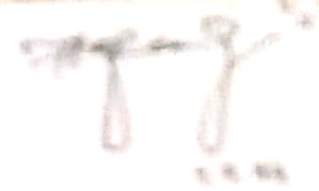


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LECTURE NOTES
ON
FORESTRY EXTENSION EDUCATION

Feb. (55) 1994

Punjab Forestry Research Institute,
Faisalabad

PREFACE

This booklet presents the essence of lectures on Forestry Extension Education delivered by the specialists from University of Agriculture, Faisalabad during July - September, 1994 to the participants of Social Forestry and Extension Education Training Courses at Punjab Forestry Research Institute, Faisalabad.

Social Forestry is gaining more and more importance in this era of environmental problems and shortage of tree wealth in Pakistan. Consequently there is a growing demand for foresters having an adequate comprehension of how forestry technology should be transferred. This is the reason why the courses on Forestry Extension Training were arranged. The names of speakers have been indicated with the titles of various lectures.

I am deeply obliged to Dr. Muhammad Zubair Siddiqui, Director Agriculture Education and Agriculture Extension and his colleagues University of Agriculture, Faisalabad who gave very willing co-operation and delivered excellent lectures to make the training programme a success.

September 1994

Mohammad Hafeez
Director

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Philosophy of Extension

¹Dr. Tanvir Ali

Our topic for today's discussion is "Philosophy of Agricultural Extension". Before we move on to an in-depth discussion, let us analyze and define the terms involved in our topic. Agricultural Extension has been defined by various authors. Some have defined it as a service, some as assistance, some as a system, while some others have defined it as a process. According to Kelsey and Hearne, extension work is an out-of-school system of education in which adults and young people learn by doing. Its fundamental objective is the development of people. According to another definition agricultural extension assists farm people, through educational procedures, in improving farming methods and techniques, increasing production efficiency and income, bettering their levels of living, and lifting the social and educational standards of rural life (Maunder, 1972:3).

Adams (1982) defined agricultural extension as advice or assistance for farmers to help improved their methods of production and marketing. Agricultural Extension is a non-formal education of farmers regarding agriculture. Let us see what is meant by the word "education". Education is the process of bringing change in human behavior. Now we can define Agricultural Extension simply as "It is a process of bringing change in farmers' behavior so that they may adopt recommended agricultural practices.

Let us touch the other term used in our topic that is, "Philosophy". The dictionary meaning of philosophy is (1) The investigation of cause and laws underlying reality. (2) Inquiry into the nature of things based on logical reasoning rather than empirical methods or (3) the critique and analysis of fundamental beliefs as they come to be conceptualized and formulated. Simply we can say that Philosophy is the study how we acquire our beliefs. In our discussion of the philosophy of agricultural extension we shall center on the connection between our beliefs and how/why we teach farmers.

You would agree that beliefs have consequences. What we think influences what we do. When we say that beliefs have consequences in conduct, we mean that we eventually reveal the ideas that develop into our heads, in what we say or how we act in daily life. If, while getting dressed in the morning, the thought rolls around in our head that it might rain, you are likely to take your umbrella. You are now under training. If, you believe that this training will be helpful to enable you to be good extension workers, you will certainly act as active learners. You will ask questions and participate in group discussions. Or, if you believe that you will be tested in knowledge and skills learnt at the end

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of this training workshop and , failure in examination may result in loss of job, you will be mentally active while sitting in the class. On the other hand if you believe that neither this training will be helpful enabling you to be skillful extension workers nor you will be tested in knowledge and skills learnt in this training, you may sit in the class inactively. You may be very passive learner. You may be daydreaming during class sessions. You may be sleeping with your eyes open while teacher is delivering lecture. In short we conclude that our beliefs affect our actions.

Philosophy studies human beliefs about the nature of reality, type of knowledge to be acquired, and values. All philosophy asks three basic questions.

- a. What is real? or what is the nature of reality? or What the world is made of? The branch of philosophy which deals with this question is called Metaphysics.
- b. What is true? or what is true knowledge? or what type of knowledge should be acquired and how can it be acquired? or How knowing takes place? The branch of philosophy which deals with this question is called Epistemology.
- c. What is good? or what is good value? or what are guiding values? The branch of philosophy which deals with this question is called Axiology.

People from various parts of the world have various beliefs/answers regarding these basic questions of philosophy. Your answer regarding metaphysical question may be that reality is world of God. God created this universe with purpose. But those who believe in Darwinian version of Genesis, have different answers/beliefs to the same metaphysical question. An idealist believes that reality is a world of mind. A realist believes that it is a world of things. An experimentalist believes that reality is a world of experience and an existentialist believes it is a world of existing. He believes that the ultimate and final reality resides within the self of the individual person. Philosophy is a very broad subject. It needs hours and hours for in-depth discussions. Now we will focus our discussion on the philosophy of Agricultural Extension-- Extensionist's belief about Metaphysics, Epistemology and Axiology.

1. Extensionists' Beliefs About the Nature of Reality

1.1 Reality as World of God

Allah created the whole universe. He created man in the best possible form. He is the creator as well as the sustainer of man and the world. It is, this fundamental belief that should reflect itself in all of our thoughts, feelings and actions.

1.2 Reality as a Net Work of Systems

You know the elements of atom and how they operate. You also know the elements of our solar system and how they operate. In our Universe there are many solar systems. We believe that our cosmos is a net work of systems.

1.2.1 Implications for Extension Work

Some extension principles which emerge from this belief are as under:

- a) Extension practices are most effective when they are drawn the resources of a net work of disciplines, such as agriculture, biology, home economics, sociology, psychology etc.
- b) Extension flourishes when there are effective interactions between systems i.e. coordination and communication of research and extension systems; extension and farmers systems; sub-systems within extension.

1.3 Rational and Non-deterministic Reality

We believe that the world created by God is rational. Reality can be studied, explained and predicted. Allah has given man independence of thinking and actions. Man's good actions will lead him to Heaven and bad actions (Sins) to Hell. Therefore, it can be concluded that Allah has given man the ability to shape his future. Man has the ability to distinguish between right or wrong. He can decide his own way. He must obey the self help principle. God helps those who help themselves.

1.3.1 Implications for Extension Work

Some underlying causes/principles which emerge from this belief are as under:-

The philosophy of extension work is teaching farmers: ~~for~~

- a) Problem solving and decision making.
- b) Having hope for better future and having planned change for it.
- c) *To help themselves.*

2. Extensionists' Beliefs About Knowledge and Learning

2.1 Knowledge Which Satisfies Human Needs

We believe that the true knowledge is the knowledge which fulfills human needs--- spiritual needs, economic needs, social needs, biological needs etc. etc. Revelation is the most perfect and truest form of knowledge. Knowledge generated through the application of scientific research in the light of revealed guidance is also having.

2.1.1 Implications for Extension Work
Some of the causes, principles of extension which emerge from this belief are as under:

- a) Extension workers help farmers to identify and fulfil their social and economic needs.
- b) Needs satisfaction becomes strong motive for effective and active learning.
- c) Extension focusses on knowledge which is socially desirable (within the limits of revealed guidance) and economically profitable.
- d) *Farmers are treated as partners in extension work*

2.2 Extensionists Believe That Learning is Context Bound.

Effective learning can take place when educational materials are presented within the learner's context. There is a saying of our Prophet (Peace Be Upon Him) "Communicate with people according to their intellectual level".

2.2.1 Implications for Extension Work

Some of the causes, realities, principles which emerge from this belief are as under:

- a) Farmers learn best when they are able to create an interface between the world of new knowledge and their present world-- physical and mental.
- b) One of the important principles of extension is "Reach farmers where they are". It means that the extension worker should reach (identify) the physical and mental level of the farmer before teaching him new knowledge. Then, he/she should develop his communication strategy according to the identified level of his audience.

2.3 Extensionists believe that learning is an active process.
Effective learning takes place when learners actively participate in learning.

2.3.1 Implications for Extension Work

Some of the causes/principles which emerge from this belief are as under:

- a) Participant are involved in extension program development:
Farmers are involved in every stage of program development i.e. situation analysis, needs assessment, determination of objectives, developing plans of work and implementation of work plans. Through this participation

they learn actively. In this way they feel extension as their own program.

- b) Extension workers use a wide variety of extension techniques instead of using only lecture method. Most appropriate techniques for attitudinal change and skills learning are group discussions, demonstrations and supervised experiences (learning by doing).
- c) Farmers are contacted for extension teaching when they are not too busy in their work. This action highlights the principle that learning must not conflict with other adult roles and responsibilities.

3. Extensionsists' Beliefs About Values

3.1. Extension Our Religious Duty

We muslims believe in Prophet Muhammad (PEUH) and Allah. Allah is the creator of this whole universe. Allah urges man to acquire and transmit knowledge as a matter of duty. Allah ordains the Prophet (Peace Be Upon Him) to pray for increase me in knowledge.

"
My Lord: Increase me in Knowledge".

The Prophet (Peace be Upon Him) in turn implored Allah not to burden him with the knowledge which is not beneficial. In saying so he desired knowledge not for its own sake, but, for the well-being of the individual and society. It is because of the moral, social and economic implications of knowledge that He advised His followers to "seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave". He made "the acquisition of knowledge incumbent upon every Muslim male and female". Once knowledge is acquired by an individual, it is required by him to spread it as far as possible.

3.1.1 Implications for Extension Work.

Some of the causes, principle, realities which emerge from this belief are as under:

- a) Obedience to Gods' will acts as a very strong motive for extension work. Religious preachers go house to house for preaching without any economic incentives.

3.2 Knowledge is Power:

We believe that knowledge is power. Allah says in Quran, "Allah will raise up to rank and degree those of you who believe and who have been granted knowledge and "only men of knowledge draw right conclusions". Therefore, agricultural or forestry extension work is also an act of empowerment: providing farmers with the knowledge that will enable them to draw conclusions regarding the solution of their farm problems and giving them control of their

world.

3.2.1 Implications for Extension

The underlying causes, principles that emerge from this belief are:

- a) ~~Farmers are treated as partners in extension work.~~
- b) Extension teaches farmers how to respond to long term problems and needs rather than temporarily dealing with crises as they occur. There is a saying, "Give a man a fish and he eats for a day, teach him to fish and eats for a life time.

4. Suggestions

- * Try to be a True Believer
- * Be Religiously Motivated to Perform the Extension Task
- * Extension Work is Your Religious Duty
- * Respect Farmers as They are also Rational Human Beings
- * Deal With Farmers as a Motivator not as an Officer

INTRODUCTION TO EXTENSION EDUCATION METHODS

By

¹Dr. Tanvir Ali

Extension workers use a wide variety of extension techniques /methods to educate farmers and rural people regarding agriculture, home economics, health and other aspects of rural development. Some of these methods which can be applicable in Pakistani situation are discussed here. These methods are categorized into individual contact methods, group contact methods, and mass contact methods.

1. Individual Contact Methods

1.1 Farm/Home Visit

In this method the extension worker visits the farmer at his farm or home. The purpose of the visit may be to acquire the first hand information about the farm or home, or to provide information to the farmer.

1.2 Office Call

In this method the learner (farmer) comes to the office of the extension worker (teacher) to seek information or assistance.

1.3 Informal Contacts

Informal contacts are unstructured meetings of extension worker with farmer in an informal setting. This type of meeting is generally not pre-planned. Some times a farmer may meet the extension worker in mosque, in a social gathering, on bus stand, in a restaurant, or some where in extension workers' way to home or office. This may be any casual meeting between an extension worker and a farmer in which they may talk about the farm problems and their solutions.

