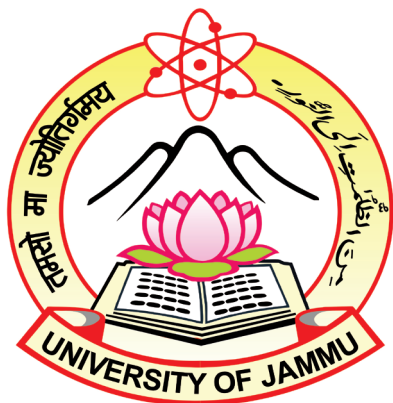


CENTRE FOR DISTANCE & ONLINE EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF JAMMU
JAMMU



SELF LEARNING MATERIAL
B.A. SEMESTER-VI

SUBJECT : HOME SCIENCE

UNIT- I - V

COURSE NO. : HS 608 (T)

LESSON- 1 to 21

Dr. Anuradha Goswami
Course Co-ordinator

<http://www.distanceeducationju.in>

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EXTENSION AND COMMUNICATION

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B.A. Home Science –6th Semester EXTENSION AND COMMUNICATION

Duration of Examination=3 Hours

M. Marks : 100

Course Code: HS 608(T)

Internal Ass. : 20 Marks

Credits : 4(4hrs. per week)

External Ass. : 80 Marks

Syllabus for the examination to be held in the year 2017, 2018, 2019 to 2022 and onwards

Theory

Objectives:

To enable students to:

1. To understand the concept of communication and extension and its relevance for self and national development.
2. To appreciate the role of Home Science extension in community development.
3. To sensitize students towards identifying methods and prepare suitable materials for effective communication.

Unit I: Extension

- Concept, nature, history and philosophy of extension
- Objectives, principles and scope of extension
- Characteristics and nature of extension work, extension education and extension services
- Home Science Extension as a discipline and its contribution towards development,
- Qualities of an extension worker.

Unit II: Introduction to programme planning:

- Extension programme-Concept and scope.
- Planning: Nature of planning, Extension planning
- Extension programme planning: Meaning, definition, rationale, scope, principle
- Programme planning model: Need for a model, principles to be considered in evolution of a model.

Unit III: Communication

- History of Communication
- Concept, nature, functions and scope of communication.
- Awareness of self in communication
- Principles of communication

Unit IV: Understanding communication

- Non-verbal communication-function,
- Types, significance with reference to body, face and eye movements, space and touch communication.
- Verbal communication- significance, acquiring language skills for speaking and writing,
- Improving language competency.
- Relationship of cultures and communication

Unit V: Communication in Home Science Extension

- Role of Home Science Extension in the developmental process.
- Developmental problems of women and children
- Elements of the Communication process; Communication as an essential element of the extension and development process
- Audio-visual aids in extension, classification of Audio-visual aids, Advantages and limitations of Audio-Visual aids.

NOTE FOR PAPER SETTING:

The question paper will consist of ten long answer questions (two from each unit, choice from within the unit). Each question carries a weight age of 16 marks . The candidate will have to attempt five questions (at least one from each unit). (16×5=80 marks)

Distribution of Internal Assessment (20 Marks)

20 marks for theory paper in a subject reserved for internal assessment shall be distributed as under: (i) Two Written Assignments 10 marks each

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PRACTICALS

B.A. Home Science Semester 6th EXTENSION AND COMMUNICATION

Duration of Examination : 3 Hours

M.Marks : 50

Course Code : HS 608(P)

Internal Ass. : 25

Credits : 2 (3 hrs. per week)

External Ass. : 25

Syllabus for the examination to be held in the year 2017, 2018 and 2019

1. Introduction to design of audio visual aids

2. Planning, Preparation, Presentation and evaluation of various audio visual aids.

* Posters *Charts and Flip charts *Flash cards *Flannel graphs *Puppets

Note for internal assessment (Total Marks: 25)

50% of the total marks for the practical paper in a subject reserved for internal assessment shall be distributed as under:

(i) 40% for the class assessments and tests and (ii) 10% for regularity of attendance

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CONCEPT, NATURE, HISTORY AND PHILOSOPHY OF EXTENSION**STRUCTURE**

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Objectives
- 1.3 Meaning and concept of extension education
- 1.4 Definitions of extension education
- 1.5 Nature of extension education
- 1.6 History of extension education
- 1.7 Philosophy of extension education
- 1.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.9 Answers to Check your Progress
- 1.10 Lesson End Exercise
- 1.11 Suggested Reading

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Unit I introduces to you the concept of extension. The unit is spread over four chapters, each of which deals with specific aspects of extension. The first chapter brings to you information about the concept, nature and history of extension. It will tell you what is meant by extension and what is its philosophy.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

Main objective of this lesson is to help students clear their concept regarding

- (i) Concept and nature of extension
- (ii) History and philosophy of education; extension education.

