected to know or achieve at the end of the planned educational program (the "what" or expected results). Objectives should be measurable and should be stated as behavioral changes expected in the targeted group of learners.

**Content:** The content provides the information needed by the learner by means of an educational program. Depending on the identified needs of the targeted groups and their assessed level of knowledge, the content of the educational program may be basic or highly complex. The content may focus essentially on any subject, depending upon the program objectives and the target group.

**Learning Strategies:** These are the major strategies for conducting the educational program. This stage of the extension learning system sets the time limitations and the overall sequence in which the information will be provided for achieving the program objectives. The beginning and ending points are specified as well as each intermediate step in providing educational inputs. Through this means, program needs such as time and resource allocations are defined. The overall learning strategies provide the framework for selecting the appropriate program delivery methods and for establishing the sequence in which the methods will be used in implementing the planned program.

Extension education thus occupies a very enviable status in the hierarchy of technological changes and their application, because its personnel have the background of both the technology and behavioural sciences in addition to sound information of extension education itself.

### 1.2.3 Scope of Extension

The scope of extension encompasses a range of developmental efforts that enable the deprived and the needy people in rural and remote areas to have high standards of development or to achieve better living standards and quality of life. Extension deals with different aspects, problems, and issues concerning development of people including implementation of relevant programmes. It teaches, trains, guides, counsels and facilitate people to work out ways and means of satisfying or fulfilling their felt-needs. It enables people to recognize and help themselves to solve problems of their development. It is an effective means of education for action in groups and masses, within a democratic framework of society. It emphasizes on change of mindset and outlook of the people and tries to instill ambition in them for higher standards of development. It inculcates in them the desire to acquire the required skills, will and determination to work towards such standards and goals.

The scope of extension is thus very vast and diverse. It has lot of relevance for development as its process can be flexibly applied as extension education/learning system within the institutional set-ups.

**Extension and Development:** Development is not a matter of only plans, targets, budgets, technology, experts and organizations to govern them. Rather, it is an effective use of all these mechanisms as educational means for changing the mind-sets and actions of people in such ways that they 'help themselves' to attain development. Extension education, as we have discussed above, has emerged from the acceptance of this idea and shows the ways to help people achieve their set goals. The ultimate goal of extension is to develop the people by improving their standard of living through education and voluntary participation in extension programmes. In this context, it is imperative to understand varied dimensions of development and their relation to extension.

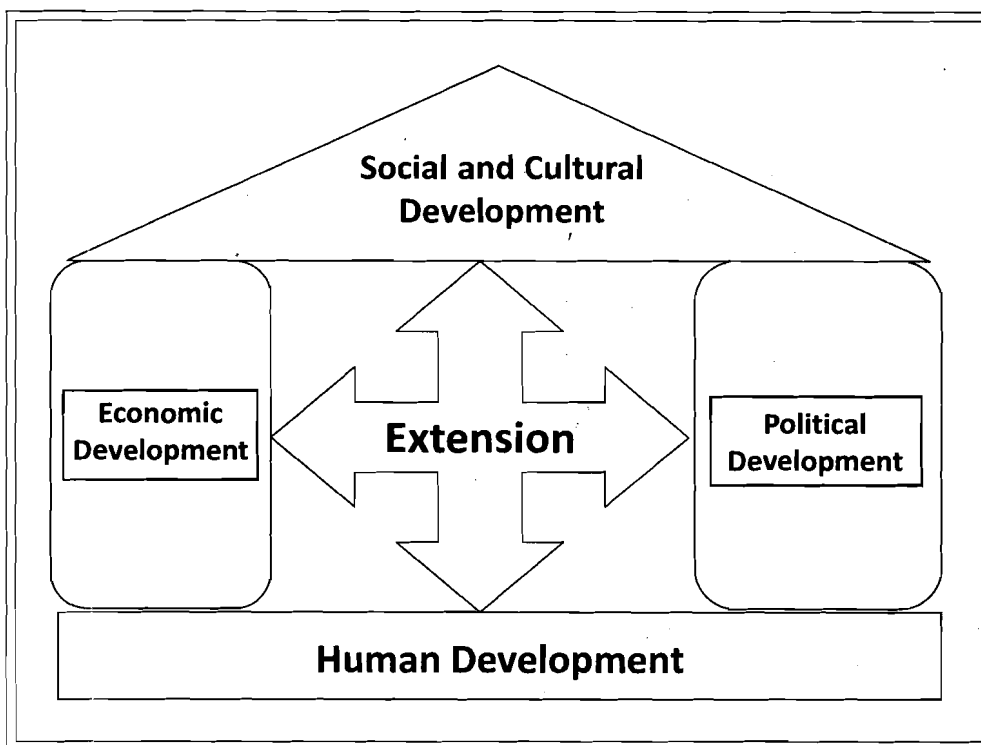


Figure 1.2: Extension and Development

Development includes, among others, development of people, and satisfaction of their basic needs — food, shelter, clothing, access to safe drinking water, sanitation, public transport, health and educational facilities, etc. Underdevelopment means denial of basic needs to people while enhancing the material returns to the dominant groups. Development will necessarily involve the use of socio-cultural, financial, political and human resources facilitated by extension.

The relationship between extension and socio-cultural, economic, political and human development is illustrated in Figure 1.2. The two columns represent economic and political development. The girder represent socio-cultural development which is dependent upon the support of the two columns (economic and political developments) which in turn rest upon a foundation of human development. Extension is the connecting link (process) between people and development (outcome). Different dimensions of development are discussed in brief below.

***Human (Personal) Development:*** Development in any meaningful sense must begin with, and within the individuals. Unless motivation comes from within, efforts to promote change by extension workers will not be sustainable by the individual. The individual will remain under the power of others. Human development is the process by which an individual develops self-respect and becomes more self-confident, self-reliant, cooperative and tolerant of others, through becoming aware of his/her shortcomings as well as potential for positive change that fosters development.

***Economic Development:*** This is a process by which people, through their own efforts and/or efforts of the extension agents, boost production for direct consumption and have surplus to sell for cash.

***Political Development:*** If development is to benefit the people then the political structure must be responsive to their needs and aspirations and protect their rights and property. People have to acquire political power in order to:

- Participate in decision-making and choose their own leaders;
- Plan and share power democratically;
- Create and allocate resources equitably and efficiently among all groups.

Feedback from extension workers on various issues and concerns of development is important to influence policy makers.

***Social and Cultural Development:*** It refers to those investments and services carried out or provided by extension agents for the benefit of the people and communities whether in a village, a district or a country as a whole. These services include health, education, water, energy, transport, communication, etc.

In short, the essence of extension process is helping people by means of education, training and service to make use of the developmental avenues to achieve their goals for higher and better quality of life. Therefore, you as an adult educator or an extension worker have to *work with people, help them become self-reliant, and educate and train them to become central actors in the process of development.*

### **Check Your Progress**

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under  
“Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”.

1) Explain the concept of extension.

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2) Write the meanings of extension terminology as used in any five countries.

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3) What are the differences between formal education and extension education?

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4) List out the steps involved in extension education.

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5) Explain the scope of extension and highlight its relevance to development.

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## 1.3 PHILOSOPHY AND PRINCIPLES OF EXTENSION

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Extension is a significant factor which works to produce change for development. Its philosophy is to co-operate with all those who aim to develop individuals, communities and the nation. Extension philosophy broadens the vision of the individuals to set realistic goals, to work towards opportunities and to realise the set goals. It also helps in formulating the principles for practice of extension. In this section we will therefore focus our discussion on the philosophy and the principles of extension.

### 1.3.1 Philosophy of Extension

According to Mildred Horton (1952) the principles of philosophy of extension include the following:

- The individual is supreme in a democracy.
- The home is the fundamental unit in a civilization.
- The family is the first training group of the human race.
- The foundation of any permanent civilization must rest on the partnership of man and land (nature).

According to Ensminger (1961), extension philosophy should lay emphasis on the following:

- Changing attitudes, knowledge and skills of the people;
- Working with men and women, young people, boys and girls to address their needs and wants;
- Helping people to help themselves;
- “Learning by doing” and “seeing is believing”;
- Development of individuals, their leaders, their society, and their world as a whole;
- Working in harmony with the culture of the people;
- A two-way channel of communication;
- A continuous educational process.

In brief, this is the broad philosophy of extension as expounded by the individuals.

**State’s Philosophy of Extension:** The philosophy of the State regarding extension can be looked at from different perspectives as follows.

- i) ***Extension is an economic necessity:*** The governments have realized that without a stable, productive and contented rural population all other factors towards economic development may fail. No country can afford to neglect its rural population. Every country needs an ample and dependable supply of staple foods for the whole nation. In a country where the farmers are discontented or not very efficient, the supply of staple foods cannot meet the demands of the whole nation. A modern farmer can also grow industrial crops which produce valuable raw materials for many and diverse industries which help provide employment for swelling population and increase the national wealth.

Further, if there are considerable inequalities of income between the urban and the rural people many of the young population will tend to leave the rural areas and migrate to the cities. But, the cities may not always be able to absorb them; the frequent result being overcrowding slums, unemployment, vagrancy, and social unrest.

These are some important reasons why governments have begun to take interest in the masses, and extension programs have been created all over the world. Extension serves the economic objectives of the nation. It is no longer a good practice for a villager to carry on what he learned from his father or family. Farming must be progressive and efficient, just like any other industry, or else the whole nation is likely to suffer. So, the first requirement for people's progress is new information. The purpose of extension is to bring this information to all those who need it.

- ii) ***Extension is based upon research:*** The main focus of extension is on people and the things that cause people to act as they do or how to influence them to change. At least two things are necessary to bring about change, namely, i) sources of new information, and ii) spread of the information to the masses. Information does not just come out; it must be searched for and thought out. That is why there is a need for research institutions to get information. Researchers, on the other hand, will not know what kind of information to get, unless they are told what to research. The people in general have little opportunity to compare their practices with those of others, and often they are not even aware that there is room for their improvement.

Therefore, the first job that extension workers have to do is to help the people define their own problems. Once their problems have been clarified, the extension worker can present them to the researchers, who in turn try to look for possible solutions. Very often they know the answers for many problems from previous experience, and there is no need for research on such things. But again, the extension worker has to bring effective solutions to the villagers. He has to translate abstract formula into clear, understandable language, and show them how, when and where the new knowledge may be profitably applied.

Research discovers and develops technology; it is the source of new information. Extension imparts the knowledge of technology to be used; it spreads the necessary information (now or at any future time) from its source to the ultimate users -- the villager and the members of his family -- and encourages them to use the information.

- iii) ***Extension bases its programs on needs:*** All people desire higher goals in life. Once people are convinced of the value of new methods and that the new methods will help them reach their goals, they will change to attain this desired goal. Therefore, the major task of extension is to convince the people of the value of new and better practices. Extension paves the way for further progress by making the community aware of the benefits to be obtained from the programs.
- iv) ***Extension is an educational process:*** Extension involves no coercion of any sort but is an educational process, different from formal education. Extension depends on the ability of a limited number of workers to inspire clientele and to create a desire in them for more efficient production, and

better living conditions in the rural areas. The clientele must be encouraged to meet in groups to secure the information and assistance they desire. If the extension worker would devote more efforts to create a desire for information, the clientele would come and ask for it, rather than wait for it to be brought to them. The motivation of the clientele thus becomes a phase of extension work, worthy of careful study.

Extension is concerned not only with learning but also with the application of the knowledge gained from everyday living. It is an extremely practical and concrete type of education that may be put to use at once. Timeliness must always be borne in mind in the planning of extension programs. In order to change the behavior of people, extension must first gear their attitude towards change. It may question traditional practices and motivate them to change to improve their own living conditions. To bring about a change in attitude is a basic educational function of extension. It has been suggested that extension is not solely concerned with teaching and securing the acceptance of a particular improved practice, but with changing the outlook of the clientele and encouraging them to take the initiative to improve their lives. The effectiveness of extension is measured by its ability to advance from the static situation which generally prevails in rural areas.

As we know, change can be brought about by: i) choice, through education and ii) by force or coercion. Choice may be represented by education. It is a means to supply the people with knowledge, experience and/or know-how. Force may be represented by supplies and services in the form of physical/material inputs. The idea of giving education (choice) instead of physical things is commonly expressed as “helping people to help themselves”. Education is the primary object of the extension work. Others may stress physical inputs (force) and make people dependent on them.

Both education and supplies/services, regardless of how they are organized, are necessary for highly effective extension work — to get a big change; but the degree of emphasis may vary. Extension education should promote improved practices and make them viable by encouraging action through cooperation with others. This is all, in brief, about the state’s philosophy of extension.

### 1.3.2 Principles of Extension

Extension activities are widespread throughout the developing world. Different countries have set up formally structured extension services to implement their programmes and projects. The practice of extension is supported by budget, offices, personnel and other resources. Extension work is based on some working principles and processes. According to Dhama and Bhatnagar (2009) the knowledge of the principles of extension is necessary for an extension and development professional. These principles are as follows.

- i) ***Principle of interest and need:*** Extension work must be based on the needs and interests of the people. These needs and interests vary from individual to individual, from village to village, from block to block, and from state to state. Therefore, extension programmes have to be formulated based on the needs of the target groups.

- ii) **Principle of cultural difference:** Extension work is based on the cultural background of the people with whom the work is done. The extension worker has to know the level of knowledge and skills of the people, the methods and tools used by them, their customs, traditions, beliefs, values, etc before starting the extension programme.
- iii) **Principle of participation:** Extension helps people to help themselves. Good extension work is directed towards assisting people to work out their own problems, rather than giving them ready-made solutions. Actual participation and the experience of involvement create self-confidence in the people and they learn more by doing.
- iv) **Principle of adaptability:** People, groups and their conditions differ from place to place. Therefore, extension programme should be flexible, so that necessary changes can be made whenever needed to meet varying conditions.
- v) **The grassroots principle of organization:** Any development programme should fit in with the local conditions. The aim of organizing a local group is to demonstrate the value of the new practices or programmes so that there is more people's participation.
- vi) **The leadership principle:** Extension work is based on the full utilization of local leadership. The selection and training of local leaders to involve them in extension work is essential for the success of the development programme. People have more faith in local leaders and they should be used to put across a new developmental idea so that it is accepted with the least resistance.
- vii) **The whole-family principle:** Extension work will have a better chance of success if the extension workers have a whole-family approach instead of piecemeal approach / separate approach. Extension work is therefore for the whole family.
- viii) **Principle of co-operation:** Extension is a cooperative venture. It is a joint, democratic enterprise in which people cooperate with their village, block and state officials to pursue a common development cause.
- ix) **Principle of satisfaction:** "A satisfied customer is the best advertisement". The end product of the effort of extension education is the satisfaction that comes to the people and their family members as the result of solving a problem, meeting a need, acquiring a new skill or some other changes in behavior. Satisfaction is thus the key to success in extension work.
- x) **The evaluation principle:** Extension is based upon the scientific methods of development and it needs constant evaluation. The effectiveness of the work is measured in terms of the changes brought about in the knowledge, skills, attitude and adoption behaviour of the people, but not merely in terms of achievement of physical targets.
- xi) **Principle of democratic approach:** Extension education is based upon the democratic principle of discussions and suggestions. Participation of people in extension activities is voluntary and development interventions are carried out based on the perceived needs of the people.

**Check Your Progress**

- Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.  
b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”.
- 6) Explain, in brief, the philosophy of extension education?

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- 7) What are the principles of extension education?

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**1.4 APPROACHES TO EXTENSION EDUCATION**

Having studied the concept, philosophy and principles of extension, we will now focus our discussion on the approaches to extension education. There is no one particular approach that suits to all situations. In other words, approach varies depending upon the situation. Following are the important approaches to extension education.

**1.4.1 Systems Approach**

The prominent features of a system include: the organizational structure, the choice of clientele, the operational design and the methods used. These are directly influenced by the goals of an organization, and hence, must be evaluated in terms of their contribution to goal achievement.

The goals of extension may vary, within the overall system as well as between different extension organizations. The objectives and the approaches adopted for achieving them must fit into the organisational framework. In this context, Axinn’s principal observation is of particular importance: “The success of an agricultural extension programme tends to be directly related to the extent to which its approach fits the programme goals for which it was established” (Axinn, 1988).

The alternatives to organizing extension demand choices in many respects such as the following:

- Public versus private.
- Government versus non-government.
- Top-down (bureaucratic) versus bottom-up (participatory).
- Profit versus non-profit.
- Free versus cost-recovery.
- General versus sector.
- Multi-purpose versus single-purpose.
- Technology-driven versus need-oriented.

In practice, extension organizations everywhere pursue the overall goals of technology transfer and human resource development. Within each organization, there is a mix of objectives and organizational patterns including the approaches that target particular clientele purposefully selected according to specific criteria. Axinn (1988) defines 8 different approaches to agricultural extension in terms of their advantages. They are given in Table 1.2 below.

**Table 1.2: Approaches to Agricultural Extension**

| Sl. No | Type of Approach               | Principle Advantages                                                                                                                                                                                                        |
|--------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1.     | General Agricultural Extension | Most popular; can easily transfer government policy to rural areas; typically covers the whole country; control by central government.                                                                                      |
| 2.     | Specialized commodity          | Technology “fits” the production problems; timeliness of delivery; easier to monitor and evaluate.                                                                                                                          |
| 3.     | Training and visit             | Forces an integration of extension programming; better training of extension workers.                                                                                                                                       |
| 4.     | Participatory                  | Better done by local farmers when they participate in developing programme goals; increased relevance of extension message; better two-way communications between farmers and extension workers.                            |
| 5.     | Project                        | More focused approach; can give quick results; can try novel approaches; better evaluation.                                                                                                                                 |
| 6.     | Farming systems                | Better fit of extension message because of partnership among farmers, researchers and extension workers in researching and developing local answer; since farmers help to develop answer, they are more likely to adopt it. |
| 7.     | Cost-sharing                   | Local control increases relevance of message; higher rates of adoption; more economical for funding agency.                                                                                                                 |
| 8.     | Educational Institution        | Mutual benefits to extension workers (more science) and scientists (more practical) in developing extension program; access to research.                                                                                    |

The above approaches can be categorized into the following broad approaches along with specific approaches under each of them.

## 1.4.2 General Clientele Approaches

The general clientele approaches are again of different types such as the following.

- i) **Ministry-based General Extension:** In the early days of independence, many African and Asian governments organized agricultural extension work under the wings of their ministries of agriculture. All options for reaching large number of clients and serving their needs in terms of quality information and assistance were open. The original colonial model combined research and extension within the same organization. All important aspects of small-holder agriculture — plant production, animal husbandry, home economics — could be attended to as the ministry established respective sections under its jurisdiction. The fact that the ministerial hierarchy followed the country's territorial subdivision allowed the systematic expansion of the system “down” to the village. The generalist nature of field extension staff functions corresponded to the set of problems faced by non-commercial growers. To cater to specific needs — in terms of technology or in terms of target groups — specialists could be employed. Thus, clientele included in principle all persons engaged in agriculture. Commercial service and support organizations lacking village-level extension staff could be expected to supplement information by rendering services necessary to apply it productively. A uniform and nation-wide organizational pattern seemed to facilitate information flow including the infusion of expatriate expertise and corrective measures whenever weaknesses were identified. Public interest was to guide goal-setting, programme formulation, and the implementation of field work.

One disadvantage of the general extension *approach* is that it is usually and fairly centralized and government-controlled. It assumes that the technology and knowledge appropriate to local people do exist but the same are not being used by them. On the other hand, success is measured in the adoption rate of recommendations and increase in national production.

*Training and Visit Approach to Extension (T & V):* T & V is not a separate approach but one way to organize ministry-based extension. T & V was originally meant to solve some very specific problems of conventional extension services. T & V concentrates on *contact farmers* expected to pass information on to fellow farmers with similar problems. Fixed *visits at regular intervals* are prescribed to ensure regular field contacts, facilitate supervision and communication and set clear and attainable objectives. Similarly, regular sessions for extension workers to receive *training* and discuss administrative matters are held. Thus, costly refresher courses are avoided, knowledge is enhanced step-by-step, and up-to-date information is fed into the system.

In addition, T & V operates under the assumption that its extension workers are exclusively engaged in educational activities and that a unified extension service exists. Agricultural research must not only be effective but also work in close collaboration with extension. Both external and internal evaluations are to be used to constantly modify and adapt the system to the changing conditions.

The training and visit approach is thus fairly centralized and is based on a rigorously planned schedule of visits to farmers, training of agents and subject matter specialists. Close links are maintained between research and

extension. Agents are only involved in technology-transfer. Success is related to increases in the production of particular crops or commodities.

- ii) ***The Integrated (Project) Approach:*** Integrated approaches aim at influencing the entire rural development process. Extension is the strategy which targets the entire population in a given area and emphasizes work with rural and disadvantaged groups. Integrated approaches are generally implemented in the form of large-scale and foreign-funded projects aiming at alleviating mass poverty in rural areas on the basis of “a simultaneous improvement in the utilization of natural resources and of human potential” (Rauch, 1993). Measures to promote production are coupled with a strong emphasis on self-help. The underlying concept is multi-sectoral.

Recent efforts to improve regional rural development (RRD) projects and enhance chances for a broad and sustainable impact are relevant for all general extension approaches (Ibid). The key concept is the availability of locally adapted solutions established on a common basis. This requires participatory technology and an active and co-operative role between the change agency and different institutions involved. An emphasis is laid on dealing with adverse framework conditions, explicitly taking them into account and attempting to influence them in favour of the clients. Finally, in order to achieve these improvements, new efforts are made to specify and operationalize extension objectives and concepts: sustainability, participation, gender-specific target-group approach and poverty alleviation.

This approach concentrates efforts on a particular location, for a specific time period, often with outside resources. Part of its purpose is often to demonstrate techniques and methods that could be extended and sustained after the project period. Change in the short-term is often a measure of success.

- iii) ***University-based Extension:*** While the Co-operative Extension Service (CES) of the United States is still the only system in which the main extension function remains within the University, some developing countries, notably India, have integrated educational institutions into practical extension work. Within the United States of America, state universities have traditionally cooperated with local counties and the U. S. Department of Agriculture in doing extension besides education and research. Within the last 130 years, extension goals of the land-grant colleges have shifted from practical education to technology-transfer and, more recently, to a much broader concept of human resource development.

With the emergence of strong private and other public sector research and development organizations and dramatic changes within the agricultural production sector, CES is facing new challenges with regard to coordination and cooperation. Apart from its traditional roles, *networking* will become a primary role (Bennet, 1990). In this model, industry as well as intermediate and end-users of knowledge become part of the extension system.

While in most countries, the main contribution of educational institutions to extension will be the training of qualified, dedicated and responsible personnel, some Indian agricultural universities have come close to the U. S. model without taking over the full load of extension work. In the field, they have taken over functions which are only inadequately performed by

the ministry, thus supporting general extension work. Remarkable features are direct assessment of clients' needs, user-oriented research, quality training for state personnel, and a strong linkage between academic education and field practice. Models vary from state to state.

This approach is also used by other educational institutions which have technical knowledge and some research ability to provide extension services for rural people. Planning and implementation are often controlled by those who determine school curricula. The emphasis is often on the transfer of technical knowledge.

- iv) **Animation Rurale Approach:** For a historically short period, the concept of Animation Rurale (AR) gained importance in francophone African countries such as Senegal, Ivory Coast, and Madagascar (de Wilde, 1967; and Joerges, 1967). Animation Rurale was an answer to the authoritarian and often repressive nature of intervention before independence. Developed originally by the French Institut de Recherches et d'Application des Méthodes de Développement (IRAM), it shows many parallels to the Brazilian experiments of Paulo Freire.

Integration of rural areas into the national system was to be achieved by initiating a dialogue between rural communities (*collectivities*) and the state. In a dialectical way, increasing competence of villagers to express their own needs was to liberate them from colonial dependence. In order to initiate and perpetuate this process, AR relied on a large number of voluntary collaborators, called *animateurs*. Selected by the villagers themselves these *animateurs* had to be experienced and well-respected farmers but not traditional leaders. Training, supervision, and support of *animateurs* were organized by the Ministry of Rural Development. Their task was to initiate discussions within the community on local needs and objectives, thus empowering rural people for a dialogue with the state. At the same time, they were to "interpret" government plans to the villagers and acquaint them with services available. The long-term perspective was a replacement of traditional institutions and creation of "development cells" to negotiate contracts with the state bureaucracy.

### 1.4.3 Selected-Clientele Approaches

The selected-clientele approaches to extension are flexible depending upon the specific / selected clientele or the nature of extension suited to them.

- i) **Commodity-based Extension:** Commodity-based extension run by government or private firms is the most commonly followed approach to extension organization. Clients may be dispersed over a large area or closely connected, as in the case of large, centrally operated irrigation projects. Commodity-based extension is the predominant feature in many francophone countries of Africa (Schulz, 1973), but is also strong in other countries with commercial or export crops.

The original rationale for this approach was the generation of revenue as well as the assured supply of tropical products for the colonial powers. All aspects of producing and marketing a particular crop are vertically integrated, spanning the whole range from research, advice and material support given to farmers, to organizing marketing and even exports. Proponents of the

approach argue that, by infusing modern technologies and monetary incentives into traditional farming a cumulative chain of effects is triggered, thus, contributing to overall development.

Advantage of this approach is that the objectives and the targets can be clearly defined and the organizational structure kept simple. The focus on only one or two crops and facilitating training of extension workers who are agents of the society were broad concerns. Control of agents and farmers is easy because they are judged in terms of defined targets.

The key characteristic of this approach is to group all the functions for increased production — extension, research, input supply, marketing and prices — under one administration. Extension is fairly centralized and is oriented towards one commodity or crop and the agent has many functions.

- ii) ***Extension as a Commercial Service:*** Commercial extension is a recent phenomenon and modern side of the traditional agriculture. It may be part of either the sales strategy of input supply firms or a specialized consultancy service demanded by an agricultural producer. In both the cases, the goal of the organization or the individual is profit earning, which in turn is tied very closely to customer satisfaction. Most directly, this is the case for private consultants who will be retired only if their clients feel that expenses made have been profitable. Large input supply firms or rural banks that use their own extension workers as sales personnel must also have a long-term perspective with regard to the competitiveness of their products and services. Negative effects of incorrect application or use will be attributed to the product itself. The clients of commercial extension will also be profit-oriented. Their objective is the optimal utilization of purchased inputs or contracted expertise.

The emergence of commercial extension has influenced the debate on who should bear the costs of extension. With escalating budget deficits, the idea of extension as a free public service is no longer being generally accepted. It is argued that those who can afford it should actually pay for advisory services. In the case of commercial input suppliers, the solution is very simple: the costs of extension are included in the product price, as are the costs for research or advertisement. Private consultancy, on the other hand, is costly and affordable only to either large-scale or highly specialized producers.

As a general trend, public extension in industrialized countries has been under pressure to introduce cost-sharing or altogether commercialize advisory work. Privatization and cost-sharing are propagated in the name of greater effectiveness and efficiency, but are largely influenced by financial constraints. It is obvious that the private sector will be active only in case of reasonable returns and they will not be concerned with public interest issues.

Because of the selective participation of the private sector, the provision of public good types of information will have to remain a public sector responsibility ... public and non-profit organizations ... will have to work together to satisfy the needs of those in “orphan” areas. (Umali and Schwartz, 1994).

This approach assumes that cost-sharing with local people (who do not have the means to pay the full cost) will promote a programme that is more likely to meet local situations and where extension agents are more accountable to local interests. Its purpose is to provide advice and information to facilitate farmers' self-improvement. Success is often measured by the willingness to pay.

- iii) ***Client-based and Client-controlled Extension:*** One way of dealing with the shortcomings of large extension systems has been to localize extension and utilize the self-help potential of rural groups. Often organized by outsiders, these decentralized approaches are in a better position to serve the needs of specific target groups, notably those in disadvantaged positions. Close contact with their clients and intimate knowledge of their life situations are essential for planning of the problem-oriented extension activities. Local personalities are identified who take over leader-functions once the external (non-governmental) organization withdraws. The principles of these organizations (awareness, empowerment, participation, self-help) are close to the philosophy of Animation Rurale without the national dimension.

The impact of client-based approaches is that they provide benefits to their clients directly. The diversity and large number of small projects forbid a general statement on their effectiveness in terms of human resource development. It appears, however, that their weakness lies more in the technical field (UNDP, 1991). Besides, they can reach only a very limited number of people. Apart from this, they perform an important role as organizational innovators. They have proved that participation can work in practice and that many farmers are highly competent partners in technology development. Government extension services have been forced to rethink their top-down approach, to accept human resource development as an equally important extension goal, and to address the problems of rural women.

This approach often focuses on the expressed needs of farmers' groups and its goal is increased production and an improved quality of rural life. Implementation is often decentralized and flexible. Success is measured by the number of farmers actively participating and the sustainability of local extension organizations.

### **Check Your Progress**

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

- b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions".

- 8) List out the broad approaches to extension education?

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## 1.5 PRACTICE OF EXTENSION EDUCATION IN INDIA: A BRIEF OVERVIEW

In this section, we present you a brief overview of the practice of extension including its institutionalization in India.

### 1.5.1 The Indian Extension System: Phases and Programmes

Extension system in India cuts into various sectors. In the Indian context, there are four major organizational streams or systems devoted to extension work for development of various sub-sectors. These streams are:

- i) **First Line Extension System:** This comprises mainly of Union and State Ministries; Research Councils and their Research Institutes functioning under various Ministries, National and State Institutes for Development of different sectors and Central and State Universities.
- ii) **Second or Middle Level Extension System:** It comprises mainly of State Departments for Development.
- iii) **Third Level Extension System:** It comprises mainly Village Level Extension Workers under State Departments.
- iv) **Development Extension Work by Non-Government Organizations, Voluntary Organizations, Business and Corporate Houses.**

A broad overview of the extension organizations established under these four streams or systems is given in the following table.

**Table 1.3: Streams of Extension System and Organisations thereunder**

| Extension System                        | Organizations                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       |
|-----------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| First Line Extension System             | Union and State Ministries of Agriculture, Rural Development, Health & Family Welfare.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
|                                         | Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR), Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR), Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR). Indian Council for Social Science Research (ICSSR), Indian Council for Forestry Research (ICFR).                                                                                                                                   |
|                                         | National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD), National Institute for Health and Family Welfare (NIHFW), National Institute for Agricultural Extension Management (MANAGE), Central Research Institute for Dry-land Agriculture (CRIDA), National Remote Sensing Agency (NRSA), National Plant Protection Training Institute (NPPTI), National Research Centre for Soybean (NRCS), |
|                                         | Central Universities, State Agricultural Universities, State Health Universities, General Universities.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
| Second or Middle Level Extension System | State Departments of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Environment, Panchayat Raj and Rural Development, Revenue, Health and Family Welfare, Education, Energy, State Institutes for Rural Development (SIRD).                                                                                                                                                                         |
| Third Level Extension System            | Village Level Extension Workers for various line Departments.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       |
| NGOs and Voluntary Organizations        | Council for Advancement of People's Action and Rural Technology (CAPART).                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                           |

The list of institutions mentioned above is not exhaustive and there are many more involved in extension education. Since independence, the Government of India has been establishing various organizations over the years as part of many extension programmes launched under different streams mentioned above. Different extension programmes for development launched in Indian can be classified under the following four distinct stages.

- Community Development
- Technological Development
- Development with Social Justice
- Infrastructure Development

Some important extension programmes with commonly used abbreviation and year of their initiation, are presented in the table below.

**Table 1.4: Important Extension Programmes of India**

| Stage/<br>Year                              | Popular<br>Abbreviation of<br>the programme | Name of the Extension and Development<br>Programme/Project/Scheme |
|---------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>I. Community Development</b>             |                                             |                                                                   |
| 1952                                        | CDP                                         | Community Development Programme                                   |
| 1953                                        | NES                                         | National Extension Services                                       |
| 1954                                        | CDB                                         | Community Development Block                                       |
| 1957                                        | Panchayati Raj                              | Democratic Decentralization                                       |
| <b>II. Technological Development</b>        |                                             |                                                                   |
| 1960                                        | IADP                                        | Intensive Agricultural District Programme                         |
| 1964                                        | IAAP                                        | Intensive Agricultural Area Programme                             |
| 1964-1966                                   | ICDP                                        | Intensive Cattle Development Project                              |
| 1966                                        | HYVP                                        | High-Yielding Varieties Programme                                 |
| <b>III. Development with Social Justice</b> |                                             |                                                                   |
| 1951                                        | NFWP                                        | National Family Welfare Programme                                 |
| 1970-1971                                   | SFDA                                        | Small Farmers Development Agency                                  |
|                                             | MFAL                                        | Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Laborers Programme              |
|                                             | DPAP                                        | Drought Prone Areas Programme                                     |
| 1972-1973                                   | PPTD                                        | Pilot Project for Tribal Development                              |
| 1974                                        | T & V                                       | Training and Visit Programme                                      |
| 1978-1979                                   | IRD                                         | Integrated Rural Development Programme                            |
| 1979                                        | TRYSEM                                      | Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment                       |
| 1980                                        | NREP                                        | National Rural Employment Programme                               |
| 1982                                        | DWCRA                                       | Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas                  |
| 1983                                        | NAEP                                        | National Agriculture Extension Project                            |
| 1986                                        | CAPART                                      | Council for Advancement of People's Action and Rural Technology   |
| 1986                                        | TMO                                         | Technology Mission on Oilseeds                                    |

|                                       |       |                                          |
|---------------------------------------|-------|------------------------------------------|
| 1989                                  | JRY   | Jawahar Rozgar Yojana                    |
| 1993                                  | EAS   | Employment Assurance Scheme              |
| 1994                                  | DPEP  | District Primary Education Programme     |
| 1994                                  | SFAC  | Small Farmers Agri-business Consortium   |
| 1994                                  | PPP   | Pulse Polio Programme                    |
| 1999                                  | SGSY  | Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana      |
| 2005                                  | NRHM  | National Rural Health Mission            |
| <b>IV. Infrastructure Development</b> |       |                                          |
| 1999                                  | NATP  | National Agricultural Technology Project |
| 2004                                  | PURA  | Providing Urban Amenities in Rural Areas |
| 2006                                  | NAIP  | National Agricultural Innovation Project |
| 2006                                  | NREGA | National Rural Employment Guarantee Act. |

We have provided you the glimpse of various programmes of extension launched in India along with variety of institutions involved in implementation. We will discuss more details about the extension programmes in Unit-2 titled “Development of Extension Education in India”.

## 1.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have focused on the concept, components, objectives and scope of extension education. We looked at the changing meaning and interpretation of extension over a period of time and in different parts of the globe. We have touched upon the interrelationship between extension and development and the outcome of the extension process. We have discussed the philosophy, the key principles and process of extension. We have also discussed different approaches to extension. We have presented a brief structure of the Indian extension system along with various agencies involved in it.

We hope and believe you got clarity about all the aspects discussed in this unit, which means, your journey through the units that follow will be smooth and progressively easier to understand them.

## 1.7 ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS’ QUESTIONS

- 1) Extension is a dynamic concept in the sense that the interpretation of it is always changing and is subject to a wide variety of interpretations. There is no universally accepted and precise definition of ‘extension’; but it can be described as a continual and changing process. However, we can rather sum up the concept of extension in the following statements.
  - Extension is an informal and non-formal educational process directed toward the rural population. This process offers advice and information to help them solve their problems. Extension also aims at increasing the efficiency of the family farm and increasing production in particular and increasing the standard of living of the farm family in general.

- The objective of extension is to change farmers' outlook toward their difficulties. Extension is concerned not just with physical and economic achievements but also with the development of the rural people themselves. Extension agents, therefore, discuss matters with the rural people, help them to gain a clearer insight into their problems and also to decide upon the means of overcoming their problems.
- Extension is a process of working with rural people in order to improve their livelihoods. It involves helping farmers to improve the productivity of their agriculture and also developing their abilities to direct their own future development.

2) The meaning of extension terminology in five selected countries is as follows.

| Country | Local terminology                 | Meaning                                    |
|---------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|
| Arabic  | Al-Ershad                         | Guidance                                   |
| Dutch   | Voorlichting                      | Lighting the path                          |
| German  | Berating/Aufklarung/<br>Erziehung | Advisory work /<br>Enlightenment/Education |
| French  | Vulgarization                     | Simplification                             |
| Spanish | Capacitacion                      | Improving skills                           |

3) Differences between formal education and extension education are given below:

| Formal Education                          | Extension Education                                                                                                         |
|-------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Starts with theory & works up to practice | Starts with practices & may take up theory later on                                                                         |
| Students study subjects                   | People study problems                                                                                                       |
| Fixed curriculum offered                  | No fixed curriculum or course of study & people help to formulate the curriculum                                            |
| Authority rests with the teacher          | Authority rests with the people                                                                                             |
| Attendance is compulsory                  | Participation is voluntary                                                                                                  |
| Teacher instructs the students            | Extension worker teaches & also learns from the people                                                                      |
| Teaching is only through instructors      | Teaching is also through local leaders                                                                                      |
| Teaching is mainly vertical               | Teaching is mainly horizontal                                                                                               |
| More or less homogeneous audience         | Heterogeneous audience                                                                                                      |
| Rigid                                     | Flexible                                                                                                                    |
| Pre-planned & pre-decided programmes      | Freedom to develop programmes locally based on the development needs & expressed desires of the stakeholders of development |
| More theoretical                          | More practical and & intended for immediate application in' the solution of problems.                                       |

- 4) Following are the steps involved in the process of extension education.
  - i) *Analyzing the situation*: This requires collection of a large amount of facts about all aspects of the situation where extension work is to be taken up. Information is needed about the peoples' interests, education, their needs, social customs, farming systems, water bodies, other resources, etc. This information helps in identifying a suitable developmental programme to overcome the problems.
  - ii) *Setting the objectives or goals to be accomplished*: The beneficiaries of development programmes must be involved in setting the objectives which should state the behavioural changes in people as well as the economic and social outcomes desired.
  - iii) *Teaching*: It is the process of arranging the learning situations for the people; their interest is developed, and a desire for change is aroused i.e. they are stimulated for action for their development.
  - iv) *Evaluating the teaching*: Plans for evaluation should be built into the plans of work during earlier phases. Evaluation is undertaken to determine the extent to which the objectives have been reached.
  - v) *Reconsidering*: This step consists of a review of efforts and results which reveal a new situation. If this new situation shows the need for further work then the whole process may begin again, with new or modified objectives.
- 5) *Scope of extension education*: The scope of extension encompasses different efforts that enable the deprived and the needy people in rural and remote areas to have high standards of development i.e. to achieve better living standards and quality of life. Extension deals with the problems, issues and aspects concerning development of people and implementation of relevant programmes. Therefore, scope of extension is very vast and diverse and has lot of relevance for development. Extension is the connecting link (process) between people and development (outcome) – social, political, economic and cultural — which together form the basis for human development.
- 6) Extension philosophy broadens the vision of the individuals to set realistic goals, to work towards opportunities and to realise the goals by enlisting the co-operation of those who aim to develop individuals, community and the nation. According to Mildred Horton (1952) the principles of philosophy of extension include the following: a) The individual is supreme in a democracy; b) The home is the fundamental unit in a civilization; c) The family is the first training group of the human race; d) The foundation of any permanent civilization must rest on the partnership of man and land (nature). Ensminger's (1961) philosophy of extension enlarges it by laying special emphasis on the following: i) Changing attitudes, knowledge and skills of the people; ii) Working with men and women, young people, boys and girls to address their needs and wants; iii) Helping people to help themselves; iv) "Learning by doing" and "seeing is believing"; v) Development of individuals, their leaders, their society, and their world as a whole; vi) Working in harmony with the culture of the people; vii) A two-way channel of communication; and viii) A continuous educational process.

But, the philosophy of the State regarding extension can be looked at from different perspectives as follows. i) *Extension is an economic necessity* – for a stable, productive, and contented development of rural population and to reduce inequalities of income between the urban and the rural people – which serves the economic objectives of the nation; ii) *Extension is based upon research*: Research discovers, invents and develops science and technology; it is the source of new information. Extension imparts necessary information and promotes adoption of technology for development; iii) *Extension bases its programs on needs of the people* – paves the way for their progress by enabling them to reap the benefits of the relevant programmes; iv) *Extension is an education process* – involves no coercion of any sort – inspire clientele and create a desire in them for more efficient production and better living conditions in rural areas. Education is necessary for highly effective extension work through cooperation of all the concerned.