1.4 The Model Farmer

This method involves the identification of a farmer whose farming methods and personal attitudes are so superior that his operation can serve as a model for others to follow. The government extension workers concentrate their extension work on model farmer who acts as a volunteer extension worker in the village.

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1.5 Personal Letters

In this method a farmer, through a letter, asks about agricultural information from the extension worker who sends a written response to the farmer by mail.

1.6 Telephone Calls

Though this method is not popular in Pakistan due to limited telephone facility, still it is applicable in the rural situation where both farmer and extension worker have the telephone facility. Farmer can ask questions related to farm problems through telephone. Telephone makes it possible to have quick and timely information.

2. Group Contact Methods

There are a number of group techniques which are used world wide to educate a group of farm people. In these techniques an individual or a group of extension workers teach to a group of farmers (learners). These techniques are briefly discussed here.

2.1 Method Demonstration

This technique is generally used for skills teaching. If you want to teach any new technique or practice to a group of farmers, you can choose Method Demonstration as a teaching method. In this method the extension worker shows to, and discusses with a group of farmers(learners) how some skill is performed step by step. This method is used to demonstrate a method of some skill or technique for example, how to plant seed in lines; how to dig a pit for pit plantation of sugarcane, how to plant a tree, how to prepare mango jam etc.etc. The extension worker actually performs the skill/technique step by step in front of the audience. Selected audience are also asked to perform some steps of the skill in front of the extension worker.

2.2 Result Demonstration

If you want to prove the superiority of some innovation over the old one to a group of people, you will certainly choose the result demonstration method. The difference between the method demonstration and result demonstration is that a method is demonstrated in method demonstration where as, in result demonstration the result of some innovation is demonstrated. You will understand more clearly from this example. Suppose you want to teach farmers how to sow wheat in lines through Rabbi Drill, you will select method demonstration method. On the other hand if you want to prove to farmers that a new variety of wheat "Inqlab 91" is superior to old variety traditionally grown by farmers, you will

select the result demonstration method. What will you do? Probably you will select a demonstrator farmer who will demonstrate under your guidance. He will select a site for demonstration, identify a demonstration plot, divide it into two randomly. In one part he will sow the new variety "Inqlab 91" and in the other he will sow the old variety traditionally sown in that village. He will keep all other factors constant for both of the parts of demonstration plot. At the time of harvest, the results will be clearly seen by farmers. If superior, the new variety will give more yield than the old variety from the same unit of area. Farmers will see results and believe them because seeing is believing.

Another difference between the method demonstration and the result demonstration is that in method demonstration the demonstrator is the extension worker where as in result demonstration the demonstrator is generally a farmer, selected by the extension worker, who performs his demonstration work under the supervision of extension worker.

2.3 Tours and Field Trips

These are the methods of extension teaching which appeal to man's desire to go places and see things. The things ~~to be seen~~ to be seen may range from results on small demonstrations or test plots to extensive application of the new methods on actual farms. In this method group of farmers travel to another location under the supervision of an extension worker to observe agricultural practices, projects, or demonstrations not available locally.

2.4 Short Courses

Extension workers organize short courses of few days to few weeks duration, for group of farmers, to be conducted ~~either~~ in ~~the~~ office of the extension worker, ~~or~~ in the village, at a research station, at a nearby school or university. Each course focusses on some specific subject matter such as: gardening, poultry farming, mushroom cultivation etc. etc. The Department of Short Courses at the University of Agriculture, Faisalabad organizes more than a hundred short course for clients of varying natures.

2.5 Field Day

A field day is a day on which a farm, containing successfull farming practices, is open for other farmers and visitors to visit. A field day is a learning opportunity, an opportunity for informal contacts, discussions, and an opportunity for fun. The host farmer explains to visitors the causes of his success in farming. The extension worker clarifies the technical points. Field days may also be held on research stations to demonstrate and discuss successful research.

2.6 Informal Discussion at Social Gatherings

Sometimes the extension worker and a group of farmers start informal discussion regarding farm problems and their solutions in social gatherings relating to institutions such as Marriage, Religion, Chahlum, etc.

2.7 Contests

Contests are based upon the principle of competition. After periods of learning and practice in the community, farmers individually or in groups, demonstrate their proficiency and talents before the public in contests especially organized by the extension worker. Prizes and merit certificates are given to the winners in each area of contest. In this method the role of an extension worker remains that of a team coach.

2.8 Panel Discussion

A panel of 4 to 7 resource person (experts) carry on discussion of an issue before a group of farmers. In this method the role of extension worker becomes that of an "organizer" and "moderator".

2.9 Colloquy

This is a modified form of the panel discussion. In this method two panels (one of 3 or 4 resource persons and other of 3 or 4 representatives of the audience) discuss the issue before a group of farmers (audience). The main difference between the panel discussion and the colloquy is that in panel discussion there is only one panel (experts) where as in colloquy there are two panels (experts and representatives of audience) who discuss issues in front of an audience.

2.10 Symposium

In this method 3 to 6 resources persons deliver lectures or read already written papers in turn on various phases of a single subject or problem. For example, suppose you have organized symposium on wheat cultivation, you will ask one resource person to deliver lecture on "varietal selection", other one on "soil preparation and management", another one on "fertilizers and their application" another on "plant protection", another one on "harvesting and post harvest losses". Each of them will in turn deliver lectures or read already written papers before the audience.

2.11 Clinic

This is a meeting of the extension worker and a group of farmers in which the main emphasis is an analysis and treatment of specific problem. This method gives the participants an opportunity

to examine a problem with the goal of finding its solution.

2.12 Workshop

It is a meeting in which participants discuss, learn, and apply practical skills. In this meeting emphasis is on work sessions. Those attending are expected to produce a product "output", such as a map, a visual aid, a list of recommendations, a curriculum outline, a training manual etc. The main elements of this technique are: "work"- "practical experience"- "hands on" as a result some "output" or "product."

2.13 Brain-Storming

It is a group discussion technique in which the members generate as many ideas as possible on a specific topic without consideration of practical application. This is an instructional technique to encourage creativity. Its main characteristic is free following and uninhibited sharing and listening ideas by a group without evaluation or consideration of practicability. In this method the extension worker asks question regarding the problem under discussion and farmers (participants) are asked to respond to that question freely. No answer is considered as a non sense answer. All answers are recorded. It is tried to cover all the aspects of a problem under discussion.

2.14 Role Playing

In this method participants are assigned roles to act out the situation or problem under discussion. There is no script to follow, and participants, play the roles as they see fit, drawing on their own experiences. While discussing the problems for getting agricultural loans with a group of farmers, some role players may be assigned roles to play spontaneously. i.e. a bank manager, a mobile credit officer, a patwari, a tehsildar, an input sales dealer, a poor illiterate farmer. Six persons playing these roles to demonstrate to the audience that what happens with a poor illiterate farmer when he is in a need of agricultural credit. The purpose of using this technique is to involve participant in real life situations, to stimulate thought and learning, and to encourage discussion about factors involved in role playing. It is the task of the extension worker to: (1) identify the setting, (2) identify and assign roles (3) specify a problem to be solved. After role playing there should be an in depth discussion about the problem under consideration.

2.15 Buzz Groups

A class is divided into sub-groups of 4 to 6 members. These groups discuss particular issue or question raised by the extension worker. After small group discussions a whole group discussion is followed and main points are recorded.

2.16 Huddle Groups

Farmers in small groups of 2-3 members discuss specific issue for few minutes. Then, the whole group discussion is followed.

3. Mass Contact Methods

These are the methods which are used to educate an unlimited number of farmers. These methods are particularly useful for creating awareness regarding agricultural innovations among masses. These methods include:

3.1. Printed Media:

Newspapers, newsletters, folders, leaflets, pamphlets, fact sheets, booklets, books etc. etc.

3.2 Audio-Visual Media:

Radio, T.V., tape recorder, V.C.R. slides, film etc. etc.

3.3 Static Media

Posters, exhibits.

COMMUNICATION PROCESS

By

Dr. Saeed Ahmad Khan¹.

INTRODUCTION.

1. Communication is a pervasive activity which serves many important functions in society and our personal lives. The process of communication enables people to exert some control over their environment. Communication also helps to establish and maintain social relationships, thereby enabling a person to develop as an individual.
2. Communication is a process which involves constant change and interaction between the elements which comprise it. Communication also involves an on-going function; it has no easily defined beginning, middle or end.
3. All communication involves a transaction or transfer of meaning between a source and a receiver. Feedback is the reaction of receiver to the verbal and nonverbal messages transferred in a communicative situation.
4. All communication is affective. This means that communication has an impact on either the receiver, the source, or in most cases both. Some communication experts maintain that all behavior is communicative and that it is impossible not to communicate.
5. Communication is a process which involves a shared code of verbal and nonverbal symbols. It is personal because the meanings of symbols are in the people using them.
6. Communication may be defined from either a source or a receiver perspective. Source oriented definitions include as communication any activity in which a source deliberately transmits stimuli to evoke a response. Receiver oriented definitions include as communication any activity in which the receiver responds to a stimulus. A source-oriented view focuses on the production of effective messages by the speaker. A receiver oriented view focuses on the messages meaning to the receiver.

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MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

A model is a visual representation which helps us to conceptualize the relationship of various elements involved in a process such as communication. Models by their nature are simplified abstractions which isolate the elements and freeze the action of a process. Although models present a distorted view of a process, they are helpful because they can clarify complex systems.

1. From Aristotle's writings it is possible to extrapolate a classical model of rhetorical communication which contains three elements: the speaker, the message and the audience. Aristotle also maintained that the construction of the message and the character of the speaker played an important part in persuading an audience.
2. According to Laswell's model, communication has three functions: surveillance of the environment, correlation of different social groups, and transmission of the social heritage. Laswell describes communication with the following questions: Who/says What/in Which Channel/To Whom/and With What Effect?
3. The Shannon and Weaver model is concerned with the accurate transmission of a message. This model presents a source which sends a message through a channel to a receiver. Noise is any additional stimuli in the channel which can disrupt the accurate reception of the message.
4. Berlo's model contains four major elements: source, message, channel and receiver. This model also focuses on the encoding and decoding functions which take place during communication. It specifies five personal factors which will affect communicators: their communication skills, attitudes, knowledge, social system and cultural environment.

COMPONENTS OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS

A. SOURCE ENCODER

1. An important variable in any communication situation is source credibility: a source with a high credibility is more effective than one with low credibility.
2. There are five decisions which a receiver makes about a source; these are known as the dimensions of credibility. These decision points are: competence, or the source's knowledge of the subject, character, or the apparent trustworthiness of the source; composure, especially in regard to smoothness of delivery; sociability, or the degree to which the source seems likeable and friendly; extroversion, or an outgoing personality. Each of these dimensions acts independently to influence the source's effectiveness as a communicator.

3. Source credibility, which exists only as it is attributed by receivers, may change over time. At the beginning of the communication transaction, the receiver assesses the source's initial credibility. During the transaction, a receiver may modify his initial impression; this is known as transactional credibility. After the transaction is completed, the receiver is left with final perception of the source's credibility called terminal credibility.