1.3 MEANING AND CONCEPT OF EXTENSION EDUCATION

Extension, in general education terminology means extending education to those who need and who desire to have it. According to Ensminger it is a programme as well as process of helping people to help themselves in increasing their general standards of living. Extension education is education for rural people outside the regularly organised schools and class rooms for bringing out social and cultural development. Extension means to extend, to spread or to disseminate useful information and ideas to rural people outside the regularly organised schools and class rooms. These changes are brought out in the social and cultural aspects of human life, the term social means anything related to human beings. Extension education tries to develop the social behaviour of the people, their different social groups and the intra- and interrelationship of these social groups. It also tries to bring out culture means, the socially standardised ways of feeling, thinking and acting which an individual acquires as a member of the society. The behaviour of the individual is influenced, controlled and directed by culture. The nature may be material (e.g., machines, tables, chairs, etc.) or non-material (e.g., way of thinking, value, feelings, etc.). With changes in time and environment the pattern of culture also undergo is a change. Sometimes one aspect of culture undergoes rapid change (may be housing or communication) leaving other aspects behind and thereby creating a cultural lag. A cultural lag occurs when technological and material changes take place more rapidly than non-material changes in social values, attitudes and social organisation. Extension education helps in bridging the

gap created by the cultural lag by advising means of adjustment in the new environment. By this process the development of culture takes place.

Extension education uses information obtained and assembled from research studies all over the world, from experience wherever, it can be found and utilised and from the results of demonstrations performed for the purpose of extending knowledge. Rural people have different interests and needs and hence extension education has to be broad and varied in its meaning to meet the interests of the people it serves. It is an educational programme for the people, based on their needs and problems. It is designed to meet these needs and solve problems on a self-help basis. Thus, extension education is a teaching and learning process. It tries to bring out three types of changes in human behaviour.

- (a) Changes in knowledge or things known.
- (b) Changes in skills or things done.
- (c) Changes in attitudes or things felt.

In the first type of change an increased amount of useful information or understanding is provided to the people. It may be regarding the package of practices of wheat, methods of applying fertilisers or details about the marketing of agricultural products. In the second type of change new or improved skills, abilities and habits of the people are improved, such as how to avoid loss of vitamins while cooking the vegetable, how to harvest and transport vegetables for the market or spraying the correct types of insecticide for killing a particular crop pest. The third change develops desirable attitudes and ideals in rural people, such as to make people believe that balanced diet is useful for human body, the importance of controlling soil erosion, or that yields can be increased by adopting improved farm practices. It will be clear from this that effective extension education contributes to the individual's understanding, helps him to improve his abilities and develops in him more desirable attitudes.

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

1.4 DEFINITION OF EXTENSION EDUCATION

Definitions

1. Extension is an education and its purpose is to change the attitude and practices of the people with whom the work is done. (Ensminger. D.)
2. Extension education is defined as an educational process to provide knowledge to the rural, people about the improved practices in a convincing manner and to help them to take decisions within their specific local conditions. (Dahama, O.P.).
3. Agricultural extension is concerned with agricultural education aimed at assisting rural people to bring about continuous improvement in their physical, economic and social well being, through individual and cooperative efforts. It makes available to the villages, scientific and other factual information and training and guidance for the solution of problems of agriculture and rural life.
4. Extension education, is, the act of putting across to the people, in an under-standable manner, new ideas and improved technology of practical utility and to enable them to put them into practice so as to improve their general standard of living through their own realization and efforts.
5. Extension education is a science which deals with various strategies of change in the behavioural patterns of human beings through technological and scientific innovations for the improvement of their standard of living.
6. Extension is a continuous process designed to make the rural people aware of their problems and indicating to them the ways and means by which they can solve them.

It involves not only educating rural people in determining their problems and methods of solving them but also inspiring them towards positive action in achieving them.