7) According to Dhama and Bhatnagar (2009) following are the principles of extension which are necessary for an extension and development professional.

- *Principle of interest and need*: Extension work must be based on the needs and interests of the people.
- *Principle of cultural difference*: Extension work is based on the cultural background of the people with whom the work is done. The extension worker has to know the level of the knowledge and the skills of the people, the methods and tools used by them, their customs, traditions, beliefs, values, etc., before starting the extension programme.
- *Principle of participation*: Extension helps people to help themselves. Actual participation and the experience of involvement create self-confidence in the people and they learn more by doing.
- *Principle of adaptability*: Extension programme should be flexible, so that necessary changes can be made whenever needed to meet varying conditions of people and their groups.
- *The grassroots principle of organization*: Should encourage participation of more and more people at the grassroots level.
- *The leadership principle*: The selection and training of local leaders to involve them in extension work is essential for the success of the development programme as people have more faith in local leaders.
- *The whole-family principle*: Extension work will have a better chance of success if the extension workers have a whole-family approach instead of piecemeal approach / separate approach. Extension work is therefore, for the whole family.
- *Principle of co-operation*: Extension is a joint venture in which people cooperate with their village, block and state officials to pursue a common development cause.
- *Principle of satisfaction*: The end product of the effort of extension teaching is the satisfaction that comes to the people and their family members as the result of solving a problem, meeting a need, acquiring a new skill, or some other changes in behavior.

- *The evaluation principle:* The effectiveness of the extension work is measured in terms of the changes brought about in the knowledge, skills, attitude and adoption behaviour of the people, but not merely in terms of achievement of physical targets.
- *Principle of democratic approach:* Participation of people in extension activities is voluntary and development interventions are carried out on democratic principle and based on the perceived needs of the people.

8) Following are the important approaches to extension education.

- i) **Systems Approach:** The alternatives to organizing extension demand choices on various levels:
  - Public versus private.
  - Government versus non-government.
  - Top-down (bureaucratic) versus bottom-up (participatory).
  - Profit versus non-profit.
  - Free versus cost-recovery.
  - General versus sector.
  - Multi-purpose versus single-purpose.
  - Technology-driven versus need-oriented.
- ii) **General Clientele Approaches:** These approaches include: a) Ministry-based General Extension, b) The Integrated (Project) Approach, c) University-based Extension, and d) Animation Rurale Approach.
- iii) **Selected-Clientele Approach:** These approaches are: a) Commodity-based Extension, b) Extension as a Commercial Service, and c) Client-based and Client-controlled Extension.

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# **UNIT 2 DEVELOPMENT OF EXTENSION EDUCATION IN INDIA**

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## **Structure**

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- 2.1 Objectives
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    - 2.2.1.1 Famine Commission (1866)
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  - 2.5.7 Integrated Tribal Development Agency (ITDA) (1971-1972)
  - 2.5.8 Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP) (1973-74)
  - 2.5.9 Training and Visit System (T & V System) (1974)
  - 2.5.10 Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) (1978-1979)

- 2.5.11 Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM) (1979)
- 2.5.12 Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCR) (1982)
- 2.5.13 National Agriculture Extension Project (1983)
- 2.5.14 Technology Mission on Oilseeds (1986)
- 2.5.15 Watershed Development Programme (WSDP) (1987)
- 2.5.16 Jawahar Rojgar Yojana (JRY) (1989)
- 2.5.17 Rastriya Mahila Khosh (RMK) (1993)
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- 2.5.19 Pulse Polio Programme (1995)
- 2.5.20 Institute-Village Linkage Programme (IVLP) (1995-96)
- 2.5.21 Agricultural Human Resource Development Programme (AHRDP) (1995)
- 2.5.22 National Agricultural Technology Project (NATP) (1998)
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- 2.5.23 Market-led Extension (1999-2000)
- 2.5.24 Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) (1999)
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- 2.5.26 National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) (2005-2012)
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- 2.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.7 Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions
- 2.8 References

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## **2.0 INTRODUCTION**

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In this Unit, we attempt to present you the historical development of extension education in India. Agricultural extension work, an important force in agricultural change, has a venerable, albeit largely unrecorded history. It is a significant social innovation which has been created, adapted and developed over the centuries. Its evolution extends over nearly four thousand years, although its modern forms are largely a product of the past two centuries. Today, the organizations and the personnel engaged in agricultural extension encompass a diverse range of socially sanctioned and legitimate activities which seek to enlarge and improve the abilities of not only the farm people but different sections of population to adopt more appropriate and often new practices as well as to adjust to changing conditions and societal needs.

Extension education in India aimed at the integrated development of rural, remote and underdeveloped areas of the country, is of relatively recent origin (1952-53). Its administrative set-up had begun for agricultural development in India, as the outcome of several reforms and efforts made over years. It had its beginning in the 1860's and basically started with the focus on agricultural development work. For the purpose of our discussion, we divide the development of extension education into the following four stages.

- Stage I : Pre-independence era (1866-1947).
- Stage II : Post-independence era (1947-1953).
- Stage III : Community Development and Extension Service era (1953-1960).
- Stage IV : Intensive Agricultural Development era (1960 onwards).

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## 2.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through this Unit, it is expected that you will be able to:

- Describe the historical efforts in extension since pre-independence era;
- Compare and analyse the significance and shortcomings of the extension efforts in different stages / eras;
- Explain the differences between Community Development and Extension Education programmes; and
- Appreciate the increasing need and diversity of the extension programmes and the concomitant administrative changes including democratic decentralisation aimed at effective implementation of the programmes.

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## 2.2 STAGE-I: PRE-INDEPENDENCE ERA (1866-1947)

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In this section, we focus on agricultural extension in India in the pre-independence period. This period had witnessed many famine commissions leading to the birth of the Department of Agriculture and many efforts of rural reconstruction which are discussed below.

### 2.2.1 Birth of the Department of Agriculture

The Department of Agriculture owes its origin to different Commissions which are discussed below.

#### 2.2.1.1 Famine Commission (1866)

The history of agricultural administration in India dates back to the year 1866, when the Famine Commission was appointed after the great famine in Bengal and Orissa in 1866. Later, in 1869, the representation made by the Manchester Cotton Supply Association for improvement of cotton and for a separate Department of Agriculture provided a stimulus for a serious consideration of the question of agricultural improvement. As a result of these efforts, the Department of Revenue, Agriculture and Commerce, as one department, commenced to function as a branch of the Secretariat of the Government of India in June 1871, and continued to do so until 1879 when the financial stringency necessitated a reshuffling of the portfolios. However, this Department could not exercise any real influence on the problems of agricultural development except the collection of simple agricultural statistics (Adivireddy, 1997).

#### 2.2.1.2 Famine Commission (1880)

As the recurrence of famine in India appeared unavoidable, the Famine Commission of 1880 strongly recommended for establishment of the Department of Agriculture at the Centre under the control of a Secretary and for simultaneous formation, in every province, of a Department of Agriculture with a large subordinate establishment working under an executive officer. The proposals of this commission powerfully influenced the Government's decision for agrarian reform in India for the next twenty years. Consequently, a new Secretariat for Agriculture came up in 1881, and by 1882 Agricultural Departments in most of

the States started functioning. At the centre, the Department was known as the Imperial Department of Agriculture, headed by the Inspector General of Agriculture (Ibid).

### **2.2.1.3 Famine Commission (1901)**

The next great advance was made as a result of the report of the Famine Commission of 1901. The following were the main outcomes of this report (Ibid).

- Imperial Agricultural Research Institute at Pusa was established which marked the beginning of an organized agricultural research.
- An Agricultural College was also started at Pusa institute with an experimental farm.
- The link between colleges (as other colleges were started later on) and the districts was to be provided by experimental farms.
- Scientific and expert staff was entertained in the Departments of Agriculture by creation of posts of Horticulturist and Agronomist, and
- The Indian Agriculture Service was constituted at the Centre.

The Government of India Act of 1919 empowered the transfer of all the departments closely connected with rural development to the major provinces and agricultural development became a State subject. Subsequently, based on the recommendations of the Royal Commission of 1924, recruitment to the Indian Agricultural Service ceased to function.

## **2.2.2 Efforts of Rural Reconstruction**

Diversified efforts aimed at rural reconstruction have also contributed significantly to the development of extension in India. Some of the salient efforts are as follows.

### **2.2.2.1 Sir Daniel Hamilton's Scheme of Rural Reconstruction (1903)**

In 1903, Sir Daniel Hamilton formed a scheme to create model villages, in an area in urban Bengal, based on cooperative principles. He organised one village of this type and set up one Cooperative Credit Society which functioned up to 1916. In 1924, he organised a Central Cooperative Bank and Cooperative Marketing Society and established a Rural Reconstruction Institute in 1934. The Institute provided training facilities in cottage and subsidiary industries (Adivireddy, 1997).

### **2.2.2.2 Rural Reconstruction Institute, Shriniketan (1921)**

Shri Rabindra Nath Tagore, under his scheme of rural development work, started youth organizations in the villages in the Kaligram Pargana of his Zamindari with the help of K. Elmhirst. He tried to create a class of functionary workers who could learn to identify themselves with the people. In 1921, he established a Rural Reconstruction Institute at Shantiniketan and called it as Shriniketan. A group of eight villages was the centre of the programme. The activities of the institute were development of agriculture, cooperatives, industries and education through village organisations. His emphasis was on education as it will change the outlook of the people and focused on the slogan of 'Education for all'. Following were the objectives of the programme:

- To create a real interest in people for rural welfare work;
- To study rural problems and to translate conclusions into action;
- To help villagers develop their resources; and
- To improve village sanitation.

These objectives were desired to be achieved by: a) Creating a spirit of “self help and mutual help” b) Developing village leadership, c) Organizing village scouts called Brati Balika, d) Establishing training centres for handicrafts, and e) Establishing a demonstration centre at Shantiniketan.

Under its agricultural programme, the Institute conducted demonstrations in the farmers’ holdings on improved practices; established a dairy to supply pure milk and better animals to the farmers for breeding; and established a poultry farm for the same purpose. The students and workers from the institute trained weavers, organised their cooperatives and provided facilities for training in tanning, pottery, embroidery, tailoring, etc. The institute could not get much help from the government and it could not conduct research work, so its work remained limited to the eight villages only.

### **2.2.2.3 Gandhi’s Scheme and Sevagram Project**

People know Gandhiji not only as a Mahatma, or a political leader and agitater, but also as a social and economic reformer. He made people knew that India lives in villages and that the common man’s uplift is the uplift of the country. Regarding development work in the country, he emphasized that, the “Salvation of India lies in Cottages”. The key words of his economy are: i) Decentralized production and equal distribution of wealth, ii) Equal distribution of wealth brought about not by the cruel process of extermination but through the hearts of the owners by persuasion and appeal to the better sense of man; and iii) Self-sufficiency of Indian villages. He laid emphasis on the self-sufficiency of Indian villages as: a) he wanted to eradicate the class of middlemen / exploiters so that the farmer could get the full price for his produce, and b) he wanted that the tiller should be able to consume his own products like fruits, milk, vegetables, etc.

For the emancipation of villagers, he formulated an 18-point programme, which included the promotion of village industries, basic and adult education, rural sanitation, uplift of backward tribes, uplift of women, education in public health and hygiene, propagation of national language, love for the mother tongue, economic equality, organisation of Kisans, labourers and students, and so on. He sought to make the villagers self-sufficient and to develop in them that moral stamina which was essential to stand up against oppression and injustice. Truly speaking, the Gandhian constructive programme was a movement of the people, by the people and for the people. His small works became big organisations and institutions, and the simple ideas of that time became philosophies. His emphasis on Khadi became the Charkha movement and then, the All-India Khadi and Village Industries Board. His thought, against untouchability and the caste system, resulted in the organisation of Harijan Sewak Sangh. Similar mention may be made of Hindustani Prachar Sangh, Sarvodaya, Bhudan Movement, etc. He created leaders like Vinoba, Nehru, Jayaprakash Narayan, Mira Ben, etc., who came from common stock, but got inspiration from Gandhiji. The Satyagrah Ashram at Sabarmati, and later Sevagram in Wardha, became not only places of training but of pilgrimage (Dahama and Bhatnagar, 2007).

#### 2.2.2.4 Marthandam (1921)

It was set up under the auspices of Y.M.C.A. (Young Men's Christian Association) in Travancore in 1921. It was intended to symbolize the three-fold development of spirit, mind and body, and evolved a five-sided programme, representing a development, not only spiritual, mental and physical, but also economic and social. The pioneer in this work was Dr. Spencer Hatch, an American agricultural expert. The essential technique of the centre was 'Self-help with intimate expert counsel'. From the demonstration centre at Marthandam, about hundred villages were covered through Y.M.C.A. centres in villages. The extension secretary supervised the work. Marthandam was in a strategic position to serve the villages. It kept bulls and goats, model bee-hives, demonstration plots for improving grain and vegetable seeds, poultry run with egg-laying hens, a weaving shed, etc. Inside the centre, there was equipment like honey extractors, health charts and the items needed for other cottage vocations. At the Centre, cottage vocations were taught and agricultural implements tested (Ray, 2007).

#### 2.2.2.5 Gurgaon Experiment (1927)

Rural uplift movement on a mass scale was first started during 1927 by Mr. F. L. Brayne, Deputy Commissioner in the Gurgaon district of Punjab, adjacent to Delhi. Under his programme, a village guide was posted in each village who was to act as a channel through which the advice of experts in various departments could be passed on to the villagers. Main objectives of the project were: increasing agricultural production, and improvement of health and home. The programme of introducing improved seeds, implements, methods of cultivation, etc., was started throughout the district. As these village guides were not technical men, very little of permanent value was achieved (Adivireddy, 1997).

#### 2.2.2.6 The Royal Commission Report 1928

The Royal Commission Report (1928) established a firm foundation for the coordinated research activity. It also imbibed the agricultural administration with a new life indicating ways and means to make the organization dynamic in its activities. The main observations and recommendations of this commission were:

- 1) The organization should be based on research for full measure of success. Interchange should be freely permitted between the administrative, research and teaching branches in the early years of service;
- 2) There should be a body for agricultural research at the national level for promotion, guidance and coordination of research work in India. It will also take up training of research workers, impart information on agriculture and allied areas and publication of scientific papers;
- 3) The Director of Agriculture should have in him the combination of administrative capacity and high scientific qualification; and
- 4) There should not be any restriction on the field recruitment to the superior provincial agricultural services in India.

### **2.2.2.7 Rural Reconstruction Programme in Baroda (1932)**

V. T. Krishnamachari in Baroda State conducted rural reconstruction programme in 1932. His programme aimed at developing a will to live better and to develop capacity for self-help and self-reliance. The programme included the items like improvement of communications, digging of water wells, distribution of seeds and establishment of Panchayats, Cooperatives, etc. (Adivireddy, 1997).

### **2.2.2.8 Firka Development Scheme of Madras State (1946)**

It was Government sponsored scheme aimed at attainment of the Gandhian ideal of Gram Swaraj by bringing about not only educational, economic, sanitary and other improvements in villages, but also by making the people self-confident. This programme was started by Madras Government under the leadership of Shri T. Prakasam. The scheme was launched in the last quarter of 1946 in 34 Firkas throughout the State, and on April 1, 1950, it was extended to another 50 additional Firkas, at the rate of two Firkas for each district. The selection of the Firkas was based on considerations of the general backwardness of the area. Main aim of the scheme was to make the people "self-sufficient and self-reliant". The scheme, which aimed at attacking the rural problems as a whole, as well as in parts, consisted of short-term plans for the development of rural communications, water supply, formation of Panchayats, organization of cooperatives and programmes for sanitation, and also long-term plans to make the area self-sufficient through agricultural, irrigational and livestock improvements, and the development of Khadi (hand-made cloth) and other Cottage Industries. Main outcome of the scheme was establishment of cooperative societies. It was later realized that these efforts were restricted in scope and lacked coordination; they proved ineffective owing largely to lack of direction, support and encouragement from the central authority (Dahama and Bhatnagar, 2007).

### **2.2.3 Shortcomings of the Extension Efforts in this Stage**

The extension efforts in this stage suffered from certain shortcomings. Important among these shortcomings are as follows (Adivireddy, 1997).

- Most of the efforts were of individual initiative.
- Government backing and financing was not forthcoming.
- Most of the efforts were isolated, uneven, and discontinuous.
- Staff was mostly inexperienced and untrained.
- Plans and programmes were ill-defined and unbalanced.
- No evaluation was carried out, hence results were not known.
- Association and coordination of other development Departments was limited.
- Involvement of people in planning and execution was limited.

### Check Your Progress

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under  
“Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”

- 1) Write in brief about the efforts of rural reconstruction in the pre-independence period.

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- 2) Mention the major shortcomings of the extension efforts of pre-independence era.

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## 2.3 STAGE-II: POST-INDEPENDENCE ERA (1947-1952)

In the beginning of post-independence era major focus has been on increasing the agricultural production with grow more food campaign as a popular programme.

### 2.3.1 Grow More Food Campaign (1947)

Grow More Food (GMF) Campaign was launched in the year 1947 as a major organized effort aimed at increasing the agricultural production in India. Under this programme additional staff was provided at District and Sub-divisional

(Taluka) levels. The need for coordinating the activities of the development departments was strongly felt and emphasized in 1949. But, even after four years of working of this programme, it was observed that the system was not functioning properly and cultivator's response towards the programme was very poor. Moreover, all the departments of rural development were working in isolation and reaching the people directly without any close coordination. A committee was appointed to enquire into the working of this programme and to suggest ways and means of improving it.

### **2.3.1.1 G. M. F. Enquiry Committee Report (1952)**

The main recommendations of the G. M. F. Enquiry Committee (1952) were:

- The administrative machinery of the Government should be reorganized and equipped for the efficient discharge of the duties imposed on it under the new concept of welfare state in India;
- The best non-official leadership available should be mobilized for guiding the 60 million farm families in the villages in their effort to improve their own conditions;
- An extension organization should be setup for rural work which would reach every farmer and assist in the coordinated development of all aspects of rural life;
- The pattern of staffing should consist of a B.D.O., four technical officers and twelve V. L.Ws. for a Tehsil or Taluk, with an average of 120 villages;
- The development activities at the District level will be under the Collector assisted by Specialists. The non-official side will consist of a District Board to which MPs and MLAs should be added as members.
- At the State level there should be a cabinet and a non-official board for facilitating joint action. The Development Commissioner should be in-charge of the entire rural development programme; and
- The economic aspect of village life cannot be detached from broader social aspect. Agricultural improvement is, in every respect, linked up with a whole set of social problems. All aspects of life are inter-related and no lasting results can be achieved if individual aspects of it are dealt with in isolation.

### **2.3.2 Etawah Project (1948-52)**

Several experiments in rural reconstruction under-taken by official and non-official agencies in the past contributed towards new thinking about reorganizing the set-up for rural development. It was during such time the Pilot Project in Rural Planning and Development, Etawah, played a key role and it can be regarded as a forerunner of the Community Development Projects in India. After an initial period of trial and error lasting over a year and a half, an administrative pattern was evolved which for the first time facilitated extension activities to percolate to the village level (Ray, 2007).

The activities of different development departments were channelized through one common agency and the concept of a Multipurpose Village Level Worker was started. The project was started in collaboration with U.P. Government and

central government by Albert Mayer. This project first started in 64 villages, was later extended to 97 villages. The major objective of the programme was to see degree of production and social improvement initiative and cooperation that could be attained from an average area.

### Check Your Progress

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions".

- 3) Write about Grow More Food Campaign and the recommendations of G. M. F. Enquiry Committee Report.

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- 4) Explain the efforts of Albert Mayer under Etawah Project.

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## 2.4 STAGE-III: COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE ERA (1952-60)

The developments under this era or stage are broadly discussed under the following two heads – Community Development and National Extension Service.

### 2.4.1 Community Development (CD) (1952)

The concept of community development began in this era of extension development. The programmes were launched under this concept of extension.

#### 2.4.1.1 Concept of Community Development

A community consists of persons in social interaction within a geographical area and having common centers of interest and activities, and functioning together in the chief concern of life (Adivireddy, 1997).

- *Development:* It is an orderly movement of individual from lower level of functioning to the higher level of functioning.

- *Community Development* is a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and on the initiative of the community concerned. It consists of technically-aided and locally organized self-help activities.

Community development has been described by Murkerji (mentioned in Adivireddy, 1997) as a:

- *process* of change from the traditional way of living of rural communities to progressive ways of living;
- *method* by which people can be assisted to develop themselves on their own capacity and resources,
- *programme* for accomplishing certain activities in fields concerning the welfare of the rural people, and
- *movement* for progress with a certain emotional and ideological content.

The two essential elements in community development are:

- i) Participation by the people themselves in efforts to improve their level of living with as much reliance as possible on their own initiative, and
- ii) The provision of technical and other services in ways which encourage initiative, self-help and mutual help and make these more effective.

#### 2.4.1.2 Principles of Community Development

There are certain principles of community development. These include the following (Adivireddy, 1997).

- i) Activities undertaken must correspond to the *basic needs* of the community; the projects should be initiated in response to the expressed needs of the people.
- ii) Local improvements may be achieved through unrelated efforts in each substantive fields through *multipurpose programmes*.
- iii) *Changed attitudes* in people are as important as the material achievements of community projects during the initial stages of development.
- iv) Community development aims at increased and *better participation* of the people in community affairs.
- v) Identification, encouragement and training of *local leadership* should be a basic objective in any programme.
- vi) Greater reliance on the participation of *women and youth* in community projects invigorates (refreshes) development programmes.
- vii) To be fully effective, self-help projects for communities require both intensive and extensive *assistance by the Government*.
- viii) Implementation of a community development programme on a national scale requires adoption of *consistent policies*, and *specific administrative arrangements*.

- ix) The resources of *voluntary non-governmental organizations* should be fully utilized in community development programmes at the local, national and international level.
- x) *Economic and social progress* at the local level necessitates parallel development on a wider national scale.

### 2.4.1.3 Objectives of Community Development

The fundamental or basic objective of Community Development in India is the development of people or “Destination Man”. Its broad and specific objectives are as follows (Adivireddy, 1997).

- i) Broad objectives include promotion of:
  - Economic development,
  - Social Justice, and
  - Democratic growth.
- ii) The specific objectives of the Community Development programme include the following.
  - a) To assist each village in having effective Panchayats, cooperatives and schools;
  - b) Through these village institutions, to plan and carry out integrated multi-phased family, village, Block and District plans for:
    - Increasing agricultural production,
    - Improving existing village crafts and industries and organizing new ones,
    - Providing minimum essential health services and improving health practices,
    - Providing required educational facilities for children and an adult education programme,
    - Providing recreational facilities and programmes,
    - Improving housing and family living conditions, and
    - Providing programmes for village women and youth.

### 2.4.1.4 Implementation of Community Development Projects

Paul Hoffman, President of American Ford Foundation made a study tour in India and initiated Community Development (CD) programme. Accordingly, 15 pilot Community Development Projects were started in 1951 in India on the lines of Etawah project with the financial assistance of Ford Foundation. Later on the Government of India started 55 Community Development projects on October 2, 1952 covering 27,388 villages and 16.4 million population including previous 15 projects (Adivireddy, 1997).

Each CD project targeted 300 villages, 450-500 square miles, 2 lakh population and 1,50,000 acres. Each CD project was divided into 3 Development Blocks. Each Development block covers 100 villages, 150-200 square miles, 60,000-70,000 population and 50,000 acres. Each Development block has 10-20 groups

of 5-10 villages each. Each group has one VLW known as Gram Sevak. This programme started with areas of assured rainfall, good fertile soils, and composite type (Rural-cum-urban) area.

Each CD project lasted for a period of 3 years divided into 5 stages.

- i) *Conception stage*: Selection of area for projects, its economic survey and planning — 3 months.
- ii) *Initiation stage*: Temporary housing, establishing communication, collection of required material — 6 months.
- iii) *Operation stage*: Taking up of approved activities — 18 months.
- iv) *Consolidation stage*: winding up of the programme — 6 months.
- v) *Finalization stage*: final touches and introduction to the villagers for further carryout of the programmes themselves — 3 months.

**Administrative structure:** Each project had a Project Officer who was assisted by Subject Matter Specialists for Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Cooperation, Engineering, etc. with 60 Multipurpose Village Level Workers (MPVLWs).

#### 2.4.2 National Extension Service (NES) (1953)

The response of the villagers to the CD programme was tremendous. Hence, the Government of India decided to expand the coverage of the programme to other parts of the country with some what less intensive approach than CD project. This programme was named as National Extension Service (NES) started on October 2, 1953.

The idea behind NES was to cover entire country by 1960. Basic idea of both CD and NES was same and the perational unit in both CD and NES was Development Block. Activities under NES programme were less intensive than those of CD. Both were complementary, interwoven, and were run concurrently. Each NES block covers 100 villages, 65,000 population. Each block is headed by Block Development Officer (BDO) assisted by Extension Officers with 10 Multi-purpose Village Level Workers (MPVLWs). Later on both CD and NES programmes were merged and converted as follows.

Extensive Block (NES) 3 years      →      Intensive Block (CD) 3 Years      Post-intensive Block

B. R. Mehta (1957) recommended six years for each project. According to the recommendations of National Development Council no distinction was made between CD and NES and formed into 2 stages of 5 years each. Till 1958 this scheme was implemented. Later, as per the recommendations of Balvanth Rai Mehta Committee, Democratic Decentralization (Panchayat Raj) came into existence.

#### 2.4.3 Democratic Decentralization (Panchayat Raj System)

In this sub-section, let us look at some important aspects of the Panchayat Raj System, which paved the way for decentralized implementation of extension system.

### 2.4.3.1 Concept of Democratic Decentralization

The word *democracy* is derived from Greek roots ‘demos’ meaning people and ‘cracy’ meaning rule of. Democracy thus means the government of the people.

*Decentralization* means devolution of central authority among local units close to the areas served; authority devolves by this process on people’s local institutions. The **important features** of the concept of democratic decentralization include the following.

- As the term ‘democratic decentralization’ was not easily understood by the people ‘Panchayat Raj’ was evolved in its place.
- Panchayat Raj is a system of government. Horizontally it is a network of village Panchayats and vertically it is an organized growth of Panchayats raising up to national level.
- Its philosophy is based on the concept of self-help. It aims at making democracy real with the maximum decentralization of power to the local units of government.
- Its primary objective is to achieve intensive and continuous development of each area through people’s participation.

Rajasthan is the first State in the country to adopt democratic decentralization on October 2, 1959 followed by Andhra Pradesh on 1<sup>st</sup> November 1959.

### 2.4.3.2 Panchayat Raj System

There are three tiers in the Panchayat Raj System which is the constitutional mechanism of democratic decentralization (Jalihal and Veerabhadraiah, 2007). The three tiers include the following.

- 1) Gram Panchayat – at village level.
  - 2) Panchayat Samithi – at block level (in A.P., it is now Mandal level).
  - 3) Zilla Parishad – at district level.
- 1) **Gram Panchayat:** This is the first formal democratic local institution. It is the primary tier of rural local government. It is the cabinet of village elders directly elected by adult citizens of the village. Each Gram Panchayat consists of 5 to 17 members with five years tenure. There is provision for reservation for women, SCs and STs. The Sarpanch is elected by members of the Panchayat. Sarpanch should convene Gram Sabha meeting at least once in six months, and the meeting of members once in a month. The Gram Panchayat functions as agents of Samithi and Z.P. Each Gram Panchayat will have functional committees.

*General Functions of Gram Panchayats* are mainly representative, regulatory, administrative, and service or development-oriented. *Specific Functions of Gram Panchayat* included:

- Public health and sanitation,

- Water supply,
- Street lighting,
- Registration of births and deaths,
- Maternity and child welfare,
- Construction and maintenance of village roads, tanks and wells,
- Provision of elementary education,
- Maintenance of dispensaries, libraries and reading rooms,
- Control of fairs and festivals,
- Planting of trees in public places.

- 2) ***Panchayat Samithi:*** It is the Block level administration. Its members include Sarpanches of all Village panchayats, Local MLA and MLC and one person nominated by Collector. There will be reservation for two women, one SC, one ST and two experienced persons. President and Vice-president will be elected by the members. Block Development Officer (BDO) will be the Chief Executive. There are seven Standing Committees (SCs) viz. Planning and production, Cooperation and Industries, Education, Women welfare, Social welfare, Communication, and Taxation and finance. Each Standing Committee has seven members including the President. The President will be the Chairman of all Standing Committees.

*Functions of Panchayat Samithi:* The main functions of Panchayat Samithi include the following.

- Agricultural development
- Animal husbandry and fisheries
- Rural health and sanitation
- Primāry education
- Social education
- Development of communications
- Cooperation and cottage industries
- Women welfare and social welfare
- Management of trusts
- Protection of forests
- Rural housing
- Publicity
- Supervision and guidance to Panchayats

- 3) **Zilla Parishad:** It is the District level administration. Its members include Presidents of all Panchayat Samithis, Local MLA, MP and MLC, two women representatives, one SC, one ST and two persons interested in rural development. Chairman and Vice-Chairman will be elected by members. One Secretary appointed by Government. There are 7 Standing Committees (SCs) in each Parishad. Each Standing Committee has nine members. District Collector will be the Chairman of all the Standing Committees.

*Functions* of Zilla Parishad include the following.

- i) Scrutinizing and approval of budget of Panchayat Samithis.
- ii) Distribution of ad hoc grants to Blocks.
- iii) Preparation and consolidation of plans of Blocks.
- iv) Execution of plans common to two to three Blocks.
- v) Advising the government on implementation of schemes in Panchayats and Panchayat Samithis.
- vi) Establishment and maintenance of secondary, vocational and industrial schools.

**Mandal System:** The central government under the chairmanship of Ashok Mehta in 1978 has appointed a committee to review and rectify the weakness of the Panchayat Raj system. The committee presented a report and recommended to implement the *Mandal System* and suggested to make small administrative unit instead of larger unit at Taluka level (consists of about 100 villages). Karnataka was the first State to adopt mandal system. The government of Andhra Pradesh on 25<sup>th</sup> May 1985 dismissed the old revenue limits of Taluka and Firka. The Mandal Adhikari was appointed to work with same powers as Tahsildar and Taluka Magistrate and the Mandal Development Officer was placed in-charge of all the developmental functions and all the regulatory functions have been handed over to the Mandal Adhikari.

Andhra Pradesh has passed the Act with slight modifications and implemented it in three-stage system viz; *Gram Panchayat, Mandal Praja Parishad* and *Zilla Praja Parishad* and in this Act every Mandal Praja Parishad has a Revenue Mandal. Every mandal in Andhra Pradesh consists of 12-14 villages with a population of 35,000-50,000. Villages within a limit of 10-12 Kms from the headquarter of the Mandal are provided with the facilities of bank, bus stand, railway station, Primary Health Centre, Veterinary dispensary, police station, post office, telephone exchange, high school, marketing facilities and agricultural go-down facilities. Revenue record of all the Tahsil Offices are now shifted to the concerned mandal headquarters. Mandal system is thus a modified form of Panchayat Raj system that brings the public nearer to developmental administration. It seeks greater involvement of the SC and ST and weaker sections and women members in democratic ways of functioning of the mandal system.

### **Check Your Progress**

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”.

- 5) Explain the concept of Community Development? Write the principles and objectives of Community Development.

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## **2.5 STAGE-IV: INTENSIVE EXTENSION DEVELOPMENT ERA (1960 ONWARDS)**

In this era there have been intensified efforts for development of extension with focus gradually shifted from purely agricultural and community development to technological development to development with social justice to infrastructure development, among others. Government of India launched various programmes and the significant of them are discussed below.

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

A team of Ford Foundation agricultural experts, after visiting various States in India in 1959, recommended intensified development efforts in selected districts/ areas with assured irrigation facilities, minimum natural hazards and well-developed Panchayats and Cooperatives so that rapid increase in production could be made. The government accepted the ideas and started Intensive Agricultural District Programme (IADP) in July 1960 in seven selected districts of various states (including West Godavari of Andhra Pradesh) during first phase and twenty one districts during second phase (Adivireddy, 1997).

Central idea behind the programme was that “Increased agricultural production leads to economic growth which in turn brings the welfare of the society”. Intensive efforts for production were undertaken with the combination of all the technological improvements and concentration of manpower and resources in selected areas. IADP is popularly known as ‘package programme’ because of the collective and simultaneous application of all improved practices, namely, improved seeds, irrigation, fertilizers, plant protection, implements, storage facilities, marketing facilities, credit, etc.

### ***Achievements of IADP:***

- Technical assistance was given to farmers in preparing production plans.
- The cultivators were provided simultaneously with all supplies and services at right time and in adequate quantities through cooperatives.
- Credit was given to all those who had their production plans and participated in the programme.
- Marketing and storage facilities were developed within bullock cart distance.
- Covered all the important cash crops grown in the districts, although emphasis was laid on the increase of food grain crops.

***Drawbacks:*** Less staff, poor communication facilities, poor training for staff, etc. were the setbacks of the programme.

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

The favourable experiences with IADP had led to the consideration of the possibilities of extending the concept of IADP to other promising districts in India. The Agricultural Production Board (1964) agreed with the observations of mid-term appraisal of third five-year plan and recommended Intensive Agricultural Area Programme (IAAP) for 20 to 25 per cent of the cultivated area of the country. Thus, IAAP was started in 114 districts in March 1964 and later it was extended to 150 districts (Adivireddy, 1997).

***Criteria for selection of districts:*** These criteria included the following.

- The IAAP was taken up in areas having assured irrigation.
- Selection of districts and blocks was made on the basis of predominant crops (entire crop economy of the area was kept in view).
- Area was selected based on the use of various intensive and coordinated aids for production (infrastructure facilities).

***The staffing pattern*** of the IAAP districts was less intensive than in the IADP districts. However, the mode of operation was similar. In general, the Village Level Workers (VLWs) were increased from 10 per block to 15 or 20 per block, from one to two Agricultural Extension Officers (AEOs) and districts staff from 2 to 3 Subject-Matter Specialists.

### ***Achievements of IAAP:***

- Achieved the increased production by exploiting the land resources.
- Package approach was covered in 1410 community blocks spread over 114 districts in India.
- Increased production in 20-25 per cent of the cultivated area was achieved.
- Effective coordination between officials and non-officials was achieved.
- Multiplication of improved seed and its distribution to all cultivable land.
- Minor irrigation was undertaken in the villages, both through community participation and on an individual basis.

### 2.5.3 High-Yielding Varieties Programme (HYVP) (1966)

While both the IADP and IAAP were concerned with the promotion of intensive agriculture, they operated within the limitations set by the exotic crop varieties, which had low fertilizer response. In the year, 1963-64, few Mexican dwarf wheat varieties were tried out on selected basis and in 1964-65 an exotic variety of rice TN-1 was tried and the results were encouraging.

The draft outline of the Fourth Five Year Plan, therefore, stressed the need for evolving a new approach for boosting-up agricultural production over a short span of time. Two programmes, namely, HYVP and MCP (Multiple Cropping Programme), were launched in the year 1966-67 which constituted the two major planks of the new agricultural strategy under the Fourth Five Year Plan (Adivireddy, 1997). Operationally, the state government has taken up the following steps.

- i) Selection of areas in each state for implementation of HYVP.
- ii) A phased programme of coverage of HYVP was prepared.
- iii) Development of staff on par with the IADP pattern in the selected districts.
- iv) Working out a training programme for all levels.
- v) Proper arrangement of inputs like fertilizers, seeds, pesticides, plant protection equipment, and credit on the basis of proper need assessment.

### 2.5.4 National Family Welfare Programme (1966)

The 'clinical approach' relied upon by the Government in implementing the Family Planning Programme launched in 1952 did not yield satisfactory results. The programme was later expanded to encompass maternal and child health, family welfare, and nutrition and was popularly called or renamed as Family Welfare Programme in 1966 and gave *extension orientation* to it. The focus has accordingly been shifted from 'clinical approach' to 'cafeteria approach' through extension to educate the target families / population about different methods and techniques of family planning so as to enable them choose from the available methods and techniques that suit to their context and welfare.

In the IV Five Year Plan (1969-74), high priority was accorded to the programme and it was proposed to reduce birth rate from 35 per thousand to 32 per thousand by the end of plan. 16.5 million Couples, constituting about 16.5% of the couples in the reproductive age group, were protected against conception by the end of IV Plan ([pbhealth.gov.in/pdf/FW.pdf](http://pbhealth.gov.in/pdf/FW.pdf)).

In the V Plan (1974-79) the objective of was to bring down the birth rate to 30 per thousand by the end of 1978-79 by increasing integration of family planning services with those of Health, Maternal and Child Health (MCH) and Nutrition, so that the programme became more readily acceptable. The years 1975-76 and 1976-77 recorded a phenomenal increase in performance of sterilisation. However, in view of rigidity in enforcement of targets by field functionaries and an element of coercion in the implementation of the programme in 1976-77 in some areas, the programme received a set-back during 1977-78. As a result, the Government made it clear that there was no place for force or coercion or compulsion or for pressure of any sort under the programme and the programme was implemented

as an integral part of “Family Welfare” relying solely on mass education and motivation. The name of the programme also was changed to Family Welfare from Family Planning.

In the VI Plan (1980-85), certain long-term demographic goals of reaching net reproduction rate of unity were envisaged. The Family Welfare Programme during VII five year plan (1985-90) was continued on a purely voluntary basis with emphasis on promoting spacing methods, securing maximum community participation and promoting maternal and child health care. The Universal Immunization Programme (UIP) was launched in 1985 to provide universal coverage of infants and pregnant women with immunization against identified vaccine preventable diseases and extended it to all the districts in the country.

The approach adopted during the Seventh Five Year Plan was continued during 1990-92. For effective community participation, Mahila Swasthya Sanghs (MSS) at village level were constituted in 1990-91. MSS consists of 15 persons — 10 representing the varied social segments in the community and five functionaries involved in women’s welfare activities at village level such as the Adult Education Instructor, Anganwadi Worker, Primary School Teacher, Mahila Mukhya Sevika and the Dai. Auxiliary Nurse Midwife (ANM) is the Member-Convener. From the year 1992-93, the UIP has been strengthened and expanded into the Child Survival and Safe Motherhood (CSSM) Project. Under the Safe Motherhood component, training of traditional birth attendants, provision of aseptic delivery kits and strengthening of first referral units to deal with high risk and obstetric emergencies were taken up.

To impart new dynamism to the Family Welfare Programme, several new initiatives were introduced and ongoing schemes were revamped in the Eighth Plan (1992-97). Realizing that Government efforts alone would not be sufficient, greater stress has been laid on the involvement of NGOs to supplement and complement the Government efforts in propagating and motivating the people for adoption of small family norm. Reduction in the population growth rate has been recognized as one of the priority objectives during the Ninth and Tenth Plan period. The strategies followed were:

- i) To assess the needs for reproductive and child health at PHC level and undertake area-specific micro planning.
- ii) To provide need-based, demand-driven, high quality, integrated reproductive and child health care reducing the infant and maternal morbidity and mortality resulting in a reduction in the desired level of fertility.

**Contraceptives:** The National Family Welfare Programme provides the following contraceptive services for spacing births: a) Condoms, b) Oral Contraceptive Pill, c) Intra-Uterine Devices (IUD).

- Whereas condoms and oral contraceptive pills have been provided through free distribution scheme and social marketing scheme, IUD has been provided only under free distribution scheme. Under Social Marketing Programme, contraceptives, both condoms and oral pills, are sold at subsidized rates. In addition, contraceptives are commercially sold by manufacturing companies under their brand names also; Govt. of India does not provide any subsidy for the commercial sale.

- *Copper-T*: Cu-T is one of the important spacing methods offered under the Family Welfare Programme. Cu-T is supplied free of cost to all the States/UTs by Govt. of India for insertion at the PHCs, Sub-centres and Hospitals by trained Medical Practitioners/trained Health Workers. The earlier version of Cu-T 200 'B' (IUDs) has been replaced by Cu-T 380-A from 2002-03 onwards which provides protection for a longer period (about 10 years) as against Cu-T 200 'B' which provided protection for about 3 years only.
- *Emergency Contraceptive Pill (ECP)* was introduced under Family Welfare Programme during 2002-03. The emergency contraceptives is the method that can be used to prevent unwanted pregnancy after an unprotected act of sexual intercourse (including sexual assault, rape or sexual coercion) or in contraceptive failure. Emergency Contraceptive is to be taken on prescription of Medical Practitioners.
- *Terminal methods*: Under National Family Welfare Programme following Terminal/ Permanent Methods are being provided to the eligible couples.
  - A) *Tubectomy*: i) Mini Lap Tubectomy, and ii) Lapro Tubectomy. Laparoscopic sterilization is a relatively quicker method of female sterilization.
  - B) *Vasectomy*: i) Conventional Vasectomy, and ii) No-Scalpel Vasectomy. It is one of the most effective contraceptive methods available for males. It is an improvement on the conventional vasectomy with practically no side effects or complications. This new method is now being offered to men who have completed their families. The No-Scalpel Vasectomy project is being implemented in the country to help men adopt male sterilization and thus promote male participation in the Family Welfare programme.