4. Another variable in the communication situation is homophily, or the degree of similarity between the source and the receiver. Heterophily refers to the degree of dissimilarity between the interactants. The best degree of similarity for effective communication is optimal heterophily; or slight dissimilarity; optimal heterophily also enhances a source's credibility. Frequent communication, the development of empathy, and close attention to feedback will all help to overcome problems of heterophily.

5. A third important source variable is power. The dimensions of power in a communication situation include: perceived control, or the receiver's decision as to whether or not the source can apply sanctions; perceived concern, or the receiver's decision as to whether the source really cares if the receiver complies with the request; and perceived scrutiny, or the receiver's decision whether the source has the ability to determine if the request has been complied with.

6. There are five types of power which may operate in a communication situation. Reward power is the ability of the source to apply positive sanctions. Referent power is the ability to appeal to a receiver's wish to please or be like the source. Expert power is accorded to the source when the receiver perceives him to have superior knowledge or expertise. Legitimate power stems from the internalized values of the receiver that affirm the source's right to exert influence in the communication situation.

B. RECEIVER DECODER

1. The receiver is often the forgotten person in the communication process, although without him there would be no transfer to meaning. To some extent, the receiver exerts control over the source, and both the source and the receiver must accommodate each other in the communication transaction.

2. As a source may analyze his audience according to five demographic variables; age, sex, social and economic background, racial and ethnic factors, and intelligence. There is some evidence that old people are more difficult to persuade than young people. Women are generally more persuadable than men although this may be the result of social rather than biological factors. Social, economic, racial and ethnic differences between the source and the receiver are likely to make communication between the two difficult.

3. An individual's personality traits remain fairly stable and may therefore affect the way a receiver responds to a message. When dogmatic people are confronted with persuasive appeal from a source whom they consider to be authoritative, appeal from a source whom they consider to be authoritative, they are generally more persuasible than open-minded people. People with high self-esteem tend to be more persuaded by a simple appeal than people with low self-esteem. Aggressive people are generally less persuasible than unaggressive people. A hostile receiver will tend to be more receptive to a message which makes a harsh appeal than one which makes a benign or natural appeal. The anxiety level of a receiver seems to interact with the content of a message, thereby affecting the receiver's persuasibility. Receivers with high anxiety tend to be less persuaded by anxiety producing messages, whereas receivers with low anxiety tend to be more persuaded by anxiety producing messages. The prior attitudes of a receiver will also affect his reaction to a message. Receivers with strong prior attitudes on a topic are less persuasible than receivers with natural attitudes. A high degree of involvement in or commitment to an idea will make a receiver less receptive to a message which argues counter to the receiver's prior attitudes.

4. Listening involves three skills; hearing, comprehension and retention. Most people have developed poor listening habits which include avoiding difficult listening situations, dismissing the speaker or topic as uninteresting, and faking attention. The source may effectively increase the audience's reception of his message by prefacing his speech with goal-setting statements.

5. Three factors seem to operate in the development of trust in an interpersonal communication situation; the person's concept of himself, his perception of the other person, and the effect of his own demonstration of trust on the situation. The development of mutual trust is likely to reduce the possibility of defensive behavior and thereby increase the effectiveness of the communication between the interactants.

6. Feedback is the response of a receiver to the message of a source. Feedback serves as the link between the interactants, giving the communication situation its transactional nature. Feedback enables a speaker to adjust his message to the needs of the receiver; it may also affect the source's delivery and attitudes toward the topic being discussed. In face-to-face and small group situations, there is generally a great deal of feedback, whereas in public speaking and mass communication situations when feedback exists it is usually minimal and delayed. The greater the amount of feedback the more effective the communication is likely to be.

C. MESSAGE

1. A persuasive message presents an idea or course of action which the source advocates and suggests reasons that the receiver should agree to it. Most persuasive messages are composed of three parts: claim, warrant and data. A claim is explicit or implicit statement which the communicator wants the receiver to accept. A warrant is a general belief stated in support of a claim. Data are specific beliefs stated in support of claim.
2. Evidence is third-order data from a person outside the communication situation. Evidence seems to have little effect on the persuasiveness of high credibility source, but it may increase the persuasiveness of low credibility source if the audience was previously unaware of the data. When in doubt a speaker should use evidence.
3. Persuasion can be used to inhibit attitude change. Attitudes may be reinforced through the use of a supportive message or a refutational message. A supportive message endorses the desired belief or inclines the audience to seek additional information to support the belief. A refutational message attacks opposing arguments. A refutational message may be somewhat more persuasive than a supportive message, but a combined strategy using both types of messages is most effective.
4. A fear appeal is a message which says to the listener that harm will befall him or someone he cares about unless he adopts the claim. The credibility of the source can influence the audience's reaction to a fear appeal. A highly credible source is more persuasive when he uses a strong fear appeal, whereas a less credible source does better with a moderate fear appeal. Strong fear appeals seem very effective when they threaten harm to someone important to the listener. Strong fear appeals are most effective when used with evidence. Receivers who hear fear appeals without evidence tend to quickly return to their original beliefs. A communicator must use caution not to frighten his audience too much, since this may lead them to reject the threat as absurd or too unbearable to think about.
5. Messages containing highly intense language are not very persuasive when the audience is very involved in the topic under discussion. If a topic is less crucial or unimportant to the receivers, highly intense language can be persuasive. Opinionated languages may express rejection of those who disagree with the speaker or it may praise those who agree with him. Highly credible sources can use opinionated rejections quite effectively, whereas less credible sources do better with nonopinionated language.
6. Research, though scant, has demonstrated that humor does not significantly increase or decrease the persuasiveness of a message. However, humor may create a sense of rapport between the source and his audience. Further research on the effects of humor is still needed.

7. Message discrepancy refers to the distance between the views of a speaker and those of his audience. Research indicates that a speaker who makes his beliefs sound close to those of the audience will be more persuasive. A source with high credibility will be able to depart from his audience's views without much loss of credibility.

8. Experimental research has provided some generalizations which are helpful when structuring a persuasive message:

- a) When presenting a two sided message, the speaker should discuss his arguments first.
- b) When citing evidence, the speaker should consider the credibility of the source of evidence. If the source of evidence has high credibility, it is best to cite the source and then the evidence. If the source of evidence has high credibility, it is best to cite the source and then the evidence. If the source of evidence has high credibility, it is best to cite the source and then the evidence. If the source of evidence has low credibility, it is best to cite the evidence and then name the source.
- c) A speaker should not forewarn the audience of his intent to persuade unless he is friendly with its members.
- d) Presenting the problem first and then the solution is more persuasive than beginning with the solution and moving on to the problem.
- e) A speaker who makes a specific conclusion will be more persuasive than one who allows the audience to deduce the beliefs or actions he favors.

NON-VERBAL MESSAGE

1. Nonverbal communication includes any intentional or unintentional nonverbal behavior which affects the interaction between two people. Objects and features of the environment which convey meanings about their owners may also be included in a discussion of non-verbal communication.

2. Nonverbal behavior seems to serve six functions in the communication process. It may repeat, highlight, replace, regulate, complement or contradict the verbal message

3. Nonverbal communication may be classified along seven dimensions or modes of expression: proxemics, chronemics, kinesics, paralanguage, haptic, physical appearance and adornment, and environment and objects.

4. Proxemics is the study of the ways in which man structures and uses space to communicate. Man has two spatial needs: territoriality and personal space. Sex, race, status, age, personality variables, cultural norms, personal attraction, and situational variables all effect an individual's space needs. People resent invasions of their personal space and have developed several response patterns to deal with such invasions.
5. Chronemics is the study of the way man uses time. American use of time falls into three categories or sets: technical time, or scientific breakdowns which have little bearing on nonverbal communication; formal time, or the traditional, conscious divisions of time such as years, months and days; and informal time which is dependent on the context of a communication situation for its definition. American use of information time follows two patterns: the diffused point pattern in which people arrive somewhere around the appointed time, and the displaced point pattern in which people arrive at or before the appointed time.
6. Kinesics, or the visual aspects of behavior, has long been recognized as carrying meaning in a communication interaction. Sex often influences kinesic behavior; however, every individual develops his own unique kinesic patterns. A person uses his body to communicate much about his feelings toward others. A person's emotional state may be revealed through body, face, eye movements and gestures. Kinesic behavior may also serve as clues to an individual's status and background.
7. Paralanguage is the study of the vocal (as opposed to verbal) aspects of speech. Research has shown that a person's voice can provide clues to his age, sex, race, height and other personal characteristics. People have also developed strong stereotypes of personality based on voice quality. A person's dialect may, in fact, affect a receiver's perception of his credibility; Little is known about the effect of vocal behavior on persuasion, but research has shown that listeners are highly adaptable to different vocal presentations. Poor vocal quality does not seem to reduce the receiver's comprehension as long as the speaker can be understood.
8. Haptic is the study of man's use of touch. Touch has significant communicative value, but in our society it has been discouraged as a mode of communication except in intimate relationships.
9. Our physical appearance may also carry messages to other person. People tend to stereotype our personalities on the basis of our body type. Research indicates that people may perceive our weight and height as indicators of our competence. In addition, hair, dress, accessories and cosmetics are often used as indicators of certain personality traits. Dress is most typically seen as a message about a person's lifestyle. However, once people are acquainted dress seems to have no effect on their judgment.

6. A person more accurately retains messages which are favorable his self-image. A person also tends to forget unfavorable messages more quickly than favorable ones. The retention of at least part of a message seems improved if intense sensory stimuli accompany the message. This selective retention works to bolster one's self-image.
7. people often treat words as if they were reality instead of symbols which represent that reality. Language enables us to pigeon-hole experiences and, to some extent, facilitates our perception of the world as a "frozen" reality. People assume "nonchange" in a world of "process" or constant change, and frozen evaluations may have devastating effects on their communication efforts and their daily lives. Members of racial minorities, for example, frequently suffer from the frozen evaluation of unfavorable racial stereotypes.
8. Polarization occurs when a person fails to distinguish between a true dichotomy and an artificial one. A true dichotomy is a situation in which only two alternatives exist. An artificial dichotomy implies the existence of only two alternatives when in fact there may be several. Often polarizations are inadvertent, but sometimes they are deliberately used to bend other people's thinking. Since the structure of our language does not distinguish between true and artificial dichotomies, it facilitates the polarization process. Perceiving the world in terms of polarities is a convenient process but one which may create obstacles to effective communication, for most situations offer a wide range of viable possibilities rather than only two.
9. Bypassing occurs when the source and the receiver impute different meanings to the words of a message. The assumption that words themselves have meaning is at the heart of the problem of bypassing. In fact, the meanings of words are in the people who use them. Of course, multiple usage based on cultural, regional, temporal and technical factors contribute to the problem of bypassing and result in miscommunication.
10. Every way of looking brings with it some areas of blindness. This statement to some extent sums up the problem of allness. In other words, a person's knowledge of a subject was absolute. The problem of allness may create substantial barriers to effective communication on the personal level, but it may also affect the communication of any organization, institution or system. Nations have entered into wars on assumptions of allness.

AUDIO VISUAL COMMUNICATION

Lecture by:

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COMMUNICATION

It is the process of exchange of ideas, feelings, facts, figures and informations between two individuals or group of individuals with mutual understanding.

ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS

- 1) SOURCE ENCODER
- 2) MESSAGE
- 3) CHANNEL
- 4) RECEIVER-DECODER

BARRIERS OF COMMUNICATION

- 1) DAY DREAMING
- 2) PHYSICAL DISCOMFORT
- 3) DISINTEREST
- 4) REFERENT CONFUSION OR DISTORTION
- 5) IMPERCEPTION
- 6) VERBALISM

HOW TO OVERCOME THE BARRIERS AND TO MAKE COMMUNICATION PROCESS MORE EFFECTIVE

We use various types of audio-visual aids to overcome the barriers of communication process and can make communication more effective both for the source and the receiver. These aids can help the source for effective transmission of the message and to the receiver for effective perception. Audio-Visual aids are of following three types:

- 1) Audio aids. (Which can be listened)
- 2) Video-aids. (Which can be viewed)
- 3) Audio-Video aids. (Which can be listened and viewed)

COMMON AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS USED FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING

- 1) OVERHEAD PROJECTORS
- 2) OPAQUE PROJECTORS
- 3) SLIDE PROJECTORS
- 4) MOVIE PROJECTORS
- 5) VIDEO PROJECTORS
- 6) V.C.R.
- 7) TELEVISION (CLOSE CIRCUIT TELEVISION)
- 8) GRAPHICS
- 9) DIAGRAMS
- 10) MOTION PICTURES
- 11) STILL PICTURES
- 12) WORKING MODELS
- 13) VISUAL SYMBOLS

ROLE OF AUDIO VISUAL COMMUNICATION IN THE DISSEMINATION OF
AGRI. TECHNOLOGY TO THE FARMING COMMUNITY

1) REDUCE VERBALISM

In view of our extensive discussion of concept building and verbalism, it is hardly necessary to repeat why words and concepts must be rooted in memorable experiences because Audio-Visual materials supply a concrete basis for conceptual thinking, they give rise to meaning and concepts towards enriched by meaningful associations. Hence they offer the best antidote available for the disease of verbalism, which plagues contemporary teaching situations. If they offered this and nothing else audio-visual materials would be entitled to a place of importance in education.

2) MAKE LEARNING PERMANENT

How much audio-visual materials offer in terms of vividness and power of impression. Have we not some-time presumed that the quantity of experience, it almost formal repetition, will ensure learning? Both research and common sense cast doubt on the assumption. The qualitatively rich audio-visual experience has important learning residences.

3) ADD INTEREST AND INVOLVEMENT

You have observed enough farmers to appreciate how a demonstration can fascinate them, Of a muck-up hold their attention for a long time, especially when there is something for them to do: a button to press or a crank to turn. Interest is so much a part of audio-visual materials the detractors often use it as a point of attack. They are interested in that movie all right, but they are not learning. Properly utilized, the involvement that many sensory techniques foster contribute invaluable to the learning experience.

4) STIMULATE SELF-ACTIVITY

Films, for example, can be used for demonstrating something and also as a spring board for discussion. The fund for Adult Education, established by the Ford Foundation, has experimented with a film series entitled world affairs are your Affairs, in which specialized reading materials and discussion out lines were prepared for each showing. In addition to the film, maps and displays were used to stimulate discussion on the part of the adults attending the film forum. Reports of the experiment indicate that self activity can be fostered by the skillful utilization of sensory materials, as a spectator or you may participate in it as an actor. Farmers may merely watch a demonstration, or they watch it and then take part in it. The cone device then, is a visual matapher of learning experiences, in which the various of A.V. materials are arranged in the order of increasing abstractness one proceeds from direct experiences. The effective use of these aids assure in learning process. A good motion picture on a certain topic, if not explain well, wilful to communicate message effectively the use of these materials calls for more than command of mechanics more the understanding of their power as teaching techniques.

Several hundred studies have tested the values of radio photographs, file strips, motion pictures and other sensory devices what can be said of audio visual materials as whole? The following claims are supported by research evidence. Charles F. Hoban, James D. Finn and Edgar Dale have found that Audio Visual materials, when properly used in the teaching situation, can accomplish the following:

1. They supply and concrete basis for conceptual their kind and hence reduce meaningless word responses for farmers.
2. They have a high degree of interest for farming community.
3. They make learning more permanent.
4. They offer a reality of experience which stimulates self-activity.
5. They develop a continuity of thoughts; this is specially true of motion pictures.

The programmers the people Act, which were broad-cast over the Columbia Broad Casting System, illustrate the use of radio in stimulating self-activity. Each programme documented the activities of local community in preventing crime, improving recreational facilities, establishing schools for severely handicapped children, and the like some persons, upon hearing these dramatic presentations, were probably moved to think more about the problems under discussion. Other listeners, who wished to do something about similar problems in their own communities, were invited to write to the pennsylvania state college for additional help from experiments. They received pamphlets and other printed materials as well as the names of extension workers and others capable of assisting them in their own state. Thus the desire to solve a problem was further stimulated by specific helps.

5) CREATE INTEREST

The degree of the impact, will depend upon the mental self of the audience, their readiness to respond. When we choose a film to broadcast for teaching, we may expect its impact to bear such a direct relationship to the mental set to the readiness of the students to respond. This is another of saying that before using any such audio-visual materials, we also should prime our audience and "change" the situation by creating sufficient interest so that the film or broadcast will release it into the desired channels.

6. DEVELOP CONTINUITY OF THOUGHT

The attention getting power of audio-visual materials, their ability to stimulate interest, and their simplicity combine

to help the former think consecutively about a subject presented in this concrete way. The continuous attention given to a film, a telecast, a radio programme or a well executed demonstration is due to -

- 1) Its concreteness and interest
- 2) The continuity of thought that is fostered verbal abstractions are coupled with visual and auditory explanations and
- 3) The studied care and artistry that have gone into the ten, twenty, or thirty minutes presentation

7) ENLARGE THE RANGE OF POSSIBLE EXPERIENCING

Audio visual materials enable us to cut through the physical limits of time and space in a unique manner, It is true that without imagination we can girdle the Globe, in puck like fashion, time and space cannot him in the human mind. But no human mind can imagine a renaissance world or the world of Jefferson or Lincoln unless it already possesses the elements from which it can compose such worlds. Understanding the world, we are fortunate, as Lippmann points out, that man "has invented ways of seeing what no naked eye would see, of hearing what no ear could hear, of weighing immense masses and infinitesimal one, of counting and separating more items than he can individually remember. He is learning to see with his mind vast portion of the world that he could never see, touch, hear, or remember. Gradually he makes for himself a trustworthy picture inside his head of the world beyond reach.

8) TEACH EFFICIENTLY

The make-up of an automobile's clutch may be a much more efficient initial teaching device than the one in the auto-mobile itself, it is more effective than an article or a lecture on the same subject. The sensory device removes the extraneous matter and gets to the essence of the subject. The same general comment may be made about the visual symbols of line graphs they show the quantitative relations much more quickly and widely than can be done by tables of numbers. What do we mean by "Efficiency" in teaching materials? Surely two qualities are involved; economy of time and energy and increased vividness. For a great many classroom tasks audio-visual materials are vastly more efficient than any other

9) ADD HIGHLY USEFUL VARIETY

The variety provided by sensory devices is not always viewed with the seriousness that it deserves. Monotony can be a powerful deterrent to learnings; human beings seem to need variety and change in order to get full savor out of life experiences. None of us likes to do the same thing day after day; we prize variety, sometimes even for its own sake. Student reactions to a varied diet of learning experiences prove this point beyond question.

But there is something of further importance here, in the relationship between individual differences and the range of teaching that audio-visual materials offer.

Audio-visual materials reinforce and add effectiveness to other teaching procedures. The teacher himself is more effective when he has a good many strings to his bow. When a variety of experiences is offered, each one gains in freshness and impact; and the multiple approach adds up to a whole that is actually greater than the sum of its parts.

CONE OF EXPERIENCE

- 1) DIRECT PURPOSEFUL EXPERIENCE
- 2) CONTRIVED EXPERIENCE
- 3) DRAMATIZED EXPERIENCE
- 4) DEMONSTRATIONS
- 5) FIELD TRIPS
- 6) EXHIBITS
- 7) TELEVISION AND MOTION PICTURES
- 8) STILL PICTURES, RADIO, RECORDING
- 9) VISUAL SYMBOLS
- 10) VERBAL SYMBOLS

GRAPHICS

Graphics are materials which communicate facts and ideas clearly through a combination of drawing word and pictures. These add a visual dimension to instruction and meaning to words, making learning more efficient, unlike photograph, graphics can portray objects more simply and can be used to provide simplified rendition of real things. Words and numbers are used in titles and explanations on graphs, charts, diagrams and posters, as well as for caption in cartoon and comic strips.

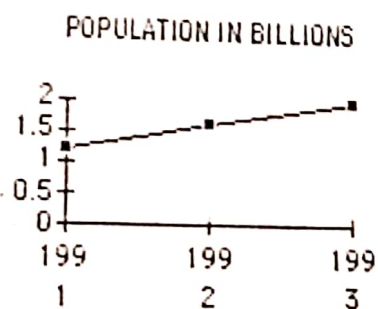
KIND OF GRAPHICS

The type of graphic materials commonly employed in teaching. Each type has certain unique instructional applications.

1. GRAPHS.

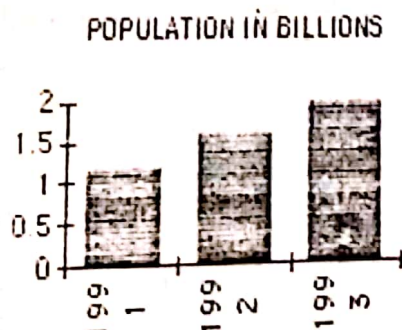
These are visual representation of numerical data. They show quantitative relationship more effectively than any other medium.

a) LINEAR GRAPHS.



It is more precise of all graphs. It is useful in relationship between two series of data. A line should be used when a considerable number of data are to be plotted.

b) BAR GRAPHS.



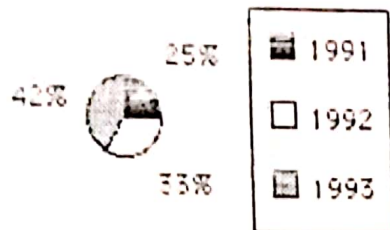
These are simplest of all graphs to read. They are easily constructed. The bar graph is employed to best advantage when the number of values to be compared is small-usually not more than six or eight.

c) **CIRCLE OR PIE-GRAPHS:** The pie graph is circle the sectors of which are used to represent component parts of a whole.

The characteristics are common to all circle graphs:

- i) They always present totals or whole amount.
- ii) Their parts are calculated in percentage.

POPULATION IN BILLIONS



e) **PICTORICAL GRAPHS:** Flat, simplified, picture like figures used in pictorial graphs. Pictures of this type give the graphics, form realism & interest. This type of graph now used widely in magazine & Newspapers is as simple to read as a bar and it has added advantages of using realistic figures to convey meanings.

f) **HISTORIGRAM-GRAPH OF TIME SERIES:** A curve showing change in value of one or more items from one period of time to the next is known as the graph of time series. Thus a histogram display the variation of time series dealing with prices, production, imports, population etc. In order to construct a histogram, time is taken along X-axis. Points are plotted and then connected by means of straight line segments to get the histogram.

5) **HISTOGRAM**



2. DIAGRAMS

A diagram is a schematic drawing illustrating primary of ideas and systems designed to show inter-relationships, general and specific key features of a process, object or area.

Diagrams are also useful in our daily activities. These are important for teaching many concepts in social studies, science, mathematics and language arts.