7. Agricultural extension is a bridge that fills the gap between agricultural research stations on the one hand and the farming population on the other by establishing a suitable teaching organisation at various levels of administration.

8. Extension education is an applied behavioural science, the knowledge of which is to be applied for desirable change in the behavioural complex of the people.

9. Extension is defined primarily as an educational process aiming at the development of individuals; through this process the villagers are helped to become discontented with the present conditions and are helped by extension workers to improve their conditions of living.

10. Extension is to teach a person how to think, not what to think, and to teach people to terming accurately their own needs to find solution to their own problems and to help them acquire knowledge and develop convictions in that direction.

11. Extension is an out-of-school system of education in which adults and young people learn by doing. It is a partnership between Government, the Land grant Colleges and the People, which provides services and education designed to meet the needs of the people.

12. Extension or agricultural extension is a method, or a series of methods, by which the technical know-how of science is carried to and included in the practices of the cultivators.

13. Extension education is the education of the people as to what more to want as well as how to work out ways of satisfying them. Informing people not to remain content with their present lot and inspiring them to work vigorously towards fulfilment of their self-created, increased wants or desires.

14. Extension is the education of the rural adults outside the school in matters of their choice and interest. It is education for freedom, which seeks to help persons to use the liberty of action with which democratic society is constructed. From the above definitions, the following basic questions have emerged.

1. What category of science is it?
2. What is its subject matter?
3. What is its relationship with technology and the other sciences?
4. Who are the clients of the discipline?
5. What are its methods, contents, principles and philosophies?

Hence, Extension education is a Behavioural Science following a continuous, persuasive and discriminating educational process. It aims at affecting the behavioural components of people in a desirable direction, through conviction, communication and diffusion, by its proven methods, principles and philosophies resulting in learning-involvement of both client and change-agent system.

1.5 NATURE OF EXTENSION EDUCATION

A widely accepted and well recognized view regarding, extension is that “Extension is education and its aim is to bring the desirable changes in human behaviour.” Whether one wishes to understand or improve human behaviour, it is necessary to know a great deal about the nature of Extension Education as a developed discipline. The distinguishing characteristics are :

(1) Emphasis on theoretically significant empirical research

Until the beginning of the new era of scientific and empirical application to extension education, those who were curious about the nature of extension education relied primarily upon their personal experience and historical record to provide answer to their questions. Not being burdened by the necessity of accounting for carefully gathered empirical data,

writers in this speculative era devoted their energy to the creation of comprehensive theoretical treatment of extension education.

By the second half of this century an empirical rebellion had begun in the social sciences. Instead of being content with speculation about nature of human behaviour, a few people began to seek out facts in an attempt to distinguish between objective data and subjective impressions. Although, initially rather simple questions guided this research fundamentally new criterion for evaluating new knowledge about human behaviour in the field of extension education was established in the late 1950's. Even education began to emerge as an identifiable field, the empirical rebellion was moving the lines of social psychology and sociology. Thus, the outset the extension education is to be distinguished from the earlier intellectual endeavors in the social sciences, primarily by its basic reliance on careful observation, quantification, measurement and experimentation. But one should not identify extension education too closely with extreme empiricism.

(2) Interest in the behavioural aspect of inter-dependence of phenomena

Although the phrase, "Extension Education" specifies extension as the objective of study, it also focuses attention more sharply on the "education" aspect of human life. The student of the extension education discipline is not satisfied with just a description of the properties of extension, or events associated with it, nor he is content with a classification of human groups and form of associations only. He wants to know how the phenomena he observes depends on one another, and what new phenomena might result from the creation of conditions never before observed. In short, he seeks to discover general principles concerning what conditions produce what effects. This search leads us to the reality of the interdependence of phenomena and reveals the fact about our success in applying the inter-disciplinary approach.

(3) Inter-disciplinary relevance

It is important to recognize that the studies and researches in the extension education have not been associated exclusively with any one of the social science discipline of extension education. Rural sociologists have, of course, devoted great energy to bringing out the factors of human life related to extension education behaviour. Psychologists have directed their attention to the study of individuals in group functioning by studying the attitudes, behaviour and personality characteristics. Anthropologists, while investigating many facts as sociologists and psychologists, have contributed data on groups living under conditions quite different from those of modern industrial society. Political scientists have extended their traditional interest in large institutions to include studies of the functions of administrative, political and related aspects in rural areas. Economics have come close increasingly to collect and analyse data, so as to guide in decision-making regarding expenditure of savings at the farm and family levels, and also to make predictions about the economics, consequences of methods and practices used or advocated. Group dynamics, communications, social psychology education and home science discipline have significantly contributed and continue to contribute to the growth of extension education as a discipline.