### 2.5.5 Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA) (1970-1971)

The 1960's witnessed revolutionary changes in India's food production; from the situation of huge deficit in the early sixties the country achieved near self-sufficiency in food grains. However, it was observed that only some pockets of the country and certain categories of farmers were benefited through the programmes of green revolution. To correct this disparity the programmes like Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA), Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourer (MFAL) Scheme, etc. were started by the government. In India 70% of farmers are small farmers and marginal farmers and suffering from indebtedness and facing the clutches of money lenders. The Credit institutions have not helped small and marginal farmers earlier. SFDA programme started in 1970-71 was intended to help the small farmers in their farm production. It was introduced in 46 districts spread throughout the country. Each project covers 50,000 potentially viable small farmers. Small farmer is one having 2.5 to 5.0 acres of dry land (Ray, 2007).

*Main functions* of SFDA include:

- Identifying small farmers and investigating their problems;
- Formulating economic programmes for them;
- Promoting rural industries;

- Evolving institutional, financial and administrative arrangements;
- Facilitating storage and marketing; and
- Strengthening cooperatives.

**Organizational Pattern** of SFDA is given below.

- *State level:* A Coordination Committee was formed with Development Commissioner or the Chief Secretary as its Chairman, and all Heads of Development departments as its members.
- *Project level:* Project Officer, Assistant Project Officer, Administration and Coordinating Cell.
- *Activities:* Land development, soil conservation, minor irrigation, HYVs, multiple cropping and working in coordination with other departments.
- *Funding* for the activities was done by giving 25% as subsidy and the rest as loan.

## 2.5.6 Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers Scheme (MFAL) (1971-1972)

One of the objectives of the Fourth Five-year plan was to enable the marginal and agricultural labour to participate in the process of development and to share its benefits. In pursuance of these objectives the projects of MFAL were designed. Although the programme was launched in the year 1969, the actual implementation of this programme started in the year 1971-72. Forty one MFAL projects were taken up as pilot experiments and designed to improve the conditions of weaker sections and to generate greater employment opportunities.

- **Criteria adopted for identification of beneficiaries:** Marginal farmers were those having land holding of less than 2.5 acres of dry land. Agricultural labourers are those who have more than 50 per cent of their income from agricultural wages. MFAL scheme covered about 1500 marginal farmers and 5000 agricultural labourers in each project (Dahama and Bhatnagar, 2007).
- **Main functions of MFAL:** These included the following.
  - Appropriate technology and its transfer to farmers.
  - Efficient input-supply system including credit.
  - Adequate marketing and storage facilities.
  - Well-developed extension service.
- **Projects for marginal farmers:** Minor irrigation, soil conservation, land development, land shaping, animal husbandry, crop husbandry, introduction of high-yielding varieties and improved agricultural implements.
- **Projects of agricultural labour:** Providing adequate opportunities for off-season employment, poultry-keeping, piggery, sheep and goat-rearing.
- **Subsidy criteria:** 33.3 per cent of subsidy was given to marginal farmers and 50 per cent subsidy to agricultural labourers.

- **Credit institutions:** Commercial banks, Primary Agricultural Cooperative Societies, Central Cooperative Society.
- **Organizational Pattern:**
  - *At State level:* A Coordination Committee with Development Commissioner or the Chief Secretary as Chairman and all Heads of Development departments as members.
  - *Project level:* Project Officer, Asst. Project Officer, Administration and Coordinating Cell.
  - *Implementation:* It was done through registered agencies and other field level institutions with Collector as Chairman of implementation bodies.

### **2.5.7 Integrated Tribal Development Agency (ITDA) (1971-1972)**

ITDA was specially designed to develop tribal areas and tribal people. The programme was initiated during 1971-72 with 6 pilot development projects. Slow phase of development, deteriorating conditions of law and order and exploitation of tribals by certain non-tribals caused the government to start these agencies (Ray, 2007).

**Objectives** of ITDA were:

- To sensitize (motivate) administration to the basic problems and needs of the tribes.
- To enforce the existing laws concerning debt relief, poverty relief/alleviation (lessening), and protection of tribal lands.

**Special features** of ITDA:

- Narrowing down the gap between the levels of development of tribal areas and other areas.
- Revision of excise and forest policies.
- Organising training programmes in agro and forest-based industries.
- Restructuring administration of tribal areas.
- Setting-up of tribal development corporation.
- Initiate special programmes for tribal development.
- Providing subsidy to the extent of 50% to 70% and allowing the remaining as loan.

**Organizational Pattern:**

- *State level:* Coordination committee with Development Commissioner / Chief Secretary as Chairman and Heads of Development departments as members.
- *Project level:* Project Officer, Asst. Project Officer, Administration and Coordinating Cell.

### 2.5.8 Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP) (1973-74)

This programme was first launched by GOI during 1973-74 to address special problems of drought prone areas. DPAP aims to mitigate the adverse effects of drought on the production of crops and livestock, and on productivity of land, water and human resources. It strives to encourage restoration of ecological balance and seeks to improve the economic and social conditions of the poor and the disadvantaged sections of the rural community.

DPAP is a people's programme with Government assistance. There is a specific arrangement for maintenance of assets and social audit by Panchayati Raj Institutions. Development of all categories of land belonging to Gram Panchayat, Government and individuals falls within the limits of the selected watersheds for development. Allocation is shared equally by the Centre and State Government on 50:50 basis. Watershed Committee contributes to maintenance of the assets created. Utilization of 50% of allocation under the Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS) is for the Watershed Development. Funds were directly released for sanction of projects and release of funds to Watershed Committees and Project Implementing Agencies (PIAs).

Village community including self-help groups undertake area development by planning and implementation of projects on watershed basis through Watershed Associations and Watershed Committees constituted from among themselves. The Government supplements their work by creating social awareness, imparting training and providing technical support through the Project Implementation Agencies (Dahama and Bhatnagar, 2007).

### 2.5.9 Training and Visit System (T & V System) (1974)

The reorganized agricultural extension system popularly known as Training and Visit system was developed by the World Bank expert Daniel Benor. It is also known as Benor system as Mr. Benor was instrumental in introducing this innovation (new concept) in agricultural extension. In India this system was evolved on the basis of experience gained in the command areas of Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan under World Bank assistance. The main objective of this system was to remove shortcomings in the then existing agricultural extension system. This system has given the country a new vision bringing farm scientists and field extension functionaries closer with sole intension of improving production and income of farmers.

The basic spirit behind T & V system is that any land, even though it may not have produced a satisfactory crop in the past, can be made to yield an optimum crop according to its capacity within the crop season of 4-5 months only, provided the farmer does what he is advised to do on his farm step by step as per the stage of crop growth every week or fortnight. T and V system was started in 1974 and was implemented in all the States by 1985. The methodology of T & V system provides for a management system which can ensure delivery of expert know-how in every field on a state-wide basis and every week or fortnight basis. Transfer of know-how from Subject-Matter Specialist (SMS) to the farmers is ensured in two stages.

- i) *Training*: Transfer of know-how from Subject-Matter Specialist to the extension worker.

- ii) *Visits*: Transfer of know-how obtained during the training from extension workers to farmers.

***Salient features of T & V system:*** The key features of the T & V system according to Benor and Baxter (1984) are as follows:

- i) *Professionalism*: The extension staff must keep in close touch with relevant scientific developments and research in order to formulate specific recommendations that will be useful to farmers in all kinds of resource situations. This can be achieved only if each extension worker is fully and continuously trained to handle his particular responsibilities in a professional manner.
- ii) *Single line of command*: The extension service must be under a single line of technical and administrative command within the Department of Agriculture. Support is required from teaching and research institutions, input supply and other agricultural support organizations and local government bodies, but all extension workers should be responsible administratively and technically to a unit within only one department.
- iii) *Concentration of efforts*: All extension staff work only on agricultural extension. Staff is not responsible for the supply of inputs, data collection, distribution of subsidies, processing of loans, or any other activity not directly related to extension. It is assumed that the effective span of control for supervision or guidance is about eight. Similarly, extension-oriented research concentrates on key constraints to increase production and income that are faced by the farmers.
- iv) *Time-bound work*: Messages and skills are taught to farmers in a regular, timely fashion, so that they will make best use of the resources at their command. The VEW (Village Extension Worker) must visit his farmers regularly on a fixed day, usually once each fortnight. All other extension staff must make timely and regular visits to the field.
- v) *Field and Farmer orientation*: The contact of extension staff must be on a regular basis, on a schedule known to farmers and with a large number of farmers representing all major farming and socio-economic types. While spending almost all of their time in the field meetings with farmers, extension workers must attempt to understand farmers' production conditions and constraints in order that appropriate production recommendations are formulated.
- vi) *Regular and continuous training*: Regular and continuous training of extension staff is required both to teach and discuss with them the specific production recommendations needed by farmers for the coming fortnight and to up-date and upgrade their professional skills. Moreover, the basic training sessions, fortnightly training and monthly workshops are the key means of bringing actual farmers problems to the attention of research, identifying research findings of immediate relevance to farmers, and of developing the production recommendations that fit to specific local conditions.

- vii) *Linkages with research*: Effective extension depends on close linkages with research. Linkages are two-way. Problems faced by farmers that cannot be resolved by extension workers are passed on to researchers for either an immediate solution or investigation. During seasonal and monthly workshops and joint field trips, extension and research staff formulates production recommendations that will be adopted by extension workers as necessary to make best use of the specific local environment and actual farmers' resources.

***The organizational pattern of the T & V System of agricultural extension evolved by Benor***: The entire organization is based on the total number of farm families which one (Village Extension Worker (VEW)) can reasonably cover. It is organized in such a manner that the Agricultural Extension Officer (AEO) guides, trains and supervises about 6 to 8 VEOs/VEWs and 6 to 8 AEOs are in turn guided and supervised by a Sub-Divisional Extension Officer (SDEO). The SDEOs are supported by a team of Subject-Matter Specialists. 4 to 8 SDEOs are supervised by Divisional Extension Officer (DEO) who is also supported by SMSs depending upon the number of districts the DEO is supervising, either directly or through an intermediate superior, Zonal Extension Officer (ZEO) (Adivireddy, 1997).

The DEO would be involved in regular training of the VEWs and AEOs as and when needed. At zonal level, the ZEO will be responsible for all extension activities in his district and will be assisted by a few administrative staff only. The headquarters level may be different from state to state. It would be best if the headquarters deal with agricultural extension exclusively and were called extension service rather than Department of Agriculture. The Director of Agriculture Extension or ADA (Additional Director of Agriculture) would be assisted by three deputies in-charge of administration of technical aspects in execution and implementation of work.

### **2.5.10 Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) (1978-1979)**

IRDP was launched during 1978-79 by the Government of India. For implementing 'IRDP' District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) was set up at district level. It is a massive poverty alleviation programme, especially targeting the rural poor who are below the poverty line (Ray, 2007).

#### ***Objectives:***

- To assist selected families of target group in rural areas to cross the poverty line by taking self-employment.
- To generate additional employment and to raise income level of identified target groups.
- To apply science and technology for the benefit of rural population.
- To provide full employment to the beneficiaries through production programmes.

#### ***Salient features:***

- The identified target group consists of small farmers, marginal farmers agricultural labourers, rural artisans and other families below the poverty line.

- Family is the unit of development.
- It provides income-generating assets including working capital (subsidies) and institutional credit.
- At least 30 per cent of assisted families are drawn from SCs and STs.
- A minimum of 30 per cent of total beneficiaries should be women.
- Importance of industries in agricultural sector.
- Emphasis is on Block planning — 3000 families for each Block covering 600 families per year for five years.
- The nature of infrastructural facilities available are to be kept in mind while selecting the scheme.

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

The national scheme of Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM) was initiated in August 1979 with the principal objective of removal of unemployment among the youth. The main thrust of the scheme is on equipping rural youth with necessary skills and technology to enable them to take up self-employment. The scheme proposed to train about 2 lakh rural youth every year in various skills. The strategy for training includes institutional training, training, through local servicing and industrial units, master-craftsmen, artisans and skilled workers.

The beneficiaries of this programme include small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers, rural artisans and also persons below the poverty line who may not fall in the above categories. Only the youth between the age group of 18 to 35 years are eligible under this programme (Ray, 2007).

During institutional training the stipend is given to the trainees. The provision of central assistance is 50:50 matching basis. The beneficiary is provided with subsidy from IRDP / TRYSEM funds and loans from the institutional training agency. Training is provided on the basis of actual need and requirement. It is a facilitating component of IRDP and DRDA is responsible for implementation. Among the trainees, 30% reservation is for SCs/STs and 1/3 for women. It is also expected to fulfill the skill requirements of DWCRA beneficiaries.

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

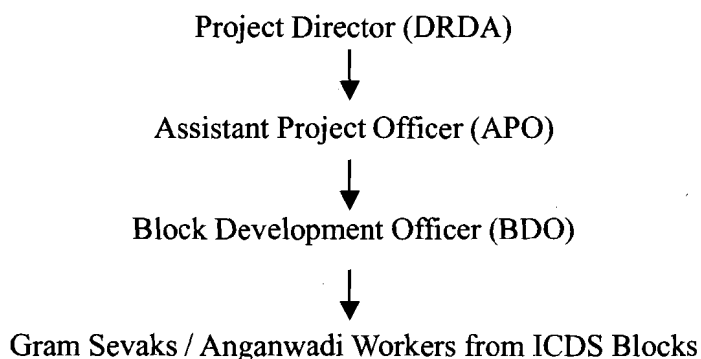
DWCRA programme was launched in 1982, as a part of the Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP). Its aim was to empower rural women living below the poverty line (BPL) by way of organizing them to create sustainable income-generating activities through self-employment. It was the first programme of its kind that specifically focused on improving the quality of life of rural women. A unique feature of DWCRA, unlike other IRDP components, was that along with improvement in income it also focused on access to health, education, safe drinking water, sanitation, nutrition, etc. Thus, it not only aimed at economic development but also intended to promote social development. Another unique feature of the programme was that it emphasized group activity. It was thought that in the long run women's empowerment depends on creation of a movement that promotes awareness and self-reliance (Ray, 2007).

**Objectives:** The objectives of DWCRA include the following.

- i) To help and promote self-employment among the rural women, who are below poverty line, by providing skill training in vocations which are acceptable to the beneficiaries by encouraging productivity and introducing new activities;
- ii) To organize the beneficiaries into groups and promote economic and social reliance;
- iii) To generate income for the rural poor by creating avenues for production of goods and services;
- iv) To organize production-enhancing programmes in rural areas; and
- v) To provide for care of children of the working women by providing an improved environment, care and food by establishing Balwadis.

**DWCRA facilitates** women to: i) improve their earning; ii) acquire new skills; iii) reduce their daily work; iv) have better access to credit facilities; and v) participate in social service.

**Administrative set up** of DWCRA is as given below.



### 2.5.13 National Agriculture Extension Project (1983)

The basic objective of NAEP was to bridge the gap between the research system with that of extension system so that the transfer of technology takes place at a much faster rate resulting in higher production and prosperity in the rural sector in general and agricultural sector in particular. In spite of these special extension efforts, there remained large gaps in achievement in certain sectors which needed more concerted attention (Ray, 2007).

### 2.5.14 Technology Mission on Oilseeds (1986)

India has been one of the largest importers of edible oils. In 1986, the Indian government tried to counter the mounting imports of vegetable oils, which represented a drain on the foreign exchange reserves. Technology Mission on Oilseeds (TMO) was launched through Department of Agriculture Research & Education (DARE) under the chairmanship of Secretary Department of Agriculture & Cooperation (DAC) with DG, ICAR being its Co-chairmen, to increase the production of oilseeds, reduce the import of oilseeds and achieve self-sufficiency in edible oils. Consequent to the setting-up of TMO a major breakthrough in increasing oilseed production was achieved through an integrated approach by introducing new crop technologies, better supply of inputs and

extension services support for marketing and post-harvest technologies, and excellent coordination and co-operation between various organizations, departments and Ministries. The TMO was somewhat similar in content and objective to the Green Revolution, which had revolutionized the Indian food grains sector, especially wheat and rice production. The higher production figures during the latter half of the 1980s and the first half of the 1990s may be attributed to this programme. The TMO was transferred from DARE to DAC in March, 1990. Keeping in view the success on oilseeds production, pulses were brought under the Technology Mission in 1990. Oil Palm and Maize were also brought under the Technology Mission in 1992-93 and 1995-96 respectively.

**Objectives of the Mission:** The main objectives of the Mission were to make the country self-reliant as early as possible in edible and non-edible oils and reduce imports through integrated approach involving different developmental, scientific, input, banking and marketing agencies. It was also envisaged that the Mission would:

- Aim at increasing production and productivity of the different oilseed crops in 180 districts through assured input supply and technology packages;
- Develop location-specific technologies for each of the crops for maximizing production;
- Produce adequate quantities of breeder's seed, foundation seed and certified seed of different oilseed crops;
- Take up mass multiplication of tissue-cultured plants of oil palm and coconut. Modernize cryo-preservation of important germplasms of oilseed crops and also develop facilities for importing superior oil-yielding plants from outside;
- Organize seed-gardens to produce superior quality variety and hybrid materials of oil palm and coconut;
- Create an awareness about the improved and emerging technologies in selected Blocks through National Demonstrations, Operational Research Projects, Krishi Vigyan Kendras and Lab-to-Land Programmes;
- Assist the developmental workers in training and imparting latest technologies of science; and
- Help modernize the processing technology to increase the output and improve the safety and quality of oil.

It was further envisaged that the Mission would concentrate first on the major crops which contributed the maximum to the edible oils economy of India. The crops that received priority were groundnut, rapeseed-mustard, soybean, sunflower, safflower, linseed, sesame and niger in the given order. It was further provided that the Mission would also give priority to non-edible oilseed crops to meet the requirement of industry ([agricoop.nic.in/Annual-Rep04-05/chap4.pdf](http://agricoop.nic.in/Annual-Rep04-05/chap4.pdf)).

### **2.5.15 Watershed Development Project (WSDP) (1987)**

Watershed approach was conventionally aimed at treating degraded lands with the help of low-cost and locally-assessed technologies such as in-situ soil and moisture conservation measures, afforestation, etc. through a participatory approach that seeks to secure closer involvement of user-community.

The broad objective was the promotion of overall economic development and improvement of socio-economic conditions and resources of poor sections of people in project area. Different programmes were taken up by the Govt. of India at different points of time such as Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP) and the Desert Area Development Programme (DADP) which were brought into watershed mode in the year 1987 (Ray, 2007).

**Watershed Area:** A watershed is a geohydrological unit which drains into a common point. The watershed approach is a project-based Ridge to valley approach for in-situ soil and water conservation. The unit of development of a watershed area will be about 500 hectares, it may vary keeping in view the geographical location, size of the village, etc. The project will primarily aim at treatment of non-forest wasteland and identified drought prone and desert areas. However, if any watershed area consists of some forest land it should also be treated simultaneously under the project. The thematic maps of the project area will be generated and used for implementation of programmes.

**Objectives:** The objectives of watershed development are as follows.

- Developing wastelands, degraded lands, drought-prone and desert areas on watershed basis keeping in view the capability of the land, site conditions and local names.
- Promoting the overall economic development and improving the socio-economic condition of the resource-poor and disadvantaged sections inhabiting in the project area.
- Mitigating the adverse effects of extreme climatic conditions such as drought and desertification on crops, human and livestock population for their overall improvement.
- Restoring ecological balance by harvesting, conserving and developing natural resources i.e. land, water, vegetative cover, etc.
- Encouraging the village communities for sustained community action for the operation and maintenance of assets created and further development of potential natural resources in the watershed areas.
- Finding simple, easy and affordable technological solutions and institutional arrangements that make use of and build upon the local technical knowledge on the available material.
- Employment generation, poverty alleviation, community empowerment and development of human and other economic resources of village.

**Implementation of the programme:** This programme is mainly implemented through Zilla Parishad (Z.P), District Rural Development Agency (DRDA), NGO, etc.

**Sources of funding:** District Watershed Management Agency (DWMA), National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD), Foreign funding, Private institutions, National Watershed Development Programme for Rain-fed Areas (NWDPA). If 84% is funded by NABARD then the remaining 16% should be funded by the beneficiaries in terms of Sramadhanam to the same watershed.

**Organizational structure:** Project officer, Agronomist, Horticulturist, Engineer, Social mobiliser and Mahila co-coordinator.

### 2.5.16 Jawahar Rojgar Yojana (JRY) (1989)

The programme was launched on 1<sup>st</sup> April 1989. It is a centrally sponsored scheme implemented by state governments. This is one of the massive employment generation schemes under poverty alleviation programmes. The expenditure is shared by the central and state governments on 80:20 basis. The central assistance is released directly to the districts. Not less than 80% of the allotted amount will be given to village Panchayats (Adivireddy, 1997).

**Objectives:** The primary and secondary objectives of JRY are as follows.

- *Primary objective:* Generation of additional gainful employment for the unemployed and underemployed men and women in rural areas.
- *Secondary objective:* Creation of sustained employment by strengthening rural economic infrastructure and assets and by improving the overall quality of life in the rural areas.

**Special features** of JRY include:

- Creation of productive community assets for direct and continuous benefits to the poor groups.
- Improvement in the overall quality of life in the rural area.
- People below poverty line are the target group.
- SCs and STs are given preference.
- 30% of employment opportunities will be reserved for women.
- Special integrated projects in coordination with other programmes shall be formulated for the nomadic tribes.
- It is implemented all over the country through the village Panchayat.
- Employment for at least one member in a family for 50-100 days in a year.
- Each Panchayat with 3000 to 4000 population gets 0.8 to 1.0 lakh rupees per year.

### 2.5.17 Rastriya Mahila Khosh (RMK) (1993)

It has been well known fact that the credit needs of the poor, especially women and particularly those in the unorganized sector, have not been adequately addressed by the formal financial institutions of the country. Varied experiences in this sector had established the need for a quasi-formal credit delivery mechanism, which is client-friendly, has simple and minimal procedures, disburses quickly and repeatedly, has flexible repayment schedules, links thrift and savings with credit, and has relatively low transaction costs both for the borrower and the lender. The Government of India had established the “Rashtriya Mahila Kosh” (National Credit Fund for Women) RMK in 1993 to address such needs (Sagar Mondal and Ray, 2006).

The **main objectives and functions** of the RMK are as follows:

- i) To undertake activities for promotion of the credit as an instrument of socio-economic change and development through a package of financial and social development services for women.
- ii) To demonstrate and replicate participatory approaches in the organization of women's groups for effective utilization of credit resources leading to self-reliance.
- iii) To promote and support experiments in the voluntary and formal sectors using innovative methodologies to deliver credit and other social services to disadvantaged women.
- iv) To sensitize existing government delivery mechanisms for increasing the visibility of poor women as a vital and viable clientele with regard to the conventional financial institutions.
- v) To promote research, study, documentation and analysis of the role of credit and its management.
- vi) To co-operate with and secure the co-operation of the Central Government, State Governments and Union Territory Administrations, Credit institutions, industrial and commercial organizations, Non-governmental, Voluntary and other Organizations and Bodies in promoting the objectives of the RMK.
- vii) To accept subscriptions, grants, contributions, donations, loans, guarantees, gifts, bequests, etc., on such terms and conditions consistent with the aims and objectives of the RMK.

**Administrative Structure:**

- The RMK is being administered by a Governing Board of sixteen members consisting of senior officials of Central and State Governments and specialists and representatives of organizations active in the field of micro-credit for women.
- The Executive Director is the Chief Executive Officer of the RMK responsible for proper administration of its affairs under the overall supervision, direction and control of the Governing Board.

### **2.5.18 Mahila Samridhi Yojana (MSY) (1993)**

Mahila Samridhi Yojana was started on 2<sup>nd</sup> October 1993. It envisages training to group of women in women-friendly production-oriented trades, linked with micro-credit after the training. National Minority Development Corporation (NMDC) encourages the State Channelizing Agencies (SCAs) as well as NGOs for implementation of the schemes. SCAs are assisted in meeting their 85% of the expenditure on training while NGOs are assisted in meeting 100% expenditure on training under the Scheme of MSY.

**Objectives** of MSY are:

- To provide economic security to the rural women, and
- To encourage the saving habit among them.

The Department of Women and Child Development is the nodal agency for MSY. Under this plan, the rural women of above 18 years of age can open their saving account in the rural post office of their own area with a minimum of Rs.4 or its multiplier. On the amount not withdrawn for 1 year, 25% of the deposited amount is given to the depositor by the government in the form of encouragement amount. Such accounts opened under the scheme account are provided 25% bonus with a maximum of Rs.300 every year (Sagar Mondal and Ray, 2006).

### 2.5.19 Pulse Polio Programme (1995)

Humans are the only reservoir/carrier of Polio Virus called Wild Polio Virus. It has three types I, II, and III. It is type II which is the first one to get eliminated, followed by type III and then type I Polio Virus from the human environment. Elimination of type II virus generally indicates a good/satisfactory Routine Immunization System/Coverage in an area. The country has already eliminated Type-II Virus two years ago. The Strategy for elimination/eradication is by having an equally strong system of 4 components. These are: Strong Routine Immunization, well Conducted Pulse Polio Rounds, Selective / Focal Mop-up rounds and a Sensitive and Responsive AFP System ([delhi.gov.in/wps/wcm/.../latest.../pulse+polio](http://delhi.gov.in/wps/wcm/.../latest.../pulse+polio)).

**Importance:** All infants below 1 year are supposed to be receiving a birth dose of 'OPV' called 'zero' dose followed by 3 doses at 6, 10 & 14 weeks of age alongside DPT 3 doses. Then, 1st booster of OPV is at 1½ year along with DPT, followed again with 2<sup>nd</sup> booster at 4½ to 5 years along with DT. Now, it has been proved conclusively that pulse polio doses are complementary to the routine doses and are not a substitute to routine polio vaccine. The constant migration of population, the newer birth cohort in the state and the left-overs need to be covered effectively. To sustain and improve the routine coverage of OPV it is quite an opportunity on the Pulse Polio day to apprise the parents about the need of routine immunization.

India launched the Pulse Polio Immunization (PPI) program in 1995 as a result of World Health Organization's (WHO) Global Polio Eradication Initiative. Under this programme, all children under 5 years are given 2 doses of Oral Polio Vaccine (OPV) in December and January every year until polio is eradicated.

PPI was initiated with the objective of achieving hundred percent coverage under OPV. It aims to reach the unreached children through improved social mobilization, plan mop-up operations in areas where poliovirus has almost disappeared and maintain high level of morale among the public.

### 2.5.20 Institute-Village Linkage Programme (IVLP) (1995-96)

The Indian Agricultural Research Institute (IARI), New Delhi has initiated an Institute-Village Linkage Programme (IVLP) in 4 villages viz. Garhi Randhala, Tatesar, Punjab Khor and Auchandi in Delhi State. Recently developed IARI technologies on crop production, fruit and vegetable cultivation, animal husbandry and dairying were introduced on the farms and households of one thousand farmers, mostly small and marginal. IVLP provides scientists opportunities to test or demonstrate new technologies on farmers' fields and get direct feedback from farmers. Application of new technologies is tested under different production systems viz. Small farms, Green revolution farms and Commercial farms.

A pilot project on Technology Assessment and Refinement through IVLP has been launched from the rabi season of 1995-96 for a period of 3 agricultural seasons in 42 centers in the country under selected ICAR Institutes and SAUs with an estimated budget of Rs.101.6 millions. The project is envisaged to cover about 42,000 farm families (Ray, 2007).

**Objectives** of IVLP are:

- To introduce technological interventions with emphasis on stability and sustainability along with productivity on small farm production systems;
- To introduce and integrate the appropriate technologies to:
  - sustain technological interventions and their integration to maintain productivity and profitability taking environmental issues into consideration in a comparatively well defined farm production systems; and
  - increase the agricultural productivity with marketable surplus in commercial and off-farm production systems;
- To facilitate adoption of appropriate post-harvest technologies for conservation and on-farm value addition of agricultural products, by-products and wastes for greater economic dividend and national priorities;
- To facilitate adoption of appropriate technologies for removal of drudgery, increasing efficiency and higher income of farm women;
- To monitor socio-economic impact of the technological intervention for different farm production systems;
- To identify extrapolation (estimation or evaluative) domains for new technology / technology-modules based on environmental characterization at meso and mega levels; and
- To adopt systems approach in the project which enables scientists to develop technologies as per the demands of the farming situations.

### **2.5.21 Agricultural Human Resource Development Programme (AHRDP) (1995)**

The World Bank-aided AHRD project, launched in the year 1995, is meant for financially assisting the Indian agricultural education sector. The project aimed at improving the quality and relevance of higher agricultural education through in-service training programmes and effective management of agricultural human resources.

In India, Andhra Pradesh, Haryana and Tamil Nadu being the three states and ANGRAU (Acharya N. G. Ranga Agricultural University), HAU (Haryana Agricultural University), TNAU (Tamil Nadu Agricultural University) and TNUAS (Tamil Nadu University of Animal Sciences) are the four agricultural universities selected under this project (Sagar Mondal and Ray, 2006).

**Salient Features** of AHRDP include:

- i) AHRDP was initiated to fulfill its objective of financing to equip laboratories and class rooms for better teaching programmes, staff training for better faculty teaching skills, library modernization for effective services and computerization for better management and administration.

- ii) Much of the infrastructure and equipment available in the State Agricultural Universities (SAUs) have become obsolete (outdated) and unserviceable and that has a direct bearing on the standard and quality of education. The SAUs are to be provided with financial assistance for the purchase of modern equipment and furniture needed for improvement of classroom, laboratory and farms.
- iii) The improvement of teachers' competence will have direct bearing on the quality of teaching. Hence, the project financed to depute teachers of SAUs for training in advanced studies in reputed institutions of India and abroad.
- iv) Lack of adequate resources has severely affected the usefulness of libraries. To overcome this deficiency, the project financed the purchase of needed equipment, latest text books, journals, etc for the libraries.
- v) Computerization at all levels of SAUs is essential for better administration and management. Hence, the project financed the SAUs for effective computer systems and establishing computer network.

### **2.5.22 National Agricultural Technology Project (NATP) (1998)**

The NATP was initiated in the year 1998 by the by the Ministry of Agriculture, Govt. of India with the financial assistance of the World Bank which was expected to finance the initial five years of support to the project. NATP was intended to shift the balance of technology generation, assessment and dissemination programmes towards greater location-specificity needed for the future. The purpose of this project was to consolidate earlier investments and address specific system constraints, weaknesses and gaps not addressed earlier (Sagar Mondal and Ray, 2006). The basic premise of NATP is that research and extension programmes should be farmer-centered and demand-driven.

**Objectives** of NATP included the following:

- To address key constraints, which limit the efficient use of the public resources;
- To improve the relevance of technology generation, refinement, assessment and transfer programmes to the changing needs of farmers and processors and thus the contributions made by improved agricultural technology to key national objectives of food security, economic growth, equity, alleviation of rural poverty and conservation of natural resources.

**Strategy** of NATP aimed at:

- Improving the efficiency of public research and technology assessment and dissemination institutions by strengthening management tools and procedures and raising human skills.
- Stressing improvements in priority setting and resource allocation, stronger links and co-operation with external sources of expertise in agricultural sciences, the improvement of staff incentives and accountability, and current monitoring and impact evaluation.
- Adapting the organization and management to improve the staff skills, modes of operation and programmes of public research and technology assessment and transfer of services to make them more relevant to the current and upcoming needs, especially for location-specific interdisciplinary programmes of production, systems research and development focused on technologies in the public goods category.

- Facilitating the entry of other private actors or producers into research and extension activities wherever appropriate.
- Accumulating replicable experience to guide further change.

### 2.5.22.1 Agricultural Technology Information Center (ATIC) (1999)

The Agricultural Technology Information Centre (ATIC) was started during the year 1999 under the National Agriculture Technology Project (NATP). The Centre provides information on agriculture technologies in addition to providing other inputs like seeds, plant materials, etc. including advisory services through single-window system. The ATIC is intended to provide formal management mechanism between the scientists and technology users (<http://www.uasbangalore.edu.in/asp/atic.asp>).

The Agricultural Technology Information Centers (ATIC) is a “*Single window*” support system linking the various units of a research institution with intermediary-users and end-users (farmers) in decision-making and problem-solving exercise. The ATICs provides greater coordination and intensive interaction between the researchers and technology users beyond individual units of research institutions in contributing towards the dissemination of information. Thus, each ATIC will serve as a “*single window system*” with an objective to help farmers and other stake holders such as Farmer-entrepreneurs, Extension workers, Development agencies, Non-Government Agencies (NGOs) and private sector organizations to provide solutions to the *farmers' location-specific problems* in agriculture and make available all the technological information along with technology inputs and products for testing and use by them. The ATICs need to be demand-driven, financially sustainable and well integrated with research and with greater emphasis on *location-specific and system-based sustainable technologies* (Sagar Mondal and Ray, 2006).

The **rationale** of establishing ATIC is as follows.

- To provide diagnostic services for soil and water testing, plant and livestock health;
- To supply research products such as seeds and other planting material, poultry strains, live stock breeds, fish seed, processed products, etc, emerging from the institution for testing and adaptation by various clientele;
- To provide information through published literature and other communication-media and materials including audio-visual aids; and
- To provide an opportunity to the institutes/SAUs to generate some resource through the sale of their technologies.

**Objectives** of ATIC are:

- To provide a single window delivery system for the products and species available from an institution to the farmers and other interested groups as a process of innovativeness in technology dissemination at the institute level;
- To facilitate the farmers' direct access to the institutional resources available in terms of technology, advice, technology products, etc., for reducing technology dissemination losses; and
- To provide mechanism for feedback from the users to the institute.

It is a registered society responsible for technology dissemination at the district level. It would be able to receive and expend project funds, enter into contracts and agreements and maintain revolving accounts that can be used to collect fees and thereby recover operating cost.

Research and Extension units within the project district such as ZRS or substations, KVKs, and the key line departments of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, horticulture and fisheries, etc, would become constituent members of ATMA. Each Research-Extension (R-E) unit would retain its institutional identity and affiliation. But, the programmes and procedures concerning district-wise R-E activities would be determined by ATMA governing board to be implemented by its management committee (MC).