3. CHARTS

Charts are combination of graphs and pictorial media designed for visualizing relationships between key facts and ideas in an orderly and logical way.

a) Tree Chart. It is developed from a base composed of several roots which leads to a single trunk. A tree chart is useful in showing developments resulting from a combination of major factors.

b) Flow Chart. This chart is well suited to showing functional relationship and is used widely in short & precise manner for that purpose.

c) Tabular charts Sequence relationship such as those in a historical time-line or a time table can be shown on a tabular chart. One of the unique values of a tabular chart is its ability to show time relationships.

4. POSTERS:

Posters are large scale simplified pictorial illustrations designed to attract attention to key facts, ideas or events. They are inherently simple and dynamic. Their function is primarily to motivate, arouse interest, remind or advertise. The modern poster was born in 1867 in Paris, prepared by Jules Cherat, a great poster artist. World Wars First and Second, the major powers used large scale poster campaigns to recruit armed forces, sell war bonds, maintain morale and boost the war effort generally. Hence the poster must have strong eye appeal if it is to attract attention and have enough holding power to put its message across.

5. CARTOONS:

The cartoon is a pictorial representation of person, idea or situation, designed to influence public opinion. Political cartoons are sources of information with a strong visual impact based upon sharp, compact drawings and humor of some type. There is some evidence that cartoons are chiefly valuable for teaching at the secondary rather than the elementary level partly because most commercial cartoons are prepared for adults. The modern socio-political cartoon developed in U. S. A. during 19th century. An increasing number of excellent cartoons are intended merely to make people chuckle.

FACTORS KEPT IN MIND WHILE PRODUCING THE GRAPHICS:

Students making graphs, posters or maps or constructing models and dioramas as class projects are engaging in local production. Prior to production, objectives, con- and instructional strategies should be specified and appropriate graphs of objects determined. Then the following production steps can be taken.

1. SELECT THE DISPLAY MECHANISM:

Whether materials are to be used for class room or individual study, the length of time materials are to be displayed, the distances, the need to change materials during viewing and the likelihood materials will be reused will all effect display mechanic selection. Bulletin boards, posters and large models are more appropriate for display over long time periods. Chalk-board, flip charts or transparencies marked with felt pen may be suitable for single presentations.

2. CHOOSE THE APPROPRIATE PRODUCTION METHODS:

Graphics can be constructed by a wide assortment of production aids. Common production aids are T-square, triangles, drawing boards, letter guides and dry transfer letter and symbols. Rubber, cement and drymount tissue can be used to mount graphics. Laminating film can be used to protect graphics that are drymounted so that additional material written on them with grease and felt pens can be used.

3. IDENTIFY ESSENTIAL INFORMATION:

The amount and kind of detail in graphics and representational objects depends upon objective. Simple line drawings should be used when they can suffice and the illustration should be uncluttered. If much information must be present. A series of visuals is preferable to one crowded one.

4. DESIGN FOR STUDENT RESPONSE:

Using questions as captions and posing problems on graphics are ways to evoke response. Use graphs to conceal answers or post answer key near displayed graphics for students to check their answers.

5. DETERMINE LAY-OUT:

Lay-out is concern for some object displays Over all size depend upon. whether the graphic is for individual or Group Elements also must be arranged to attract attention and to convey balance Elements should be distributed evenly for balance to keep from appearing too heavy on one side. Mounted Graphics should have larger borders on bottom.

6. DETERMINE DIMENSION AND PROPORTION:

Graphic can suffice for showing two dimensions but for 3 dimensions, representational objects can be constructed. Other-wise, perspective can be used to create the illusion of depth in a graphic proportion should be considered in rendering human figures.

7. KEEP THE GRAPHIC LEGIBLE:

Captions, titles and labels should be legible Spacing should be determined by what looks appropriate to the eye, since equally measured distances between letters creat distortion.

8. REGULAR CONTRAST.

Elements with grater contrast appear more liable and tend to attract attention. Colour, shaps, location, size can give greater or less contrast. Colour contrast can be enhanced or reduced by changing the colours used and their lightness or darkness and by using intermediate colours to separate objects from back-grounds.

Mass Communication

By

¹Dr. Saeed Ahmad Khan

1. Mass media are those organizationally complex systems of printed and electronic communications that make information rapidly accessible to large and distant audiences in an impersonal fashion.
2. Mass communication is characterized by three traits. The audience is large and heterogeneous. The information flow is rapid and one way with a minimal amount of feedback. The mass media are also unable to select or coerce their audience.
3. The explicit functions of mass media are to disseminate information, entertain, distract and provide aesthetic enjoyment. Implicitly, as economic entities, the primary function of the media is to eared a profit through the sale of advertising directed at the audience.
4. The concept of society as a group of isolated individuals was the basis for the one-step, stimulus-response theory of mass communication. The one-step theory has been replaced by a more sociological, two-step flow theory. This newer theory sees the mass communication process as indirect, involving leaders and followers.
5. An opinion leader differs from his followers in various ways. He tends to have influence only in the area of his competence, although some influence may transfer to related areas. Typically, the opinion leader personifies many of the group's values. His greater exposure to media permits the opinion leader to serve as a gatekeeper, shaping and interpreting information for others. Opinion leaders tend to belong to several large organizations, be more cosmopolitan in their contacts, draw on a wider range of information sources, and enjoy higher economic and social status than their followers. Except in times of crisis, opinion leaders act as middlemen between the general public and the media.

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6. The adoption of innovations involves five stages: awareness, interest, evaluation or mental testing, trial and adoption. Impersonal, informational and cosmopolitan media sources are apparently most influential in the first two stages, whereas personal interactions are more likely to affect the later stages of adoption. Early adopters are similar to opinion leaders in some ways: they are more widely exposed to information sources and possess higher social status than late adopters.

7. Mass communication seems more effective in reinforcing already existing attitudes than in changing attitudes. The selective processes of exposure, attention, perception and retention may explain the mass media's inability to effect major attitude change.

8. Television's image-evoking powers have made media violence a public issue. Early research findings suggested that children react differently to different forms of violence and that the observation of real violence is as harmful as the observation of fictional violence. The 1972 Surgeon General's Report concluded that violence is an essential aspect of American television programming, that it has some effects on children's aggressive behavior over time, that viewers predisposed to violence will select such programming and that individual reactions generally determine the effects of media violence.

9. Mass communication has had a tremendous impact on society in general. The mass media have created new forms of social activity focused on the manipulation of media symbols. They have vastly expanded the potential range of man's awareness of the world. Mass communication has helped to homogenize and standardize speech patterns. The media are arbiters of social status; they are able to confer enormous prestige to products, ideas and persons. Family life has been latered as new role models and sources of information become available through the media. Mass communication may be partially responsible for making consumerism an essential aspect of American life.

PROGRAM PLANNING IN RURAL EXTENSION

BY

MUNIR AHMAD¹

It is an old proverb that

"PLAN YOUR WORK and WORK YOUR PLAN".

I think it is as true in this modern era of science & technology as it was in ancient times . It means in any organization where you are working / serving nevertheless in which position, you have to perform certain duties and you are supposed to do that at your best. For the efficient discharge of duties, the pre-requisite and foremost requirement is to make planning, then implementing the same practically in true letter & spirit.

This is especially true in Ext. Educational work. Being Ext. officers, your primary duty is to uplift the social, economic and living standard of people with whom you are working. In other words, you are supposed to change the behavior of the people, i.e. change in attitude, change in knowledge & change in skills, which is not an easy job to accomplish.

You people, the Ext. officers who are entrusted the responsibility of diffusing innovation among the clientele, are required to build an ext. program to discharge your responsibilities effectively and efficiently. But question arises what is meant by an Ext. program and Program Planning.

1. EXTENSION PROGRAM.

It is the statement of situation, problems, objectives & their solutions.

- i. Statement of situation --- What is at present.
- ii. Problems --- Are the un-satisfactory elements in a givensituation
- iii. Objectives. --- Are the improvements.
- iv. Solutions. --- Are the recommendations.

¹ Lecturer, Department of Agri. Extension, University of Agriculture Faisalabad. 1994.

2. PROGRAM PLANNING.

It is an intentional effort carefully designed to attain certain specific & predetermined goals assumed to be important for the people.

3. Why we Need Planning.

Improvement/progress is the result of the use of effective instructional designs and not from accident. Planning makes sure that all people involved know their responsibilities and how to carry them out, advance preparation of teaching aids, checking on supplies and equipment to assure their availability well in advance of the time they are needed.

The value of advance planning of each program activity cannot be over estimated. Because, progress is the output of some predetermined ends/goals for which conscious efforts are made for their attainment and not by chance.

Therefore, you people, the Ext. Officers, Can very well assess, where are the people at present and where they ought to be.

What should be.?

:
Gap. : NEED.
:

What is?

In order to fill the gap between what is and what should be, we needs careful planning for building a good program, But, if an Ext. officer does not know, how to build an Ext. program, how he can design an Ext. program for the welfare of the people.

4. APPROACHES IN PROGRAM PLANNING.

Following two types of approaches are being used in program planning.

4.1 AUTOCRATIC PLANNING.

This approach involves planning at some central level which is implemented as such at lower level. Sub-ordinates or people/intended audience are not consulted. They are supposed to do whatever their officer desire. Here the entire activities are controlled by a person or a small group in accordance of his/ their

own choice.

They think that all leaders are wise. People do not have ideas to be incorporated in. The results of this approach are often discouraging because,

Human being have ideas, feelings, they like to be consulted. Authoritarian/dictation creates frustration among the sub-ordinates. Employees work under the pressure but the people for whom the program is being designed are neither consulted nor taken into confidence. they are not asked about their problems which they want to solve. Ultimately the people do not cooperate and employees may also feel insecure.

4.2 DEMOCRATIC PLANNING.

Planning in which all concerned are consulted, ideas of sub-ordinates, lay people are collected and incorporated in the program. It is tried to build the program in accordance with the needs and interests of the people for whom program is being designed. Ultimately the program which emerges with the participation of local leaders, they will consider it their own. They will try to extend full cooperation to make it success, because they consider it their own.

5. PROGRAM PLANNING PROCESS.

The following is an ideal chart of steps in program planning arranged chronologically.

1. Situation analysis.
2. Organization for planning.
3. Program planning process.
4. The planned program.
5. The plan of work.
6. Execution of plan of work.
7. Appraisal of accomplishment.

5.1 SITUATION ANALYSIS.

Those involved in planning the local extension education program, need the best possible understanding of the situation in respect to the following elements.

5.1.1 Where are the people?

- i. Agricultural resources and current farming pattern and practices.

- ii. Economic levels_____ Farm income, credit facilities markets and price structure.
- iii. Literacy rates.
- iv. People abilities, their knowledge, skills and attitudes.

5.1.2 Socio-political system

- i. Formal and informal .
- ii. Leadership pattern.
- iii. Reference grouping.

5.1.3 Physical factors.

- i. Soil and climatic limitation.
- ii. Marketing information.____Roads,Railways Transportation, channels of communication.

5.1.4 National Development Programs and Goals.

5.2 ORGANIZATION FOR PLANNING.

Effective organization provides a means of involving people in the program planning process. Involvement of people is a basic element of extension education. Participation helps to arouse interest, and those helping to determine a program will usually do all they can to make it succeed. Involvement of people also results in better programs.

Close liaison with local people at all stages of extension program development and implementation encourages cooperation and reduces friction.

The following steps are suggested as a general guide:

5.2.1 Identify and counsel with:

- a. Existing leaders-both formal and informal,
- b. Cooperators in previous extension or related rural programs if any, and
- c. Individual citizens having useful knowledge, understanding, or interest.