(4) Potential applicability of findings to social practice

Everyone, who feels the responsibility of strengthening the efforts of extension educators, must view this action in the light of the total programmes and practices under the extension education discipline. The professionalization of the discipline has brought about a conscious desire to improve standards and establish the requirements for proper training. The major universities now have professional courses and divisions to provide such training at the highest level. It should not be surprising, therefore, to find that courses in extension education are becoming more and more common in professional schools, that people trained in extension education are being employed by agencies concerned with professional practices; and that extension education research is often carried out in connection with the work of such agencies. This has great potential.

Thus in short, it is proposed that extension education should be defined as a discipline, dedicated to advancing knowledge about the effect to the extension education approach in bringing about desirable change in human behaviour, and the laws of governing their development and their interrelations, etc.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What do you understand by the term extension education?

ii) What are the characteristics of extension education?

1.6 HISTORY OF EXTENSION EDUCATION

Extension education as a discipline has its historical roots in USA, where people made a significant contribution to both research and theory in extension education. They also established the first organisation devoted explicitly to research in extension education. The time and place of the rise of Extension Education were, of course, not accidental. The American Society of “Cooperative Extension Service” provided the kind of condition required for the emergence of such an intellectual movement. Over the years, since that time only certain countries have afforded a favourable environment for its growth. Today, extension education has taken firm root in both USA and India. Three major conditions seem to have been necessary for its rise and subsequent growth

- (a) A supporting Society;
- (b) Developed profession; and
- (c) Developed social science.

The publication of the Journal of Cooperative Extension Service” in the USA, and “The Indian Journal Extension Education” in India, revolutionized thinking and led to the organizing “development of professionals in India and the USA”. The incentive to work for growth of this discipline was no longer seen as simple and unitary but definitely varied, complex and dynamic. The new view opened the way for, and demanded, more research and new conceptualisations to handle the problems.

The controlled observations on social interaction, which was developed to provide objective and quantitative data concerning behaviour, subsequently has been used extensively in researches in extension education.

With the coming up of Agricultural Universities and Extension Education Institutes in India, the growth of this discipline was carried forward at a faster rate. Student, researches and staff research projects opened new vistas in the development of the discipline.

(a) The focus of extension education on human organisation has resulted from observation and investigation.

(b) It is a body of facts or information that has resulted from observation and investigation.

(c) This body of knowledge can be summarized, or generalized into principles or theories.

(d) Extension education uses social research methodology and statistics by which investigations are made, information is discovered, hypotheses are tested and theories are derived.

(e) This use of methodology is useful in arriving at the solution of educational problems, as they present themselves.

(f) This information, this knowledge, these principles, and the methodology used, constitutes the substances of extension education which provides a base for

educational theory and educational practice. The aforesaid conditions fostering the rise of the discipline are presented.

1.7 PHILOSOPHY OF EXTENSION EDUCATION

Philosophy, in the original and wider sense, is the pursuit of wisdom, or knowledge of things and their causes, both theoretical and practical. It is also defined as moral wisdom. Philosophy is an attempt to answer ultimate questions critically after investigating all, that makes such questions puzzling and after releasing the vagueness and confusion-that underlie our ordinary ideas.

Philosophy is a body of general principles or laws of a field of knowledge, An individual, after considering pros and cons, decides on certain principles to guide his life. These principles play a vital role in deciding what is good or bad in the life of an individual. Goals and means are decided on the basis of these principles of life or the philosophy of life of an individual. For instance, the goal of two students studying in the same class may be to obtain good grades in the examination. However, they may adopt different approaches (means) for obtaining the grades in the examination based on their philosophies of life. One may work hard for obtaining better grades. Two prisoners having different philosophies of the life react differently to the same situation. Both of them look through the prison bars, one sees the mud and feels that the life is gloomy and becomes disappointed. Another prisoner looks at the sky and sees the stars and enjoys the atmosphere. It will be seen from these examples that the philosophy of life has relevance with the actions of the people. It provides a guideline for performing the activities in life in a particular way.