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graph TD
    A["Agricultural Technology Management Agency Governing Board  
(Composed of stakeholder groups and chaired by District Collector)"]
    B["Project Director, ATMA"]
    C["ATMA Management Committee (unit heads)"]
    D["Dy. Proj. Director,  
Accountant, etc."]
    E["ZRS"]
    F["KVK"]
    G["DOA SMSs"]
    H["DOH SMSs"]
    I["DAH SMSs"]
    J["DOF"]
    K["Team of Block Level Farm Advisors  
Farmer Advisory Committee (FACs)"]
    L["Advisory Committees for  
District R-E Units"]
    M["District Farmer  
Organizations"]
    N["Different Socio-Economic Groups of Agricultural Producers (Fos)"]

    A --> B
    B --> C
    C --> E
    C --> F
    C --> G
    C --> H
    C --> I
    C --> J
    E --> K
    F --> K
    G --> K
    H --> K
    I --> K
    J --> K
    K --> L
    K --> M
    K -.-> N
    L -.-> A
    M -.-> A
    N -.-> A
  
```

**Source:** [www.manage.gov.in/extnref/ATMA.pdf](http://www.manage.gov.in/extnref/ATMA.pdf)

**Aims and objectives** of ATMA are:

- i) To identify location-specific needs of farming community for farming system-based agricultural development;
- ii) To setup priorities for sustainable agricultural development with farming system approach;
- iii) To draw plans for production-based system activities to be undertaken by farmers / ultimate users;
- iv) To execute plans through line departments, training institutions, NGOs, farmers' organizations and allied institutions;
- v) To coordinate efforts being made by various line departments, NGOs, farmers' organizations and allied institutions to strengthen research-extension-farmers linkages in the district and to promote collaboration and coordination between various state-funded technical departments;
- vi) To facilitate the empowerment of farmers / producers through assistance for mobilization, organization into associations, cooperatives, etc., for their increased participation in planning, marketing, technology-dissemination and agro-processing, etc; and
- vii) To facilitate market interventions for value addition to farm produce.

### **2.5.23 Market-led Extension (1999-2000)**

Indian agriculture has made rapid strides in the last half century by augmenting the annual food grain production from 51 million tonnes in the early fifties to 209 million tonnes in 1999-2000 and steered the country to a status of self-sufficiency. It has been successful in keeping pace with the rising food demand of growing population. Food grain production quadrupled in the last 50 years while population nearly tripled from 350 million to one billion during this period. Significantly, the extension system had played its role untiringly in transfer of production technologies from lab to land besides the agricultural scientists, farmers and marketing network.

Though the production has increased dramatically, not so much bothered about remunerative prices. Small and marginal farmers generally prone to sell their produce on "as is where basis" due to several constraints like repayment of personal hand loans and to meet domestic needs. Quantum increase in production alone could not help the farmers, hence need is felt to sensitize the farmers about the existence of market facilities, good returns on the produce, etc.

With the globalization of market, farmers have to transform themselves from mere producers-cum-sellers in the domestic market to a wider market to best realize the returns for their investments, risks and efforts. If this is to be achieved, farmers need to know answers to questions like: *what to produce, when to produce, how much to produce, when and where to sell, at what price and in what form to sell their produce?* Farmers have been receiving most of the production technologies from extension system. *However, the extension system now needs to be oriented with knowledge and skills related to the market.*

In the changing scenario of Indian agriculture, with newly added facets and challenges of marketing, the extension system is likely to undergo series of *crises* (Sagar Mondal and Ray, 2006).

- *Knowledge and skill input crisis:* Besides the production technologies, the extension educationists now have to get equipped with latest market-related information which requires additional funding for their further training.
- *Efficacy crisis:* Since the extension system is already under criticism with increasing demand for its enriched role, it needs to gear-up itself to perform multiple activities to prove its efficacy.
- *Credibility crisis:* Even with all the market-knowledge and efficacy in performing their role, the personnel extension system may face the credibility crisis due to rapid and unexpected changes in the market.
- *Reorganization structure crisis:* with the assumption of new roles, the organizational structure may be prone to changes and the system has to adjust itself to this shock.

To avoid such crises, there is a need for paradigm shift from production-led extension to market-led extension.

**Table 2.1: Paradigm Shift from Production-led Extension to Market-led Extension**

|                                            | <b>Production-led Extension</b>                                                                                           | <b>Market-led Extension</b>                                                                                                                                           |
|--------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Purpose / objective</b>                 | Transfer of production technologies.                                                                                      | Enabling farmers to get optimum returns out of the enterprise.                                                                                                        |
| <b>Expected end results</b>                | Delivery of messages. Adoption of package of practices by most of the farmers.                                            | High returns.                                                                                                                                                         |
| <b>Farmers seen as</b>                     | Progressive and high producers.                                                                                           | Entrepreneurs and "Agripreneurs".                                                                                                                                     |
| <b>Focus</b>                               | Production / yields — "Seed to seed"                                                                                      | Whole process as an enterprise/high returns — "money to money"                                                                                                        |
| <b>Technology</b>                          | Fixed package recommended for an agro-climatic zone covering very huge area irrespective of different farming situations. | Diverse baskets of package of practices suitable to local situations /farming systems.                                                                                |
| <b>Extension educationist interactions</b> | Messages, Training, Motivating, Recommending.                                                                             | Joint analysis of the issues — varied choices for adoption consultation.                                                                                              |
| <b>Linkages / liaison</b>                  | Research—Extension—Farmer.                                                                                                | Research—Extension—Farmer extended by market linkages.                                                                                                                |
| <b>Extension educationist's role</b>       | Limited to delivery mode and feedback to research system.                                                                 | Enriched — with market intelligence, besides the TOT function. Establishment of marketing and agro-processing linkages between farmer groups, markets and processors. |
| <b>Contact with farmers</b>                | Individual                                                                                                                | Farmers interest groups. Focused groups / SHGs.                                                                                                                       |
| <b>Maintenance of Records</b>              | Not much importance as the focus was on production.                                                                       | Very important as agriculture is viewed as an enterprise to understand the cost-benefit ratio and the profits generated.                                              |
| <b>Information Technology support</b>      | Emphasis on production technologies.                                                                                      | Market intelligence including likely price trends, demand position, current prices, market prices, communication network, etc. besides production technologies.       |

Market-led extension system establishes its position by helping the farmers realize high returns for the produce and minimize the production costs to improve the product value and marketability. Information technology — electronic and print media — need to be harnessed to disseminate the production and market information. Indian farmers have moved from subsistence to self-sufficiency due to advent of production technologies. In order to be successful in the liberalized market scenario they have to shift their focus from 'supply-driven' to 'market-driven' strategies and produce according to the market needs and earn high returns.

### 2.5.24 Swarnajayanti Grama Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) (1999)

Swaranjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY), a Centrally Sponsored Scheme was launched with effect from 1-4-1999 by merging IRDP and allied programmes like TRYSEM, DWCR, MWS into a single self-employment programme. Funds under the SGSY are shared by the Central and State Governments in the ratio of 75:25. SGSY aims at establishing a large number of micro-enterprises in the rural areas built upon the potential of the rural poor. Under the SGSY, assistance is given to the poor families living below the poverty line in rural areas for taking up self-employment. The persons taking up self-employment are called swarozgaris. They may take up the activity either individually or in groups, called the *Self-Help Groups* and emphasis was given to group approach in this programme. For successful self-employment, it is necessary to take up the right activity. For this purpose, 4 to 5 activities are selected in each Block with the help of officials, non-officials and the Bankers. These are called '*Key Activities*', and should be such that they give the Swarozgaris substantial income (Sagar Mondal and Ray, 2006).

**Objectives** of SGSY are:

- Focused approach to poverty alleviation.
- Capitalizing advantages of group lending.
- Overcoming the problems associated with multiplicity of programmes.

The aim of SGSY is to bring every assisted family above poverty line within three years time. SGSY is intended to be a holistic programme of micro-enterprises covering all aspects of self-employment viz. formation of self-help groups, capacity building, planning activity, infrastructure build-up, technology, credit and marketing. This programme adopted a project approach in each key activity identified in the locality by integrating various agencies like District Rural Development Agencies, Panchayat Raj Institutions, Banks, line departments, non-governmental agencies and other semi-government agencies. The effort is to cover 30% of the rural poor in each Block in the next five years. Identification of individual families suitable for each key activity is done through a participatory approach.

SGSY is a credit-cum-subsidy programme where credit forms the critical component. SGSY seeks to promote multiple credit rather than one-time credit injection. This programme lays emphasis on *skill development through training courses*. It also proposes to ensure technology up-gradation in identified activity clusters. Market intelligence, developments of markets, consultancy services, etc. are the market promotion activities envisaged under this programme. SGSY provided for uniform subsidy at 30% of the project cost, subject to a maximum

of Rs.7500. In respect of SC/STs, the subsidy and the maximum were 50% and Rs.10,000/- respectively. For *group Swarozgaris* the subsidy was kept at 50% of the project cost, subject to a maximum of Rs.1.25 lakhs. There was no limit on subsidy for irrigation projects. Subsidy will be back-ended. The programme expected at least 50% of the swarozgaris (self-employment seekers) to be SC/STs, 40% to be women and 3% disabled.

### **2.5.25 Providing Urban Amenities in Rural Areas (PURA) (2004)**

PURA is a Rural Development programme announced by The President of India on the eve of 54<sup>th</sup> Republic day of India i.e. on 26<sup>th</sup> January 2004. The programme aims at providing amenities similar to urban areas to the rural people. Cluster-based approach was adopted to achieve uniform development of rural areas ([rural.nic.in/.../pura/Presentation](http://rural.nic.in/.../pura/Presentation)).

**Mission:** “Holistic and accelerated development of compact rural areas around a potential growth centre in a Panchayat (or group of Panchayats) through Public-Private Partnership (PPP) for provision of urban amenities in rural areas thereby improving the quality of life to bridge the rural-urban divide”.

**Primary Objective** is to provide urban amenities in rural areas. Other objectives include: i) Reduction in migration from rural to urban areas, and ii) Ensuring in-situ livelihood opportunities.

**Project area:** A Gram Panchayat / a cluster of geographically contiguous Gram Panchayats with a population of about 25,000 – 40,000. It is a scheme to bridge rural-urban areas and achieve balanced socio-economic development by identifying the village clusters with growth potential and creating following types of connectivity within them:

- Road, Transport and Power Connectivity;
- Electronic Connectivity (IT, Telecom);
- Knowledge Connectivity (Educational Training Institutes); and
- Market Connectivity.

**Amenities to be provided** include the following.

*i) Water supply*

- Piped-water supply through individual household connections.
- Sustainability of water supply through water harvesting and water recharge activities.

*ii) Sewerage*

- 100% coverage of sewerage connections to individual households.

*iii) Solid waste management (SWM)*

- 100% coverage of SWM services to individual households.
- Scientific treatment of solid waste.

*iv) Village streets and drainage*

- 100% of village streets paved along with storm water drains covering the entire rural population.
- 100% of village streets to have street lighting.

v) *Increase in employment*

- Increased economic activity for employment of the entire village population.
- Improving the standard of living to halt the migration of the population to the urban areas.

### 2.5.26 National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) (2005-2012)

Recognizing the importance of health in the process of economic and social development and improving the quality of life of our citizens, the Government of India has resolved to launch the National Rural Health Mission during 2005 to carry out necessary architectural correction in the basic health care delivery system. The Mission adopts a synergistic approach by relating health to determinants of good health viz. segments of nutrition, sanitation, hygiene and safe drinking water. It also aims at mainstreaming the Indian systems of medicine to facilitate health care. The Plan of Action includes increasing public expenditure on health, reducing regional imbalance in health infrastructure, pooling resources, integration of organizational structures, optimization of health manpower, decentralization and district management of health programmes, community participation and ownership of assets, induction of management and financial personnel into district health system, and operationalizing community health centers into functional hospitals meeting Indian Public Health Standards in each Block of the Country ([www.apard.gov.in/nrhm\\_ap.pdf](http://www.apard.gov.in/nrhm_ap.pdf)).

**Goals** of the mission: These include the following.

- Improving the availability of and access to quality health care by people, especially for those residing in rural areas, the poor, women and children.
- Reduction in Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) and Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR).
- Universal access to public health services such as women's health, child health, water, sanitation and hygiene, immunization, and nutrition.
- Prevention and control of communicable and non-communicable diseases including locally endemic diseases.
- Enhancing access to integrated comprehensive primary healthcare.
- Population stabilization, gender and demographic balance.
- Revitalization of local health traditions and mainstream AYUSH.
- Promotion of healthy life-styles.

**Strategies:**

i) *Core strategies* are the following.

- Train and enhance capacity of Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRIs) to own, control and manage public health services.
- Promote access to improved healthcare at household level through the female health activist (ASHA).
- Health plan for each village through Village Health Committee of the Panchayat.

- Strengthening sub-centre through a untied fund to enable local planning and action and more Multi-Purpose Workers (MPWs).
- Strengthening existing PHCs and CHCs, and provision of 30-50 bedded CHC per lakh population for improved curative care to a normative standard (Indian Public Health Standards defining personnel, equipment and management standards).
- Preparation and implementation of an inter-sectoral District Health Plan prepared by the District Health Mission, including drinking water, sanitation and hygiene, and nutrition.
- Integrating vertical Health and Family Welfare programmes at National, State, Block, and District levels.
- Technical support to National, State and District Health Missions for public health management.
- Strengthening capacities for data collection, assessment and review for evidence-based planning, monitoring and supervision.
- Formulation of transparent policies for deployment and career development of human resources for health.
- Developing capacities for preventive health care at all levels for promoting healthy life styles, reduction in consumption of tobacco and alcohol, etc.
- Promoting non-profit sector particularly in underserved areas.

ii) ***Supplementary Strategies:*** These include the following.

- Regulation of Private Sector including the informal rural practitioners to ensure availability of quality service to citizens at reasonable cost.
- Promotion of Public-Private Partnerships for achieving public health goals.
- Mainstreaming AYUSH – revitalizing local health traditions.
- Reorienting medical education to support rural health issues including regulation of Medical care and Medical Ethics.
- Effective and viable risk pooling and social health insurance to provide health security to the poor by ensuring accessible, affordable, accountable and good quality hospital care.

### **2.5.27 National Agricultural Innovation Project (2006)**

Agriculture is and will continue to be the main driver of country's economic growth with social justice. Our agriculture did extremely well and it was on the ascendency till the mid-nineties, but after that the growth slowed down. Since 1996-97 the growth rate of agricultural GDP has been, on an average, 1.75 % per year in contrast to the rate of 4% that is required. On the other hand, the farmer has been facing rising input costs, declining returns from the inputs, uncertain market, increasing role of market in agriculture and blurring of distinction between the domestic market and the international market. To assist the farmer in these changing contexts, new strategies and innovative solutions are urgently required

which in turn will require technological support. Hence, the agricultural research system which generates technologies has to conduct the business of agricultural research in an innovative way. Therefore, World Bank aided National Agricultural Innovation Project (NAIP) has been conceived to pilot this innovation in conducting agricultural research ([www.naip.icar.org.in/downloads/pip.pdf](http://www.naip.icar.org.in/downloads/pip.pdf)).

**The basic principles of NAIP** include the following.

- 1) Providing the agricultural research and technology development system an explicit development and business perspective through innovative models. In other words, the agricultural research system should be able to support agriculture as a business venture and also as a means of security of livelihood of the rural India while maintaining excellence in science.
- 2) Making the National Agricultural Research System (NARS) a 'pluralistic' system where every organisation – public, private or civil society – having stake in agricultural research has to play a role.
- 3) Working in well-defined partnership groups with clear common goals and understanding on sharing responsibilities and benefits.
- 4) Funding through competition so that a wide choice of excellent innovative ideas come in from the stakeholders themselves.
- 5) Working with focus, plan and time-frames.
- 6) Developing well-tested models for application of agricultural research and technology for profitability of farming, income generation and poverty alleviation.

**Objectives of NAIP:** The overall general objective of NAIP is to facilitate an accelerated and sustainable transformation of the Indian agriculture so that it can support poverty alleviation and income generation through collaborative development and application of agricultural innovations by the public organizations in partnership with farmers' groups, the private sector and other stakeholders.

The **specific objectives** envisaged are:

- 1) To build the critical capacity of the ICAR as a catalyzing agent for management of change in the Indian NARS.
- 2) To promote 'production to consumption systems research' in priority areas / themes to enhance productivity, nutrition, profitability, income and employment.
- 3) To improve livelihood security of rural people living in the selected disadvantaged regions through technology-led innovation systems, encompassing the wider process of social and economic change covering all stakeholders.
- 4) To build capacity to undertake basic and strategic research in frontier areas to meet challenges in technology development in the immediate and predictable future.

In order to address the problems plaguing Indian agriculture, it is critical to redirect and augment resources devoted to agricultural research to the farming and

livelihood systems of the poor rural communities. To utilize the technological breakthroughs that are already available for commercial use, the agricultural research priorities and strategies will have to be revisited and new system-wide approaches need to be developed and adopted.

The NAIP envisages to put up a coordinated effort on the following:

- Policy and technology options will be screened or tested by the end-user for applicability as well as for economic, social and environmental sustainability.
- In the applied and adaptive research projects, the end-user of innovations will be involved from the start of programme and projects and will remain partner till their completion.
- Both indigenous knowledge and frontier technologies will be used to generate the targeted products.

**Research and Development Priorities of the NAIP:** National Agricultural Policy, the Tenth Five-Year Plan of India (2002-07) including its Mid-Term Appraisal Report, the recommendations of the National Commission of Farmers and several consultations held with a wide array of stakeholders reflected the following broad national and sectoral level thrust areas.

- Agricultural Diversification:*** For making the Indian agriculture profitable, sustainable and competitive, target should be a multi-faceted approach with greater appreciation for various site-specific needs and compulsions of the farming systems, agro-climatic conditions, endowments of land and water resources, rural infrastructure, and the market-demand both within and outside the country. Facilitating services and support systems, covering credit, extension, marketing, prices, etc are critical for successful diversification. This would require efficient field operations / hatchery management; facilitating and improving processing, post-harvesting management and marketing; quality assurance and strengthening of infrastructure for rapid multiplication of disease-free planting material. On-farm experimentation should be accorded high priority for testing and disseminating technologies suitable for increasing food, feed, fodder and fuel (rural energy) security, and improving the livelihoods of resource-poor farmers.
- Livestock and Fisheries Production:*** Emerging as “sunrise sectors” livestock in India is largely owned by small and marginal farmers and landless people in rural areas, especially in the dry land areas. So, this sector’s rapid growth provides direct benefits to the poorer households. Further, the contribution of women in these sectors is substantial. Focused attention on genetic up-gradation, nutrition, management, disease surveillance and control, production of feeds, diagnostic kits and vaccines, post-harvest handling and processing and marketing of livestock and aquaculture produce, by-produce and wastes will certainly bring prosperity to the poor and gains to the country. Studies on monitoring and control of trans-boundary livestock diseases have important implications for human health, international trade and compliance with hygiene and sanitary requirements of the importing country.
- Genetic Resources and Bio-prospecting:*** Genetic resources (plant, animal and microbial) constitute one of the most important and invaluable natural resources and their proper documentation and effective utilization is an

important endeavour. Regular improvements in germplasm (plants and animals, including fish and microbes) and nutritional value of staple foods, besides management of diseases and pests of crops and livestock need to be continually attempted. Bio-prospecting will have to lay the foundation for effective mining and targeting the transfer of genes for specific traits. The vast microbial gene pool has to be explored and utilized for crop and animal improvement. This is the capital and knowledge-intensive sector, but at the same time warrants strong public-public and public-private partnerships. Interactions between research institutions and the industry need to be strengthened for realizing the full potential of frontier sciences.

- iv) ***Natural Resource Management:*** In view of the increasing water scarcity and the growing competition for water-use in agriculture, household and industry, efficient and sustainable management of water resources, with focus on watersheds and local-level community management is needed. Through its Consortia approach, the NAIP will aim to combine short- and possibly long-term economic benefits (farmers' interests) with long-term environmental concerns (public interest) and favorable institutional development. Soil health has been affected adversely owing to depletion of organic carbon, imbalanced use of nutrients, micronutrient deficiency, Integrated Production and Nutrient Management (IPNM) approach with appropriate policies, precision-agriculture, etc. may be explored to tackle the inadequate replenishment of nutrients to the soil. Global warming is becoming an important issue for sustainable agriculture. Understanding its effects and developing adaptation and mitigation strategies should receive attention. Selected areas having competitive advantage and technologies that support modern organic farming may be generated/ strengthened. This research will not only contribute to enhanced nutritional and environmental security but also improve export prospects of agri-products.
- v) ***Integrated Pest Management:*** Pesticides are often not accessible to small-scale farmers and also skills and knowledge related to sound use of pesticides is lacking. Pesticide-misuse is therefore a significant health and economic hazard to producers, consumers and the environment. The evolution of new races, pathotypes, strains and biotypes of the pathogens and insect-pests worsens the scenario further. In this context, to manage such biotic stresses, efficient and effective integrated approaches are required. Consortia within the NAIP may take up elaboration and validation of IPM policies and practices for the ecologically-tolerable and economically-sustainable use of pesticides.
- vi) ***Value-addition and Post-harvest Processing:*** Value-addition to and post-harvest processing of agri-produce is an area of immense significance to meet the global competition. At present, only 7% of the output of the agricultural sector is provided value-addition and 2% of the volume of perishables is processed. In view of the small and scattered farm holdings and a majority of farmers being resource-poor, strengthening of co-operatives, self-help groups, and contract-farming assumes significance. Processing technologies need to follow the changing consumption patterns. Establishing local storage and small-scale processing capacity to minimize post-harvest losses is important.

- vii) **Research on Policy Analysis and Market Intelligence:** In the scenario of globalization and emergence of increasingly competitive, fast-changing and quality-conscious markets the importance of market intelligence to predict the trends and develop models for forecasts cannot be overemphasized. Integration of markets within the country and with world markets, supported by appropriate policies, needs to be seriously considered.

## **2.5.28 Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MNREGA) (2005/2009)**

Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MNREGA) was enacted by legislation on August 25, 2005 and the Scheme was launched in 2006. It was initially called the *National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA)* but was renamed as MNREGA on 2 October 2009. The scheme provides a legal guarantee for one hundred days of employment in every financial year to adult members of any rural household willing to do public work-related unskilled manual work at the statutory minimum wage of Rs.100 per day. The Central government outlay for scheme is Rs.40,100 crores in Financial Year 2010-11.

This act was introduced with an aim of improving the purchasing power of the rural people, primarily semi or un-skilled people living in rural India, whether they are below the poverty line or not. Around one-third of the stipulated work force is women. The government is planning to open a call center, which upon becoming operational can be approached on the toll-free number, 1800-345-22-44. The Act directs state governments to implement MNREGA “schemes”. Under the MGNREGA the Central Government meets the cost towards the payment of wage, 3/4 of material cost and some percentage of administrative cost. State Governments meet the cost of unemployment allowance, 1/4 of material cost and administrative cost of State council. Since the State Governments pay the unemployment allowance, they are heavily incentivized to offer employment to workers ([www.nrega.net/...rural.../CFDA-..](http://www.nrega.net/...rural.../CFDA-..)). However, it is up to the State Government to decide the amount of unemployment allowance, subject to the stipulation that it is not to be less than 1/4th the minimum wage for the first 30 days, and not less than 1/2 the minimum wage thereafter. 100 days of employment (or unemployment allowance) per household must be provided to able and willing workers every financial year.

**Process:** Adult members of rural households submit their name, age and address with a photo to the *Gram Panchayat*. The Panchayat registers households after verification and issues a job card. The job card contains the details of the adult member enrolled and his/her photo. A registered person can submit an application for work in writing (for at least fourteen days of continuous work) either to the Panchayat or to the Programme Officer, based on which daily unemployment allowance will be paid to the applicant, if employment is not provided to the person concerned.

**Key Stakeholders** are: i) Wage seekers, ii) Gram Sabha, iii) PRIs, specially the gram panchayat, iv) Programme Officer at the block level, v) District Programme Coordinator, vi) State Government, and vii) Ministry of Rural Development.

**Salient Features of the Act:** These features include the following.

- i) Adult members of a rural household, willing to do unskilled manual work, may apply for registration in writing or orally to the local Gram Panchayat.
- ii) The Gram Panchayat after due verification will issue a Job Card. The Job Card will bear the photograph of all adult members of the household willing to work under NREGA and is free of cost.
- iii) The Job Card should be issued within 15 days of application.
- iv) A Job Card holder may submit a written application for employment to the Gram Panchayat, stating the time and duration for which work is sought. The minimum days of employment have to be at least fourteen.
- v) The Gram Panchayat will issue a dated receipt of the written application for employment, against which the guarantee of providing employment within 15 days operates.
- vi) Employment will be given within 15 days of application for work, if it is not, then daily unemployment allowance as per the Act has to be paid; liability of payment of unemployment allowance is of the States.
- vii) Work should ordinarily be provided within 5 km radius of the village. In case work is provided beyond 5 km, extra wages of 10% are payable to meet additional transportation and living expenses.
- viii) Wages are to be paid according to the Minimum Wages Act 1948 for agricultural labourers in the State, unless the Centre notifies a wage rate which will not be less than Rs.60/- per day. Equal wages will be provided to both men and women.
- ix) Wages are to be paid according to piece rate or daily rate. Disbursement of wages has to be done on weekly basis and not beyond a fortnight in any case.
- x) At least one-third beneficiaries shall be women who have registered and requested work under the scheme.
- xi) Work site facilities such as crèche, drinking water, shade have to be provided.
- xii) The shelf of projects for a village will be recommended by the *gram sabha* and approved by the *zilla panchayat*.
- xiii) At least 50% of works will be allotted to Gram Panchayats for execution.
- xiv) Permissible works predominantly include water and soil conservation, afforestation and land development works.
- xv) A 60:40 wage and material ratio has to be maintained. No contractors and machinery is allowed.
- xvi) The Central Government bears the 100 percent wage cost of unskilled manual labour and 75 percent of the material cost including the wages of skilled and semi-skilled workers.
- xvii) Social Audit has to be done by the Gram Sabha.

- xviii) Grievance redressal mechanisms have to be put in place for ensuring a responsive implementation process.
- xix) All accounts and records relating to the Scheme should be available for public scrutiny along with the details of the key stakeholders, their roles and responsibilities for effective implementation of NREGS.

The MGNREGA aims to achieve twin objectives of rural development and employment. The MGNREGA stipulates that works must be targeted towards a set of specific rural development activities such as: water conservation and harvesting, afforestation, rural connectivity, flood control and protection such as construction and repair of embankments, etc. Digging of new tanks/ponds, percolation tanks and construction of small check dams are also given importance.

**Check Your Progress**

- Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.
- b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”
- 6) List out important programmes / schemes launched during intensive extension development Era in independent India.

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**2.6 LET US SUM UP**

In this unit we have discussed the history of extension education starting from the birth of the department of agriculture to the present extension programmes. Pre-independence era comprised of extension efforts made by different national leaders at different places like Shriniketan, Marthandam, Sevagram, Gurgaon, Firka development scheme, etc. The beginning of post-independence era comprising Grow More food Campaign, Etawah pilot project, Community Development, National Extension Service, Democratic Decentralization are also discussed. In addition, under post-independence era we have also highlighted the recent intensified efforts made for development of extension with focus gradually shifted from purely agricultural and community development to technological development to development with social justice to infrastructure development, among others.

## 2.7 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS' QUESTIONS

- 1) Important efforts of rural reconstruction that took place during pre-independence period are briefly described below.
  - *Sir Daniel Hamilton's Scheme of Rural Reconstruction:* In 1903, Sir Daniel Hamilton formed a scheme to create model villages, in an area in urban Bengal), based on cooperative principles. He organised one village of this type and set up one Cooperative - Credit Society, organised a Central Cooperative Bank and Cooperative Marketing Society and established a Rural Reconstruction Institute in 1934.
  - *Shriniketan:* Shri Rabindra Nath Tagore, under his scheme of rural development work, started youth organisations in the villages in the Kaligram Pargana of his Zamindari with the help of K. Elmhirst. He tried to create a class of functionary workers who could learn to identify themselves with the people. In 1921, he established a Rural Reconstruction Institute at Shantiniketan and called it as Shriniketan.
  - *Sevagram:* People know Gandhiji not only as a Mahatma, or a political agitator, but also as a social and economic reformer. He made people knew that India lives in village and that the common man's uplift is the uplift of the country. Regarding development work in the country, he emphasized that the "Salvation of India lies in Cottages". The key words of his economy are: (i) Decentralized production and equal distribution of wealth, (ii) self-sufficiency of Indian villages; equal distribution of wealth brought about not by the cruel process of extermination but through the hearts of the owners by persuasion and appeal to the better sense or man.
  - *Marthandam:* It was set up under the auspices of Y.M.C.A. (Young Men's Christian Association) in Travancore in 1921. It was intended to symbolize the three-fold development of spirit, mind and body and evolved a five-sided programme representing spiritual, mental, physical, economic and social development. The essential technique of the centre was 'self-help with intimate expert counsel'.
  - *Gurgaon experiment:* Rural uplift movement on a mass scale was first started during 1927 by Mr. F. L. Brayne, Deputy Commissioner in the Gurgaon district of Punjab, adjacent to Delhi. Under his programme, a village guide was posted. Main objectives of the project included: increasing agricultural production, improvement of health and home.
  - *The Royal Commission Report 1928:* The Royal Commission Report (1928) established a firm foundation for the coordinated research activity. It also imbibed the agricultural administration with a new life indicating ways and means to make the organization dynamic in its activities.
  - *Rural Reconstruction in Baroda:* V. T. Krishnamachari in Baroda state conducted rural reconstruction programme in 1932. His programme aimed at developing a will to live better and develop capacity for self-help and self-reliance. The programme included the items like improvement of communications, digging of water wells, distribution of seeds and establishment of Panchayats, Cooperatives, etc.

- *Firka Development Scheme of Madras State:* It was Government sponsored scheme aimed at the attainment of the Gandhian ideal of Gram Swaraj by bringing about not only educational, economic, sanitary and other improvements in villages, but also by making the people self-confident. This programme was started by Madras Government under the leadership of Shri T. Prakasam.
- 2) The major shortcomings of the extension efforts of pre-independence era are as follows.
- Most of them were of individual initiative.
  - Government backing and financing were not forthcoming.
  - Most of the efforts are isolated, uneven, and discontinues.
  - Staff were mostly inexperienced and untrained.
  - Plans and programmes were ill-defined, and unbalanced.
  - No evaluation was carried out, hence results not known.
  - Association and coordination with other development Departments was limited.
  - Involvement of people in planning and execution was limited.
- 3) The Grow More Food Campaign was an organized effort launched in the post-independence period (in year 1947) to increase agricultural production. It became very popular campaign in the country. Under this programme additional staffs were provided at District and Sub-divisional (Taluka) levels. But, even after four years of working of this programme, it was observed, that the system was not functioning properly and cultivators response towards the programme was very poor. Hence, a committee was appointed to enquire into the working of this programme and to suggest ways and means of improving it. The main recommendations of the G. M. F. Enquiry Committee Report (1952) were as follows:
- The administrative machinery of the Government should be reorganized and equipped for the efficient discharge of the duties imposed on it under the new concept of India, as a welfare state;
  - The best non-official leadership available should be mobilized for guiding the 60 million farm families in the villages in their effort to improve their own condition;
  - An extension organization should be setup for rural work which would reach every farmer and assist in the coordinated development of all aspects of rural life;
  - The pattern of staffing should consist of a BDO, four technical officers and twelve VLWs for a Tahsil or Taluk, with an average of 120 villages;
  - The development activities at the District level shall be under the Collector assisted by Specialists. The non-official side shall consist of a District Board to which MPs and MLAs should be added as members;
  - At the State level there should be a cabinet and a non-official board for facilitating joint action. The Development Commissioner should be in-charge of the entire rural development programme; and

- The economic aspect of village life cannot be detached from broader social aspect- agricultural improvement is, in every respect linked up with a whole set of social problems. All aspects of life are inter-related and no lasting results can be achieved if individual aspects of it are dealt with in isolation.

4) *Etawah Project (1948-52)*: The Pilot Project in Rural Planning and Development, Etawah, played a key role in reorganizing the set-up of rural reconstruction for rural development and can be regarded as a forerunner of the Community Development Projects in India. After an initial period of trial and error lasting over a year and a half, an administrative pattern was evolved which for the first time facilitated extension activities to percolate to the village level.

5) Community Development is a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and initiative of the community. It is technically-aided and locally-organized self-help activity for development of the community. The *Principles of community development* are as follows:

- Activities undertaken must correspond to the basic needs of the community. The first project should be initiated in response to the expressed needs of the people.
- Local improvements may be achieved through unrelated efforts in each substantive fields through multipurpose programmes.
- Changed attitudes in people are as important as the material achievements of community projects during the initial stages of development.
- Community development aims at increased and better participation of the people in community affairs.
- The identification, encouragement and training of local leadership should be a basic objective in any programme.
- Greater reliance on the participation of women and youth in community projects invigorates (refreshes) development programmes.
- To be fully effective, self-help projects for communities require both intensive and extensive assistance by the Government.
- Implementation of a community development programme on a national scale requires adoption of consistent policies, and specific administrative arrangements.
- The resources of voluntary, non-governmental organizations should be fully utilized in community development programmes at the local, national and international level.
- Economic and social progress at the local level necessitates parallel development on a wider national scale.

*Objectives of community development*: The fundamental or basic objective of Community Development in India is the development of people or "Destination Man". Its broad objectives are: i) Economic development, ii) Social Justice, and iii) Democratic growth.

- 6) Following are the important programmes/schemes launched during the intensive extension development era.
- Intensive Agricultural District Programme (IADP) (1960)
  - Intensive Agricultural Area Programme (IAAP) (1964)
  - High Yielding Varieties Programme (HYVP) (1966)
  - National Family Welfare Programme (1966)
  - Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA) (1970-1971)
  - Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labour Scheme (MFAL) (1971-1972)
  - Integrated Tribal Development Agency (ITDA) (1971-1972)
  - Drought Prone Area Programme ( DPAP) (1973-74)
  - Training and Visit system (T&V System) (1974)
  - Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) (1978-1979)
  - Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM) (1979)
  - Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) (1982)
  - National Agriculture Extension Project (1983)
  - Technology Mission on Oilseeds (1986)
  - Watershed Development Programme (WSDP) (1987)
  - Jawahar Rojgar Yojana (JRY) (1989)
  - Rastriya Mahila Khosh (RMK) (1993)
  - Mahila Samridhi Yojana (MSY) (1993)
  - Pulse Polio Programme (1994)
  - Institute-Village Linkage Programme (IVLP) (1995-96)
  - Agricultural Human Resource Development Programme (AHRDP) (1995)
  - Swarnajayanthi Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) (1999)
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  - Agricultural Technology Management Agency (ATMA) (2001-02)
  - Market-led Extension (1999-2000)
  - Providing Urban Amenities in Rural Areas (PURA) (2004)
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## UNIT 3 EXTENSION METHODS AND MEDIA

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### Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Extension Methods
  - 3.2.1 Individual Methods
    - 3.2.1.1 Farm and Home Visits
    - 3.2.1.2 Office Calls
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  - 3.2.3 Mass Media Methods
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- 3.3 Factors Influencing Selection and Use of Extension Methods
  - 3.3.1 Selection and Use of Extension Methods
  - 3.3.2 Combination of Extension Teaching Methods
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- 3.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.6 Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions
- 3.7 References

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### 3.0 INTRODUCTION

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In Unit 1 you have learnt that the changes in an individual's behavior are produced by increasing his/her knowledge level, improving skills and effecting attitudes. For these changes to happen, an individual has to be taught, trained and/or communicated. So, the extension education emphasizes the process of communication — a teaching- learning process — in which a situation is created by an extension worker/teacher with a view to bring in change in an individual's behaviour. This situation is an environment in which the elements like teacher, learner, subject-matter, physical facilities and teaching methods and aids are present in a dynamic relationship with one another. The quality of learning depends upon the conditions created by the *teacher*, an instructor or an extension educator for learners to learn. However, the *learner* is the key element in the teaching and learning process. His willingness and desire for change are very important. The third element, *subject-matter*, is the content of the message that the extension worker wants to transfer to the client. Transfer of the subject matter will be easy and effective if it is valid, correct, based on facts, applicable to practical life

situation and need-based. Effective teaching-learning process is also affected if *physical facilities* like place, light, ventilation, seating arrangements, etc., are not properly provided to both teachers as well as to the learners. Besides all these, the transfer of subject matter to the learners requires the help of suitable *teaching methods, aids and media*. Proper selection and handling of methods and aids facilitate in creating the desirable learning situation. The teaching methods, aids and media should be simple, easy to handle, suitable to subject-matter, readily available, suited to the environment and needs of the learners.

In this unit we will discuss in detail about extension methods and media — their types, classification, selection, use, functions and evaluation.

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### **3.1 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through this Unit, it is expected that you will be able to:

- Explain the importance of different methods and aids used in extension teaching;
- Distinguish difference between and among different teaching methods;
- Select the appropriate methods suitable to different contexts in extension teaching; and
- Describe the importance of cone of experience in teaching-learning process.

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### **3.2 EXTENSION METHODS**

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We all know that effective learning depends upon effective teaching. Effective teaching and creation of learning environment in extension largely depend upon the teaching methods/extension methods /extension teaching methods used by extension educator. Proper selection and skillful handling of extension methods bring out expected changes in adult members of the community (Here, for our convenience we like to mention that the words 'extension method', 'teaching method' and 'extension teaching method' are used interchangeably and carry the same meaning in this unit). Extension method is a technique and/or tool used to create a learning situation in which effective communication can take place between the learners (may be an adult or rural farmer) and the teacher/extension educator.

The main *functions of extension methods* as mentioned by Sharma (2008, p.58) are as follows:

- i) To create an environment in which communication takes place so that the learner may see, hear and do things to be learnt.
- ii) To provide stimulation that causes the desired mental and/or physical action on the part of the learner.
- iii) To take the learner through one or more steps of the teaching-learning process, viz. attention, interest, desire, conviction, action and satisfaction.
- iv) To provide an atmosphere to teacher to establish rapport with learner so that communication process becomes easier.

**Classification of Extension Methods:** The extension methods are broadly classified on the basis of their: a) use (Wilson and Gallup, 1955), b) form (Bains, 1987, p.42), and c) function (Mathialagan, 2007, p.219).

- 1) **Classification according to use:** Based on their use (Wilson & Gallop, op.cit.) classified extension methods as follows.

| a) Individual methods                                                                                                                                                | b) Group methods                                                                                                                                                                                              | c) Mass media methods                                                                                                                                                                                                                          |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Farm and home visit</li> <li>• Office calls/Farmer's call</li> <li>• Telephone calls</li> <li>• Personal letters</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Method demonstration</li> <li>• Result demonstration</li> <li>• All types of Meetings</li> <li>• Group discussion</li> <li>• Tours</li> <li>• Field trips</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Farm Publications (Leaflets, Folders, Pamphlets, Bulletin, Newsletters, etc.)</li> <li>• Circular letters</li> <li>• Campaign</li> <li>• Exhibition</li> <li>• Television</li> <li>• Radio</li> </ul> |

- 2) **Classification According to Form:** Based on their form, Brains (op. cit.) classified extension methods as follows.

| a) Written                                                                                                                                | b) Visual                                                                                                                                           | c) Spoken                                                                                                                                                               | d) Spoken and Visual                                                                           |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Personal letters</li> <li>• Circular letters</li> <li>• Leaflets</li> <li>• Bulletins</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Result Demonstration</li> <li>• Posters</li> <li>• Exhibits</li> <li>• Slides</li> <li>• Charts</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Farm and Home visit</li> <li>• Office calls</li> <li>• Telephone calls</li> <li>• General meetings</li> <li>• Radio</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Method Demonstration</li> <li>• Television</li> </ul> |

- 3) **Classification According to Function:** Based on their function, Mathialagan (op. cit.) classified extension methods as follows.

| a) Telling                                                                                                                                                                                | b) Showing                                                                                                                                          | c) Doing                                                                                                                                                                         |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lecture</li> <li>• Meetings</li> <li>• Audio lessons</li> <li>• Farm &amp; home visit</li> <li>• Radio talk</li> <li>• Extension talk</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exhibition</li> <li>• Tours</li> <li>• Motion picture</li> <li>• Video text</li> <li>• Internet</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Practical work</li> <li>• Workshop</li> <li>• Method Demonstration</li> <li>• Result demonstration</li> <li>• Do it yourself</li> </ul> |

The methods mentioned under each category above are neither exhaustive nor mutually exclusive. Further, the range and variety of methods covered in these classifications are more or less same, but with slightly different names.

We will discuss below the individual, group and mass media methods classified according to their use for the purpose of extension education.