5.2.2 Consult with other professional workers in agriculture and home economics such as:

- a. Formal or informal planning committees,
- b. Tribal councils and other official bodies,
- c. Commercial and cooperative organizations, and
- d. Administrators of programs in related fields.

5.3 PROGRAM PLANNING PROCESS

The ideal program planning process includes a sequence of steps carried out in consultation with the groups and individuals mentioned in the proceeding section. It is necessary to:

5.3.1 Identify wants and needs.

Rural people are ready to undertake programs which they believe will satisfy their wants, although they may not be aware of all their basic needs. For example, they may want to get higher price for the rice. Ext. Worker can guide farmers that through the application of latest rice production technology, they can get more production and ultimately more income at existing price for rice.

5.3.2 Determine relative importance of various recognized needs, and decide on priorities.

This must be done in consultation with the people whose cooperation is required in conducting the program.

5.3.3 Identify the problems involved in satisfying the needs given high priority.

5.3.4 Determine possible solutions of problems or alternative courses of action.

Solutions may come out of the experience of the people themselves or they may be suggested by the extension agent or specialist.

5.3.5 Agree upon objectives.

This is a joint function of extension workers and the rural people involved. In order to be of value, objectives must:

- a. Identify needs and wants,
- b. Specify the specific behavior changes to be sought,
- c. Identify the people involved, indicate the changes to be made and the subject matter to be

- used,
- d. Select those objectives that are practical in terms of staff, materials, and other available resource.

5.4 THE PLANNED PROGRAM.

A planned program should be recorded in written form and copies made available to all cooperating groups. This is necessary to avoid later misunderstanding as to what was agreed and to serve as a criterion for measurement of achievement. A good written program will normally contain:

1. The names of persons who planned the program and the procedure followed,
2. A situation statement of needs, interests, and identified problems,
3. Statement of agreed objectives.
4. Provision for coordination with other groups, agencies, and organizations.

5.5 PLAN OF WORK.

The plan of work is a primary tool of the extension worker which he prepares for his own use as an aid in attaining the objectives of the program. A plan indicates specific action to be taken, by whom, when, and where, and what accomplishments are expected. It includes a list of the required resources and how they are to be procured.

The following are some guiding principles which may prove helpful in preparing and using a plan of work:

1. It is based on the planned program and includes the extension methods and other means to achieve the stated objectives.
2. The plan of work should be revised as needed to reflect progress and changes in goals and objectives.
3. It should include necessary procedures to accomplish program objectives, establish calendars of activity, and designate responsibilities.
4. The total extension job specified in the plan must be practical in terms of staff, time, and other available resources.
5. The annual plan of work should be realistic in terms of possible accomplishments.
6. It should incorporate appropriate evaluation procedures to appraise changes in the people reached.

5.6 EXECUTION OF THE PLAN OF WORK.

Program action is the "heart or core" of the extension education process. It is here that people learn, improve skills, gain knowledge, and are led to change their attitudes.

Following are the two basic requirements for successful program action.

1. The first requirement for successful program action is the sound technical knowledge on the part of the extension worker. For example, he should know the kind and amount of fertilizer most effective in rice production.

2. The second is the use of extension teaching methods best suited to the subject matter to be taught and to the people involved. For example, the result demonstration is effective in showing illiterate farmers how they may use fertilizer to increase rice yields.

5.7 APPRAISAL OF ACCOMPLISHMENT.

Periodic evaluation in terms of objectives of the program provides a basis for continuous improvement. Plans for evaluation need to be included in the plan of work. This may involve:

- a). An accurate description of the situation existing at a given time.
- b). A record of changes proposed and accomplished,
- c). The periodic description of the situation as it changes with time.
- d). Educational methods may also be evaluated to determine their individual and collective influence in inducing change.

The results of such evaluations are useful only as they are used in planning future programs.

WORKSHEET

FOR DEVELOPING AN EXTENSION EDUCATION PROGRAM

1. Problem:

2. potential:

2. Solutions:

A.

B.

C.

4. Preferred solution:

5. objective

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

6. Plan of work:

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

7. Evaluation.

.....
.....

DEVELOPMENT AND SUPERVISION OF TRAINING PROGRAMS.

By .

Munir Ahmad¹

1. INTRODUCTION.

Staff training is a term used to describe the programs and activities that are conducted by the organization for the purpose of maintaining and upgrading competencies of the staff to perform those tasks related to their jobs which aid the organization to reach its goals.

Therefore, the extension organization is responsible for the design and implementation of staff training programs which have the following objectives.

1. To strengthen technical subject matter competencies.
2. To strengthen those educational processes skills that aid in the delivery of programs to appropriate audiences.

Extension worker must be competent in both areas. Without this knowledge he cannot perform his job effectively. Even if, he has a sound technical subject matter and does not know, how to communicate this knowledge effectively, he can not do his job properly, this is just like possessing the technology or a motor car but not knowing how to drive it.

Staff training is designed, basically, to narrow the gap between the staff's current level of competence and that needed by the organization at any given time. Staff training assumes that "deficiencies do exist which need to be corrected."

MEANINGS OF TRAINING.

To educate a person so as to be fitted, qualified, proficient in doing some job. (Dhama, o.p. 1982.)

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2. TYPES OF TRAINING

1. Pre-service training -!
2. Induction training !--Staff Training
3. In-service training _!
4. Farmer's training _____ Clientele training

2.1 PRE-SERVICE TRAINING.

Pre-service training is defined as a program of learning activities that prepares an individual for a career in extension, and usually leads to some type of diploma, certificate, degree, or other qualification in one or more of the following, i.e. agriculture, fisheries, forestry, animal and/or veterinary science or home economics.

2.2 INDUCTION TRAINING

A major phase of staff development occur at the time when new personnel are employed in the organization, to begin the work designed to assist the organization to meet its goals. This phase is called induction training (in some programs it is called orientation). The purpose of induction training is to make new employees familiar with the practices and procedures of the organization . These should be related to the stated job description.

Induction training has two basic assumptions.

One is that everyone entering the organization needs to have his or her perceptions and expectations of the organization clarified so that they are similar to those understood by others in the organization.

The second assumption is that new employees who have the necessary competencies to do the broad category of tasks, need to have a clarification of the specific tasks related to their positions.

A good induction program assists new employees

- (a) to develop a feeling that they are an important part of the organization
- (b) to reduce the initial stress related to performance of their tasks,

- (c) to identify the resources available to support them in their role,
- (d) to strengthen their personal commitment and dedication to the extension audience through the extension organization.

Induction training has as its focus on the structure, policies and procedures of the extension organization. Therefore, induction training should occur the first day of employment, on (as close as possible to) the site where the workers are to perform their daily tasks.

2.2.1 CONTENT AND FORMAT

Induction training should be goal specific, learner oriented and designed to move the employee to status of independent worker as quickly as possible. The degree that this can be done is based on the background of the new employee.

The course should review the history of the organization, the economic, political and social influences that affect the people in the area, the program development process, professional conduct and behavior expected of the employee, and the extension organizational structures. It should include.

1. History and objectives of organization.
2. Structure, Policies and procedures of Extension organization.
3. Rules and regulations governing the job.
4. Employee's job and expectations of the organization.
5. resources available to conduct the specific tasks
6. administrative supports to achieve work goals

2.2.2 Suggested induction plan:

2.2.2.1 FIRST DAY OF EMPLOYMENT:

Meet program administrator to be welcomed to the organization.

Meet with immediate supervisor to identify day to day activities, to complete any employment papers and to identify work station facilities.

Meet other resource people at the work site, to discuss selected rules and regulations.

2.2.2.2

FIRST WEEK:

Visit research station, farm and home sites to observe activities of those sites.

Meet with immediate supervisor to work on policy and procedures for extension work activity.

Visit community area to observe day to day activities of local people

Review resource materials related to the scope of extension work in the local community.

2.2.2.3

1ST MONTH- 1ST YEAR

Attend classes related to the organizational structure and procedures.

Observe research work and practices at research stations, farm and home sites

Participate in field day under the supervision of an experienced worker.

2.3 *IN-SERVICE TRAINING*

The in-service training program is the responsibility of the organization. Such a program is designed to assist staff to maintain and strengthen their competency to perform the tasks related to a specific job, role, and function in the organization. However, adults as learners are more likely to participate in such a program for competency development if they have had an opportunity to share in the program design. They tend to learn more effectively if they are actively involved in the learning experience and if the program is connected to their experiences. Therefore, most in-service training programs should be designed around the problem-solving approach to learning or experience.

In-service training is described as any "planned program of learning opportunities afforded staff member for purpose of improving the performance of the individual in already assigned positions" .
or

In-service education is also described as a planned program of "systematic practice in the performance of a skill".
or

In general, in-service training "is a program designed to strengthen competencies of extension personnel while they are on the job". Therefore it should be a:

- (a) problem centered.
- (b) learner oriented.
- (c) time defined series of activities.

2.3.1 BASIC ASSUMPTIONS AND RATIONALE

Extension leaders planning in-service training programs should have certain assumptions and a basic rationale in mind before the activities are developed. These assumptions should include the fact that men and women, alone and in groups can and do learn on the job, and learn best when they are actively involved in the learning process.

These assumptions, with a stated rationale, should provide a framework for the design of an effective in-service training program. The rationale is based on two questions:

To what extent does the proposed program

- (a) fit into the goals, objectives and mission of the organization,
- (b) use current research findings regarding accepted practice, based on the successful experiences of current users of the system?

2.3.2 GUIDE-LINES FOR THE DESIGN OF AN IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM

A program planning process should be used to design an effective in-service training program. It includes the following components with appropriate questions to be answered by the planner.

2.3.2.1. Problem Identification:

What are the incidents that indicate a problem exists or is anticipated. Is to one that can and should be changed by a training program? How can the problem be changed into a need (need assessment)? Are the physical, human, and financial resources available to resolve the problem?

2.3.2.2 Learner Identification;

Who are the target groups of learners? What competencies do they have now relative to the problem identified? What is the gap that exists between present level of competencies and needed level of competencies? To what extent do learners perceive the problem?

2.3.2.3 Objectives Identification:

What should be the overall purpose of the program (goals). Are the intended learner outcomes (objectives) realistic? What job performances will be improved?

2.3.2.4 Learning Opportunities and Selection of Instructional Strategies:

To what extent are the instructional strategies compatible with the stated objectives and learner characteristics? To what extent can an appropriate climate for learning be arranged within the existing organizational constraints? What will be the subject matter for each session, and how appropriate are the learning opportunities for the selected subject matter?

2.3.2.5 Format and Scheduling of Learning Events:

What will be the scope and sequence of the overall program and of the individual sessions. To what extent is a sequencing of activities related to competencies built into the program plan?

2.3.2.6 Evaluation.

To what extent are activities included which will allow one to measure the worth of the learning experience for the planners, administrators, learners, and other significant people? What plans are there to monitor the on-going program, so that 2.3.3 adjustment can be made?

Worksheet
For In-service Training

Title:

Location:

Duration:

Time: (Training Session)

Participants/Audience:

Expected number:

Instructors./
Resource Person:

Materials:

General Objective:

Specific Objectives:

Format:

Date:

Time:

Topic and Resource person

Evaluation:

3. SUPERVISION OF TRAINING PROGRAM

The supervisor who is directly involved in planning and implementing training program is required to have close contact with the participants and all concerned personnel to see, how the things are getting along, whether the work plan devised is being followed/implemented in its true letter and spirit, so that the objectives of training program can be achieved. He may sit with the participants during their actual training session to get first hand information.