The farmer is no exception to this principle. During the course of time he formulates a philosophy of life for himself. When an extension worker approaches him he tests the messages against his philosophy then he acts on it. If the extension worker approaches the

farmers for the introduction of artificial insemination for their cows, a traditional minded farmer and a progressive farmer will react differently to his proposal. The progressive farmer may accept the proposal while the traditional minded farmer may reject the proposal.

The philosophy of extension education has been described and interpreted in different ways by different authors and a clear picture cannot be drawn due to the very complexity of its nature. All one can do is try to gain a comprehensive idea by examining the view points of various authors.

Kelsey and Hearne (1955) state that the philosophy of extension is based on the importance of the individual in the promotion of progress for rural people and for the nation. Extension educators work with the people to help them to develop themselves and achieve superior personal well-being. Together they establish specific objectives, expressed in terms of everyday life, which lead them in the direction of overall objectives. Some will make progress in one direction while others will do so in another direction. Progress varies with individual needs, interests and abilities. Though by this process the whole community improves, as a result of cooperative participation and leadership development.

Extension educational philosophy is based on the hypothesis that rural people are intelligent, are interested in obtaining new information and at the same time have a keen desire to utilize information for the individual and social welfare. The krishi pandits and many progressive farmers are very intelligent. They obtain new information about scientific practices in farming and use it for increasing their yields. Certain organisations like gram panchayats, cooperatives, youth clubs, mahila mandals, etc., are created, in the villages. These organisations undertake social welfare programmes for their Community. The representatives of the people having different philosophies of life play a vital role in these welfare programmes.

The extension workers should utilise the latent goodwill of the people in extension programmes. A first step in this direction is to communicate new ideas and details of the

welfare programmes to the people. An atmosphere of mutual trust and friendship between the extension workers and people should be developed. The extension worker should gain full understanding of the problems and difficulties of the people. This will help in solving the problems of the people. There are two ways of solving problems. One is by compelling people to act in a particular way by using coercive methods. Another way is by using a democratic approach, in which people are reached by educational methods to solve their problems.

Extension work is developed on the principle of helping the rural people to stand on their feet. Economic development is given priority in the programmes of rural development. This would create strength in the people. By this strength they will develop their farms, homes, educational and recreational facilities which are necessary for their self-development and for national development. The rural people are to be helped in understanding their natural resources and the ways of utilising, these resources for development. By utilising these natural resources they can lead a satisfactory life. Due to this reason the extension worker, has to start from the level of the people and help them in utilising their resources for the betterment of individuals and the community.

The basic philosophy of extension is directed towards changing the outlook of man by educating him. As stated in the foregoing example, compulsion does not persuade the people to act in a particular way. The only way to secure the intelligent and wholehearted cooperation of a person is to educate him. Education is not a mere transfer of information. It is more than that. It's primary aim is to transform the people by bringing about desired changes in their knowledge, attitude and skills. If this does not happen then the activities chosen for extension are not educational and its effects cannot be long lasting.

According to Ensminger (1962), the philosophy of extension can be expressed in the following lines:

(1) It is an educational process. Extension is changing the attitudes, knowledge and skills of the people;

(2) Extension is working with men and women, young people, boys and girls to answer their needs and their wants. Extension is teaching people Who want to learn more and ways to satisfy their needs.

(3) Extension is “helping people to help themselves”.

(4) Extension is “learning by doing” and “seeing is believing”.

(5) Extension is development of individuals, their leaders, their society and their world as a whole;

(6) Extension is working together to expand the welfare and happiness of people;

(7) Extension is working in harmony with the culture of the people;

(8) Extension is a living relationship, respect and trust for each other;

(9) Extension is a two-way channel; and

(10) Extension is a continuous, educational process.

Dhama (1965) gives the following points as the “Philosophy of Extension”.

(a) Self-help;

(b) People are the greatest resources;

(c) It is cooperative effort

(d) It has its foundation in democracy;

(e) It involves a two-way channel of knowledge and experience;

(f) It is based on creating

(g) Voluntary, cooperative participation of programmes;

(h) Persuasion and education of people;

(i) The programme is based on the attitudes and values of the people; and

(j) It is a never-ending process.

Mildred Norton has described four principles which make the philosophy of extension education. These are:

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

Shukla, while supporting the philosophy of Norton, emphasised - “Extension programme revolves around the individual, the cultivator, and we have to bring change in his attitude, knowledge, skill, understanding, capacity and ability through persuasion by educational means.”