### 3.2.1 Individual Methods

These methods are followed when the number of people to be contacted is few and they are located nearer to the extension agent or office of the extension agent. Using an individual method, the extension agent communicates with the people individually. In an individual method, an extension worker contacts directly as an individual through various means of individualized communication. The benefits of these methods are: a) closer supervision of clients, with a capability for spotting problems, and doing so quickly; b) quicker intervention to deal with the problems spotted; and c) closer interaction with clients, presumably leading to better rapport and to feelings of support.

The advantages and disadvantages of individual-based methods, in general, are as follows.

#### *Advantages*

- i) It provides opportunities to extension agent in building rapport with clients.
- ii) It facilitates gaining firsthand knowledge of farm and home.
- iii) It helps in selecting demonstrators and local leaders.
- iv) It helps in teaching complex practices.
- v) It helps in changing attitude of the people.
- vi) It facilitates transfer of technology.
- vii) It facilitates getting feedback information.

#### *Limitations*

- i) Individual-based method is time-consuming and relatively expensive.
- ii) Its coverage of clients is very limited.
- iii) There is possibility that the extension agent may develop favoritism or bias towards some persons due to his/her frequent interactions.

The individual contact may be established through the farm and home visits, office calls, informal contacts, telephone calls, personal letters, etc. These specific methods are discussed below.

#### 3.2.1.1 Farm and Home Visits

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

##### **i) Objectives or Purposes:** These are:

- To obtain and/ or give first-hand information on matters relating to farm and home conditions.
- To give advice or otherwise assist to solve a specific problems; or to teach skills, etc.,
- To arouse the interest of those not reached by other methods.
- To promote good public relations.
- To sustain interest in adoption of new technology.

ii) **Steps involved in farm or home visit as a technique:** Following are the steps involved in it.

a) *Planning and preparation*

- Decide on the client and the objective — whom to meet and what for?
- Get adequate information about the matter you are going to discuss
- Collect relevant publications and materials to be handed over.
- Make a schedule of visits to save time and energy.
- Send advance information, if possible.

b) *Implementation*

- Visit on the scheduled date and time or according to the convenience of the farmer and when the person is likely to listen.
- Create interesting the farmer and allow him/her to talk first.
- Present the message or points of view and explain up to the satisfaction of the farmer.
- Answer the questions raised and clarify doubts. Hand over publications.
- Try to get some assurance for action.

c) *Follow-up*

- Keep appropriate record of visit.
- Send committed information or material.
- Make subsequent visits as and when necessary.

iii) **Advantages and Disadvantages:** The advantages and disadvantages of the farm and home visits include the following.

*Advantages*

- The extension worker gets first-hand information on rural problems.
- It helps him in rapport-building with farmer.
- He develops confidence when his ideas are accepted by the farmers.
- It helps him in locating local leaders and getting their co-operation.
- Those farmers who could not be contacted by other methods can be contacted by this method.
- It is more effective; percentage of adoption is high.

*Limitations*

- Only limited number of contacts may be made.
- Requires relatively large amount of time of extension worker.
- Comparatively costly method than other methods.
- Attention may be concentrated on a few big and progressive persons; neglecting the large number of small, marginal, and tribal farmers, landless labour and backward people; which may prejudice them.

### 3.2.1.2 Office Calls

What is an office call? It is a call made by a farmer or a group to the extension worker at his office for obtaining information and for inputs or other farm-helps needed or for making acquaintance with him.

#### i) *Objectives or Purposes*

- To get quick solutions relating to the problems.
- To enable the farmer and home-maker to bring specimens for proper identification of the problem.
- To ensure timely supply of inputs and services.
- To act as a reminder to the extension agent.
- To promote close contact between farmers and extension worker.

#### ii) *Technique of Office Calls:* It involves the following steps.

##### a) *Planning and preparation*

- Keep the office neat, orderly and attractive.
- Remain present in the office on the days which have been communicated to the farmers in advance.
- Organize an information centre in the office or at least put up a few boards in the office room and display current leaflets, folders, photographs, charts, etc. relating to important projects and extension activities in the area.

##### b) *Implementation*

- Allow the visitor to talk first and make the point.
- Discuss about his/ her problems and suggest solutions.
- If necessary, take the person to the subject-matter specialist.
- Put maximum effort to make visitor satisfied.

##### c) *Follow-up*

- Make a note of the call, if necessary.
- If required, refer the problem to research for solution.
- Supply further information and materials if such commitment has been made.

#### iii) *Advantages and Disadvantages:* The advantages and disadvantages of office calls include the following.

##### *Advantages*

- Economic use of the extension workers' time and energy.
- Farmers are likely to be highly receptive to learning.
- It develops good-will and confidence in the client.
- It reinforces other methods.
- It is the sign of confidence that the farmer has in the extension worker and respect for his ability.

### *Limitations*

- It is not possible to get detailed first-hand knowledge of the farmer's problems and activities.
- Limited contact with the farmer.
- Waiting for visitors who are not turning up is waste of time.

### **3.2.1.3 Personal Letters**

Personal letters are the individual letters written by the extension worker to individual farmers in connection with extension work.

#### **i) Objectives or Purposes:** *These are:*

- To answer the queries relating to problems of farm and home.
- To send information or seek cooperation on important extension activities.

#### **ii) Personal Letters as a Technique:** While using personal letters as a technique one should keep the following in mind.

- Send the letter in time, or if a letter has already been received, send a prompt reply.
- The content should be clear, complete, to the point and applicable to farmer's own situation.
- Use simple and courteous language.

#### **iii) Advantages and disadvantages:** The advantages and disadvantages of personal letters are as follows.

##### *Advantages*

- Useful to reach more number of farmers at a time.
- Less costly method.
- Easier to seek farmer's co-operation for extension work.
- Useful to educate farmers.
- Suitable method to reach farmers who could not be reached by the farm and home visit or office call methods.

##### *Limitations*

- It is a time-consuming method.
- If the majority of the farmers are 'illiterates' this method has limited usage.
- It is difficult for the extension worker to answer 'each and every' individual problem.
- Only few persons can be contacted.
- Difficult to teach a skill.

### Check Your Progress

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under  
“Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”

1) What are the main functions of extension methods?

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2) Classify extension teaching methods on the basis of their functions?

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### 3.2.2 Group Methods

Using methods an extension worker communicates with a small number of people in a group. The size of a small group may be from 15 to 25, a medium group from 35 to 50 and a large group from 50 to 100 persons. Examples of group methods are result demonstration, method demonstration, group meeting (discussion), small group training, field day or farmers’ day, study tour, etc. The advantages and limitations of group methods, in general, are as follows.

**Advantages:** Group methods:

- Enable the extension agent to have face-to-face contact with more number of people at a time;

- Are helpful in reaching selected target groups;
- Facilitate sharing of knowledge and experience and thereby strengthen learning of the group members;
- Reach fewer people, but offer more opportunities for interaction and feedback;
- Satisfy the basic urge of people for social contacts;
- Motivate people to accept change due to group influence;
- More effective than mass method in stimulating action; and
- Less expensive than individual method due to more coverage.

**Limitations:** These include the following.

- Wide diversity in the interest of group members may create a difficult learning situation.
- Vested interests, caste groups and village factions may hinder free interaction and decision-making by the group members.
- Difficult to give attention to all members.

### 3.2.2.1 Method Demonstration

*Method demonstration* is an extension teaching method conducted by an extension worker, or a trained leader or specialist for a group of persons to show how to carry out a new skill or to improve an old skill not being properly executed.

In method demonstration, an extension worker shows how to do job step by step such as clean milking procedure. This method not only provides the worth of the practice but also tells how to do it. It is not an experiment, but it is a teaching effort. The farmers watch the process and listen to the oral explanation to clear up points. To increase the farmers' confidence in their ability as many farmers as possible are asked to repeat the demonstration in the presence of the extension worker.

i) **Objectives or Purposes:** These are:

- To teach skills and stimulate people to action.
- To enable people to improve upon their old skills.
- To improve upon the result by doing a job in a better way.
- To build up learners' confidence and satisfaction on the practice.
- To demonstrate a practice to a group of people in short time.

ii) **Method Demonstration as a Technique:** The technique of method demonstration requires the following steps.

a) **Planning and preparation:** It involves the following.

- Select appropriate topic which is important for the client for demonstration.
- Select and finalize the target audience and venue of demonstrations.
- Contact subject-matter specialists and make necessary arrangements for their participation.

- Collect relevant information and arrange materials and equipments beforehand.
  - Identify and list the steps of demonstrations, and practice for its correct presentation.
  - Decide on the date and time in consultation with the local leaders and give timely intimation to others.
- b) *Implementation*: It involves the following.
- Reach the demonstration site on the scheduled date and time.
  - Explain about the demonstration to the participants.
  - Conduct operation of the activity step-by-step and explain in each step why it is important. Repeat difficult steps.
  - Ask the participants one by one or in small batches to practice the skill. Clarify doubts and answer their questions.
  - When everybody has practiced the skill and has expressed confidence, emphasize on the key points again.
- c) *Follow-up*: It is done as follows.
- Keep a record of the participants and maintain contact with them.
  - Assist the participants in getting the required materials and equipments.
- iii) ***Advantages and limitations***: Like other methods it also has advantages and limitations.

*Advantages*

- It is very effective in teaching new skill.
- It stimulates action and builds confidence among the participants.
- Serves publicity purpose.
- It introduces a change of practice at low cost.

*Limitations*

- Suited only to the 'skill involving technologies'.
- Transporting the materials and equipments to the demonstration plot is difficult.
- It requires lot of planning.
- It causes a setback if whole programme is not properly coordinated.

### **3.2.2.2 Result Demonstration**

Result Demonstration method is one which is conducted by a participating farmer on his/her farm under the guidance of an extension worker to prove by evidence that the practice being demonstrated is superior in its effects/results to that of the one in existence. It is a way of showing the farmer the value or worth of a practice whose success has already been proved or established in research stations. In this method the new practice is compared with the old one in farmer's land, and the villagers are asked to see the result with their own eyes and judge the result.

i) **Objectives or Purposes:** These are:

- To show the feasibility and applicability of a newly recommended practice in farmer's own situation.
- To motivate groups of people in a community to adopt a new practice by seeing its result.
- To build-up confidence of the farmers and extension agents.

ii) **Technique of Result Demonstration:** It involves the following steps.

a) **Planning and preparation:** It involves the following.

- Analyze farmer's situations and select relevant profitable practices in consultation with research workers and farmers.
- Consult local leaders and select a demonstrator who is interested in improving his practices and make him ready to do demonstration in farmer's field.
- Select the site of demonstrations where it will be easily visible to a large number of people in the community.
- Prepare a calendar of operations.

b) **Implementation:** It should:

- Give wide publicity before starting the demonstration.
- Arrange all necessary materials required for demonstration.
- Organize materials and equipments necessary for conducting the demonstrations.
- Start demonstration in front of the group of villagers.
- Explain the objectives and steps to the farmers to whom the demonstration is being done.
- Arrange method demonstration as well where a new skill is involved.
- Put up suitable signboards in prominent places.
- Provide for personal supervision of all critical operations.
- Conduct field day or farmers' day to successful demonstration events.
- Help the demonstrating farmers to maintain records.
- Motivate as many farmers as possible to remain present at the time of assessment of the result.
- Let the demonstrating farmers explain to the visitors as far as possible.
- Analyze and interpret the results, and compare them with the farmers' existing practice.
- Emphasize applicability of the new practice in the farmers' own situations.

c) *Follow-up*: It should:

- Give wide publicity to the results of demonstration.
- Use the result of the demonstrations in future extension works.
- Utilize demonstrating farmers in farmers' meetings and training programmes.
- Prepare visual aids particularly photographs, coloured slides, charts, etc. on the demonstrations for future extension programmes.

iii) *Advantages and limitations*: It has the following advantages and limitations.

*Advantages*

- It is useful in introducing new practices.
- It enhances the confidence of extension workers regarding the suitability of recommended practices in village conditions.
- The successful demonstrator becomes the resource person for the extension worker.

*Limitations*

- It requires lot of time and preparation on the part of the extension worker.
- It is a costly teaching method.
- It is difficult to find a good demonstrator who will keep record.
- Unsuccessful demonstrations may cause some setback to extension work.

### 3.2.2.3 Meetings / Group Discussion

Meetings are one of the oldest and the most important group methods of extension teaching. If properly conducted, the benefits are higher compared to other methods in relation to the cost of using methods. The term meeting includes all kinds of meetings held by extension worker. In size, the meeting varies from small committee meeting to large special occasion meetings like *melas* and festival meeting attended by thousands.

*Types of meetings*: Kelsey and Hearne (1963) identify five general types of meetings involved in extension work, viz.:

- i) Organization meetings (board of directors' meet, youth clubs, etc),
  - ii) Planning meetings (village planning meeting),
  - iii) Training meetings (rural leaders' training),
  - iv) Special interest meetings (special meeting about dairying), and
  - v) Community meetings (community meet for general problems).
- i) **General meeting**: It is broadly a meeting of heterogeneous participants wherein certain information is passed on for consideration and future action. The term 'General Meeting' includes all kind of meetings conducted by

extension workers. It is of a large variety in terms of size and form. It varies from a small committee meeting to those held in special occasions like *melas* or festivals attended by thousands of people. The meetings may be held periodically or sporadically.

ii) **Objectives or Purposes:** These are:

- To effectively reach and serve large numbers.
- To prepare the people for the other methods of extension work.
- To find out the reaction of the people to certain activities.

iii) **Meeting as a Technique:** It involves the following steps.

a) **Planning and Preparation:** It should:

- Decide the topic, the venue and the participants.
- Collect relevant information and teaching materials for the meeting.
- Inform the resource persons and subject-matter specialist.
- Arrange social and recreational features.
- Advertise meeting in advance.

b) **Implementation:** It should:

- Hold the meeting preferably in a central place having all physical facilities.
- Start the meeting on scheduled date and time.
- State the purpose and objective of the meeting.
- Make introduction brief and precise.
- Prompt in starting and closing the meeting.
- Use appropriate audio-visual materials.
- Encourage audience participation when required.
- Take advantage of group psychology and employ appeals that arouse interest, create desire and stimulate action.
- Give recognition to all sections and groups participating in the meeting.
- Associate local leaders for welcoming the gathering or thanking the participants, if possible.
- Acknowledge the services briefly and then indicate the follow up work, if any.
- Distribute relevant folders and pamphlets at the time of break.

c) **Follow-up:** It should:

- Remind the members about the decision(s) taken in the meeting and encourage them to take action.
- Facilitate the supply of inputs.
- Sustain interest through personal contact.

iv) **Advantages and limitations:** It has the following advantages and limitations.

*Advantages:* These include the following.

- Large number of people can be reached.
- Serves as a preparatory stage for other methods.
- Group psychology can be used in promoting the programme.
- Reactions of the people to a programme can be assessed.
- Adoption of practices can be accomplished at low cost.

*Limitations:* These include the following.

- Meeting place and facilities are not always adequate.
- Scope for discussion is limited except possibly for few questions and answers.
- Handling the topic becomes difficult because of mixed composition of audience.
- Circumstances beyond control like factions and weather might reduce the attendance.
- Requires understanding of group dynamics to handle the group by extension worker.

**Check Your Progress**

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under  
“Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”

3) Distinguish between Method demonstration and Result demonstration.

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### 3.2.3 Mass Media Methods

The mass media methods are followed where a large and widely dispersed audience is to be communicated within a short time. There may be a few communicators such as the extension agent and some subject-matter specialists. Depending upon the method, the size of the audience vary widely may be a few hundred in mass meeting, few thousands in campaign and exhibition, and millions in newspaper, radio and television.

The advantages and limitations in general of the mass media methods are as follows.

**Advantages:** These methods:

- Are suitable for creating general awareness amongst the people.
- Help in transferring knowledge and, forming and changing opinions.
- Can communicate to large number of people within a short time.
- Facilitate quick communication in times of emergency.
- Reinforce previous learning.
- Are less expensive due to more coverage.

**Limitations:** These methods:

- Are less intensive.
- Have little scope for personal contact with the audience.
- Have little opportunity for interaction with and amongst the audience.
- Hinder application by individuals, as they provide generalized recommendations.
- Have little control over the responses of the audience.
- Pose difficulties in getting feedback information and evaluation of results.

Mass media methods like farm publications, newspaper articles, circular letters, radio, television, posters, exhibits, etc. disseminate information to a much larger audience at faster rate than the individual or group methods but their impact is less than the former categories of methods.

#### 3.2.3.1 Farm Publications

Extension worker uses various types of farm publications to communicate messages to farmers and some of them are discussed below.

- **Leaflet:** It is a single printed sheet of paper of small size, containing preliminary information relating to a topic. It is made as and when needed and normally distributed free-of-cost.
- **Folder:** It is also a single printed sheet of paper of big size, but folded once or twice, and gives essential information relating to a particular topic. It is also printed as and when required and normally distributed free-of cost.
- **Bulletin:** It is a printed, bound booklet with a number of pages, containing comprehensive information about a topic. It is made as and when necessary. A small price may be fixed on some important bulletins.

- **Newsletter:** It is a miniature newspaper in good quality paper, containing information relating to the activities and achievements of the organization. It has fixed periodicity of publication and normally distributed free-of-cost.

Farm publications are extremely useful to the literate farmers, and even illiterate farmers can make use of them with the help of literate members in their family. Farm publications are used by all types of extension functionaries, input dealers, bank personnel and media persons.

**i) Objectives or purposes:** These are:

- To provide precise and reliable scientific information in simple language.
- To serve the immediate needs of the farmer on any important issue.
- To reach a large number of people quickly and simultaneously at a low cost.
- To provide accurate, motivating, creditable and distortion-free information.
- To provide support to other extension methods.
- To facilitate use at convenience and to serve as future reference.

**ii) Farm Publication as a Technique:** Using farm publications involves the following steps.

**a) Planning and preparation:** It should:

- Select a topic of economic and practical importance, for which information is needed by the audience.
- Estimate the time required to prepare the manuscript, print and dispatch, and plan publication in such a way that it reaches the audience in time.
- Check up availability of funds and decide on the number of copies to be printed. It may be useful to have more copies at less-cost than a few copies at high cost.

**b) Implementation**

- Collect relevant information on the topic from all available sources.
- Contact specialists relating to relevant disciplines.
- Prepare the draft in clear, simple, short and direct sentences, keeping the target audience in view.
- Arrange write-up in short paragraphs, in a logical sequence.
- Give suitable title to the publication and sub-heads to the paragraphs.
- Devote the first paragraph to highlight the economic and other benefits. This may be printed in bold letter.
- Present all weights and measures clearly and directly.
- Put suitable diagrams, photographs and sketch for better understanding.

- Go for pre-testing before mass publication.
- Put the name of the department and the organization below the press line including under whose authority it is being published.

c) *Follow-up:* It should:

- Arrange for timely dispatch of the publication to the target audience and for the extension programmes.
- Dispatch publications to the media persons and others according to the mailing list.
- Attend to the requests for publications promptly.
- Try to get feedback information from the users.
- Maintain appropriate records for free distribution and sale of publications.

iii) *Advantages and limitations:* Farm publications have the following advantages and limitations.

*Advantages:* Farm publications:

- Can reach a large section of literate people quickly and simultaneously.
- Can be read at leisure and preserved for future use.
- Supplement other teaching methods.
- Influence adoption of practices at relatively lower cost.
- Can be used to continue contact with extension agency.

*Limitation:* Farm publications:

- Are not suitable for illiterate audience.
- May lose their significance if not carefully prepared and used.
- Are required to be up-to-date with periodical version, as and when necessary.
- Cannot be used in exclusion of other methods.

### 3.2.3.2 Circular Letters

It is a letter reproduced and sent to many people by the extension worker to publicize an extension activity or to give timely information on farm and home activities.

i) *Objectives or Purposes:* These are:

- To maintain regular contact with farmers.
- To communicate some general information which could best be put in the form of a letter.
- To stimulate interest in the subject.

ii) **Circular Letter as a Technique:** Using circular letter as a techniques involves the following steps.

a) *Planning and preparation:* It should:

- Determine the place of the circular letter in teaching plan.
- Determine the specific purpose and the segments of clients to be reached.
- Plan letter to serve the definite purpose.
- Have a single purpose and write in simple language.
- Give complete information.
- Be clear in statements which should lead to action.
- Be a part of a programme or campaign.

b) *Implementation:* It should:

- Write circular letters and get them duplicated.
- Write appealing to the immediate personal interest of the clients.
- Give a cartoon or illustration containing the central idea.
- State the facts concerning the nature of seriousness of the problem.

c) *Follow-up:* It should:

- Dispatch the circular letters to the target audience in time.
- Attend the queries of the clients related to letter promptly.
- Try to get feedback information from the users.
- Maintain appropriate dispatch register.

iii) **Advantages and limitations:** Circular letter has the following advantages and limitations.

*Advantages:* Circular letter:

- Information can reach large number of people in short time.
- Can be preserved and used for future reference.
- Is comparatively cheap.
- Provides accurate information.
- Is easy to make.

*Limitations:* Circular letter:

- Is less useful in low literacy area.
- Cannot be used in exclusion of other methods.

### 3.2.3.3 Campaign

It is an intensive educational activity undertaken at an opportune time for a brief period focusing attention in concerted manner on a particular problem with a view to stimulate the widest possible interest in a community, block or other geographical area.

The duration of a campaign may be *for single day* on a theme like 'application of bio-fertilizer', *for a few weeks* as in family planning, *for a few months* as in Vanamahostava (tree planting) and *for a few years* as in 'Grow More Food' campaign. A campaign may be held by involving a small number of people in a few villages, or by involving an entire community or the entire nation over the whole country as in 'Pulse Polio' campaign. Campaign on certain themes (say, environment, disease control etc.) may be organized over the whole world.

i) **Objectives or Purposes:** These are:

- To draw attention of the large number of people to an important issue.
- To create mass awareness about an important problem or felt-need of the community and encourage them to solve it.
- To induce emotional participation of the community at the local level and create a favourable psychological climate for adoption of new practices.

ii) **Campaign as a Technique:** It involves the following steps.

a) **Planning and preparation:** It should:

- Identify, with the help of local leaders, an important problem or need of the community for the campaign.
- List out specialists, local leaders and other persons who could be involved in solving it. Train the required personnel.
- Decide with the local leaders about the time of holding the campaign and its duration.
- Arrange necessary inputs, services and transport.
- Prepare a written programme of the campaign.
- Give wide publicity in advance.

b) **Implementation:** It should:

- Carry out the campaign as per plan.
- Hold group meeting with the people and discuss about the origin and nature of the problem. Suggest practical and effective solution.
- Arrange method demonstration and training programme for the participants.
- Maintain supply of critical inputs and services.
- Keep close watch on the campaign and take corrective steps, if necessary.
- Arrange mass media coverage.
- Conclude the campaign in time.

c) *Follow-up*: It should:

- Make individuals and groups to give their reaction.
- Assess the extent of adoption of the practice.
- Publicize the events in newspaper, radio and television.
- Analyze deficiencies and failures.
- Give due recognition to the local leaders.

iii) ***Advantages and limitations***: Campaign has the following advantages and limitations.

*Advantages*: Campaigns:

- Are especially suited for mass scale adoption of improved practices.
- If successful, create conducive atmosphere for popularizing other methods.

*Limitations*: These include the following.

- Campaigns are applicable only for topics of community interest but not suitable to individual problems.
- Success of campaign depends on cooperation of the community and their leaders.
- Campaigns are not useful when advocated practice involves complicated technicalities.
- Campaign is an expensive method.
- Campaign requires adequate preparation, concerted efforts and propaganda techniques, and uninterrupted critical inputs.

#### **3.2.3.4 Exhibition**

It is a systematic display of models, specimens, charts, photographs, pictures, posters, information, etc., in a sequence around a theme so as to create awareness and interest about it in the community.

Farmers' fairs and *krishi melas* held by the agricultural universities, institutes and various other organizations in which field visit, training programmes, etc., are combined with exhibition are effective and popular. Exhibitions may also be organized by taking advantage of local fairs and festivals.

i) ***Objectives and Purposes***: These are:

- To prepare visual literacy.
- To acquaint people with better standards.
- To create interest in a wide range of people.
- To motivate people to adopt better practices.

ii) **Exhibition as a Technique:** Using exhibition as a technique involves the following steps.

a) *Planning and preparation:* It should:

- Form an exhibition committee with competent people.
- Decide on the theme and distribute the responsibility to the committee members.
- Decide on the venue, time and duration.
- Prepare a written programme and communicate it to all concerned members of the team in time.
- Get the site ready within the selected date. Make provision for essentials facilities.
- Earmark a stall for display of exhibits to be bought by the farmers.
- Arrange a *pandal* for holding meeting, training and entertainment programmes.
- Display posters at important places. Publicize about the exhibition through mass media.
- Decorate the stalls simply and tastefully and make adequate arrangements for lighting.
- Prepare good quality and colourful exhibits which shall convey the desired message to the visitors. Use local materials as far as possible. Label the exhibits in local language with bold letters.
- Display exhibits about 50 to 60 cm. above the floor of the stall, up to a height of about two meters. Maintain proper sequence. Avoid overcrowding of exhibits.

b) *Implementation:* It should:

- Organize formal opening of the exhibition by a local leader or a prominent person.
- Arrange for smooth flow of visitors.
- Use interpreters who may briefly explain the exhibits to the visitors so that the intended message is clearly communicated.
- Distribute publications / materials to visitors.
- Organize a panel of experts to be present nearby, so that the visitors who would like to know more or discuss some problems could get the desired information.
- Conduct meetings, training programmes, etc., as per schedule during the day time.
- Arrange judging of exhibits brought by the farmers and give away prizes and certificates.

- Judge the stalls, if desired, on the basis of their quality of display, ability to draw visitors and effectiveness in communicating message, and award certificates.
- Keep the exhibits and the premises clean.
- Conclude the exhibitions as scheduled by thanking the participants and those who have helped.

c) *Follow-up:* It should:

- Meet some visitors personally and maintain a visitors' book for comments during the exhibition to get feedback information.
- Talk to the local leaders and assess success of the exhibition.
- Ensure availability of critical inputs and facilities emphasized during the exhibition.
- Look for changes in practice in the community in the future.

**iii) Advantages and limitations:** Exhibition has the following advantages and limitations.

*Advantages:* Exhibition:

- Is the best method to teach illiterates.
- Creates awareness among the visitors about the products.
- Fits most for festive occasions.
- Can create market for certain products.

*Limitations:* Exhibition:

- Cannot represent the entire process of a practice.
- Requires lot of funds and preparation.
- Cannot be organised frequently.

### **3.2.3.5 Radio**

Radio is an electronic audio-medium for broadcasting programmes to the audience. It is a medium of mass communication and an efficient tool for giving information and entertainment.

This medium is cosmopolite in approach and is suitable for communication to millions of people widely dispersed and situated in remote areas. It is suitable for creating general awareness amongst the people. People with no education or very little education and those who are not in a position to attend extension programmes personally, can take advantage of this medium and build up adequate knowledge about a practice. It reaches large number of people within no time and the programmes can be listened by the people while doing work in the field or at home.

i) ***Objectives or Purposes:*** These are:

- To reach large number of people quickly and inexpensively.
- To build enthusiasm and maintain interest.

- To motivate farmers by highlighting the achievement of other farmers.
- To provide information on extension activities to farmers.

ii) **Radio Procedure or Technique:** It involves the following.

- Determine radio programme utility in teaching plan.
- Be clear about the purpose of broadcast and design the programme keeping the interest of the audience.
- Decide what treatment is to be given to the message.
- Seek assistance of experts to write message.
- Time the broadcast to synchronize the farmers' leisure hours.
- Encourage listeners to listen radio programmes and write their views to broadcasting station.
- Reply to the queries of farmers.

iii) **Advantages and disadvantages of Radio:** These include the following.

*Advantages:* Radio:

- Can reach more people quickly than any other means of communication.
- Is specially suited to give emergency and timely information (e.g. weather, disease out-break, etc.).
- Is suitable to communicate with illiterate people.
- Is relatively cheap.
- Builds interest on other extension media.

*Limitations:* Radio:

- Has limited number of broadcasting stations
- Is not within reach of all farmers
- Limits the individual application, as it provides generalized recommendations in the programme.
- Has no turning back if message is not understood.
- Has no easy means to check on results.

**Community Radio:** The radio broadcasting in India was controlled by the government prior to 2000. However, in 2002 the governments took a policy decision to allow the established institutions to set up the Community Radio Stations (CRSs) to broadcast the programmes in their campus. Thereafter, in 2006, by further liberalizing the policy, the government allowed the 'non-profit' organisations like civil society and voluntary organisations, etc., to set up the CRS to broadcast the issues relating to development and social change. Now, there are 103 operational CRSs broadcasting the programmes in different parts of the country. Out of these, 71 are run by educational institutions, 23 are run by NGOs and 9 are run by Krishi Vigyan Kendra (KVKs) and State Agriculture Universities ([www.mib.nic.in](http://www.mib.nic.in)).

Community Radio means radio broadcasting with the objective of serving the cause of the community in the service area by involving members of the community in the broadcast of their programmes. It affords a unique advantage of receiving transmission through low cost, battery operated with portable receiving sets and aimed at covering an area within 5-10 Km radius. The listeners of the programmes are the people living in the coverage zone of the community radio station.

***Institutions/Organisations eligible for Community Radio Station:*** Any institution / organization that fulfills the following criteria is eligible to set up and run CRS.

a) *Eligibility criteria*

- i) It should be explicitly constituted as a non-profit organization and should have a proven record of at least three years of service to the community.
- ii) The CRS to be created by it should be designed to serve a specific well-defined local community.
- iii) It should have an ownership and management structure that is reflective of the Community that the CRS seeks to serve.
- iv) Programmes for broadcast should be relevant to the educational, developmental, social and cultural needs of the community.
- v) It must be a legal entity i.e. it should be registered under the Societies Act or any other relevant Act for the purpose and have a proven record of at least three years of service to the community at the time of application.

b) *Types of Institutions / Organisations*

- i) Non-profit organizations like civil society and voluntary organizations registered under the societies act and having a proven record of at least three years of service to the local community at the time of application.
- ii) State Agricultural Universities (SAUs), ICAR institutions and Krishi Vigyan Kendras.
- iii) Well established educational institutions.

***Community Radio Programmes:*** The Programmes of Community Radio should be of immediate relevance to the community and focus on issues relating to agriculture, rural development, education, health, environment, etc, At least 50% of content shall be generated with the participation of the local community, for which the station has been set up. Transmission of sponsored programmes shall not be permitted except those sponsored by Central and State governments and other organizations to broadcast public interest information. The CRS shall not broadcast any programmes which relate to news and current affairs and are otherwise political in nature (Visit the website [www.mib.nic.in](http://www.mib.nic.in) for more information on Community Radio).

### **3.2.3.6 Television (TV)**

Television is an electronic audio-visual medium which provides pictures with synchronized sound. It is one of the most important mass media for dissemination

of information in the rural areas. This medium is cosmopolite in approach and can be used to create instant mass awareness. Television combines the immediacy of radio with the mobility of cinema and can carry messages over long distances at a relatively low unit-cost. Television is a multi-media equipment as it can include motion picture, recording, slide, photograph, drawing, poster, etc. Television can show recorded as well as live programmes. Television programmes may be broadly classified as commercial and non-commercial. Commercial or general telecasts are revenue earning and include music, dance, drama, serials, cinema, news, current affairs, etc. Non-commercial or educative programmes are aimed at education and development rather than entertainment. This is a very strong medium to create general awareness amongst the people about agricultural and rural development programmes. In this medium, it is possible to show all the steps of a practice to a large number of viewers either by recording or live. Now-a-days, due to substantial increase of television sets in the rural areas, number of the programmes related to agriculture are being telecast by public channels as well as private channels in the country.

### **Check Your Progress**

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”

4) What do you understand by the following?

i) Folder:

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ii) Newsletter:

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iii) Circular letter:

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iv) Campaign:

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v) Exhibition:

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### 3.3 FACTORS INFLUENCING SELECTION AND USE OF EXTENSION METHODS

In the preceding section, we have learnt that every method has its advantages and disadvantages. It is clear to us that no single method is superior to all other methods. Selection and use of a method or a combination of methods depends on many factors. We will discuss them briefly below.

#### 3.3.1 Selection and Use of Extension Methods

The selection of appropriate method is not an easy task. There is no single thumb-rule for its selection. The selection and use of an extension teaching method depends upon many factors – its nature, characteristics, effectiveness and potential use in combination with others or in media-mix, and the objective to be achieved including the time and the cost involved.

A combination of methods is often preferred to a method. In order to get more effective results, Reddy (2006, p.87) has suggested that the extension worker should:

- i) Select the appropriate methods;
- ii) Have a suitable combination of selected methods; and
- iii) Use them in proper sequence so as to have repetition in a variety of ways.

The following broad considerations should be taken into account in the selection of extension teaching methods:

- Education level of audience.
- Size of audience.
- The teaching objective.
- The subject matter.
- The state of development of extension organization.
- Size of the extension staff.
- Availability of media.
- Relative cost.
- Extension worker's familiarity.
- Problems and technological needs of the people.
- The length of time.
- The significance of the programme.
- General local conditions.
- Emergency situation.

Ray (2008, pp.135-136) has given some suggestions which is presented in Table 3.1. These may serve as guidelines for the extension agents while selecting of extension methods under different situations.

**Table1 3.1: Use of Extension Methods**

| Characteristics / Situations |                             | Extension Methods preferred |       |      |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|------|
| A) Nature of the Audience    |                             |                             |       |      |
| i) Socio-economic status     | Low                         | Individual                  | Group |      |
|                              | High                        |                             |       | Mass |
| ii) Size                     | Small                       | Individual                  | Group |      |
|                              | Large                       |                             |       | Mass |
| iii) Location                | Near                        | Individual                  | Group |      |
|                              | Far                         |                             |       | Mass |
| B) Ecosystem                 | Friendly                    | Individual                  | Group | Mass |
|                              | Inhospitable                | Individual                  | Group |      |
|                              | Hostile                     | Individual                  | Group |      |
| C) Teaching objective        | Create general awareness    |                             | Mass  |      |
|                              | Increase Knowledge          | Individual                  | Group | Mass |
|                              | Increase skill              | Individual                  | Group | Mass |
|                              | Change attitude             | Individual                  | Group | Mass |
|                              | Achieve technology transfer | Individual                  | Group |      |
| D) Extension Programme       | National Importance         | Individual                  | Group | Mass |
|                              | Local Importance            | Individual                  | Group |      |
| E) Extension Organisation    |                             |                             |       |      |
| i) Manpower                  | Limited                     |                             |       | Mass |
|                              | Sufficient                  | Individual                  | Group |      |
| ii) Funds                    | Limited                     |                             |       | Mass |
|                              | Sufficient                  | Individual                  | Group |      |
| F) Availability of time      | Limited                     |                             |       | Mass |
|                              | Sufficient                  | Individual                  | Group |      |
| G) Situation                 | Normal                      | Individual                  | Group | Mass |
|                              | Emergent                    |                             |       | Mass |

Keeping in view the broad list of suggestions mentioned above, the extension agent has to choose a particular method or combination of methods according to specific requirements of the situation. For instance, people with little or no education and low income may respond to personal visits and result demonstrations. The more educated and progressive section of the population may respond well to mass media like farm publications, exhibition, radio and television.

### 3.3.2 Combination of Extension Teaching Methods

Extension field studies (Wilson and Gallup, 1955; Roy, 1967; Sing, et al. 1971; Van den Ban and Hawkins, 1996; Reddy, 2006; etc.) conducted over long period of years show that people are influenced by extension education and changed their behaviour in proportion to the number of different teaching methods through

which they are exposed to extension. As the number of methods of exposure to extension increased, the number of farm families changing their behaviour increased. So, for wide spread response, the people may be exposed to teaching methods in several different ways. It is also proved that the combined use of several methods and their sequence is of utmost important in extension teaching to get desired result. The percentage of adoption rate is high when more methods are used than single or two methods. The extension worker should have his/her preferred choice and sequence of the methods depending upon the context in which he/she is working.

### 3.4 EXTENSION TEACHING AIDS

Extension teaching aids are instructional devices that assist the teacher to teach the learners effectively. The aids can supplement the teachers' teaching effectiveness and help the learners to learn easily, more effectively and with greater understanding. They help in stimulating the sensory organs like ears and eyes, and facilitate quick comprehension of the message by the learner. They are frequently used with various extension teaching methods to create suitable learning environment and for effecting the learners to learn.

Teaching aids are broadly classified in to three categories (Ray, 2008, pp. 138):

i) Audio aids – These are the instructional devices through which *messages can be heard but not seen*. Examples are: public address system, radio talks, tape recorders and players, telephone, etc. ii) Visual aids: These are the instructional devices through which *messages can be seen but not heard*. Examples are: film projector, overhead projector, slide projector, opaque projector, computer, chalk board, flannel board, bulletin board, poster, magnetic board, charts, flash cards, photographs, pictures, exhibits, displays, models, specimens, real objects, etc. iii) Audio-visual aids: These are instructional devices through which *a message can be heard as well as seen*. Examples are: movie, television, video player, multimedia computers, etc.

**Purpose of audio-visual aids:** These are

- To create an effective learning situation.
- To increase the concreteness, clarity and effectiveness of the message to be transferred to audience.
- To involve the most sense organs of the learners to learn.
- To speed up the process of learning.

In this context let us look at the Edger Dale's cone of experience.

#### 3.4.1 Cone of Experience

We learn through experiences. Many of our experiences are direct and many are indirect. Similarly, many are concrete and many are abstract. We gain all these experiences through our five sensory organs of seeing, hearing, touching, smelling and testing. Using one or more of these organs we gain numerous experiences every day. Edger Dale (1965) has summarized various sources of experiences in pictorial device called "Cone of Experience".

According to Dale, the cone of experience is pictorial representation explaining the inter relationships of the various types of audio-visual materials as well as

their individual “position” in the learning process. The source of experience at the pinnacle of the cone is least effective, although most widely used. The more a particular method involves our sensory organs, the more effective it is producing the desired learning. As we go up the cone, we find that the use of sensory organs is diminished. As such the bottom most and the top most sources represent the two extremes in the use of sensory organs. In order to present this proportion in its true perspective, Edger Dale has selected the shape of a cone which has maximum space at the bottom and minimum at the top. In this cone, each division represents a stage between the two extremes of direct experience at the base and pure abstraction at the apex.

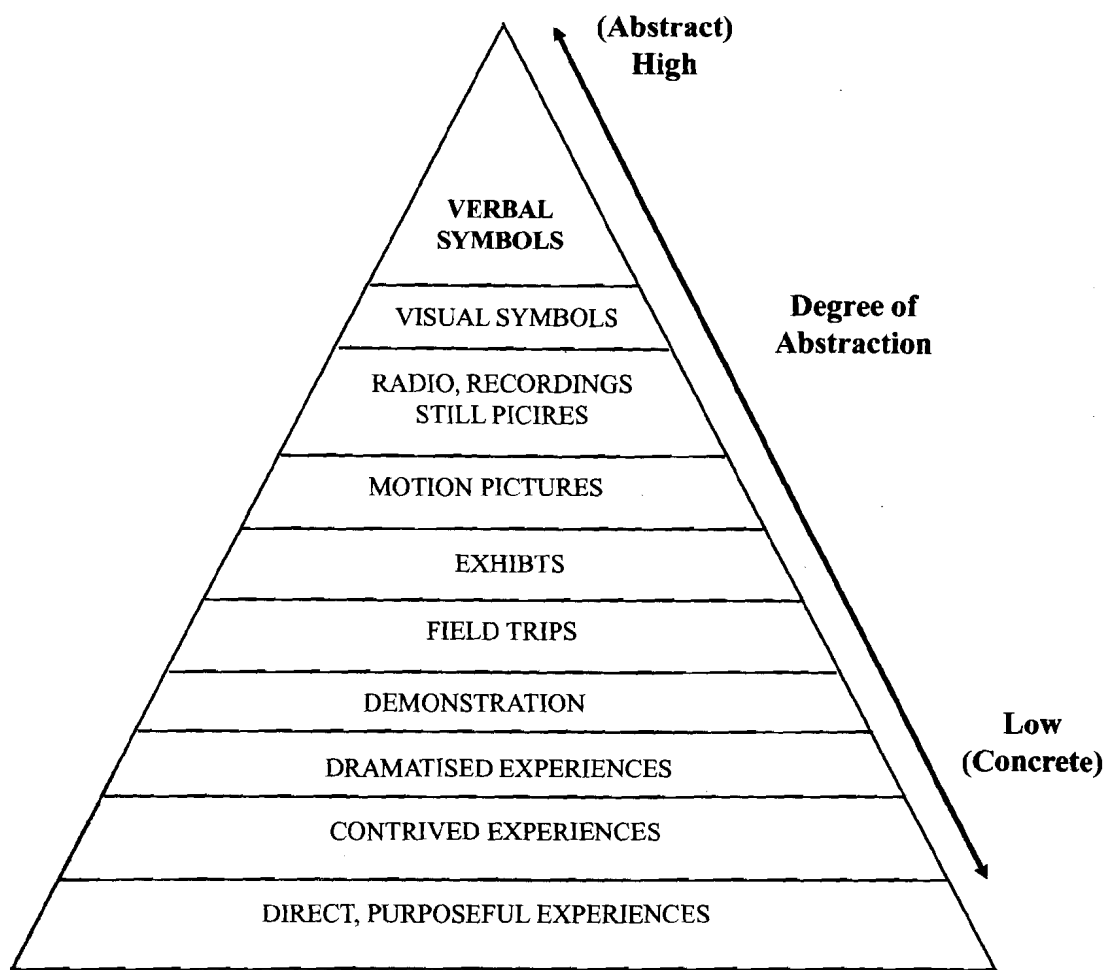


Fig.3.1: Edger Dale's Cone of Experience

A brief description of each of the sources of experience given below helps us in understanding the overall learning process from the bottom of the cone to the top of it.

- 1) **Direct purposeful experience:** It is the most effective experience in terms of achieving the best desired learning results in the learner. It involves maximum number of sensory organs. While a learner is learning to operate a power-tiller, all his mental and sensory faculties are actively engaged in the process. Therefore, he is learning by doing which is the best type of learning. This types of learning tends to be permanent and is least likely to be forgotten.

- 2) **Contrived experience:** When it is not possible to see the reality, the reality is presented in a contrived form so that it may be meaningful to viewers. It may not be possible to show a species of high-yielding dairy animal, but it may be possible to present it through a model so that one could get a comprehensive idea of about the animal and its external features. Editing of the reality is called contrived experience.
- 3) **Dramatized experience:** Some past event is presented in the form of a drama to vividly bring back to the mind the actual happening. Dramatization will have much greater impact on the mind since many more faculties will be involved in seeing and hearing rather than merely mental images as in the case of reading.
- 4) **Demonstrations:** As discussed earlier, in method and result demonstrations, the learners are not only involved in seeing and hearing but also doing with both hand and mind. This is why the demonstrations are also more effective in terms of producing desired learning than those methods where there is only seeing and/or hearing.
- 5) **Field trips:** In this case, the participants can only see and occasionally hear someone explaining the activities. There is hardly any scope for the use of manipulative skill. This is the reason why field trips are supposedly less effective than demonstration and, as such, are placed above them in the experience cone.
- 6) **Exhibits:** These are artificial representation of the reality. They can only be seen and thus employ only one sensory organ. This may account for exhibits being less effective than the field trips.
- 7) **Motion pictures:** Motion pictures are great educational medium as it arouse and sustain interest on the issues and leave lasting impression on the mind of viewers.
- 8) **Recordings, radio, still pictures:** All these employ only one sensory organ. One can only hear or see. This is the reason why they are less effective compared to motion pictures in terms of learning and hence accordingly placed in the cone of experience.
- 9) **Visual symbols:** These include the whole gamut of things that we can see with our eyes e.g. Posters, charts, flash cards, flannel graph, books, pamphlets, etc. In this type also one sensory organ is employed.
- 10) **Verbal symbols:** At the top of the cone are located the verbal symbols which are nothing but words and spoken language. Here, all reality has been withdrawn and we are left with nothing but abstractions. They are least effective in terms of producing desired learning. It may sound paradoxical that the verbal symbols are the most commonly used medium of communication not only outside but also inside the classroom even though it is least effective.

### 3.4.2 Selection and Use of Audio-visual Aids

Like teaching methods, audio-visual aids are also to be selected carefully. Use of audio-visual aids, however, will not automatically increase teaching effectiveness. They are to be developed after proper planning. The structure of the message, its

treatment and designing is important while using the aids to support the teaching. Synchronizing the audio and visual channels is very important, otherwise confusion will arise in understanding the facts. In the teaching-learning process, the audio-visual aids are used in single or in combination. However, their proper selection depends upon following factors.

***Nature of the learner:*** According to the age, education, interest, experience, knowledge, skill and intelligence of the learner the extension workers can select the aids, e.g. television or radio for illiterates.

***Teaching Objectives:*** Depending upon the type of behavioural changes expected in the learner, the extension worker may decide the use of teaching aids. He/she can use films or video shows to arouse interest among the farmers towards the adoption of a new practice.

***Subject matter:*** Based on the subject matter to be taught the extension workers can select the suitable aids, e.g. to teach the breed characters of a cattle, a colour photograph can be used.

***Experience of the teacher:*** The extension agent, and his familiarity and skill in handling the aid are also important in selection. Depending upon his/her familiarity, one may use overhead projector while the other may use multimedia computer and so on.

***Availability:*** An effective extension agent needs to consider making use of indigenous materials. For instance, when the teaching aid he would like to use is not available with the extension agent and if there is no power supply in the remote village then (s)he has to choose the non-projected visual aids.

***Cost of the aid:*** Selection of the teaching aids is dependent upon the cost factor. An extension worker should take into account the resources at his disposal while selecting teaching aids for the programme. However, one needs to remember that effective aids need not be necessarily expensive.

### **3.4.2.1 Advantages of Using Audio-visual Aids in Extension Teaching**

The advantages of using audio-visual aids in extension teaching include the following (Dale, 1965; Sandhu, 1993, p.161; and Ray, 2008, p.137).