He is also responsible to make necessary corrections if the deviation occurs.

He must also ensure the availability of necessary facilities for providing conducive and congenial learning environment before and during the training.

It is also advisable to keep a complaint/suggestion box near the training hall to collect trainees views and opinions about training program.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT THROUGH EXTENSION EDUCATION

BY

Ch. Ghulam Hussain¹.

1. INTRODUCTION:

Pakistan launched programmes of community development from time to time to enable the masses to lead a happier and richer life. Generally, the solution to the problems faced by the people was sought through the provision of physical services and facilities and very little effort was made for the intellectual development of the people. The note-worthy community development models such as, V-Aid, Basic Democracies and Integrated Rural Development programme, almost failed to strike a balance between the provision of services and the education of people. The resultant implication of this tendency was that the services provided were mostly utilized by the people to make themselves too much dependent on outside assistance. There is, therefore, an urgent need to develop an equilibrium between services and educational approaches to community development. This is possible through integration between community development and extension education. This paper suggests necessary measures to be adopted in this regard.

2. MAIN APPROACHES TO COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT:

Before moving on to the discussion of integration of community development and extension education, it seems desirable to present here the approaches which have been experimented in various countries while undertaking community development programmes. These are briefly described as under:

2.1 Coercive approach: Under this approach, pressure is mainly used by government functionaries for the completion of development projects. This approach, temporarily, is helpful in achieving development objectives, as the people immediately accomplish development work under compulsion. The experience has, however, indicated that this approach does not have lasting effect. The people revert back when the pressure is removed. In view of the drawbacks of this approach, it has almost been discarded everywhere in the world. F.L. Brayne's programme of rural uplift initiated in the Indo-Pak subcontinent during British regime may be quoted as an example of such a programme.

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2.2 Services approach: Services like communication, hospitals, schools, markets, agricultural input-supply services, etc. is the main aim of government under this approach. It is pre-sumed that the people need these services. Hence they are neither taken into confidence nor afforded with opportunity of identifying their felt needs. The problems of people are seen more as technical rather than human. The development programmes are planned by the government without the active participation of people. It has been observed that there is a big difference between the actual needs of the people and those generally conceived by the government functionaries. Consequently, the services provided by the government are not utilized properly by the people. This results into a great deal of wastage of time, money and energy. Thus, it has also not proved to be an effective approach to community development.

2.3 Educational approach: In view of the inherent weaknesses of the services approach, another approach known as educational approach is being experimented in different countries of the world. This approach emphasizes the need for the education of people on a non-formal basis. The community development practitioners approach people with the strong conviction that the people possess all the capabilities, such as, intelligence, talents, resources, etc. to undertake development activities efficiently and effectively. Hence the involvement of people in planning, execution and evaluation of development programmes is considered to be an essential prerequisite to the success of these programmes.

3. NEED FOR INTEGRATION OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND EXTENSION EDUCATION:

Greater stress on provision of physical services and less emphasis on intellectual development of people in our development strategies is in sharp contrast to the practice of advanced countries, such as U.S.A., U.S.S.R. and Japan. In these countries a very high priority is given to the intellectual investment. Hence more and more emphasis is being laid on the education of people and the creation of new knowledge and improved technology.

Denmark presents a living example where enviable prosperity of the farmer is due almost to his enlightenment through Folk High School Movement and other non-formal education programmes. Similarly in Japan the investment in the form of human resource development is probably the highest in the world.

Pakistan has abundant resources in the form of the manpower. What is needed is to educate and train this manpower to get the maximum out of available resources and, thus, to accelerate the development process in the country.

The education of people has not received proper attention in our past community development programmes. This neglect 'obviously' has resulted in the serious deficiency of trained manpower in the country. This situation requires an immediate action to be taken to improve it. Hence planned development of human capital through the integration of community development and extension education is the solution to this problem.

4. SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND EXTENSION EDUCATION.:

In order to understand the similarities and differences between community development and extension education, it is advisable to discuss the definitions of both community development and extension education.

4.1 Community Development: It is the process of enabling people to undertake community development activities through the utilization of their own resources, with the minimum dependence on outside assistance so that they may lead a more satisfying life.

4.2 Extension Education: It is the process of producing desirable changes in the behavior of the people so that they may adopt new practices to improve their way and level of living.

From the above definitions, it is clear that there is much in common between community development and extension education. Both have as their origin, the belief in the goodness of the people, as well as, desire in the people to serve their common ends, largely through their own efforts and resources. Hence the desire for self-help is present in both.

Community development and extension education also differ in certain respects. Community development, being an all-embracing programme, has a much larger scope as compared with extension education. Some of the community development experts have gone to the extent of saying that any action taken by any agency for the betterment of the community comes under the purview of community development. Another difference between the two programmes lies in the fact that community development is more development-oriented than extension education. Extension education mainly focuses on behavioral change of the clientele, thereby securing the adoption of improved practices.

5. MEASURES FOR INTEGRATION OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND EXTENSION EDUCATION

The following measures may be adopted for fusion of community development and extension education.

* Presently, no department is exclusively responsible for community development work. Hence, a full-fledged department 'in each province' needs to be assigned the responsibility of undertaking community development activities.

* A good number of government departments, semi-government institutions and voluntary agencies are trying to assist people to improve their living conditions. The efforts of these organizations have not been able to create a visible impact on the life of people, primarily, due to lack of coordination and collaboration between them. Hence adequate arrangements need to be made to bring about needed coordination between the concerned organizations.

* People have developed a poor image regarding the performance of development functionaries. The people and the functionaries need to be brought closer to each other so that they may develop sense of common purpose and chalkout joint programmes for introducing desired changes in the life patterns of the communities.

* There is a growing realization among development departments and agencies for a synthesized approach to complete the development projects. In a number of projects, different departments and agencies are making collective efforts to enhance the quality of the life of the people. Hence an inter-disciplinary approach is recommended for the integration of community development and extension education programmes.

6. CONCLUSION:

There is an urgent need to create an equilibrium between development of physical and human resources in our community development programmes. The education of people, therefore, must be given due place in our development undertakings to ensure balanced development in the country. Inter-disciplinary approach must be practiced for the completion of community projects and for strengthening integration between community development and extension education.

ROLE OF SUPERVISION IN RURAL EXTENSION

By

Ch. Ghulam Hussain.¹

1. Introduction:

Almost all development departments and agencies feel the necessity of effective supervision to run their programmes efficiently. Various levels of supervision, therefore, are established by each organization, depending upon its set-up, area of jurisdiction and financial position. Our agricultural extension service is no exception to it, as it also has its own hierarchy of supervisory staff.

The agricultural extension worker, who deals directly with the farm people, needs assistance in respect of his individual and professional growth, procurement of needed equipment and material and co-operation from local leaders and functionaries of various government and non-government organizations. This assistance is made available to him by extension supervisor. It implies that extension supervision has to play a decisive role in enhancing the effectiveness of extension agents. This paper, therefore, attempts to highlight the role of supervision in rural extension programmes.

2. Definition of Extension Supervision:

Extension supervision has been defined by different scholars differently. Some describe it as a positive force for programme improvement. Some others regard it as a process of helping extension workers to do the job with greater satisfaction to themselves, to the forming communities and to the extension organization.

In view of the common elements found in various definitions, it seems desirable to present here a comprehensive definition of extension supervision. Extension supervision may be defined as the process of the growth of extension personnel as individuals and as extension teachers. In contributing to individual growth, the objective of supervision is the maximum development of the potentialities of the extension functionaries as persons. In contributing to the professional growth, extension supervision aims at providing the best extension service to the farm people. This definition may be analysed as under:

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2.1 Process: Extension supervision does not consist of a single activity, rather, it covers a wide range of activities to achieve the desired goals. In fact, extension supervision includes in its scope not only the extension workers but also the farmers as well as, functionaries of various beneficiary departments and voluntary agencies. Hence supervision has been described as a process in the above definition.

2.2 Individual growth: Extension supervision aims at the development of total personality of the extension worker. Hence an effort is made to develop the qualities of leadership, initiative, self-confidence, sense of responsibility etc. among extension field staff.

2.3 Professional growth: The development of a sound extension programme based on the actual needs of farming communities is the ultimate goal of extension supervision. Thus extension supervision tries to develop the competence of extension workers, local leaders and all concerned with the extension service.

3. Changing concept of supervision:

The concept of supervision has been undergoing change, during the past few decades. The following concepts of supervision emerged from time-to-time.

3.1 Fault-finding: According to this concept, the supervision is considered to be a fault-finding activity. Hence the supervisor confines his responsibility to the pointing out of the weaknesses of the supervisees.

3.2 Directing: In this case, the supervisor gives directions to the extension workers in regard to their day-to-day activities. The performance of the workers is judged on the basis of directions followed by them.

3.3 Helping: Here the supervisor assumes the role of a helper. The supervisor is supposed to provide necessary help to extension agent whenever needed.

3.4 Service: The most recent concept of supervision is that it is a service activity. According to this concept, the main task of the supervisor is to facilitate the task of extension workers through the provision of necessary facilities and services.

4. Approaches to supervision:

Generally two main approaches to supervision have been tried in rural extension programmes all over the world. These approaches are described as under:

4.1 Autocratic: The advocates of this approach regard supervision

as a fault-finding, sneaking, spying or directing activity. The supervisor enforces his ideas and methods on his supervisees. Thus an atmosphere of fear and suspicion is created by the supervisor. Due to the inherent weaknesses of this approach, it has been increasingly challenged throughout the world and has almost been discarded.

4.2 Democratic: Under this approach, the supervision gives due recognition to the workers' individual differences such as age, education, service experience and other personal characteristics. The supervisor makes all possible efforts to fully utilize the talents of each worker. He makes maximum provision for the delegation of power and responsibility. In such a situation, there seems to be greater work motivation and greater satisfaction among workers.

This approach assumes that the employees are capable of growth and that through the professional growth of each incumbent, the extension service may be successful in achieving its targets. Hence education and training of workers becomes the key role of supervision under the democratic approach.

5. Functions of Extension Supervisor:

As already indicated, the ultimate objective of extension supervision is to offer an excellent extension service to the farm people. For the achievement of this objective, the supervisor has to perform the following functions.

5.1 Intermediary: The extension supervisor has to deal with the extension workers on the one-hand and the higher authorities on the other. He communicates instructions from the central administration to the extension agents. He passes on the workers' problems to the high-us for solution. Thus, he acts an intermediary between higher officers and the field workers. A good supervisor devises ways and means of developing better understanding and good relationship between high command and the field staff.

5.2 Trainer: The major responsibility of extension supervisor is to develop the qualities of leadership among extension workers. During his visits to the extension workers, he observes the progress of work, as well as, problems faced by them. He writes a report of work for each supervisory visit. On the basis of his observations, he makes plans for the improvement of extension programme in his area. He designs and conducts in-service training courses to up-date the knowledge of extension workers and to do away with their deficiencies. IN this way, he plays the role of a trainer.

5.3 Administrator: The extension supervisor establishes an office where extension workers and extension clientele contact him for advice on various problems. His administrative responsibilities

include: selection and recruitment of new staff, proper placement of current staff, transfer of staff, submission of progress reports to higher officers etc. He has to take quick decisions to dispose off all matters promptly. He uses his administrative abilities to tackle problems of administrative matters.