Rudramurthy (1966) has linked the philosophy of extension work with the Vedas, the Upanishads, the Gita as well as the orthodox and unorthodox schools of philosophy. This is based on the concept of man and the values which are worthy of human pursuit. Bhatnagar, (1971) perceives extension to be the activities of the State Governments (with, or without, the help of Central Government, or other agencies) which provide the farmers with technical know-how as a guide to improved methods, in order to bring desirable changes in their behaviour with the aim of attaining higher production. In this sense the extension activities relate closely to the activities in research and education.

1.8 LET US SUM UP

Extension education is education for rural people outside the regularly organised schools and class rooms for bringing out social and cultural development. Extension means to extend, to spread or to disseminate useful information and ideas to rural people outside the regularly organised schools and class rooms. Extension is an education and its purpose is to change the attitude and practices of the people with whom the work is done. It is an

applied behavioural science, the knowledge of which is to be applied for desirable change in the behavioural complex of the people. So it is a behavioural science following the continuous, persuasive and discriminating educational process. It aims at affecting the behavioural components of people in a desirable direction, through conviction, communication, and diffusion, by its proven methods, principles and philosophies resulting in learning-involvement of both client and change agent systems.

Extension education as discipline has its historical roots in the USA, where people made a significant contribution to both research and theory in extension education. Three major conditions seem to have been necessary for its rise and subsequent growth. A supporting society, development profession and developed social science.

Extension educational philosophy is based on the hypothesis that rural people are intelligent, are interested in obtaining information and at the same time have a keen desire to utilize this information for their individual and social welfare. The basic philosophy of extension is directed towards changing the outlook of man by educating them.

1.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Extension education is an applied science consisting of contents derived from researches, accumulated field experiences and relevant principles drawn from the behavioural sciences, synthesized with useful technology, in a body of philosophy, principles, content and methods focused on the problems of the public.

2. The distinguishing characteristics of Extension education include:

- a) Emphasis on theoretically significant empirical research
- b) Interest in the behavioral aspect of inter-dependence of phenomenon
- c) Interdisciplinary nature of the subject

1.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

- Q1. Explain in detail concept of extension education.
- Q2. Write a note on nature and history of extension education.
- Q3. Explain in detail philosophy of extension education.

1.11 SUGGESTED READING

- 1. B.P. Mohapatra (2016). Dimensions of Extension Education. New India Publishing Agency.
- 2. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
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OBJECTIVES, PRINCIPLES AND SCOPE OF EXTENSION

STRUCTURE

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Objectives
- 2.3 Objectives of Extension Education
- 2.4 Understanding of Principles
- 2.5 Principles of extension education.
- 2.6 Scope of extension education.
- 2.7 Let Us Sum up
- 2.8 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 2.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 2.10 Suggested Reading

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter we have learned that extension aims to bring about change in the lives of the rural population by disseminating useful information to them. Extension is an education that attempts to change the attitude and practice of the people with whom the work is done. You were also made familiar with the nature and history of extension. Now, in this lesson 2 you will understand the objectives behind extension. Along with this you will learn about the principles underlying extension and the scope of it.

2.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through the lesson the students will be able to know the objectives behind extension education and also will learn about the principles and scope of extension education.

2.3 OBJECTIVES OF EXTENSION EDUCATION

The objectives of extension education are the expression of the ends towards which our efforts are directed. In other words, an objective means a direction of movement before, starting any programme, the objectives must be clearly stated, is that one knows where to go and what is to be achieved. The objectives should be such which provide right direction to the large number of people to set a direction and travel the distance between theory and practice.

The fundamental objective of extension education is to raise the standard of living of the rural people by helping them in using their natural resources in the right way. It should also help in providing minimum health, recreational, educational and other facilities for improving family living conditions in the villages.

Extension education in our country is primarily concerned with the following main objectives

1. The basic objective of extension education is the overall development of the rural people.
2. To bring about desirable changes in the human behaviour, which includes change in knowledge, skill and attitude.
3. The dissemination of useful and practical information relating to agriculture, including improved seeds, fertilizers, implements, pesticides, improved cultural practices, dairying, poultry nutrition etc.
4. To make the people aware that agriculture is a profitable profession
5. To create an environment for rural people so that they can show their talent, leadership and efficiency
6. To help the members of the farm family to a larger appreciation of the opportunities, the beauty and the privileges of rural life and to know more about the world in which they live.
7. To open up new opportunities for rural people so that they may develop all their talents and leadership.
8. To build rural citizens who are proud of their occupation, independent in their thinking, constructive in their outlook, capable, efficient and self-reliant in character and have a love of home and country in their heart.