- Reduce verbatim in teaching.
- The learner can learn faster, learn more, learn thoroughly, and remember longer.
- Add interest and involvement.
- Stimulate self-activity.
- Develop continuity of thought.
- Clarify idea being presented.
- Impress ideas more indelibly on the mind.
- Overcome the language barrier.
- Attract and hold attention.
- Arouse and sustain interest.
- Stimulate thinking and motivate action.

- Change attitude or point of view.
- Save time because they make learning easier and faster.
- Help the teacher to structure his message in a systematic manner.
- Multiply messages.

To conclude, the studies on effectiveness of teaching methods, audio-visual aids or combination of methods and aids are very limited in the discipline of extension education. Few studies on the above issues broadly indicate that the combined use of several methods and aids are always more useful than any single or two methods.

### Check Your Progress

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions.”

- 5) What are the factors to be considered while selecting audio-visual aids in extension teaching?

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- 6) What is contrived experience?

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### 3.5 LET US SUM UP

We have discussed different teaching methods — individual, group and mass media methods – and teaching aids used in extension teaching process. We have also discussed the advantages and disadvantages of these methods. The usefulness of combination of various teaching methods to meet the teaching objectives has been explained. We have explained Edger Dale’s Cone of Experience along with the individual “position” of various types of audio-visual materials in the cone and their inter-relationships. We have also provided an understanding of their use in extension teaching and in the overall perspective of learning process.

### 3.6 ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS’ QUESTIONS

- 1) The main functions of extension methods are:
  - i) To create an environment in which communication takes place between learner and teacher so that the learner can see, hear and do things required for him.
  - ii) To provide stimulation that causes the desired mental and/or physical action on the part of the learner.
  - iii) To take the learner through one or more steps of the teaching-learning process, viz. attention, interest, desire, conviction, action and satisfaction.
  - iv) To provide an atmosphere to the teacher to establish rapport with the learners so that communication process becomes easier.
- 2) The extension teaching methods classified on the basis of their function are as follows:

| (a) Telling       | (b) Showing    | (c) Doing            |
|-------------------|----------------|----------------------|
| Lecture           | Exhibition     | Practical work       |
| Meetings          | Tours          | Workshop             |
| Audio lessons     | Motion picture | Method Demonstration |
| Farm & home visit | Video text     | Result Demonstration |
| Radio talk        | Internet       | Do it yourself       |
| Extension talk    |                |                      |

- 3) The difference between method and result demonstration is presented below.

| Aspect       | Method Demonstration                                                        | Result Demonstration                                          |
|--------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| Purpose      | To teach how to do a job involving skill (to teach “doing” skills).         | To show locally the worth or value of recommended practices.  |
| Conducted by | Extension worker himself or local leader specially trained for the purpose. | Farmer (Demonstrator) under the guidance of extension worker. |

|                        |                                               |                                                                                   |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| For the benefit of     | Persons present at the demonstration.         | The demonstrator as well as farmers.                                              |
| Comparison             | Not essential.                                | Essential (Not necessary to have replication in the same field).                  |
| Maintenance of records | Not necessary.                                | Necessary.                                                                        |
| Time Required          | Relatively very little.                       | Substantial period.                                                               |
| Cost                   | Relatively cheap.                             | Costly.                                                                           |
| Interrelationship      | Often paves the way for result demonstration. | Usually follows observation plots; may involve one or more method demonstrations. |

- 4) i) *Folder*: It is a single printed sheet of paper of big size, folded once or twice, and gives essential information relating to a particular topic. It is printed as and when required and normally distributed free-of cost.
- ii) *Newsletter*: It is a miniature newspaper in good quality paper, containing information relating to the activities and achievements of the organization. It has fixed periodicity of publication and normally distributed free-of-cost.
- iii) *Circular letter*: It is a letter reproduced and sent to many people by the extension worker to publicize an extension activity or to give timely information on farm and home activities.
- iv) *Campaign*: It is an intensive educational activity undertaken at an opportune time for a brief period focusing attention in concerted manner on a particular problem, with a view to stimulate the widest possible interest in a community, block or other geographical area.
- v) *Exhibition*: It is a systematic display of models, specimens, charts, photographs, pictures, posters, information, etc., in a sequence around a theme to create awareness and interest in the community.
- 5) The following factors are to be considered while selecting audio-visual aids in extension teaching methods:
- *Nature of the learner*: According to the age, education, interest, experience, knowledge and intelligence of the learner the extension workers can select the aids, e.g. television or radio for illiterates.
  - *Teaching Objectives*: Depending upon the type of behavioural changes expected in the learner, the extension worker may decide the use of teaching aids. He/she can use films or video shows to arouse interest among the farmers towards adoption of a new practice.
  - *Complexity of the subject matter*: Based on the complexity of the subject-matter to be taught, the extension workers can select the aids e.g. to teach the breed characters of a cattle, a colour photograph can be used.

- *Experience of the teacher in handling the teaching-aids:* The extension agent, and his familiarity and skill in handling the aid are also important in selection. Depending upon his/her familiarity one may use overhead projector while the other may use multimedia computer, and so on.
  - *Availability:* An effective extension agent needs to consider making use of indigenous materials. For instance, when the teaching aid he/she would like to use is not available with the extension agent and if there is no power supply in the remote village then he/she has to choose the non-projected visual aids.
  - *Cost of the aid:* Selection of the teaching aids is dependent upon the cost factor. An extension worker should take into account the resources at his disposal while selecting teaching aids for the programme.
- 6) Edger Dale's Cone of Experience is pictorial representation explaining the inter relationships of the various types of audio-visual materials as well as their individual "position" in the overall learning process. The source of experience at the pinnacle of the cone is least effective, although most widely used. The more a method involves our sensory organs, the more effective it is and produces the desired learning. As we go up the cone, we find that the use of sensory organs is diminished. As such the bottom most and the top most sources represent the two extremes in the use of sensory organs. He has put *contrived experience* above the direct, purposeful experience on the bottom of the cone. The meaning of the contrived experience is that, when it is not possible to see the reality or real object, the reality is presented in a contrived form so that it may be meaningful to viewers. It may not be possible to show a species of high-yielding dairy animal while teaching, but it may be possible to present it through a model so that one could get a comprehensive idea of the animal and its external features.

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## **UNIT 4 DEVELOPMENT: CONCEPT, DIMENSIONS AND FACTORS**

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### **Structure**

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 An Overview of Development
  - 4.2.1 What is Development?
  - 4.2.2 Why Learn about Development?
  - 4.2.3 Scope of Development
    - 4.2.3.1 Dimensions of Development
    - 4.2.3.2 Indicators of Development
- 4.3 Human Development
  - 4.3.1 Concept of Human Development
  - 4.3.2 Human Resource Development
    - 4.3.2.1 Scope and Significance of HRD
    - 4.3.2.2 Objectives and Functions of HRD
    - 4.3.2.3 Factors Influencing HRD
  - 4.3.3 Indices of Human Development
    - 4.3.3.1 Human Development in India
- 4.4 Social Development
  - 4.4.1 Concept of Social Development
  - 4.4.2 Factors Affecting Social Development
  - 4.4.3 Indices of Social Development
- 4.5 Political Development
  - 4.5.1 Concept of Political Development
  - 4.5.2 Factors Influencing Political Development
    - 4.5.2.1 Political System and Government of the Country
    - 4.5.2.2 Strength of Vital Institutions Governing Political Development
    - 4.5.2.3 Linkages between Political Development and Economic Development
    - 4.5.2.4 Functions and Responsibilities of Political Systems in the Country
    - 4.5.2.5 Balance of Payments (BOP) and its Factors: Role of Government
    - 4.5.2.6 Political behaviour of Institutions and Individuals
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## **4.0 INTRODUCTION**

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We have provided you broad understanding of extension education in the preceding units i.e. Units 1, 2 and 3. We will now focus on concept, dimensions and factors of development. This unit will therefore provide you an overview of the nature, significance and scope development with emphasis on its different dimensions, their indicators and relative importance in the context of extension education for the unprivileged and underdeveloped in the unreached areas for their overall development.

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### **4.1 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through this unit, we expect you to be able to:

- Explain the concept and scope of development;
- Distinguish between different dimensions of development — human development, social development, political development, and economic development;
- Identify the factors and indices of human development, social development, political development and economic development; and
- Analyse and compare the factors influencing different dimensions of development.

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### **4.2 AN OVERVIEW OF DEVELOPMENT**

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Before we begin to study about development, it is important to understand exactly what we mean by 'development'. It is, of course, not easy to define 'development', because it really means different things to different people in relation to different countries. For example, can we, for sure, determine which countries are more developed and which are less developed? It is, perhaps, easier to say, than explain, which countries are richer and which are poorer and in what sense of development. It is, thus, important to know what development means, so that we may reasonably be able to determine who really are developed, less developed and so on.

#### **4.2.1 What is Development?**

Development describes the growth of humans throughout the lifespan, from conception to death. The scientific study of human development seeks to understand and explain how and why people change throughout life. This includes all aspects of human growth, including physical, emotional, intellectual, social, perceptual and personality development, among others. The scientific study of development is important not only to psychology, but also to sociology, education and health care. Development does not just involve the biological and physical aspects of growth, but also the cognitive and social aspects associated with development throughout life (Kendra Cherry, see [http://psychology.about.com/od/developmentecourse/f/dev\\_faqs.htm](http://psychology.about.com/od/developmentecourse/f/dev_faqs.htm)).

Development is a complex issue, with many different and sometimes contentious definitions. *A basic perspective equates development with economic growth.* The United Nations Development Programme uses a more detailed definition: ‘*development is to lead long and healthy lives, to be knowledgeable, to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living and to be able to participate in the life of the community.*’ Achieving human development is linked to a third perspective of development which views it as *freeing people from obstacles* that affect their ability to develop their own lives and communities. *Development, therefore, is empowerment:* it is about local people taking control of their own lives, expressing their own demands and finding their own solutions to their problems (<http://www.volunteeringoptions.org/VolunteeringDevelopment/WhatisDevelopment/tabid/78/Default.aspx>).

Development has many meanings depending on the context it is being talked about. It refers to transforming the people’s ways of living/doing things for the better (Advanced Oxford Learners Dictionary, 2006). In the context of knowledge and learning, it is the positive transformation / change of people’s ways of living, attitudes and behaviours as a result of their exposure/access to relevant, adequate and timely information services, courtesy of the prevailing digital age/revolution (<http://www.google.co.in/search?hl=en&source=hp&q=what+is+development&aq=l&aqi=g10&aql=&oq=What+is+de>).

Development means “the movement upward of the entire social system... This social system encloses, besides the so-called economic factors, all non-economic factors, including all sorts of consumption by various groups of people; consumption provided collectively; educational and health facilities and levels; the distribution of power in the society; and more generally economic, social, and political stratification; broadly speaking institutions and attitudes to which we must add ....” (Gunnar Myrdal, see <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4224356>).

So, you can also try to reflect upon and formulate your own definition of development as you learn more about the relationships among its main components / dimensions and factors that have their relative significance in your situation.

#### **4.2.2 Why Learn about Development?**

Volunteers travel to developing countries to work on a huge variety of projects such as assisting in under-resourced schools, offering expertise at under-equipped medical facilities, campaigning on human rights issues, providing care for HIV/AIDS orphans, promoting improved agricultural practices and so on. But, why do these problems exist in the first place and why are they not easily solved through our goodwill and charity?

It is in fact the learning about development that can help us understand more about the causes of and solutions to these problems, be better informed volunteers, addressing not just the superficial poverty related issues but the deep-rooted causes as well. It can also help us to have a more complex and accurate impression of the developing world than what is commonly shown to us through charity advertising as development. It can further help us when we return to educate others about the actual issues involved.

### 4.2.3 Scope of Development

Basically development is nothing but human development which involves social, political, economic and environmental dimensions. It means development encompasses socially, politically, economically, and environmentally sustainable development of the societies and the nation. According to the classical definition given by the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987, development is sustainable if it “meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.” It is usually understood that this “*intergenerational equity*” would be impossible to achieve in the absence of present-day social equity, if the economic activities of some groups of people continue to jeopardize the well-being of people belonging to other groups or those living in other parts of the world. Conversely, slow human development can put an end to fast economic growth. According to the Human Development Report 1996, “during 1960–1992 not a single country succeeded in moving from lopsided development with slow human development and rapid growth to a virtuous circle in which human development and growth can become mutually reinforcing.” Since slower human development has invariably been followed by slower economic growth, this growth pattern was labeled a “dead end” ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human\\_Development\\_Index](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human_Development_Index)).

#### 4.2.3.1 Dimensions of Development

As the links between economic growth and social and environmental issues are better understood, experts including economists tend to agree that this kind of growth is inevitably unsustainable — that is, it cannot continue along the same lines for long. *First*, if environmental and social/human losses resulting from economic growth turn out to be higher than economic benefits (additional incomes earned by the majority of the population), the overall result for people’s well-being becomes negative. Thus, such economic growth becomes difficult to sustain politically. *Second*, economic growth itself inevitably depends on its natural and social/human conditions. To be sustainable, it must rely on a certain amount of natural resources and services provided by nature, such as pollution absorption and resource regeneration. Moreover, economic growth must be constantly nourished by the fruits of human development, such as higher qualified workers capable of technological and managerial innovations along with opportunities for their efficient use: more and better jobs, better conditions for new businesses to grow, and greater democracy at all levels of decision-making (<http://www.google.co.in/search?hl=en&source=hp&q=what+is+development&aq=1&aql=&oq=What+is+de>).

However, governments have to make appropriate kinds of decisions on a regular basis. If such decisions are to reflect the interests of the majority, they must be taken in the most democratic and participatory way possible. But, even in this case, there is a high risk that long-term interests of our children and grandchildren end up unaccounted for, because future generations cannot vote for themselves. Thus, to ensure that future generations inherit the necessary conditions to provide for their own welfare, our present-day values must be educated enough to reflect their interests as well.

The challenge is further complicated by the fact that in today’s interdependent world many aspects of sustainable development are in fact international or even

global. On the one hand, many decisions taken at the national or even local level actually have international consequences – economic, social, environmental. When these consequences are negative, the situation is sometimes referred to as “exporting unsustainability.” On the other hand, national policies are often inadequate to effectively deal with many challenges of sustainability. Thus, international cooperation on the wide range of so-called trans-boundary and global problems of sustainable development becomes indispensable. Arguably, the most critical problem of sustainable development — in each country as well as globally — is eradicating extreme poverty. That is because poverty is not only an evil in itself but also stands in the way of achieving most other goals of development. Another, closely related, global problem is establishing and preserving peace in all regions and all countries. War, as well as poverty, is inherently destructive of all economic as well as social and environmental goals of development.

#### 4.2.3.2 Indicators of Development

Different countries have different priorities in their development policies. But, to compare their development levels, it is essential to make up one's mind as to what really constitutes development or what is supposed to be achieved and whether the same has been achieved. Indicators measuring this achievement could then be used to judge countries' relative progress in development such as:

- Increasing national wealth;
- Improving the well-being (nutrition, education, health and wealth) of the majority of the population;
- Ensuring people's freedom;
- Increasing their social and economic security.

But, indicators of only wealth, which reflect the quantity of resources available to a society, do not provide sufficient information about the allocation and consumption of the resources — whether equitable or not in terms of their distribution among different social groups; the shares of resources used to provide free health and educational services to them; and the effects of production and consumption on people's environment; and so on. Thus, it is no wonder that countries with similar average incomes can differ substantially when it comes to people's *quality of life*; access to education and health care, employment opportunities, availability of clean air and safe drinking water, the threat of crime, and so on.

There are mainly seven indicators of development ([http://wiki.answers.com/Q/What\\_are\\_the\\_7\\_development\\_indicators#ixzzlVkeS7DpA](http://wiki.answers.com/Q/What_are_the_7_development_indicators#ixzzlVkeS7DpA)).

- i) GDP (gross domestic product) per capita.
- ii) Life expectancy.
- iii) Number of doctors per 100,000 population.
- iv) Percent of population that are undernourished.
- v) Percent of population that have access to clean safe drinking water.
- vi) Under 5 mortality rate.
- vii) Adult literacy rate.

Development depends on both social and economic factors. Accordingly development indicators are distinguished into social indicators and economic indicators. We will discuss these under dimensions of development in the succeeding sections.

### **Check Your Progress**

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”.

- 1) Explain the concept of development. Explain how learning about development is useful to us.

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- 2) What are different indicators of development?

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## **4.3 HUMAN DEVELOPMENT**

Development is basically human-centric. Hence, in this section, we focus our discussion on human development.

The study of human development is multidisciplinary as it cuts across a number of subjects/disciplines including biology, anthropology, sociology, education, history, psychology, economics, environmental science and so on. We need to understand human development which is interlinked with other dimensions of life — social, political and economic. Our knowledge and understanding of how and why people change, grow and develop can help us live our lives to the full potential.

### 4.3.1 Concept of Human Development

In a broader sense the notion of human development incorporates all aspects of individuals' well-being, from their health status to their economic and political freedom. According to the Human Development Report 1996, published by the United Nations Development Program, "human development is the end — economic growth a means." It is true that *economic growth*, by increasing a nation's total wealth, also enhances its potential for reducing poverty and solving other social problems. But, history offers a number of examples where economic growth was not followed by similar progress in human development. Instead, growth was achieved at the cost of greater inequality, higher unemployment, weakened democracy, loss of cultural identity, or overconsumption of natural resources needed by future generations.

What then is human development? Is it something like "maximizing people's happiness? Here, we can think of the different factors that usually make people feel happy or unhappy. It is an established fact that the average level of happiness in a country does not grow along with the increase in average income, at least after a certain rather modest income level is achieved. At the same time, in each country richer people usually reported slightly higher levels of happiness than poorer people, and people in countries with more equal distribution of wealth appeared to be generally happier than those in countries with rampant inequalities.

According to Ranis, et al. (2000, see [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic\\_development](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_development)), economic growth and *human development* is a two-way relationship. Moreover, the first chain consists of economic growth benefiting human development with *GNP*. Specifically, GNP increases human development by expenditure from families, government and organizations such as *NGOs*. With the rise in economic growth, families and individuals are likely to increase expenditures with their heightened incomes, which in turn leads to growth in human development. Further, with the increased consumption, health and education grow, also contributing to economic growth.

Concisely, the relationship between human development and economic development can be explained in three ways. *First*, increase in average income leads to improvement in *health* and *nutrition* (known as Capability Expansion through Economic Growth). *Second*, it is believed that social outcomes can only be improved by reducing income *poverty* (known as Capability Expansion through Poverty Reduction). *Lastly*, social outcomes can also be improved with essential services such as *education*, *healthcare*, and clean *drinking water* (known as Capability Expansion through Social Services) (Anand and Ravallion, 1993, See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic\\_development](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_development)).

### 4.3.2 Human Resource Development

In this sub-section we will discuss the human resource development (HRD) as an important dimension of development.

#### 4.3.2.1 Scope and Significance of HRD

Human resources development encompasses development of people's skills and capabilities, their ability to adopt right values and beliefs, and promote their aptitudes in accordance with their fitness to meet the dynamic needs of the institutions, the society and the nation. And, the educational and training

organizations/institutions in turn help develop and excel the human resources. The HRD programmes help in education and training of the manpower – development of human resources — to make them vital, useful and purposeful. Thus, human resources development forms an important component of human development. The structural adjustment policies and programmes such as new economic policies, liberalization, privatization, globalization and stabilization cause unexpected increase in the competition and in the demand for continuous improvement and development of human resources. The human resource development takes place through education and training, nurturing individuals and groups, tracking the employees' survey ratings, rewards and awards, peoples' empowerment, employee monitoring, etc. Programmes and organizations with growth orientation aim at developing the human resources in terms of competitive and skilled manpower. The personnel policies and programmes that govern the employed manpower promotes their motivation, commitment and contribution to human development.

HRD is concerned with desirable development of human resources for their efficient use to achieve the set goals of individuals, groups and institutions. Sometimes, HRD is equated with Human Resource Management (HRM), the concept which is overlapping with the former, though at the same time both are distinct from each other, to a large extent. HRD includes the following, thus providing us an understanding of its scope, as well.

- Producing the qualified and skilled manpower for various jobs in different sectors of development.
- Selecting right people for the right job by following the proper recruitment policies.
- Training the employees in technical skills, knowledge and experiences.
- Analysing, appraising and improving the performance of employees.
- Facilitating the working population in acquiring/improving their managerial and behavioral skills through — intra and inter-group and intra-team and inter-team activities.
- Planning for employees' carrier and development programmes.
- Providing learning capsules in the form of quality sub-schemes in their overall context of management.
- Enhancing learning of the employees through job rotation, job enrichment, multi-tasking and job empowerment.

#### **4.3.2.2 Objectives and Functions of HRD**

Following are the objectives of HRD.

- To create such categories of employees that can suit the present and changing needs, diversity and features of job requirements in different levels of employment.
- To develop creative abilities and talents such as intellectual identity, transparency, flexibility, self-discipline, tolerance and perseverance to progress.

- To increase organizational capabilities for ensuring their smooth and efficient functioning with a view to promote total quality management (TQM) of the institutions and organizations.
- To promote collective morale of individual employees, their unions and others concerned by creating a sense of responsibility and cooperative attitude among the employees.
- To create congenial climate and work culture to enable employees to discover and develop their capabilities for realizing their full potential.
- To upgrade the quality workforce through adequate opportunities that can enhance its overall knowledge, skills, attitudes, practices and experiences.

The main *functions* of HRD include the following: i) Recruitment, training and development of employees, ii) Development of the executives, iii) Career planning and development, iv) Performance appraisal, v) Successive planning and development, vi) Organizational change and development, vii) Involvement of people in the activities of social and religious organizations, viii) Effective quality control and management, ix) Encouragement of workers' participation in management, x) Role analysis and accountability, xi) Monetary and non-monetary measures, xii) Employees' benefits, and xiii) Grievance redressal mechanisms.

#### **4.3.2.3 Factors Influencing HRD**

Given below are the factors that influence human resource development.

- Sharing of information on HRD problems.
- Accountability for HRD responsibilities.
- Building team-works and support to management.
- Commitment of top management.
- Earlier experiences of line managers.
- Congenial environment for working.
- Fear of obsolescence/facing challenge of time.
- Image of organization and HRD policy.
- Improving performance of individuals and teams in the organizations.
- Attitude, motivation, drive, interest, personality and other related factors of individuals.
- Promoting confidence and decision-making
- Creating an atmosphere of freedom and security to handle responsible activities.
- Time, money, resources and training.
- Management Information System and documentations.
- Tolerance to stress and loyalty of line managers.
- Employees' competence, competitive spirit, effective monitoring and control mechanisms.

- Policies on the organization, unions and associations.
- Role clarity and work culture.
- Social responsibilities of organization and business ethics.

### **4.3.3 Indices of Human Development**

Recent United Nations documents emphasize that “human development” is measured by life expectancy, adult literacy, access to all three levels of education, as well as people’s average income and their freedom of choice.

The Human Development Index (HDI) is a composite statistic used to rank countries by level of “*human development*” and separate “very high human development”, “high human development”, “medium human development”, and “low human development” countries. The HDI is a comparative measure of life expectancy, literacy, education and standards of living for countries worldwide. It is a standard means of measuring people’s well-being, especially child welfare. It is used to distinguish whether the country is a developed, a developing or an under-developed country, and also to measure the impact of economic policies on quality of life. There are also HDI for states, cities, villages, etc. by local organizations or companies ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human\\_Development\\_Index](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human_Development_Index)).

#### **4.3.3.1 Human Development in India**

Given below are some indices of human development in India.

- The human development index (HDI) in India had slightly increased from 0.406 during the year 1975 to 0.577 in 2000 A.D. The HDI, as a matter of fact is the average of 3 indices of the country viz., 1) Life expectancy index, 2) Education index, and 3) GDP index. During 2000 A.D, it was 0.94 for Norway and 0.534 for the USA and 0.933 for Japan. This calls for the need to increase the process of development to keep pace with those of developed countries in the world.
- According to Indian Development Report (1999-2000) published by Indira Gandhi Institute of Research (2001) at Mumbai, 33.3% of the population in India was poor and 66.67% were under-nourished and more than 40% of the population was deprived of safe drinking water, adequate clothing and shelter in India. There is urgent need to implement rural development strategy to expand employment avenues coupled with improvement in the quality of employment in the rural areas. The economic policies should emphasize higher growth rates for all sectors of the economy to reduce poverty. Planned expenditure on health remained stagnant at 3% of GDP in the country. Hence, there is need to increase the planned expenditure to 8% of GDP. Only the lip and written sympathies were made in the past for welfare of the poor people in the country. Therefore, there is urgent need to sincerely implement the second generation economic reforms in the social sector for expansion of employment opportunities through programmes that aim at alleviating poverty and nutritional problems of the poor in the country.
- Inequalities of income exist between rural and urban people. There is intense need to rise the agricultural productivity in dry land areas, develop the small scale agro-based industries and open the fair price shops in rural areas to ensure supply of essential items and other provisions for the poor people.

- Gender related development indices reveals the alarming gaps between male and female literacy, gross endowment ratio and the income. These indicate the need for gender equality in participation and women empowerment through effective implementation of programmes such as SHGs and other development programmes.
- There is need to inculcate the personality development of human beings through practicing and propagating the principles of spirituality and dharma in India.

### Check Your Progress

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”.

3) What are the indices of human development?

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4) Explain the significance of human resource development in the context of human development.

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## 4.4 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

In this section we will focus our discussion on concept, factors and indices of social development.

### 4.4.1 Concept of Social Development

Social Development is a broad term that describes actions that are taken to build positive outcomes and prevent negative social outcomes that can adversely affect a community. These outcomes include issues ranging from crime, poverty, gang activity, school disengagement, teen pregnancy, addictions and substance abuse, obesity, and poor health. The aim of social development is to improve the availability of support systems in the community that *prevent* negative outcomes before they occur or buffer (lessen) their impact. For example, rather than reacting to a crime after it has already happened, measures are taken within the community that prevent crime from ever occurring. Social development is about creating environments that enable children and youth to thrive and not merely survive.

*Good prevention* starts with parents before they have children and very directly once conception has occurred. Evidence suggests that negative environments not only affect pregnant mothers but can very directly alter the architecture of the brain of the unborn child. These events and circumstances forever change the pathways of development and ways of interacting with the world and the people in it. In other words, adverse events and circumstances affect a children's capacity to learn, their behaviour and their health (<http://www.citypa.ca/CityHall/Departments/CommunityServices/SocialDevelopment/tabid/452/Default.aspx>).

Social development can be summarily described as the process of organizing human energies and activities at higher levels to achieve greater results. Development increases the utilization of human potential (Garry Jacobs and Harlan Cleveland, 1999; see [http://www.icpd.org/development\\_theory/SocialDevTheory.htm](http://www.icpd.org/development_theory/SocialDevTheory.htm)).

Social development approach focuses on the empowerment and autonomy of actors, and also taking account of the structural obstacles that confront them as they shape their daily lives in the sense of learning to develop their selves. This means that development is always conceived within a twin framework of self-and other-development. Social development represents a holistic approach that is non-static and process-oriented (Hans Günther Homfeldt and Christian Reutlinger, See <http://www.socwork.net/2008/2/glossary/homfeldtreutlinger>). Social development is a cross-cutting approach to development that promotes policies and institutions in support of greater ( <http://www.adb.org/socialdevelopment/>).

- inclusiveness and equity in access to services, resources and opportunities;
- empowerment of poor and marginalized groups to participate in social, economic, and political life; and
- security to cope with the chronic or sudden risks, especially for the poor and marginalized groups.

Social development is related to equitable development of all individuals, communities and social groups in a given set of social environment. It comprises various dimensions with respect to people's culture, attitudes, aptitudes, desires, demands, objectives, expectations, degree of knowledge, intelligence, beliefs, traditions, customs, passions, fashions, experiences, personality development, etc., in a given society.

#### **4.4.2 Factors Affecting Social Development**

Cultural environment of societies differs from place to place, from country to country and from time to time. Further, in multicultural society, the standard of living, values, beliefs, traditions, attitudes, etc., vary widely. Accordingly, the nature and extent of socio-cultural changes and development also vary significantly. Following are the factors which affect the socio-cultural development in general (Sathyanarayana, 2005).

- Size of the population and diversity of social groups.
- Languages and communication.
- Educational level of the society.

- Religious practices, cultural diversity and social harmony.
- People's orientation and work-culture.
- Some basic issues/problems of a given society.

- 1) ***Size of the population and diversity of social groups:*** Social development is largely affected by the size of the population and the diversity of cultural components. The life styles, particularly dressing and eating habits, eating habits, consumption patterns, priority of needs, traditions, customs, etc., of people including their attitudes towards development and culture are very much influenced by the size of the population. Religious customs of some sections of the society make them remain as vegetarians and teetotalers, while the customs of other sections make them non-vegetarians. Diverse cultures and sub-cultures of a country create great demand for goods and services. As a result, various kinds of goods and services are produced resulting in the growth and development of the country as a whole. Further, technological developments including computers and internet do have their influence on social development. Persistent social demands for consumable and non-consumable goods of various kinds created international markets over time and space. All the consumers' demands for goods and services do come from cultural development and traditions of the society.
- 2) ***Languages and communication:*** Language is the basic means of communication. It is the crucial element in the socialization of people. The clear understanding of languages, spoken and written, and their effective use determines the success of people in their socio-economic activities. It is the language and communication that build and mould the social relationships between the people and the societies. It connects people locally and globally. It is also essential for all economic activities such as production, marketing, consumption and businesses at domestic and international levels. For instance, English had become dominant international language. It is an inevitable means of international communication. It has been playing its effective role in better management and administration of various institutions of national and international importance. Growth of languages and communication is possible through educational development.
- 3) ***Educational level of the society:*** Education promotes social development and brings prosperity among masses. Social and economic development depends upon the level and quality of education. Effective and efficient systems of education are involved in imparting education and training to people and qualify them as educated in the country. Understanding the government policies, programmes and strategies, etc demand certain amount of education on the part of the individuals and the society which is essential for their development as well as socio-economic development of the nation.
- 4) ***Religious practices, cultural diversity and social harmony:*** Each religion has a set of social rules, norms and regulations in the form of beliefs, sentiments, customs, habits, rituals, festivals, ceremonies, etc. which are adhered to by the members of that particular religion. These together form the distinct code of conduct for that religion in the path of development. Different religious communities have different codes of conduct, and religious harmony is essential for social development. It calls for mutual

recognition and respect for these aspects of diversity. Hence, the cost of ignoring these religious values and practices would be very much fatal to the harmony among the people and socio-economic development of the country and the world.

Culture is also reflected in the set of core values, beliefs, habits, superstitions, ethics, experiences and morals followed and adopted by the people in the society. These are transferred from generation to generation through progenies, kith and kin, and so on. New ideals, new practices will sometimes be accepted replacing traditional views leading the society to new horizons of civilization. Culture is divided into two categories viz. Material culture and Non-material culture.

- i) *Material culture:* Advancements made in science and technology and their products and services such as electronic goods, turbines, automobiles, implements and machinery, furniture, etc., constitute the material culture development.
- ii) *Non-material culture:* Knowledge, attitudes, practices, aptitudes, experiences, beliefs, languages spoken, tastes and preferences, arts, music, dance, ethics, values, ideals, judgment, religious and spiritual development, etc., fall in the category of non-material culture.

Etiquette teach the people to follow and conduct themselves in right manner particularly in performing various ceremonies, functions, festivals, duties, responsibilities, etc. These principles teach what is right and what is wrong. The greetings of people on birthdays and other occasions and ceremonies is a method of showing respect to elders, parents and gurus (teachers). The consumption habits, buying habits, ways of expressing likes and dislikes, etc. are part of etiquettes which have bearing on development of the people and society. Common culture of the society is ultimately responsible for the success and failure of socio-economic activities in the country. Therefore, social and cultural environment should be viewed very carefully in the context of development of the people, society, community, the country and the world as a whole.

- 5) *People's orientation and work-culture:* The peoples' attitudes, aptitudes, orientations, cultural traits, personal life styles, etc. may keep changing from individual to individual and from time to time depending upon various changes taking place in their social and work environments. Their work-culture in the past and present will have reflection on their orientation towards bringing a change in the work-culture expected in future developments in their work environment. Some people with inflexible attitudes continue to carry on development activities with little changes. Some others keep adopting to changing economic activities and environments. The poor people and countries often continue to toil in solving their problems without proper perspective and much botheration for the future plans and strategies for socio-economic development. On the other hand, the affluent people and countries make perspective plans considering their past and present behavior.

Different types of appeals, zeal and enthusiasms to do work with harmony and integrity do come from the refined culture, attitudes, values and beliefs

possessed by the people of a society. Hence, the people should discharge their duties and complete their work in time. This also depends upon the personality of the individuals and their attitudes to work and service to the society and the nation.

- 6) ***Some basic issues/problems of a given society:*** The basic problems of the people emanate from non-fulfillment of basic needs such as proper nutrition, shelter and clothing, lack of education, women's participation and empowerment, the problems of caste and creed and untouchability, marginalisation and exclusion, among others. These are required to be addressed on priority to pave the way for faster development.

#### 4.4.3 Indices of Social Development

Development depends on both social and economic factors. Accordingly, development indicators are distinguished into social (non-economic) indicators and economic indicators. Now, everything that does not fall into the category of economy is taken as social. Thus, social indicators belong to residual category — in the sense that these indicators of development include health, nutrition, education, housing, safe drinking water, sanitation, employment, etc. which explain the residual portion of development which the economic factors fail to explain. Of course, these indicators have some economic dimension as well. These are the factors mostly responsible for overall improvement in quality of life aspects that include: i) growth and transformation, ii) employment, iii) poverty and inequality, iv) household and community assets, v) health, vi) education, vii) social cohesion, viii) safety and security, ix) international relations, and x) good governance ([http://wiki.answers.com/Q/What\\_do\\_you\\_understand\\_by\\_social\\_indicators\\_of\\_development](http://wiki.answers.com/Q/What_do_you_understand_by_social_indicators_of_development)).

According to (Ruddar Datt and Sundharam, 2007) some important indices of social development in India are as given below.

- The expenditure on social sector activities in India was 4.33% of GDP during the first plan period (1951-56) rose to 8.31% of GDP during the ninth plan period (1997-2002).
- In 2001, the incidence of unemployment, underemployment and disguised employment in agriculture and other sectors constituted nearly 9.2%. It was also observed that development plans failed to reduce the backlog of unemployment in India. The per capita raise in income which reflects the social development as well as economic development was also not much significant. Therefore, there is need to reduce unemployment and underemployment in all sectors of economy including social sector. There is urgent need to adopt labour-intensive technologies through proper planning in order to provide full employment.
- Underdevelopment of the people is also seen from several socio-economic indicators such as the per capita intake of calories, fats, proteins, population per T.V., doctors per thousand persons, etc. The per capita intake of proteins and calories in India was 59 grams and 2496 calories of energy respectively during the year 1999. These indices were very low as compared to those of the USA (112 grams of proteins and 3699 calories of energy). The number of physicians available was 4 per thousand population (0.4%), as compared

to that of Japan (7.3 doctors per thousand). The proportion of children and dependent population was also more in India and these conditions call for implementing the pension schemes and doles for unemployed graduates. The density of the population in India during 2000 was very high (324 persons/sq.km) as compared to that of the USA (13 persons per square kilometer).

- The housing shortage in India was estimated at 31 million dwelling houses in the year 2000. It was also noted that every fifth house in India is unfit for residence. Most of the people have single rooms. Slum dwellers have been increasing day by day. The average life span though increased, the infant mortality rate still continued to be high for want of adequate medical facilities. According to 2001 population estimate, only 5% of population were in the age group of 65 years and above, but the children in age group of 0-14 years constituted nearly 34%.

### **Check Your Progress**

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”.

5) What are the factors affecting social development?

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6) List out the indices of social development.

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## **4.5 POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT**

Broadly, the political development is the development of the institutions, attitudes and values that form the political power system of a society. Political development has been defined in many ways that reflect the passage of societies’ and analysts’ preoccupations. One formulation dwells on the emergence of national sovereignty and the integrity of the state, demanding respect and upholding commitments in the international system. Others identify the domestic attributes of constitutional

order and political stability, attained through the formation of a settled framework of government, reliable procedures for leadership succession, and a consolidation of the territorial administrative reach of government institutions. Political development enhances the state's capacity to mobilize and allocate resources, to process policy inputs into implementable outputs. This assists with problem-solving and adaptation to environmental changes and goal realization. The contemporary notion of good governance also dwells on efficient, effective, and non-corrupt public administration (<http://www.answers.com/topic/political-development>).

Political development is a durable shift in ideas or institutions that alters the feasible set of options open to solving political problems. The study of political development can also be understood as the study of the evolution of the structures of the state in correspondence with the changes occurring in the economic and social dimensions of group life (<http://answers.yahoo.com/question/index?qid=20080922195743AA653j9>).

### 4.5.1 Concept of Political Development

Considerable confusion exists over the concept of political development, which is of recent origin in political science. The problems of political development revolve around the political culture, the authoritative structure, and the general political process. These form the essential dimensions of the concept of political development which share three broad characteristics: concern with equality to the political culture, concern with the capacity of the political system, and concern with the differentiation or specialization of governmental organizations or non-authoritative structures (Lucian W. Pye, See <http://ann.sagepub.com/content/358/1/1.abstract>).

Many Marxists define political development in advanced industrial societies in terms of the growth of the class consciousness and political organization of the proletariat, leading, ultimately to the overthrow of capitalism and the approach of communism. A more common (though ethnocentric) view is progress towards liberal democracy, involving accountable government, and opportunities for participation (also seen by some as an aspect of modernization, rather than development), through the exercise of freedoms of association and expression. Political development is neither linear nor irreversible; not all countries are experiencing it, and some endure periods of political decline and decay, while a few suffer terminal political breakdown, like the former USSR (<http://www.answers.com/topic/political-development>).

So, the political environment and government should be conducive to overall development of the country particularly various sectors of the economy viz. i) Agriculture, ii) Industry, iii) Business Sector (private or public sectors), iv) Infrastructure (Transport, marketing, power, roads, rails, communications, etc), v) Trade (Domestic and Foreign), vi) Service sector, vii) Education, recreation, etc. The conducive political environment coupled with befitting legal framework and judiciary plays significant role in political development of the country.

Political systems, governments and policies viz. socialism, communism, democracy, capitalism, mixed economy, etc. and judiciary of a country will have considerable impact on economy and growth of various sectors in that country. The nature and types of systems and institutions and the quality of governance

of the country will play decisive role in formulating, promoting, encouraging, directing and controlling various economic activities, the prosperity of the nation and welfare of its people. A stable, honest, efficient, non-corrupt and dynamic government along with judiciary that shares similar characteristics only ensures political stability and progress of a nation and thereby assures security and stability to its masses and various sectors of the country. The developed economy of the countries owe their success to such strong political environment and government. Non-transparent, unaccountable and corrupt government will bring about many problems in the administration of various developmental and welfare programmes leading to political instability, decay and finally death of the political system.

#### 4.5.2 Factors Influencing Political Development

All the factors that influence the political development of a country will directly and indirectly influence the overall development of a country. Following are the factors that influence the political development.

- i) Political system and government of the country.
- ii) Strength of vital institutions governing political development.
- iii) Linkages between political development and economic development.
- iv) Functions and responsibilities of political systems in the country.