5.4 Co-ordinator: A number of functionaries of government departments and other agencies assist the rural communities in meeting their needs. The linkage of extension activities with the on-going projects and programmes of various organizations is an essential pre-requisite to the success of extension programmes. The extension supervisor, thus, has to develop a closest liaison between extension service and other organizations working in the area. He, thus, plays the role of a coordinating agent to strengthen extension service through proper co-ordination between all the development agencies.

5.5 Evaluator: The evaluation of extension work is helpful in making more intelligent decisions for the furtherance of extension programme. Evaluation is also helpful in the self-improvement of extension workers and supervisors. Good evaluation would reflect the potentialities of supervisor as an evaluator.

6. Specific suggestions for beginning supervisors:

Being a new comer in the area, a beginning supervisor has to exercise a good deal of care in the performance of his functions. The following points are worth considering by the beginning supervisor.

- * Meeting all staff members in an informal way.
- * Seeking advice from his predecessor.
- * Continuing existing procedures until studied well.
- * Introducing new procedures gradually.
- * Starting the programme with the problems faced by staff members.
- * Setting the pattern the staff can easily follow.
- * Avoiding such remarks as can belittle a staff member.
- * Understanding the main features of extension programme in the area.

7. Conclusion:

The concept of extension supervision has considerably changed during the past few decades. Consequently, supervision is now regarded as a service activity. Hence supervision has gradually become more the supervisee-centered than the supervisor-centered. The extension supervisor has to play different roles such as intermediary, trainer, administrator, co-ordinator and evaluator, to achieve the organization's goals. A beginning supervisor must thoroughly understand the important features of the existing extension programme, before undertaking new extension activities.

Evaluation in Rural Extension

By

¹Dr. Tanvir Ali

Have you ever been involved in evaluation? What type of evaluation were you involved in? How were you involved? What were your roles and goals in that evaluation? What are your experiences and views about evaluation? These are some of the questions which need your answers for class discussion and information sharing. How many of you responded as "No" to my first question. Surely you have been involved in evaluation. Every one of us is in one's own ways an evaluator. The dictionary definition of evaluation is, "To determine the worth of: to appraise" (Webster's New World Dictionary, 1960). During our daily life many times we are involved in determining the worth of many things. Evaluation may be informal (choosing from among available alternatives based on subjective perceptions) or formal (Where choices are based on systematic efforts to define criteria and obtain accurate information about alternatives).

Informal evaluation is not of concern in this lecture. We will focus on formal and systematic approach to evaluation. Let us first define and discuss some important terms involved in evaluation.

Evaluation:

Systematic investigation of the worth or merit of an object i.e. a programme, project or instructional material.

Object of Evaluation:

What one is evaluating i.e. a forestry extension project, instructional material etc.

Formative Evaluation:

Evaluation designed and used to improve an object, especially when it is still being developed.

Summative Evaluation:

Evaluation designed to present conclusions about the merit or worth of an object and recommendations about whether it should be retained, altered or eliminated:

Meta Evaluation:

Evaluation of an evaluation.

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Monitoring

The kinds of activities involved in monitoring vary widely from periodic checks of compliance with policy to relatively straight forward 'tracking' of service delivered and 'counting' of clients (Patton, 1982 P.44).

In order to plan an evaluation we must clearly describe the evaluation's roles and goals. Formal evaluation studies have played many roles in extension education, including the following:

1. To provide a basis for decision making
2. To assess participants' achievements
3. To improve instructional material
4. To monitor expenditure of public funds
5. To improve on-going programmes.
6. To provide a basis for planning future programmes.
7. To provide justification for an extension programme.

Even though evaluation plays many roles in extension education (some mentioned above), it has a single goal: to determine the worth or merit of what ever is being evaluated.

Steps in Evaluating Extension Programmes

1. Object Description

An object description is used to better understand the thing that is to be evaluated. It helps in planning the evaluation and is the part of the final evaluation report generally covered under the title "Introduction". Elements of effective object descriptions include the following:

1.1 Rational/Philosophy

Describe the conceptual background and /or the justification for the object's existence.

1.2 Objectives

What are the programme's specific intended outcomes.

1.3 Setting

Describe the physical and/or the socio-psychological environment in which the programme takes place.

1.4 Staff

Who are the people responsible for the programme's operation? What are the characteristics and qualifications of their positions?

1.5 Organization

What is the structure of the programme? Are there any specific arrangements that are important for the object's success?

1.6 Activities

Describe in detail what actions, techniques or procedures are used to accomplish programme objectives.

1.7 Participants

Who are the participants and what are their characteristics and/or selection criteria?

1.8 Budget

Itemize the intended or actual costs of implementing this programme.

The object description helps the evaluator as well as the readers (audience) clarify just what it is that will be/has been evaluated. The description is generally based on interviews with the key project personnel, document review, direct observations of the project in action and conversations with participants. The best object descriptions are those which avoid judgmental language on the part of the evaluator.

2. Planning Evaluation

2.1 Clarify the Evaluation Request

Interview the client --- the specific agency or individual who requests the evaluation and the sponsor --- the agency or individual who authorizes the evaluation and provides necessary fiscal resources for its conduct to clarify the reasons for wanting to evaluate the object.

2.2 Identify the Intended Audiences and Their Concerns

Audiences include individuals, groups, and agencies who have an interest in the evaluation and receive its results. Sponsors and clients are usually the primary audiences and may occasionally be the only audiences. Generally an evaluation's audiences will also include all participants and stake holders --- those who may be directly affected by evaluation results. Audience concerns/views may be identified through face to face interviews, telephone interviews or by mail.

2.3 Identify and Select the Evaluation Questions

Based upon the interviews conducted and information received from the client, sponsor, stake holders, and the audience, identify the evaluation questions and decide upon the questions to be addressed in the evaluation. Involve all concerned taking such decisions. Decide what evidence is needed to determine that the extension programme is reaching its goals in terms of (a) number of accomplishments, or (b) changed behaviour of the people. Which are the most important indicators of changed behaviour? A hierarchy of the levels of evidence is presented in Table 1. Suppose an organization runs a project of five years duration to educate farmers of Faisalabad district regarding farm forestry. The examples of the types of evidence needed at various levels are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Hierarchy of evidence for programme evaluation

Level of Evidence	Examples
7. End results	- changes in the quality of life and standards of living of farmers.
6. Practice change	- Adoption of innovations in Farm Forestry by farmers on their farms.
5. KASA change	- Changes in knowledge, attitudes skills and aspirations of farmers regarding farm forestry.
4. Reactions	- Opinions and reactions of farmers regarding extension programme and activities. Interested or not, like or dislike, useful or not useful.
3. People involvement	- Percentage of farmers attending extension meetings. Frequency and intensity of their involvement type and quality.
2. Activities	- No. type and quality of extension meetings conducted.
	- No. of demonstrations conducted.
	- Subject matter taught
1. Inputs	- No. of trees planted on farm lands.
	- Time invested
	- Money invested
	- Resources used such as plants distributed among farmers.

2.4 Prepare the Evaluation Design

The evaluation design includes: the evaluation questions, information needed to answer these questions, sources of this information, and recommended strategies/methods for gathering the information.

Example

Evaluation Question	Information Required	Information Sources	Method for Collecting Info.
What are farmers' opinions regarding growing trees on farm lands?	Farmers' opinions	Farmers in the sample	Interview

3. Conducting Evaluation

There are various methods for conducting evaluation. Some of these methods are discussed here:

- 3.1 Interviews
- 3.2 Mail questionnaire
- 3.3 Telephone surveys
- 3.4 Post meeting reaction sheet
- 3.5 Observations
- 3.6 Document analysis
- 3.7 Focus group
- 3.8 Delphi technique

4. Reporting Evaluation

A written, comprehensive, technical evaluation report contains the sections listed in the following table of contents.

- 4.1 Executive summary
- 4.2 Introduction
 - a. The evaluation object
 - b. Purpose of evaluation and evaluation questions
 - c. Limitations of the evaluation.
- 4.3 Methodology or Evaluation Procedure
 - a. Population
 - b. Sample
 - c. Data collection
 - d. Data analysis
- 4.4 Results and Discussion
- 4.5 Conclusions
- 4.6 Recommendations

Appendices

HOW TO EDUCATE FARMERS REGARDING FARM FORESTRY?

By

Muhammad Akram Zia¹

The severe shortage of trees has resulted into very high prices of timber and fuel. There is no possibility of easing this situation in view of galloping population and increasing needs. Three trees per year per capita is the requirement as per international standards. It means that three hundred sixty million trees are needed annually. At present about only hundred million trees are being planted every year. How many of these get established, is any one's guess. The gap is widening and prices are increasing further. On the other hand, there is no scope of afforestation in the public sector. It is high time that farmers should grow trees and make money for the first time in the history of farming. Farmers can grow trees:

1. On water courses and field boundaries.

Farmers need just to plant the trees and protect them during the initial one or two years.

2. In 50-100 feet apart lines in the fields.

More ambitious farmers can combine trees with fodder, sugarcane, wheat etc., especially the tall and straight growing trees.

3. In compact plantations.

Trees can be grown in compact blocks. Every farmer can put one-fourth of his land under trees. It is generally feared that as a result of proposed tree planting there will be proportionate decrease in farm production and income. It is, however, possible to maintain or even increase the farm income by undertaking more intensive crop production on remaining three-fourth of the farmland. This exercise especially suits to the farmers depending only on canal irrigation. Less irrigation water is needed because trees are planted in 10-15 feet apart lines and only ditches are to be irrigated. Once established, trees can face water shortage better for having longer and stronger root system. Some species of trees can also be grown with brackish underground water which is not quite suitable for crop production.

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WHY FARMERS SHOULD GROW TREES

1. For very high returns

If a farmer has one rupee, he can not invest anywhere except buying a sapling of any tree like sheesham, kikar, neem, eucalyptus, poplar, or simal and by planting and protecting it. A farmer will be able to sell this tree at the age of twenty years for about six thousand rupees. This much profit is not possible neither in any industry nor in any other business. Moreover, a single rupee can no-where be invested.

2. For Lumpsum Money

Majority of the farmers cannot save any money and they can never earn reasonable amount of money worth investing any where, without growing trees. The farmers have to wait for 5 - 20 years when they can sell their crop of trees. According to very careful estimate, one hundred trees of twenty years age can be sold for rupees 300,000 today and if they are planted today they will bring at least double the amount after twenty years. This miracle has never happened for the farmer in the past and there is no possibility of any such happening in any other way without trees in future too.

3. For Comfortable Enterprise

Tree farming is least/^{costly}and requires less intensive management. It has also comparatively less risks involved like attack of insect pests, occurrence of diseases, floods, and climatic extremes.

For inculcating the above mentioned potentials of growing trees in the mental frame of farmers, we need to make them aware of the possibility of improving their lot by growing as many trees as possible, through mass media like radio, television, newspapers, pamphlets, leaflets, posters, and hoardings, etc. The farmers who become aware and get interested in tree growing, we should contact them in groups and try to dispel their fears, suspicions and try to motivate and guide them for action. The extension teaching methods like group discussion, group tours and field days should be organized to motivate and encourage them for growing trees.

Through mass media, we should also try to convince and impress upon the government to establish wood based industries especially paper and pulp industry. The ever-increasing demand of the industrial wood, would provide a market for the growers on long term basis.