2.4 UNDERSTANDING OF PRINCIPLES

Before taking up the discussion of the Principles of Extension it will be worthwhile to examine what is meant by the word “principle”. A principle is a statement of policy to guide decision and action in a consistent manner”. (Mathews).

Its meaning will be clear when we try to understand the sequence of generalization. When something is put forth as a point of view, or an assumption, and its proof is not known, it is called a hypothesis. When a hypothesis is put to a test and the point of view, or the assumption, turns out to be acceptable, it is called a theory. When a theory is put to several rigorous tests, under different settings, by different individuals and the findings are found to be in substantial agreement, then it is given the name of a principle. Thus a principle is a universal truth that has been observed, and found to be true under varying conditions and circumstances. A principle is a fundamental truth and a settled rule of action.

2.5 PRINCIPLES OF EXTENSION EDUCATION

It is usually believed that the knowledge of the principles is of no value to an extension worker. These principles are considered to be of academic interest for the students taking advance courses in extension. Leagans, however, holds out clearly the need for a sound knowledge of the principles for the extension workers. He points out that without this knowledge extension workers either keep on labouring under some handicaps, or make grave mistakes, particularly in the initial stages. Further, if an extension worker aspires to become an administrator or a supervisor, it will be all the more necessary for him to possess a sound knowledge of the principles of extension. The principles of extension are relative and not necessarily fixed in importance or sequence. Generally, however, it is also true that all the principles are important. It may also be relevant to point out that it is never possible to prepare a complete and final list of the extension principles. The principles discussed below are those which are either fundamental in nature or widely accepted in literature on the subject.

(1) Principle of felt needs

To be effective, extension work must begin with the interests and needs of the people. Many times the interests of the rural people are not the interests of the extension worker. Even though he sees the needs of the people better than they do themselves, he must begin with the interests and needs as they (the people) see them.

In this way only the extension agency can mould the needs and interests of the people into realistic needs. Needs that can satisfy the individuals, groups, community and national interests, needs that can be fulfilled with the available resources, and the needs that should be fulfilled first.

(2) Grass-roots principle of organisation

For extension work to be effective and real, it has to be a synthesis of democracy obtained at the level of the family and more particularly at the village level. Things must spring from below and spread like grass.

At the same time, modern science calls for an advanced stage of organisation and wiser coordination of thinking and action than is feasible in a single family or a single village, a higher level of living means wider specialisation in a village. This calls for the corresponding organisation of different professions and avocation. These will have to be woven together at the level of the enlarged family at the village community level. The Panchayats, as social institutions, have also to be established at the Block and the District levels. Thus, the establishment of the three-tier system namely, villages, Panchayat, Block-Samiti and Zila-Parishad, followed by the State Legislatures and Parliament satisfies the grass-root principles of organisation in the extension.

(3) Principle of cultural differences

In order to make extension programmes effective, the approach and procedure must be suited to the culture of the people who are taught. Different cultures require different approaches. A blue-print of work designed for one part of the globe cannot be applied effectively to another part, mainly because of the cultural difference. These differences can be perceived in the way of life of the people, their attitudes, values, loyalties, habits and customs.

(4) Principle of cultural change

Changed ways must be learnt and because all learning must be grafted on what is already known, it is obvious that the change agent who works personally with the villagers must know that what the villagers know and what they think. With this in mind and with an attitude of mutual respect and receptiveness, the worker must seek to discover and understand the limitations, the taboos and the cultural values related to each phase of his programme. Before it is introduced, in order that an acceptable approach may be selected.

This principle can be summed up in the words of Earl Monnur :

“As each culture is unique and each particular situation within which a change is occurring, or is to be made, is unique, it is not possible to lay down prescription for what to identify and to describe the process which occurs so that each particular individual or team charged with responsibility for planning, execution or adjusting to some type of change, may be able to act in terms of the process.”