- v) Balance of payments (BOP) and its factors and role of Government.
- vi) Political behaviour of institutions and individuals.

##### 4.5.2.1 Political System and Government of the Country

The type of polity of the State such as authoritarianism, democracy, socialism or communism will have their characteristic influence on the political development as well as the overall the development of particular country. Similarly, the type of economy — whether capitalistic, socialistic or mixed economy — also influences the political, social and economic development of the nation. We will discuss in brief about the same below.

**Totalitarian government:** It is also called *authoritarianism*. In such governments, individuals do not have any freedom viz. freedom to express, freedom to choose profession, freedom to live are not guaranteed. All are decided by centralized authority/government or military government or sometimes by kings. Freedom is subordinated and concentrated in few hands or persons or a small group of people. Such government will not have any accountability. Sometimes, ombudsmen will be appointed to gather opinions regarding the governance and impact of government rules and regulations on the welfare of the people. In the history of India we saw many kingdoms belonging to Hindus, Muslims and Christians appointing ombudsmen. After the first world war many authoritarian governments appeared in different parts of the world (Aswathappa and Sudharsan Reddy, 2007).

**Capitalism:** It is the system where private ownership of the property is allowed in the country. All the goods viz. both producer (capital) goods and consumer goods are produced by various industries, firms or business organizations which are run by/or under the control of private ownership. There is little governmental intervention in the production and marketing of goods and services and prices

are determined by the free market forces of demand and supply of the goods and services. In such countries, however the production of a few goods and services are taken up by the government. These include: defense, research and development, finance and tourism. e.g. European countries, USA, Australia.

**Socialism:** All the means of production such as natural resources, land, labour, capital, etc are under the control and ownership of the government. All the responsibilities of taking relevant decisions related to production and marketing of goods and services and their prices, etc in the country are decided by the state government/central government, but not by private parties or individuals. The governments may adopt perspective plans, instead of annual plans which involve a time period of 20 years or more e.g. Former USSR.

In socialistic countries people will have complete freedom to spend their disposable income. Income disparities among the people will be very less. Production and consumption activities are guided by social welfare rather than individual welfare. Government takes all the responsibilities and implement the various programmes which are envisaged by the planning commission. The private ownership of the industries is almost absent. All the public enterprises will be run by the government as per the strict rules and regulations.

**Mixed economy:** All the means of production are possessed and operated in the country by both public and private ownership. If public enterprises become weak in the operation and execution, then they will be handed over to the private enterprises. This means they serve as good competitors in the production of goods and services and perform the economic activities in the country. Public-private partnership or public and private participation in production and distribution of goods and services makes the economy a mixed economy. India is an example of mixed economy embracing the principles of democracy.

**Democracy:** It refers to political arrangement in which the supreme power to run the government rests with the decision of voters in the country. The elected people will form the government at the state as well as central level. According to Abraham Lincoln democracy means 'government of the people, by the people and for the people'. It is the elected system of government. India has adopted the democratic republic, a form of government, to satisfy all the sections of the country. If the elected representatives do not perform well or do not function to the satisfaction of the people, they will be voted out in the next election.

Different systems of government have been tried and made successful at different parts of the world as per the choice, attitudes and aptitudes of people/subjects concerned. The USA, Europe and India follow capitalism with mixed economy. Former USSR followed socialistic government, while China has communist form of government.

#### **4.5.2.2 Strength of Vital Institutions Governing Political Development**

Political system of a country consists of vital institutions that control its political development. For instance, the political system in India comprises three vital institutions with their distinct and rigorous activities. These are: i) The Legislature, ii) The Executive or the Government, and iii) The judiciary.

- i) **The Legislature:** Parliament is the supreme law-making body in India. The State Legislatures are law-making bodies at the State level which perform the functions are analogous to Parliament at the Centre. Besides law-making, they perform crucial roles in approving the budgets, making the executive answerable and acting as mirror of public opinions and interests, among others.
- ii) **The Executive or Government:** The executive is also called as the Government. India has federal structure. The powers and functions of the State Governments, and the Central Government are clearly spelt out in the Constitution of India. The Executive or the Government is responsible for implementing all laws, desirable policies and programmes in the interest of the people and the nation. While the Central Government is accountable or answerable to Parliament the State Government is answerable to the respective State Legislature.
- iii) **The Judiciary:** India has independent judiciary -- with the Supreme Court as the federal court at the Central level, High Court at the State level, and sub-ordinate courts at the lower level. The judiciary plays significant role in enforcing the laws, protecting the rights and interests of the citizens and in settling any disputes arising out of the functioning of the state organs, institutions and the individuals, among other things.

#### **4.5.2.3 Linkages between Political Development and Economic Development**

The political environment and its developments have significant impact on production and marketing of goods and services in a country and its international trade and businesses and finally on the country's economic development. For example, Governments sometimes bring in economic reforms which may have desirable / undesirable changes and, thus, affects economy. Changes in industrial, fiscal, monetary, EXIM, etc policies which either impose or remove certain regulations do affect the political and economic development. The desires, aspirations, manifestations, etc., of political parties in the countries lead to new laws, amendments in the existing laws including the constitution as may be required which impact the political and economic development of the country. Hence, many dynamic factors cause changes in political environment and development. These include the following activities: i) regulatory environment of the country, ii) structural adjustment programmes adopted by the country, iii) liberalization, privatization and globalization (LPG) model of world trade, iv) trading blocks, and v) fostering of multinational corporations (MNCs).

#### **4.5.2.4 Functions and Responsibilities of Political Systems in the Country**

The functions and responsibilities of political systems in the country, in brief, include the following.

- **Enforcement of Laws:** The Government makes and changes regulations, policies, etc for implementing the laws to facilitate its functioning. Depending upon the nature and magnitude of the problems, differences, disputes, etc, Government attempts to resolve them by itself or through adjudication by the courts.

- *Maintenance of the law and order by the Government:* The elected government has the responsibility to maintain the law and order and protect the people and their property from theft and foreign invasion. The defence system and police department are created for this purpose.
- *Regulation of money and credit:* RBI, as Central Bank, plays significant role in regulation of money and credit in the country. The Government through RBI formulates fiscal and monetary policies to stop inflation and check devaluation of the currency and bring about equilibrium in the balance of payments (BOP) of the country.
- *Development of infrastructure facility:* This includes provision of transportation, housing, electricity, water, education, gas, fuels, roads, trained personnel and civic amenities. These are created and developed by the Government through its various programmes, and policy measures.
- *Development of Information Technology:* Government institutions viz. Department of Commerce and Industry, Departments related to agriculture, veterinary, labour, health, education, banking, insurance, atomic energy and host of other departments of the Government provide services and large volume of information for public consumption and for development and promotion of business, trade, commerce and other economic activities.
- *Assistance to Small-Scale and Large-Scale Industries:* Many problems of production, marketing, finance, know-how and do-how of various industries are solved by the Government policies through provision of the required facilities, finance, licensing and framing suitable rules and regulations.
- *Transfer of Research and Technology:* The Research and Development (R & D) Department under the Government transfers its discoveries to industries and business firms for adoption and diffusion of the same for the benefit of the public and make it applicable to local environment. Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO) provides large volume of remote sensing data on the weather, geographical knowledge and technical know-how in the areas of communications.
- *Diffusion of competition in the country:* Government institutions often compete with the private business firms to produce and supply goods and services to the people at reasonable prices. These institutions strive for quality control and price stabilizations in the country. The weaker sections of the country get their basic needs fulfilled through various programmes such as public distribution system (PDS) and other programmes meant for their development and welfare.
- *Use of trade barriers, tariffs and quotas by the Government in the international business:* These measures are used by the Government to protect the interests of domestic industry/business units as against foreign firms. The government adopts required measures by framing suitable policies such as EXIM policy. Incentives and subsidies are also given by Government from time to time to protect the interests of domestic units. The Government resorts to trade barriers in order to protect the domestic businesses from foreign competition, to promote indigenous research and development, to conserve foreign exchange resources and finally to have the most favourable

balance of payments. It enforces tariff barriers and non-tariff barriers. Tariff barriers include duties and taxes imposed by the Governments on international goods to protect the domestic industries. Quotas in the exports and imports are fixed by the Government. It provides licenses to certain businesses in order to have control on international business. It enforces certain bilateral agreements (voluntary export restraints) with businesses to stop the rapid growth of the export of specific manufactured goods. It follows certain administrative protection measures such as: i) safeguards, ii) licensing, iii) health standards, iv) customs' procedures, v) environmental protection laws, vi) foreign exchange rate control, vii) monetary control, viii) use of child labour laws, ix) programmes of women empowerment, etc.

#### 4.5.2.5 Balance of Payments (BOP) and its Factors: Role of Government

The balance of payments of a country is said to be in equilibrium when the demand for foreign exchange is exactly equal to supply of it. The BOP is regarded as disequilibrium when it shows either surplus or deficit. There will be deficit in BOP when demand for foreign exchange exceeds its supply. The surplus disequilibrium is good for the country as against the deficit equilibrium in BOP.

- A) Causes of disequilibrium in BOP:** The various factors that cause disequilibrium in BOP are: a) economic factors, b) natural factors, c) political factors, and d) sociological factors. The *economic factors* include the following: i) import-intensive development schemes, ii) price-cost structure, iii) changes in foreign exchange rates, iv) fall in export demand, v) international capital movements, vi) cyclical fluctuations, and vii) structural changes in the economy. The *natural factors* include the calamities such as droughts, floods, cyclones, earthquakes, etc., that affect the production and distribution of goods and services. These in turn lead to fall in exports and rise in imports and as a result the country experiences deficit in its BOP. The *political factors* include the political instability, internal disturbances, corruption, external war, etc. which affect not only the domestic production but also the export and import of goods. The *social factors* include changes in the tastes, habits, preferences and fashions of people that affect imports, exports and finally BOP of the country.
- B) Methods of correcting disequilibrium in balance of payments:** These include i) price changes in the economy, ii) interest rate changes, iii) changes in the income levels, iv) flexible exchange rates, v) monetary measures, vi) devaluation of money, vii) trade measures, and viii) miscellaneous measures.
- *Price changes in the economy:* Price changes happen due to fluctuations in supply of money in the economy. When money supply in the economy decreases the prices fall. This leads to increase in exports and decrease in the imports. Thus, the deficit BOP gets corrected.
  - *Interest rate changes:* When interest rates raise, foreign capital will flow into the country and the deficit BOP is corrected. On the contrary, when the interest rates fall, the money supply in the economy decreases. This raises the export business and results in surplus BOP.
  - *Changes in the income levels:* Fall in imports and incomes eliminates the deficit BOP and vice versa.

- *Flexible exchange rate:* When a country has a deficit BOP the supply of its currency in the foreign exchange market will increase. This leads to fall in the exchange rate. As a result exports will become cheaper and increase overtime.
- *Monetary Measures:* Decrease in the money supply in the economy leads to deficit BOP and reduces purchasing power. The fall in the prices leads to raise in the exports and decline in the imports. And, finally disequilibrium is corrected.
- *Devaluation of currency:* This means reduction in the exchange rate of currency. This makes exports cheaper and imports dearer. Hence, the deficit BOP needs to be corrected.
- *Trade Measures:* Trade measures constitute a) export promotion activities, and b) measures to reduce imports. Various export promotion activities are: a) abolishing/reducing export duties, providing export subsidy, encouraging export production and marketing, giving financial incentives and facilities, creation of export processing zones and free trade zones. (b) Measures to reduce imports include: enhancing import duties, restricting imports through quotas, licensing and prohibiting import items.
- *Miscellaneous measures:* These include: i) obtaining foreign loans, ii) encouraging foreign investment in the domestic country, iii) development of tourism to attract foreigners, and iv) giving incentives to increase inward remittances.

#### 4.5.2.6 Political behaviour of Institutions and Individuals

There are variety of factors that influence the political behaviour of organizations as well as individuals. These factors can be broadly categorised into individual factors and organisational factors (<http://www.indiastudychannel.com/resources/73866-Factors-influencing-political-behavior.aspx>).

- Individual factors:** There are individual factors where individuals play politics to satisfy their personal needs. These personal or individuals needs are likely to gain power for control and to influence decision-making process of the organisation. The aim of such individuals is to increase the area of their influence. They try to sustain power as it helps to obtain personal benefits and to fulfill their needs and desires. In organisations, individuals play politics as they have great desire and high need of gaining power. Such types of individuals are basically internals and self-monitored people. There are many individuals who play politics because of their expectation of quick success in life at any cost.
- Organisational factors:** There are some of the organisational factors that influence the individuals to play politics in the organisations. These factors are as follows:
  - *Limited resources in the organisation:* When there are limited resources in the organisation then every individual in the organisation wants to have optimum resources. It results in making individuals getting engaged themselves in politics to get the maximum advantage of the

distribution of resources. The *interpretation of limited resources* like position, power, promotion, etc in the organisation makes individuals engage in the politics. The individuals who crave for such resources feel that they may be deprived of such resources in the process of distribution of resources and so they play politics in the organisation.

- *Uncertainty in decision-making:* There are some individuals who take advantage of the situation where there is uncertainty and ambiguity in decision-making because of unclear rules and policies.
- *Performance evaluation:* The individuals tend to play politics in the organization when performance evaluation and its outcome are subjective, qualitative and unclear.
- *High performance pressure:* The individuals play politics when they are enforced with high performance pressure. The politics playing in the organization becomes a measure to pressurize authority to withdraw control and lower the performance target.
- *Decision-making culture:* Democratic and participative decision-making culture of the organisation is also liable to organisational politics as every individual wants to enhance his/her importance and thereafter give opinion on crucial and important matters.
- *Affecting lower level persons:* The lower level persons get affected when they experience persons at higher level playing politics.

### 4.5.3 Indices of Political Development

Structural changes, historical changes of modernization, role of social groups, property rights, middle classes, culture and parliamentary democracy, changes in political participation, changes in the composition of the political elite greatly influence the political development of the nation (Kemal Kapat, see <http://epub-ebooks.net/sample/51554/elites-and-religion>).

According to Phyllips Cutright (<http://www.jstor.org/stable/2090612>), “Efforts by social scientists to relate national social conditions to national political systems are hampered by a failure to build an index of political development which can be correlated with other system variables to measure the extent of association between the development of the political system and development of other social institutions in the nation. An index is constructed and correlated with several other indicators of national development for 77 independent nations. The level of political development is found to be highly correlated with the *level of communications, economic development, education and urbanization*”.

#### Check Your Progress

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”.

7) Explain the concept of political development.

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8) What are the factors affecting political development?

## 4.6 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

‘Economic development’ is a term that economists, politicians, and others have used frequently in the world in the 20th century. The concept, however, has been in existence in the West for centuries. Modernization, Westernization, and especially Industrialization are other terms people have used when discussing economic development. Although no one is sure when the concept originated, most people agree that development is closely bound up with the evolution of capitalism and the demise of feudalism ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic\\_development](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_development)). In this section, our discussion will, therefore, focus on the concept of economic development, dimensions of economic development and factors, issues, problems and indices of economic development.

### 4.6.1 Concept and Scope of Economic Development

‘Economic development’ is a broad term that generally refers to the sustained, concerted efforts of the *policymakers* and the *community* to promote the *standard of living* of people in general and *economic health* of all sectors or specific areas in particular. Such effort can involve multiple areas including development of *human capital*, *critical infrastructure*, *regional competitiveness*, *environmental sustainability*, *social inclusion*, *health*, *safety*, *literacy*, and other initiatives. Economic development differs from *economic growth*. Whereas economic development is a *policy intervention* endeavor with aims of economic and social well-being of people, economic growth is a phenomenon of *market productivity* and rise in *GDP*.

The study of economic development by *social scientists* may embrace *sociological research* on a variety of topics including: *business organization*, *enterprise development*, evolution of *markets* and *management*, and cross-national comparisons of *industrial organization* patterns. One example inquiry would be: “Why are levels of direct foreign investment and labour productivity significantly higher in some countries than in others?” (Lewis F. Abbott, 2003, See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic\\_development](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_development)).

In economics, the study of economic development was borne out of an extension to traditional economics that focused entirely on *national product*, or the aggregate output of goods and services. Economic development was concerned in the expansion of people's *entitlements* and their corresponding capabilities, *morbidity*, *nourishment*, *literacy*, *education*, and other *socio-economic* indicators. Borne out of the backdrop of *Keynesian*, advocating government intervention, and *neoclassical economics*, stressing reduced intervention, with rise of high-growth countries (Singapore, South Korea, Hong Kong) and planned governments (Argentina, Chile, Sudan, Uganda), economic development, more generally development economics, emerged amidst these mid-20th century theoretical interpretations of how economies prosper (Amartya Sen, 1983, See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic\\_development](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_development)). We will discuss the theories of economic development in greater details in Unit 7 "Dynamics of Development" of Block 2 of this course.

#### 4.6.1.1 Difference between Economic Growth and Economic Development

Dependency theorists argue that poor countries have sometimes experienced *economic growth* with little or no economic development initiatives; for instance, in cases where they have functioned mainly as resource-providers to wealthy industrialized countries. There is an opposing argument, however, that growth causes development because some of the increase in income gets spent on human development such as education and health. As economist Amartya Sen (1983) points out: "economic growth is one aspect of the process of economic development".

In addition to increasing private incomes, economic growth also generate additional *resources* that can be used to improve *social services* (such as *healthcare*, *safe drinking water*, etc.). By generating additional resources for social services, unequal *income distribution* will be mitigated as such social services are distributed equally across each *community*, thereby benefiting each individual, and thus, increasing living standards for the public (Anand and Sen, 2000).

There are two broad extant views of economic development of a country. They are: i) Traditional view, and ii) Modern view.

#### 4.6.1.2 Traditional View of Economic Development

The concepts such as growth and development were used synonymously without distinct meaning by traditional economists. The levels of income, employment, output of agriculture, and industry, standard of living, etc., are the principal indicators of economic development in given country at a given point of time. All these indices have trickle down effect on the poor and the rich over time and space. If the real output and real income of the country overtime increase in the country, then it is a case of economic development of the country. Sustained growth in these economic indices is measured in fact in value addition. Then the country is said to be economically developed. By and large, at micro level, we say the growth of the individuals in terms of income, employment, health, education, nutrition, etc as economic development of the individuals in the country.

### 4.6.1.3 Modern View of Economic Development

Modern economist J. M. Keynes (1936), in his book “General Theory of Income and Employment”, contradicted the trickle-down strategy and delineated the meanings of growth and development. According to him, growth is defined as raising income, employment and services in different sectors of the economy such as agriculture, industry, private sector, public sector, service sector and foreign sector. On the contrary, development is redefined in terms of overall growth in economic indices of the country as a whole without any inequalities in the distribution of resources among the people. For example, these include elimination of poverty, improvement in the standard of living of the people, raising per capita income overtime, absence of inequalities in distribution of wealth, income and resources. According to modern economists, development in the country is seen in the process of increasing productivity of different resources, which ultimately lead to economic welfare of the people in the country. Thus, economic development is nothing but economic welfare of the people with access to economic resources, employment and sustained growth in the size of the output of different sectors in the country. In such a state, every individual in the country is better off without affecting the welfare of the others.

#### 4.6.1.4 Types of Economies / Countries

The economies or countries based on level of economic development are classified as follows: i) underdeveloped economies / countries, ii) developing economies / countries, and iii) developed economies / countries. Usually, the underdeveloped economies will have per capita income (PCI) less than the quarter of per capita income of the United States. Of late, UN publication described underdeveloped economies as developing economies. Hence, in the world today we have only two categories of the countries. They are: 1) Developing Countries, and 2) Developed countries. Based on PCI, developing countries are categorized into three types, viz. i) Low Income Countries with per capita income of \$755 and below, and ii) Middle Income Countries with PCI ranging from above \$755 to \$9265, and iii) High Income Countries with PCI of above \$9265 (Ruddar Datt and Sundharam, 2007).

Developing countries including India comprise 85 per cent of world population and account for only 22 per cent of world gross national product (WGNP). These countries are present in Africa, Asia and some parts of Europe and Latin America. On the contrary, developed economies constitute 15 per cent of world population and account for 78 per cent of world GNP (Aswathappa and Sudharsan Reddy, 2007).

#### 4.6.1.5 Scope of Economic Development

The objectives of economic development according to Aswathappa and Sudharsan Reddy (2007) are as specified below.

- i) To make adequate provision for fulfillment of the basic needs of the people of the country.
- ii) To improve the levels of standard of living of the people.
- iii) To spread the range of economic and social choice to the people (Positive freedom).

These objectives can be achieved through effective policies of economic development, which in the broadest sense, encompass three major areas ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic\\_development](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_development)):

- Governments undertaking to meet broad economic objectives such as price stability, high employment, and sustainable growth. Such efforts include monetary and fiscal policies, regulation of financial institutions, trade, and tax policies.
- Programs that provide infrastructure and services such as highways, parks, affordable housing, crime prevention, and K–12 education.
- Job creation and retention through specific efforts in business, finance, marketing, neighborhood development, workforce development, small business development, business retention and expansion, technology transfer, and real estate development. This third category is a primary focus of economic development professionals.

The scope of economic development includes the process and policies by which a nation improves the economic, political, and social well-being of its people (O'Sullivan and Sheffrin, 2003). Economic development is a planned process. It has evolved into a professional industry of highly specialized practitioners. The practitioners have two key roles: *one* is to provide leadership in policy-making, and the other is to administer policy, programs and projects. Economic development practitioners generally work in public offices on the state, regional, or municipal level, or in public-private partnership organizations that may be partially funded by local, regional, state, or federal tax money. These economic development organizations (EDO's) function as individual entities and in some cases as departments of local governments. Their role is to seek out new economic opportunities and retain and improve their existing business wealth. There are numerous other organizations whose primary function is not economic development but work in partnership with economic developers. They include the news media, foundations, utilities, schools, health care providers, faith-based organizations, and colleges, universities, and other education or research institutions ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic\\_development](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_development)).

#### 4.6.2 Factors Determining Economic Development

For countries that are developing, a *lack of capital* is inhibiting development. The *low level of capital formation* in developing countries is caused by *low saving ability*. Low saving ability is caused by *low income levels*. Low levels of income is caused by *low productivity*. The low level of productivity will lead to *low incomes and low investment*. Low level of investment is due to *low capital formation*. Interplay between these factors will continue and it is difficult to disconnect them without an effective strategy. This is called a cycle of poverty in developing countries, known as a *vicious circle of poverty* (<http://diariovientosur.com/2011/500/factors-affecting-economic-growth-and-economic-development/>).

The world economy experts agreed that in the process of economic development in developing countries one should be able to beat large enough to crack the vicious circle of poverty. One way that can be done to achieve that goal is by the formation and development of investment and workforce skills development so

as to increase productivity and ultimately their incomes will increase. Without being able to do capital formation and investment, economic growth in developing countries will remain behind (<http://diariovientosur.com/2011/500/factors-affecting-economic-growth-and-economic-development/>).

Industries experience cycles of economic growth and contraction based on many factors. These include the *overall health of the markets, consumer preferences* and even *seemingly unrelated world news and events*. Although some companies perform better than others in their industry, the global factors that affect the industry as a whole must be contemplated when planning to start or grow a business (Angie Mohr, See <http://smallbusiness.chron.com/factors-affecting-economic-development-growth-1517.html>).

Economic development involves raising the standard of living in a country by increasing the number of goods and services bought and sold in the economy. Often the focus is on the rates of economic growth, although other goals such as reducing poverty and improving quality of life are important facets. The increase of pollution and environmental impacts gave rise to the term 'sustainable development' meaning economic development without depleting the resource base. ([http://www.ehow.com/info\\_8071485\\_factors-influencing-economic-development.html](http://www.ehow.com/info_8071485_factors-influencing-economic-development.html)),

Above discussed factors influencing economic development can be broadly grouped into two categories: i) Economic factors, and ii) Non-economic factors.

#### 4.6.2.1 Economic Factors

The *economic factors* that influence economic development include the following.

- i) **Natural Resources:** These include resources such as land and soils, forests, water, air, fossil fuels, flora and fauna, among other things. Some resources such as forests are renewable, because we can replenish the resource after use. However, many resources are non-renewable, such as minerals, oil and other fossil fuels. Different types of soils such as alluvial soils, black soils, red soils, arid soils, loamy soils make possible the production of all types of crops under the given heterogeneous agro-climatic conditions. But, quality of the soils was very much affected due to constant use and bad management of the soils. Therefore, it is very important to take up conservation practices of the soil and water. Natural resources, thus, provide a ready source of income for economic development, but their continued importance to the economy and its sustainable development depends on how the resource and extraction costs are managed.
- ii) **Capital Formation:** Capital is, by definition the produced means of production and it is one of the factors of production. Broadly, capital refers to not only money (liquid capital) but also variety of man-made assets and objects such as plants, machinery, equipment, buildings, projects, (Irrigation and power generation), roads, etc. that are used in the further production of goods and services. Efficient use of resources depends on capital formation and vice versa. In fact, capital formation refers to the processes by which the stock of capital is increased. It is the main and the best source of economic growth in the country. The level of production and material wealth depend on the stock of capital and its disposal. The larger capital formation, greater

would be the productivity of the labour and resources in the country. Further, it permits the foreign direct investment (FDI) in the country. The stage of economic development and various combined types of investments in the country determine the capital output ratio (ICOR).

- iii) **Technological Progress:** It refers to introduction and use of advance machinery in the production of various goods and services. Technology is embedded in machineries and advanced tools and equipment. Technological advances use modern methods of production in industry, agriculture and other sectors. The advanced technology is available in three different forms: a) capital-saving technology, b) labour-saving technology, and c) neutral technology. It all helps us achieve higher productivity of resources including human resources. More favourable conditions exist in developed countries for technological progress due to availability large capital for investments, innovative and skilled entrepreneurs, and suitable markets for different products and services. But, the developing countries depend more on transfer of suitable technology from developed countries through activities of joint ventures, licensing, franchising, management contracts, multinational investments, technical service contracts and foreign direct investment (FDI).
- iv) **Infrastructure facilities:** Infrastructure such as roads, energy transmission, ports, etc, help the movement of goods and people in the economy. Infrastructure is often called public goods provided by the government for use by everyone in society, but tends to concentrate in areas with more economic activity. Extraction of resources requires roads for access; manufacturing requires electricity in the area and roads for workers. Without sufficient infrastructure, economic development cannot begin. Huge investment programmes in infrastructure development are very much required for economic development.
- v) **Size of markets, trade and investment:** No economy can produce everything it needs to continue development. Most economies need to import energy, raw resources or workers. Many economies pursue export-oriented strategies to increase their growth rates by selling their goods in foreign markets. In addition to trade, investment in the country can help economies develop. Development of economy requires large investment in agriculture, industry and markets. Just increase in the industrial growth without increasing purchasing power of the people may not help to create demand for consumer goods. Low demand for consumer goods ultimately causes less demand for capital goods.
- vi) **Education:** Expenditure on education of people is considered not only as consumption but also as an investment. Economic development increases with greater levels of education in the workforce. Modern economies increasingly focus on high-tech industries, which need skilled workers. Even industries such as manufacturing requiring less-skilled workers are more efficient when workers have basic education. Greater education also means people can obtain higher paying jobs and consume more goods, which also helps the economy.

#### 4.6.2.2 Non-economic Factors

The non-economic factors that influence economic development include the following.

- Ability of the people to develop and apply science and technology activities that will effect economic development.
- Education and health of the people.
- The propensity of the people to accept innovations.
- The desire of the people to save and invest in durable assets in the country.
- The hardworking attitude, honesty, sincerity, commitment and integrity of the people.
- Committed political and social systems.
- Size of the population of the country and other related factors.

#### 4.6.3 Prime Issues of Economic Development

Rapid growth of population in the country is considered to be an important issue in the context of economic growth of the country. Usually economic growth is measured in terms of increased per capita income. Due to raise in population, even though the country experiences increase in the national income, it is nullified by population growth. Hence, the country remains as under developed. Therefore, there is dire need to adopt family planning programmes, so that the achievements and benefits of the development programmes are not dissipated. Quality of life and standard of living are also very much affected due to increase in population. Economic development and population growth have inverse relationship in the country, if the resources available, exploited and distributed are not adequate.

In India the bulk of the population lives in miserable conditions of poverty, illiteracy, and malnutrition. There exists gender and geographical inequalities in development in many parts of the country. Similarly, while natural resources are over-exploited in some areas there is under-exploitation in other areas. There exist vast unused natural resources like land, soil, forest, etc in some states, and also in different areas within the same state. The co-existence of the vicious circle of poverty and vicious circle of affluence perpetuates misery and foils all attempts to remove poverty in India. It is under this context that an understanding of the major issues of economic development in India is essential. Following are the major problems confronting economic development in India:

- Low per capita income and low rate of growth of GDP (Gross Domestic Product).
- High proportion of people below poverty line.
- Low level of productive efficiencies of resources.
- Imbalance between population size, resources and capital investments.
- Problems of unemployment and underemployment.
- Instability in the output of agriculture and related sectors.
- Imbalances between heavy industry and wage goods.
- Imbalances in the distribution of the income and wealth, and growing inequalities.

There have been growing inequalities in the aspects of income and wealth distribution in India during the last five decades of so called planned economic development. The (re)distribution of income and wealth has not been favourable to the underprivileged classes. On the contrary, the concentration of income and wealth led to its accumulation in the affluent sections of the society only. Various economic studies and surveys indicated that even the small gains of development over the period of more than 50 years have not been equitably distributed. The conditions of the bottom 20% of the population have either remained stagnant or deteriorated further. Hence, the leading issue of economic development is to assure continued growth with economic justice to all with emphasis on better distribution of income and wealth to the less privileged sections of the society.

#### 4.6.3.1 Indices of Economic Development

There is no consensus about which variables, apart from income per capita, serve to characterize or define economic development. However, any operational definition need to combines the level of income per capita and the distribution of income. We are now clear that the economic development typically involves improvements in a variety of influencing factors which provide us vogue idea of the indicators of economic development.

Indicators of economic development can be broadly studied as two categories:

- Individual indicators of economic development, and
  - Aggregate indices of economic development.
- i) **Individual indicators of economic development:** These include the following, among others (<http://www.slideshare.net/egfred/indicators-of-economic-development-2908463>): a) GDP per capita, b) Life expectancy, c) Literacy rates, d) Measures of poverty, e) Demographic indicators, f) Disease / health indicators, and g) Other socio-economic indicators.

All these individual indicators vary widely from country to country and are not comprehensive or composite indicators of development. Hence, they are not suitable for international comparison of economic development.

Further, the individual indicators of economic development are interdependent and are, thus, problematic in their application as effective indicators. So, more meaningful measures such as aggregate indices of development have been developed by combining these indicators.

- ii) **Aggregate indices of economic development:** According to Hanushek, Eric and Ludger Woessmann (2008) economic development typically involves improvements in a variety of indicators such as *literacy rates*, *life expectancy*, and *poverty rates*. GDP does not take into account other aspects such as *leisure time*, *environmental quality*, *freedom*, or *social justice*. A country's economic development is essentially related to its human development, which encompasses, among other things, health and education. These factors are, however, closely related to economic growth so that development and growth often go together ([http://www.paradisetrips.com/economic\\_development/encyclopedia.htm](http://www.paradisetrips.com/economic_development/encyclopedia.htm)).

To minimise the problems with individual indicators it is possible to combine a selection of indicators to form an *index* of development. Several of these

are published by various organisations. The UN Development Report, for example, ranks countries by their Human Development Index “which includes the major indices of life expectancy, adult literacy, and GDP per capita”. This then creates a league table of development with the UK, at 14th, ranked as a country with high human development; Ghana at 119<sup>th</sup>, classified as having medium human development; and Zambia, at 143rd in the category with low human development (<http://www.slideshare.net/egfred/indicators-of-economic-development-2908463>). You can find more details about indicators of development, including human development index under Unit 8 “Developmental Disparities: Marginalisation” of Block 2.

### **Check Your Progress**

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”.

9) What do you understand by vicious circle of poverty?

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10) What are the prime issues of economic development in India?

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11) What are the individual indicators of economic development?

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## 4.7 LET US SUM UP

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We have discussed the concept of development, its significance, dimensions, factors, and the indices in this unit. Our discussion on the dimensions of development touches upon human development, social development, political development and economic development which provides comprehensive picture of inter-linkages between these dimensions and the factors influencing them. We hope you got comprehensive picture of all the aspects, issues and indices related to development.

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## 4.8 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS' QUESTIONS

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- 1) Development describes the growth of humans throughout the lifespan, from conception to death. Development is a complex issue, with many different and sometimes contentious definitions. The scientific study of human development seeks to understand and explain how and why people change throughout life. This includes all aspects of human growth, including physical, emotional, intellectual, social, perceptual, personality development, etc. However, a basic perspective *equates development with economic growth*. The United Nations Development Programme uses a more detailed definition (<http://www.volunteeringoptions.org/VolunteeringDevelopment/WhatisDevelopment/tabid/78/Default.aspx>), according to them development is '*to lead long and healthy lives, to be knowledgeable, to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living and to be able to participate in the life of the community.*' Development when viewed as empowerment, it means local people taking control of their own lives, expressing their own demands and finding their own solutions to their problems.

Learning about development can help us understand more about the causes of and solutions to the problems and issues related to development. It can help us to be better informed individuals and volunteers, addressing not just the superficial poverty related issues but the deep-rooted causes as well. It can also help us to have a complex and accurate impression of the developing world than what is commonly shown to us through charity advertising as development. It can also help us when we return to educate others about these issues involved.

- 2) Indicators of development could be used to judge countries' relative progress in development such as:
  - Increasing national wealth;
  - Improving the well-being (nutrition, education, health and wealth) of the majority of the population;
  - Ensuring people's freedom;
  - Increasing their social and economic security.

There are mainly seven indicators of development, which collectively or in combination act as comprehensive indicators of development.

- i) GDP (gross domestic product) per capita.
  - ii) Life expectancy.
  - iii) Number of doctors per 100,000 population.
  - iv) Percent of population that are undernourished.
  - v) Percent of population that have access to clean safe water.
  - vi) Under 5 mortality rate.
  - vii) Adult literacy rate.
- 3) Recent United Nations documents emphasize that “human development” is measured by life expectancy, adult literacy, access to all three levels of education, as well as people’s average income, which is a necessary condition of their freedom of choice.

The Human Development Index (HDI) is a composite statistic used to rank countries by level of “*human development*” and separate “very high human development”, “high human development”, “medium human development”, and “low human development” countries. The Human Development Index (HDI) is a comparative measure of life expectancy, literacy, education and standards of living for countries worldwide. It is a standard means of measuring human well-being. It is used to distinguish whether a country is a developed, a developing or an under-developed country, and also to measure the impact of economic policies on quality of life.

- 4) Human Resource Development constitutes an important component of human development. Human resources development encompasses development of people’s knowledge, skills and capabilities, their ability to adopt right values, and beliefs, and promote their aptitudes in accordance with their fitness to meet the dynamic needs of the institutions, the society and the nation. The educational and training organizations/institutions help develop and excel the human resources. The HRD programmes help in educating and training the manpower – development of human resources — to make them vital, useful and purposeful. Thus, human resources development forms an important component of human development. The structural adjustment policies and programmes such as new economic policies, liberalization, privatization, globalization and stabilization cause unexpected increase in the competition and in the demand for continuous improvement and development of human resources. The human resource development takes place through education and training, nurturing individuals and groups, tracking the employees’ survey ratings, rewards and awards, peoples’ empowerment, employee monitoring, etc. The personnel policies and programmes that govern the employed manpower promotes their motivation, commitment and contribution to human development.
- 5) Following are the factors which affect the social development in general.
- Size of the population and social groups.
  - Languages and communication.
  - Educational level of the society.
  - Religious practices and social harmony.

- People's orientation and work-culture.
  - Cultural diversity — traits, manners, values, practices, etiquettes, etc of people.
  - Some basic issues/problems of a given society.
- 6) We know that development depends on both social and economic factors and accordingly, development indicators are distinguished into social (non-economic) indicators and economic indicators. But, the factors responsible for overall improvement of quality of life are taken as social indicators. Social indicators include the following.
- growth and transformation
  - employment
  - poverty and inequality
  - household and community assets
  - health
  - education
  - social cohesion
  - safety and security
  - international peace
  - good governance
- 7) Considerable confusion exists over the concept of political development, which is of recent origin in political science. The problems of political development revolve around the political culture, the authoritative structure, and the general political process. Broadly, the political development is the development of the institutions, attitudes and values that form the political power system of a society. Political development has been defined in many ways that reflect the passage of societies' and analysts' preoccupations. One formulation dwells on the emergence of national sovereignty and the integrity of the state, demanding respect and upholding commitments in the international system. Others identify the domestic attributes of constitutional order and political stability, attained through the formation of a settled framework of government, reliable procedures for leadership succession, and a consolidation of the territorial administrative reach of government institutions. Political development enhances the state's capacity to mobilize and allocate resources, to process policy inputs into implementable outputs.
- 8) Political systems, governments and policies of a country will have considerable impact on the growth of various sectors in that country. The nature and types of systems and institutions and the quality of governance of the country will play decisive role in formulating, promoting, encouraging, directing and controlling various economic activities, the prosperity of the nation and welfare of its people. A stable, honest, efficient, non-corrupt and dynamic government along with judiciary that shares similar characteristics only ensures political stability and progress of a nation and thereby assures security and stability to its masses and various sectors of the country. The developed economy of the countries owe their success to such strong political

environment and government. Non-transparent, unaccountable and corrupt government will bring about many problems in the administration of various developmental and welfare programmes leading to political instability, decay and finally death of the political system. All the factors that influence the political development of a country will directly and indirectly influence the overall development of a country. Following are the broad factors that influence the political development.

- Nature, type and character of political system and government of the country.
  - Strength of vital institutions governing political development.
  - Linkages that exist between political development and economic development.
  - Functions and responsibilities of political systems in the country.
  - Balance of Payments (BOP) and its factors and actions of the Government.
  - Political behaviour of institutions and individuals.
- 9) The *low level of capital formation* in developing countries is caused by *low saving ability*. Low saving ability is caused by *low income levels*. Low levels of income is caused by *low productivity*. The low level of productivity will lead to *low incomes and low investment*. Low level of investment is due to *low capital formation*. Interplay between these factors will continue and it is difficult to disconnect them without an effective strategy. This is called a cycle of poverty in developing countries, known as a *vicious circle of poverty*.
- 10) The prime issues of economic development are the major problems confronting economic development in India. These include the following.
- Low per capita income and low rate of growth of GDP (Gross Domestic Product).
  - High proportion of people below poverty line.
  - Low level of productive efficiencies of resources.
  - Imbalance between population size, resources and capital investments.
  - Problems of unemployment.
  - Instability in the output of agriculture and related sectors.
  - Imbalances between heavy industry and wage goods.
  - Imbalances in the distribution of the income and wealth, and growing inequalities.
- 11) The individual indicators of economic development include the following.
- GDP per capita
  - Life expectancy
  - Literacy rates
  - Measures of poverty
  - Demographic indicators
  - Disease / health indicators
  - Other socio-economic indicators

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## **UNIT 5 CURRENT TRENDS AND POLICIES IN ADULT AND EXTENSION EDUCATION IN INDIA**

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### **Structure**

- 5.0 Introduction
- 5.1 Objectives
- 5.2 Major Shifts in Policy Approaches to Adult Education
  - 5.2.1 From Marginal to Nation-wide Programme of Adult Education
  - 5.2.2 From Dispersed Projects in Selected Areas to Total Area Approach
    - 5.2.2.1 The Campaign Approach to Total Literacy
  - 5.2.3 From Literacy to Post-Literacy and Continuing Education
- 5.3 Saakshar Bharat — Current Scheme of Adult Education
  - 5.3.1 Objectives, Target and Approach of Saakshar Bharat
    - 5.3.1.1 Objectives
    - 5.3.1.2 Targets
    - 5.3.1.3 Target-specific Approach
    - 5.3.1.4 Creating Sustainable Demand for Literacy
  - 5.3.2 Teaching-Learning Programmes
    - 5.3.2.1 Functional Literacy Programme Framework
    - 5.3.2.2 Operational Framework for Teaching-Learning Programme
  - 5.3.3 Suggestive Management Structure
- 5.4 Extension Education: Current Developments
  - 5.4.1 Trends of Extension Systems: Shift in Emphasis
    - 5.4.1.1 Dimensions of Extension Development: A Brief Overview of Models and Approaches
  - 5.4.2 Changing Role of Extension
    - 5.4.2.1 New Initiatives in Extension
- 5.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 5.6 Answers to 'Check Your Progress' Questions
- 5.7 References

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### **5.0 INTRODUCTION**

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In India, the educational policy provides a broad framework and directions for educational planning and development in respect of different levels and sectors of education including adult education in the country. The Central Government plays a leading role in policy formulation and directing overall educational development, while individual states in the country are responsible for the expansion, growth and development of education in their respective areas in tune with the specific policy directions and guidelines provided by the central government.

However, it may be noted that adult literacy and education has been the part of some other programmes / policies until 1979, when separate programme of its kind, in the name of National Adult Education Programme was launched with

first ever such policy document. It was followed by National Literacy Mission and, currently, Saakshar Bharat with respective policy documents. Saakshar Bharat has become operational from 01-10-2009 (National Literacy Mission Authority, 2010), and it is in fact the modified form or the variant of National Literacy Mission.

In course MAE-002 we have dealt with adult education policy and implementation in India in detail covering the programmes up to National Literacy Mission. Further, in the preceding Units of the present course i.e. MAE-004, we have covered the basic concepts, aspects, policies and development of 'extension' plus dimensions, factors, etc., of 'development' as well. In this Unit (Unit 5), we will, therefore, highlight only the current trends and more so with emphasis on shifts in general policy approaches to adult education including the recent scheme of Saakshar Bharat. Also, we will highlight recent developments in extension education.

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## **5.1 OBJECTIVES**

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After studying the unit, we expect that you will be able to:

- Explain the major shifts in policy approaches to adult education;
- Describe the current policy of adult education in India;
- Identify the important features of ongoing programmes of adult education; and
- Analyse the recent developments in extension systems and changing role of extension.

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## **5.2 MAJOR SHIFTS IN POLICY APPROACHES TO ADULT EDUCATION**

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In common parlance, a trend is understood as a general directional tendency of movement such as a new view, approach or practice in society, economy or technology, triggering a new move in a particular direction. In the context of adult education, these trends can be traced from the relevant policies and approaches in respect of adult literacy and education. In this section, we will therefore touch upon the major shifts in policy approaches to adult education that provide us the picture of broad trends in adult education.

### **5.2.1 From Marginal to Nation-wide Programme of Adult Education**

Despite massive illiteracy and low level of education in the workforce, the central government after independence in 1947 neither took any constitutional responsibility for educating the adult illiterate population nor emphasised adult education within the general educational policy. During the first three decades of planned development (1947-77), adult education programmes with limited coverage and funds characterised the lackluster approach of the state to educating the vast population of adult illiterates. Major Programmes of Adult Education during 1947-77 included the following (<http://www.egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/32473/1/Unit4.pdf>).

- *Social Education Programme during First Five Year Plan (1951-56)*: It narrowly confined to literacy work and proposed social education as a comprehensive approach to educating adult illiterates. Its major thrust was on making illiterate citizens conscious of their rights and responsibilities for building a democratic nation, among others. Imparting basic literacy skills was not assigned priority in the social education programme.
- *Farmers' Functional Literacy Project (FFLP)*: FFLP also known as Kisan Saksharata Yojana was launched as a centrally-sponsored scheme in the Fourth Plan (1969-74) as an experimental project. The focus of the FFLP was on upgrading the occupational skills of farmers and inculcating among them modern attitudes, values, and behaviours to attain self-sufficiency in food production. It advocated the concept of functional literacy and emphasised imparting basic literacy skills along with practical and technical agricultural knowledge aimed at upgrading human resources to improve agricultural productivity of the farmers. In the early 1960s, the focus of adult education shifted from citizenship training to skill-training for development.
- *Scheme of Non-formal Education for Youth (15-25 years)*: The Fifth Plan (1974-79) advocated non-formal education for several categories of learners — unschooled children, youth, and adults at all levels of education.

Each programme thus followed a different strategy and approach to adult education. These programmes were of marginal nature and had limited coverage under different policies and in selected parts of the country.

It was with the shift in the direction of general educational policy in 1977 from higher levels of education to basic education, that eradication of illiteracy came to the forefront of development planning (Planning Commission, 1978: 219-29). A draft policy statement on adult education was issued for the first time by the government in 1979, which was operationalised in the form of a nation-wide programme of adult education, known as the National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) (Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, 1979).

### **5.2.2 From Dispersed Projects in Selected Areas to Total Area Approach**

Though NAEP had its separate policy document, in practice, it also remained confined to isolated projects in selected areas, be they Blocks, Panchayats or villages in chosen districts. Thus, the selected project areas were also not covered totally, through the implementation of the programme was intended to have extensive nation-wide coverage.

Having studied MAE-001, you can recall that the National Policy on Education (NPE) introduced in 1986 (Ministry of Human Resource Development 1986a and 1986b) and revised in 1992 (Ministry of Human Resource Development 1992a and 1992b) has been a major landmark in the history of education in general and adult education in particular as it articulated for the first time the national commitment to addressing the problem of eradication of illiteracy in a time-bound manner with planned, concerted and coordinated efforts. The NPE gave greater emphasis to Adult Education with a view to provide flexible learning opportunities to out-of-school youth and adults. Specifically, it advocated the

- a) Expansion of non-formal, flexible and need-based vocational education programmes for neo-literates and youth who have completed primary education, including the school dropouts and adults.
- b) Provision of non-formal vocational education and training for workers of the un-organized sector through the existing institutions and agencies. For example, Community Polytechnics, Shramik Vidyapeeths, Rural Institutes, Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) and Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM) at the District Rural Development Agency.
- c) Promotion of Continuing Education as an indispensable tool not only for human resource development but also for creation of a learning society. Besides advocating distance and open learning for higher levels of formal education, the policy recommended the continuing education for neo-literates and school drop-outs through Jana Shikshan Sansthan and proposed need-based Non-formal Vocational Education Programmes and training for divergent groups (workers, youth, farmers, etc) to upgrade their knowledge and skills to improve their productivity and skills.

#### **5.2.2.1 The Campaign Approach to Total Literacy**

It was in pursuance of the mandate of the NPE that the National Literacy Mission was launched in 1988 as a societal and technological mission with the objectives of imparting functional literacy to 80 million adult illiterates in the age group of 15 to 35 years by 1995 (Ministry Human Resource Development, 1998). The NLM assigned priority to eradication of illiteracy among women, the scheduled castes, the scheduled tribes and other disadvantaged groups through mass mobilization and support of the wider sections of the society. Major emphasis in this approach was to make the entire operational area selected for the campaign a totally literate one, instead of running the centres in only certain parts of the selected area as was being done in the case of earlier programmes like NAEP.

#### **5.2.3 From Literacy to Post-Literacy and Continuing Education**

In 1999 the NLM was revamped by the Central Government to attain the goal of total literacy, i.e. Sustainable threshold literacy rate of 75% by 2007; now it continues to focus on imparting functional literacy to non-literates in the 15-35 age group, specifically among the socio-economically disadvantaged groups. However, NLM has modified its approach to achieve its goal (Planning Commission 2002). It has adopted an integrated approach, amalgamating all the features of earlier TLC/Post-Literacy phases under one project called 'Literacy Campaigns in Operation Restoration'. This new approach envisages integration of basic literacy teaching-learning with Post-literacy activities to ensure a smooth transition from TLC to Post-literacy on a learning continuum (see Daswani, 2002). It continues to involve Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in environment building for TLCs, but assigns them a major role in implementation of continuing education projects. NLM has strengthened State Resource Centers (SRCs) to increase their involvement in continuing education programme. It has also enlarged the activities of Jana Shikshan Sansthan so that they could function as repositories of vocational/technical skills in urban and rural areas not only for

youth and workers with low level of education but also for neo-literate youth and adults (<http://www.egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/32473/1/Unit4.pdf>).

Now, Saaskhar Bharat is the current scheme which is a variant of National Literacy Mission. We will discuss its broad features in the following section.

### Check Your Progress

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”.

1) Describe the current trends in the policy direction of adult education.

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## 5.3 SAAKSHAR BHARAT — CURRENT SCHEME OF ADULT EDUCATION

Despite significant accomplishments of the NLM, illiteracy continues to be an area of national concern. Though precise number of non-literates at this stage is not available and will be known only after 2011 census, its provisional figures had revealed that there are still 259.52 million illiterate adults (in the age group of 15+) in the country. While further accretion into the pool of adult illiterate persons is expected to recede significantly on account of enhanced investments in elementary education and a reverse demographic trend, addition to this pool cannot be ruled out altogether on account of relatively high school dropout ratio. Wide gender, social and regional disparities in literacy also continued to persist. Adult Education is therefore indispensable as it supplements the efforts to enhance and sustain literacy levels through formal education

It is in this background that Saakshar Bharat has been devised as the new variant of National Literacy Mission. Though its primary focus will be on women, Saakshar Bharat (National Literacy Mission Authority, 2010, pp.1-2) will cover all adults in the age group of 15 and beyond. In this scheme, Basic literacy, Post-literacy and Continuing Education Programmes will be the continuum, rather than sequential segments. Besides, the volunteer-based mass campaign approach, provision has been made for alternative approaches to adult education. Jana Shiksha Kendras (Adult education Centres) will be set up to coordinate and manage all programmes, within their territorial jurisdiction. State Government, as against the districts in the earlier versions, and Panchayati Raj institutions along with communities will be valued stakeholders.

### 5.3.1 Objectives, Target and Approach of Saakshar Bharat

The objectives, targets and approach of Saakshar Bharat are as follows (NLMA, 2010, pp.4-6).

#### 5.3.1.1 Objectives

The objectives of Saakshar Bharat are:

- 1) To impart functional literacy and numeracy to non-literate and non-numerate adults.
- 2) To enable the neo-literate adults to continue their learning beyond basic literacy and acquire equivalency to formal educational system.
- 3) To impart non- and neo-literates relevant skill development programmes to improve their earning and living conditions.
- 4) To promote a learning society by providing opportunities to neo-literate adults for continuing education.

#### 5.3.1.2 Targets

The principal target of the Saakshar Bharat mission is to impart functional literacy to 70 million adults in the age group of 15 years and beyond. Auxiliary target of the mission is to cover 1.5 million adults under basic education programme and equal number under vocational (skill development) programme. Within these targets, the Mission will primarily focus on; but not limited to, women. Schedule Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs), Minorities, other disadvantaged groups and adolescents in rural areas in low literacy States. For each focused group and area, there will be a specific target and for each target, an explicit approach and strategy (Ibid, pp.4-5).

**Table 5.1: Category-wise Targets Under Literacy Programme (in Millions)**

| Category     | Male      | Female    | Total     |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| SC           | 04        | 10        | 14        |
| ST           | 02        | 06        | 08        |
| Muslims      | 02        | 10        | 12        |
| Others       | 02        | 34        | 36        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>10</b> | <b>60</b> | <b>70</b> |

**Source:** National Literacy Mission Authority. 2010. *Saakshar Bharat – Centrally Sponsored Scheme*. New Delhi: Ministry of Human Resource Development, Department of School Education and Literacy, p.5.

#### 5.3.1.3 Target-specific Approach

Women being the prime focus and predominant participants, the entire programme will be given gender treatment. The gender, social and cultural barriers that women face will be taken into consideration while designing teaching-learning programmes. Gender will not be seen in isolation but in conjunction with other social categories like caste, ethnicity, religion, disability, etc. Gender perspective will permeate all components of the programme, including the approach, strategies, planning, management structures, teaching-learning materials, and

monitoring and evaluation. Special priority will be given to women belonging to SC, ST, Minority and other disadvantaged groups in rural areas (Ibid, p.5).

The approach will be to build on women's existing knowledge and levels of their literacy and numeracy in order to ensure that in the long run the existing levels are substantially upgraded and they are able to use the skills acquired in their own contexts. Women will be engaged in large numbers as volunteers and instructors to encourage women learners to participate in the programme. Along with women, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Minorities constitute large chunk of illiterate population. Targets have been fixed taking into account not only the share of their total population but also their share of the non-literate population. Commensurate resources should therefore be invested for raising their literacy levels. SLMAs and other sub-state level implementing agencies must draw special strategies taking into account their socio-cultural background and sensitivities and share these strategies with NLMA. Monitoring mechanism will have an inbuilt feature to maintain a constant watch and highlight the progress made by the learners belonging to these groups while simultaneously taking timely corrective measures to prevent relapse into illiteracy (Ibid, pp.5-6).

#### **5.3.1.4 Creating Sustainable Demand for Literacy**

Saakshar Bharat Mission planned to create a social environment conducive to literacy by addressing the whole society, both educated and the non-literate, especially the women. A Key aspect of the demand-creation will be making visible to the learners the value, importance and relevance that literacy will have in their day-to-day lives, including women in Self-help groups (SHGs), Panchayat Raj institutions (PRIs), Community-based Organisations (CBOs) and NGOs, etc. To this end, NLMA will launch a major social motivation and mobilization campaign that would propagate the benefits of literacy and handicaps of being non-literate. The message would be conveyed so forcefully that the issues of literacy will become part of the social discourse and will motivate the non-literates, especially women to take part in learning, and the educated to voluntarily contribute to the programme. The central objective of environment-building for literacy will be to generate a positive, natural and spontaneous demand for literacy which does not exist uniformly in all the parts of the country (Ibid, pp.7-8).

#### **5.3.2 Teaching-Learning Programmes**

To respond to the demand for literacy and address the diverse needs of the non- and neo-literate adults, an assortment of teaching-learning programmes including Functional Literacy Programme, Basic Education Programme, Vocational Education and Continuing Education Programme will be offered as an integrated continuum (Ibid, p.9).

##### **5.3.2.1 Functional Literacy Programme Framework**

The programme entails identification of non-literates through a survey, area-wise mapping of their learning needs and imparting them instructor-based teaching of about 300 hours spread over three months or beyond, depending on motivation of the learner and local conditions. Successful completion of the 300 hours of instructional learning would enable the learner to read and comprehend unknown text (newspaper headings, road signs, etc); apply skills of writing in day-to-day activities like writing applications and letters and filling up of application forms, etc., and compute simple problems involving multiplication and division. A

Certificate will be issued to every successful learner based on a professional evaluation of learning outcome (Ibid).

**A) Flexi Approach for Basic Literacy:** Though Mass Campaign Approach will continue to be the dominant strategy, the Scheme discounts implementation of homogeneous approach uniformly throughout the country. To ensure that basic literacy is provided through a variety of context-specific and group-specific approaches innovation would be encouraged and flexibility in sanctioning projects within a broad range of approved costs will be exercised. Implementing agencies may adopt any approach/model, including the illustrative formats outlines below (Ibid, pp.10-13).

- i) ***Volunteer-based Mass Campaign Approach:*** Under this approach, volunteer teaching takes place on a mass scale. A volunteer acts as a mobiliser, trainer and teacher and is responsible for imparting literacy, on an average, to 8-10 learners. The implementing agency at the operational level, will be responsible for identification of the potential learners as well as volunteers, their batching and matching, making arrangements for their training, distribution of literacy kits to learners and volunteer group, ensuring that the momentum of learning is not lost, while simultaneously ensuring that learning takes place at the pace suitable to the learner.
- ii) ***Incentives to the Volunteers and Learners:*** Voluntary Literacy Educators are not paid any remuneration. Since high motivational level of Voluntary Literacy Educators is critical, they need to be motivated through different means including public recognition, at different levels, of their contribution besides other incentives and rewards. Payment of honorarium to Literacy Educators may also be considered by the State Governments, Gram Panchayats or NLMA through any funding source, including donations or public —private partnership, but not from budgetary support of Government of India. SLMA/District/Gram Panchayat could also explore the possibility of giving motivational incentives to learners in an innovative manner.

**B) Centre-based Approach:** This approach includes the following.

- i) ***Resident Instructor:*** On an average, one Resident Instructor will be appointed to teach at least 30 learners in a period of one year and he will be provided an honorarium fixed by NLMA. In this approach, the centre will function for about 7-8 hours every day, and individual / groups of learners will attend classes for a couple of hours or more depending on the free time available to them. The instructor's will be especially chosen for their sensitivity to issues of gender and caste equality, and their commitment to Constitutional values of Democracy and Secularism.
- ii) ***Residential Camps:*** The residential camps may be organized, specially for adolescents and young adults in the age group of 15-25 years, who might have already completed primary education (standard IV/V) but later relapsed into illiteracy for want of follow-up; those who dropped out of the school system, and are now too old to rejoin school and those altogether excluded from systematic education. Identified young

adults and adolescents will be motivated to participate in residential camps, which would be organized at a suitable location in the Block with support of a team of Resource Persons. Resident camps may be organized through NGOs, SRCs, JSSs, etc, provided they have experience and expertise in this field.

iii) **Part-residential Camp – Part-volunteer-based approach:** This approach is followed for group-specific learners, such as non-literate members of self-help groups, women's groups, or members of gram panchayats, or persons who may have joined together in a common cause. There are many such groups in the country today and many of them also function as a forum for credit and savings. These camps will provide basic literacy for a suitable period, keeping in view the convenience of the beneficiaries, interspersed with guided-learning in volunteer mode.

C) **Basic Education Programme:** It enables the neo-literates to continue their learning, beyond basic literacy and acquire equivalency to formal educational system. Arrangements will be made to enable young adults to continue their learning till they are able to achieve equivalence levels with Grade III, IV, V, VI, VII and VIII, and beyond in the formal school system or through the Open Learning System or Open Basic Education of National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS).

D) **Vocational Education (Skill Development) Programme:** To equip non- and neo-literates with vocational skills to improve their living and earning conditions, suitable skill development training will be imparted to those having rudimentary levels of education or no education. Jan Shikshan Sansthan (JSS), set up under the Scheme for Assistance to Voluntary Agencies for Adult Education and Skill Development of DSEL, will be institutionally networked with the Adult Education Centers so that they could impart skill development training as well as literacy-linked vocational training. JSS in coordination with the District Implementing Agency will enlist neo-literates for appropriate skill development training.

E) **Continuing Education Programme:** It aims at establishing a learning society by providing opportunities to neo-literates and other targeted beneficiaries for lifelong learning. The programme recognizes increased demand for learning generated by Basic and Post-Literacy Programmes and the potential need of adult learners to further enhance their skills on their own terms and at their convenience. The programme will provide facility of a library and reading room, which would be gradually provided with other contemporary ICT devices. Short-term thematic courses on Health awareness/care, Food and Nutrition, Water conservation / Drinking water / Sanitation, Population and development education issues such as AIDS/ STD, sex education, etc or any other topic of interest and relevance to the lives of the learners will also be offered under this programme.

#### 5.3.2.2 Operational Framework for Teaching-Learning Programme

The Lok Shiksha Kendra (Adult Education Centre) will be the operational arm of the mission at the grass root level and responsible for delivering the entire range of activities under the Mission including Literacy, Basic Education,

Vocational Education and Continuing Education within their territorial jurisdiction. Two Coordinators (Preraks) may be engaged on payment of honorarium to discharge administrative and academic tasks. Preraks will also be assigned teaching responsibilities. Together with volunteer teachers they will constitute the resource group in a village. Since the Kendras will not have buildings of their own, Panchayats and concerned line departments may be obligated to allow the centres to function from the Panchayat Ghars, Schools, Anganwadi centres, etc. Gradually funds may be made available for construction of such centres. While basic education and continuing education programmes will be largely Kendra-based, the voluntary teacher-based literacy programme will be run through temporary literacy learning centres in a village. These centres are roughly equivalent of a school in the formal sector and will be managed by a voluntary Literacy Educator/Resident Instructor on almost same analogy as a single-teacher school in the formal sector. More of such centres must be operated within habitats of disadvantaged groups. Based on the number of non-literate adults within each of the villages and hamlets that constitute the gram panchayat, required number of literacy centres will be set up. One volunteer teacher-based literacy centre will cover 8-10 non-literates. The minimum physical learning environment, facilities, teaching-learning material, etc., will be provided to these learning centres, as per provision in the programme a centre will cover 8-10 non-literates (Ibid, pp.14-15).

- A) **Lok Shiksha Kendra (Adult Education Centres):** Well-equipped multiple functional Lok Shiksha Kendras (Adult Education Centres) will be set up at Gram Panchayat level to provide institutional, managerial and resource support to literacy and lifelong education at the grass root level. One AEC will be set up in a Gram Panchayat having population of 5000. The adult education centre will be manned by two paid Coordinators (Preraks) to be engaged on contractual basis. AECs will function from buildings provided by Gram Panchayat. Preraks should preferably be from marginalized groups (SCs/STs/Minorities) and at least one of them should be a woman. A Prerak should be at least a matriculate (Ibid, p.15).
- B) **Core Curriculum Framework for Adult Literacy:** A relevant curriculum is conducive to better learning outcomes. At the same time, there is a need for standardization of quality benchmarks. NLMA will develop Core Curricular Framework (CCF) in respect of basic literacy and continuing education programme. The framework will spell out the contents and their comprehensiveness in delineating core academic areas and locally relevant issues, teaching- learning methods and processes for achieving the literacy norms and other objectives.

The core curriculum will reflect the national values like national integration, secularism, democracy, scientific temper, communal harmony, women's equality, small family norms, etc. It will also address the demands of the learners and take into account the diversity of their socio-cultural background, life experiences, linguistic skills and motivational levels.

Based on the CCF developed by NLMA, SLMAs could develop the curriculum with adequate reflection of locally relevant issues and aspects, among others.

- C) Total Quality Management:** For standardization of Quality Bench Marks NLMA will develop the framework for total quality management in respect of the following:
- Core Curriculum Framework for Adult Literacy
  - High Quality Teaching-Learning Material (TLMs)
  - Improving Quality of Literacy Educators
  - Augmenting the Quality of Teaching and learning
  - Assessment and Certification
  - Adopting New Learning Technologies
  - Promoting a Literate Environment
  - Resource support through State Resource Centres
- D) Efficiency Management:** It is attempted to be ensured through the following measures.
- Convergence and partnerships
    - Public-Public Partnerships
    - Public-Private Partnerships
    - Involving Non-Government Organizations
    - International partnerships
    - Documentation
    - Research
  - Monitoring and evaluation through web-based management information system.
  - Fund Release Management through core banking facility made available at scheduled banks.

### 5.3.3 Suggestive Management Structure

The broad management structure as has been suggested provides for Literacy Mission Authorities and Lok Shiksha Samitis at different levels (NLMA, pp.30-34).

- *Literacy Mission Authorities:* At the national level the suggested authority is National Literacy Mission Authority (NLMA). The composition of its Governing Body provides for Chairperson, Vice-Chairperson, Members, Member Secretary, and a Secretariat. Similarly, at state level, the authority suggested is State Literacy Mission Authority (SLMA). The composition of its Governing Body provides for Chairperson, Members, Member Secretary, and a Secretariat. It means there is no provision made for Vice-Chairperson for SLMA. Specific tasks have been identified for NLMA and SLMA.
- *Lok Shiksha Samitis:* It provides for Lok Shiksha Samitis at different levels – District, Block and Panchayat — which are respectively called as District Lok Shiksha Samiti, Block Lok Shiksha Samitis and Panchayat Lok Shiksha Samiti along with their broad composition and functions.

### Check Your Progress

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”.

2) What is Saakshar Bharat? Mention the objectives of Saakshar Bharat.

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3) Describe the operational framework of Saakshar Bharat.

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## 5.4 EXTENSION EDUCATION: CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

Extension is often seen merely as a vehicle for spreading scientific and technical progress and technology transfer. Globally, till the recent past, extension education for development has been, essentially, the responsibility of public sector, both in terms of funding and delivery. However, with the introduction of privatization, liberalization and globalization, extension is globally viewed as comprising public, private, and semi-public systems that make up a multi institutional and multi-sectoral pluralistic system. Also, views on extension have changed in emphasis from simple transfer of technology to organizing people for participatory development. Originally, it was thought of as part of a ‘knowledge triangle’ composed of research, education and extension. Currently, extension is viewed more broadly as part of innovation system for development. These changes, involving how extension is perceived, how its aims have changed, and how it is seen to fit into a newly conceived larger system of innovations, further underscores the importance of extension as both an object of reform and an engine of innovations for development.

### 5.4.1 Trends of Extension Systems: Shift in Emphasis

The extension efforts are almost in a crisis situation in many developing countries. Of course, developed countries too are experiencing almost similar problems. Success of developmental efforts in a country depends considerably upon the

vigor with which extension efforts are undertaken from beginning. According to Sawant (2009), extension education has been the main plank on which all our developmental efforts have been built. Today's extension system is in a transformation stage. Several changes are taking place. Several efforts had/have been made especially for uplifting the rural poor by extension personnel/functionaries including those of NGOs who helped in promoting the understanding of the trends of rural development and designing the strategies of future developments.

During the two decades, 1960s to 1980s, there were two streams of extension as can be identified. In the 1960's, *technology diffusion/transfer* was the system promulgated. During that period the technologists or the owners of scientific information were assumed to be the important variable in the development equation. The clientele were generally assumed to be receivers of 'sacred' information. The dominant methodology in 1970s was the World Bank sponsored T & V system. In the 1980's the focus shifted to *knowledge-intensive methodologies* that resulted in *demand-driven approaches*.

Extension system in India has undergone major changes since the late 1990s in governance structure, capacity, organization and management including advisory methods. The changes involves the decentralization of extension services at the local level, adoption of pluralistic modes, promoting the participatory extension approaches, training of farmers to express their demands and capacity (NEEC, 2011, See <http://www.seea.org.in/neec2011/neec2011-index.html>).

These approaches focused on the demands of farmers as the important driving force. From this new extension trend came decentralization and privatization. Decentralization is the transfer of responsibility of an organization's delivery services to a third party; that party although financed by the first party may or may not employ user fees. Decentralization is usually considered a first step towards privatization. Privatization is the full transfer of ownership from government or a commodity board to a private entity.

#### **5.4.1.1 Dimensions of Extension Development: A Brief Overview of Models and Approaches**

The changing dimensions of extension can be noticed from the following models of extension (Sawant, 2009).

- a) **Technology Transfer Model:** This model is used for improving the production capacity and for conserving and developing the resource-base. Also, due attention has been given for post-harvest technologies, combining no-cost and low-cost technologies as well as mobilizing the useful elements of indigenous, traditional technologies.
- b) **Advisory Work Model:** This model is used by some extension organizations, Government Organizations, private sector firms, input supply firms, etc that respond to people's enquiries for development with technical prescriptions. It also takes the form of projects managed by donor agencies and NGOs that use participatory approaches to promote development through pre-determined packages of technology.
- c) **Human Resource Development Model:** This model is used for training farmers as to how they can utilize specific management skills or a technical

knowledge to increase their production efficiency or to utilize specific management practices. Such as Integrated Pest Management (IPM), as taught through farmer fields (FFs). Top down teaching methods are employed, but people are expected to make their own decisions about how to use the knowledge they acquire for development.

- d) **Participatory Extension Model:** This extension model utilizes problem-solving experimental learning methods such as farmer-to-farmer exchange that demonstrate how innovative farmers have increased their farm income by modifying their farming systems or practices. Skills and knowledge are gained by participating farmers, including rural women through an interactive learning process, but participants are expected to decide themselves whether they will pursue new production, management or marketing practices. This approach appears to be most appropriate for different categories of farmers for intensifying and diversifying their farming systems.

Today the public extension system is generally seen as unequal to the enormous challenges of the new development needs in agriculture and allied fields, among others. Evidently, the simple, single-purpose extension system cannot address the multiplicity of problems and needs in the context of a fast-changing agriculture and allied sectors. In the present era of public-private partnership, extension may take the form of specialized extension systems for providing guidance to clients on venture-specific technologies, inputs and market related managerial guidance.

#### 5.4.2 Changing Role of Extension

According to Sawant (2009) the role of extension has changed from mere increasing 'productivity' on the farm to the livelihood security as well. Therefore, it is important to consider to what extent extension has been able to meet the requirements of the poor with additional players entering the system.

- a) **Professional Groups:** These are mostly made up of farmer specialists in professional organizations, operating individually or in groups, as extension consultants. They are commonly found in ventures like floriculture, vegetable and fruit production, poultry and dairy enterprises. They offer consultancy service or contract service.
- b) **Input agencies:** Established firms dealing with inputs like seeds, fertilizers and credit often provide related extension service. Frequently, such technical services are firmly linked to the commodities, brands or goods they offer. Farmers may avail their services along with awareness of the same. Such service often involves no extra cost.
- c) **Farmers' Organizations:** Many advanced countries have built farmers' organizations that offer extension services. Related to specific enterprises, they may be cooperatives of grape growers, milk producers or poultry farmers; or general farmers' associations. The service provided is fairly efficient and economical.
- d) **Trading houses:** In recent years, in the production of many agricultural commodities, farmers are supported by the interested trading agencies, viz. exporters of flowers, grapes, seeds, vegetables and fruits. The concerned

agencies provide upstream production facilities including inputs, technology, and grading and marketing guidance. Here, farmers will be operating as contract producers, meeting the prescribed standards.

- e) **Agro-processing industries:** The technical service is coupled with supply of technology, inputs, credit, grading, packaging, etc.

Dissemination of knowledge is no more a one-way path from scientists to farmers. Farmers' own knowledge also plays a crucial role in analysing, catalysing and application of knowledge. There is rarely a "one size fits all" solution to address the mix of technical, economic, commercial, social and environmental aspects of diverse farming systems. Now, farmers are more interested to have information on market, credit facilities and consumer demand in addition to appropriate technology related to fast transmission to the clientele. Farmers' empowerment is crucial to make them able to analyse the constraints, seek out the solutions thereon and make choices. The essence of agricultural extension is to facilitate interplay and nurture synergies within a total information system involving agricultural research and education. Building producers' capacity to take individual and collective initiatives, and facilitation to make available technical solutions more relevant to farmers' constraints in the short-term, and in the long-term provide a framework for ongoing innovation (NEEC, 2011, See <http://www.seea.org.in/neec2011/neec2011-index.html>).

#### 5.4.2.1 New Initiatives in Extension

With the increasing expansion, changing role and entry of new players different systems started providing more diversified and competing services making extension a more comprehensive system. Sawant (2009) presents the following new initiatives in extension.

- a) **Public Extension System:** It has a key role in educating farmers and helping them to take right decisions. State governments and line departments operated-extension, and State agriculture universities-based extension — KVKs, KGKs, ICAR, ZRS and ATICs — will work in coordination to boost the extension system. In this context, it is to be noted that extension should be treated as a service delivery system.
- b) **Private Extension System:** It has a role in making extension system more accountable and timely. Community-based Organizations — FOs, CIGs, FIGs, SHGs, Para Extension Workers, Agri-Clinics and Agribusinesses Centers, input suppliers/dealers, Corporate Sectors, etc — will provide good service mechanism to the farming community.
- c) **Public-Private Partnership (PPP):** PPP in extension has to be promoted for convergence and sharing of resources. Horizontal expansion of private sector increases through partnership with the public extension system, while vertical expansion of public extension increases through partnership with the private sector. The potential private extension service providers could be identified and made partners in PPP model for effective management of services and for nurturing plurality of institutions.
- d) **Promotion of Multi-Agency Extension Services:** Widening the range of extension delivery agencies for the resource-poor farmers and those residing

in the hilly, tribal and remote areas, the public system will have to remain as the chief extension mechanism, with NGOs possibly being able to play a significant role.

- e) **Use of Mass Media and Information Technology:** Use of media and IT will increase the efficiency of information and technology dissemination. Print media (particularly vernacular press), Radio, Television, Private Cable channels, Electronic connectivity through computers, NICNET, Internet, V-SAT, Farm Information and Advisory Centers (FIACS), Public and Private Information shops, etc., can play very useful role in this regard.

The reform initiatives desire for improvements in agricultural productivity to be demand-driven in order to meet the demands of need-specific, purpose-specific and target-specific extension system. However, there is no single optimal model or approach best suited for all situations, Therefore, ultimate choice of the extension approach depends on: i) the policy environment, ii) the capacity of potential service providers, iii) the type of farming systems and the market-access for farm households, and iv) the involvement of the local communities and their ability to cooperate. Different agricultural extension models can work well for different sets of situations. To this end, the recent initiatives seek to create a demand-driven, broad-based and holistic agricultural extension system. This encompasses the design and introduction of a multitude of integrated approaches on the demand side, that enable users to voice their needs and hold service providers accountable on the supply side. In order to address such pertinent issues, we need to develop innovative and contemporary extension models, approaches and methods which can fit in diverse agri-rural environments and help in agricultural development and ensure livelihood security of the country (NEEC, 2011, See <http://www.seea.org.in/neec2011/neec2011-index.html>).

It is a challenging task to put extension within the frame of pro-poor policies of the state and to see to what extent the poor farmers and other rural people benefit from various extension programmes and how researchers and extensionists perceive their role in it. Present extension system has to choose such methods of interaction which will work effectively in the commercial agriculture as well as in the subsistence segments. Another important matter is the technical competence of extension system as a whole to cope up with the changing scenario of agriculture and allied sectors.

### Check Your Progress

**Notes:** a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to ‘Check Your Progress’ Questions”.

- 4) Write a brief note on dimensions of extension development as you notice from the relevant models of extension.

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## 5.5 LET US SUM UP

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There have been significant shifts in national policy approaches to literacy and adult education. There is now growing recognition of the social context in which literacy is acquired, developed and sustained. Literacy is not merely perceived as a skill but as socially and culturally determined practice. However, in India, it was NPE 1986 that laid greater emphasis on mass approach to eradication of illiteracy with mass mobilization and wider support of divergent sections of society. The NLM, introduced as a technological and societal mission, adopted the campaign approach to eradicate illiteracy on a large scale; but did not pay adequate attention to post-literacy and continuing education. Since the late 1990s there is noticeable shift in NLM's policy towards integrated approach to amalgamating literacy, post-literacy and continuing education phases on a continuum. This new approach envisages integration of basic literacy teaching-learning with Post-literacy activities to ensure a smooth transition from TLC to Post-literacy to continuing education on a learning continuum. It has also enlarged the activities of Jana Shikshan Samsthans so that they could function as repositories of vocational/technical skills in urban and rural areas for neo-literate youth, adults and workers, and those with low level of education.

Currently extension is viewed more broadly as part of innovative system for development. From technology transfer/diffusion approach in 1960s, extension has shifted to demand-driven approaches in the 1980's with a focus on knowledge-intensive methodologies. Extension system in India has undergone major changes since the late 1990s in governance structure, capacity, organization and management including advisory methods. The changes involved decentralization of extension services at the local level, promoting the participatory extension approaches, training of farmers to express their demands and capacity. These approaches focused on the demands of farmers and the rural poor as the important driving force. Decentralization is usually considered a first step towards privatization. Privatization is the full transfer of ownership from government or a commodity board to a private entity. However, it is a challenging task to put extension within the frame of pro-poor policies of the state and to see to what extent poor farmers benefit from various extension programmes and how researchers and extensionists perceive their roles in this context. Another important matter is the technical competence of extension system to cope up with the changing scenario of agriculture and allied sectors. Present extension system has to choose the methods of interaction working in the commercial agriculture as well in the subsistence segments. Extension field staff will need knowledge and skills to transmit appropriate technical, management, marketing skills, and trained farmers to utilize sustainable management practices. So, clearly, in the new, decentralized, market-driven and farmer-led extension, agricultural extension leaders will need to consider whether and how they should reorganize their extension systems to make it more participatory and truly farmer-driven. We have therefore focused on all these aspects and issues in this Unit.

In Unit-6 that follows i.e. in Block-2 of Course MAE-004, we will deal with the models of extension in greater details with an emphasis on their evolution.

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## 5.6 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS' QUESTIONS

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- 1) Adult education in India is planned within the broader context of the general educational policy. The Central Government plays a leading role in policy formulation, planning and directing overall educational development in the country, while individual states are responsible for the expansion and growth of education in their respective areas in tune with specific directions and guidelines provided by the central government. Most of adult education programmes such as Social Education Programme, Farmers' Functional Literacy Project, Scheme of Non-formal Education for Youth have remained marginal in nature. Adult Education became significant part of the national agenda when National Adult Education Programme was launched in 1979 with separate policy document on adult education. It is the landmark development in Indian Adult Education. Later, the National Policy on Education (NPE) introduced in 1986 and revised in 1992 has been another landmark in the history of adult (literacy) education as it articulated for the first time the national commitment to addressing the problem of eradication of illiteracy in a time-bound manner with planned, concerted and coordinated efforts. Expansion of Non-formal, flexible and need-based vocational education programmes for neo-literates, youth who have completed primary education, school dropouts and adults. The NLM assigned priority to eradicate illiteracy among women, scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other disadvantaged people. It has adopted an integrated approach which envisages integration of basic literacy teaching-learning with post-literacy activities to ensure a smooth transition from TLC to Post-literacy on a learning continuum. It continuous to involve Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in environment building for TLCs, but assigns them a major role in implementation of continuing education projects. NLM has strengthened State Resource Centers (SRCs) to increase their involvement in continuing education programme. It has also enlarged the activities of Jana Shikshan Sansthanas so that they could function as repositories of vocational/technical skills in urban and rural areas not only for youth and workers with low level of education but also for neo-literate youth and adults. Now, NLM continues in a changed form popularly known as Saakshar Bharat.
- 2) Saakshar Bharat is a new variant of National Literacy Mission. Saakshar Bharat covers all adults in the age group of 15 and beyond, though its primary focus will be on women, SCs and STs. In this scheme, Basic literacy, Post-literacy and Continuing Education Programmes will be the continuum, rather than sequential segments. Besides, the volunteer-based mass campaign approach, provision has been made for alternative approaches to adult education. Lok Siksha Kendras (Adult education Centres) will be set up to coordinate and manage all programmes, within their territorial jurisdiction. State Government, as against the districts in the earlier versions, and Panchayat raj institutions, along with communities, will be valued stakeholders. The objectives of Saakshar Bharat programme are as follows.
  - To impart functional literacy and numeracy to non-literate and non-numerate adults.

- To enable the neo-literate adults to continue their learning beyond basic literacy and acquire equivalency to formal educational system.
  - To impart non- and neo-literates relevant skill development programmes to improve their earning and living conditions.
  - To promote a learning society by providing opportunities to neo-literate adults for continuing education.
- 3) The operational arm of Saakshar Bharat mission is the Lok Shiksha Kendra at the grass root level which is responsible for delivering the entire range of activities under the Mission including Literacy, Basic Education, Vocational Education and Continuing Education within their territorial jurisdiction. Two Co-coordinators (Preraks) may be engaged on payment of honorarium to discharge administrative and academic tasks. Preraks will also be assigned teaching responsibilities. Together with volunteer-teachers they will constitute the resource group in a village. Since the Kendras will not have buildings of their own, Panchayats and concerned line departments may be obligated to allow the centres to function from the Panchayat Ghars, Schools, Anganwadi Centres, etc. Gradually funds may be made available for construction of buildings and such others things required. While basic education and continuing education programmes will be largely Kendra-based, the voluntary teacher-based literacy centre will be run through temporary literacy learning centres in a village. These centres roughly equivalent of a school in the formal sector and will be managed by a voluntary Literacy Educator/Resident Instructor on almost same analogy as a single-teacher school in the formal sector.
- 4) The dimensions of extension development are reflected in the following models.
- *Technology Transfer Model:* This model is used for improving the production capacity, and for conserving and developing the resource-base. Also, due attention has been given for post-harvest technologies, combining no-cost and low-cost technologies, as well as mobilizing the useful elements of indigenous, traditional technologies.
  - *Advisory Work Model:* This model is used by some extension organizations, Government Organizations, private sector firms, input supply firms, etc., that respond to people's enquiries for development with technical prescriptions. It also takes the form of projects managed by donor agencies and NGOs that use participatory approaches to promote development through pre-determined packages of technology.
  - *Human Resource Development Model:* This approach is used for training farmers on how to utilize specific management skills and technical knowledge to increase their production efficiency or to utilize specific management practices such as Integrated Pest Management (IPM), as taught through farmer fields (FFs). Top-down teaching methods are employed, but people are expected to make their own decisions about how to use the knowledge they acquire for development.
  - *Participatory Extension Model:* This model utilizes problem-solving experimental learning methods such as farmer-to-farmer exchange that

demonstrates how innovative farmers have increased their farm income by modifying their farming systems and practices. Skills and knowledge are gained by participating farmers including rural women through an interactive learning process, but participants are expected to decide themselves whether they will pursue new production management and marketing practices. This approach appears to be most appropriate for different categories of farmers for intensifying and diversifying their farming systems.

Nevertheless, today the public extension system is generally seen as unequal to the enormous challenges of the new development needs in agriculture and allied fields. Evidently, the simple, single-purpose extension system cannot address the multiplicity of problems and needs in the context of a fast-changing agriculture and allied sectors. In the present era of public-private partnership extension may take the form of specialized extension systems for providing guidance to the clients on venture-specific technologies, inputs and market-related managerial guidance.

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### **Suggested Readings**

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