(5) Principle of cooperation and participation

In an attempt to involve a great number of persons in achieving desired common ends, there seems to be no acceptable alternative but to let them choose the ends, and then aiding them to organize their self-help efforts successfully to do the things they want to

do. Most members of the village community will willingly cooperate in carrying out a project which they decide to undertake and help in that project. It has been the experience of many countries that people become dynamic if they are permitted to take decisions concerning their own affairs, exercise responsibility for, and are help to carry out projects in their own villages.

The participation of the people is of fundamental importance for the success of any educational endeavour. People must share in the development of a programme and must feel that it is their own programme.

(6) Principle of applied science and democratic approach

Applied agricultural science is not a one-way process. The problems of the people are taken to the scientists who do the experiments necessary to find out the solutions. The extension worker translates the scientific findings of the laboratories in such a way that the farm families can voluntarily adopt them to satisfy their own needs.

However, extension work is democratic both in philosophy and procedure. It aims to operate through discussion and suggestion. Facts about a situation are shared with the people. All possible alternative solution are placed before the participants, and their merits are highlighted through mutual discussions. Ultimately, the people are left free to decide their line of action, the methods to be adopted in the local situation with their own resources and available government assistance.

(7) Principle of learning by doing

In extension work, farmers should be encouraged to learn new things by doing and by direct participation. As Dr. Newman (1989) said - “Farmers, like other people, hesitate to believe and set on theories, or even facts until they see with their own eyes the

proof of them in material form. We must, in some way, bring this work to their personal attention. We must carry it home to them”.

The motive for improvement must come from the people, and they must practice the new ideas by actually doing them. It is learning by doing, which is most effective in changing people’s behaviour and developing the confidence to use the new methods in future.

(8) Principle of trained specialists

It is very difficult for a multi-purpose extension worker to keep himself abreast with all the latest findings of research in all the branches of science he has to deal with in his day-to-day activity. Trained specialists have to be provided, who keep themselves in touch with their respective research institutes on the one hand, and extend to the extension worker, meaningful terms, the latest scientific developments, which have scope for adoption in particular areas.

(9) Adaptability principle in the use of extension teaching methods

No single extension teaching method is effective under all situations. Reading material is for those who can read, radio-programmes for those who have radios, meetings for those who can attend, demonstrations of recommended practices are for those who can come to the farms where the demonstrations of recommended practices are laid. Farm and home visits are, by the most valuable, but they take up considerable time. New situations also arise where a special combination of method is necessary.

Extension agents have found that they need a large number of teaching methods out of which they can select and revise one effective method for the purpose and best suited to the culture of the people. At times, new methods must be devised to meet situations and changing conditions.

Further, the use of teaching methods must have flexibility to be adopted by members of a community who differ in age, education, economic status, sex and proneness to change, etc.

(10) Principle of leadership

A good rule in extension work is “Never do anything yourself that you can someone to do for you.” This calls for the development of local voluntary leadership.

The involvement of leaders in extension programmes is one single factor that determines the success or failure of those programmes. Local leaders are the guardian of local thought and action and can be trained and developed to best serve as interpreters of new ideas to the villagers.

There is no dearth of local leaders. All communities have leaders or potential leaders; it is a question of searching them out and creating an environment which permit and encourage their development and performance.

In the promotion of change however, it is neither right nor wise to disregard organised groups and leaders. Old leaders, if they are trusted can open - as well as close- the gates to new types of community action. If such leaders are converted to new functions, the multiplication of new things to be done will almost drive them to share the role leadership with others.

(11) Whole family Principle

The family is the unit of any society. All the members of the family have to be developed equally by involving all of them. This is because of the following reasons :

- (a) The Extension programme effects all members of the family
- (b) The family members have great influence in decision-making
- (c) It creates mutual understanding

- (d) It aids in money management
- (e) It balances farm and family needs
- (f) It educates the younger members
- (g) It provides an activity outlet for all.
- (h) It unifies related aspects, such as the social, economic and cultural, aspect of the family.
- (i) It assures family service to the community and society.

It is not difficult to adopt this type of approach in extension programmes. There is much work in the field for the men and at home for the women. The 4-H clubs play a remarkable role in this regard so far as young boys and girls are concerned. A comparative study has shown that the young 4-H club members have greater confidence in scientific information than the non-members.

(12) Principle of satisfaction

Satisfaction of the people is very essential in extension work. Unless the people are satisfied with the end product of any programme, it is not going to be able to run. In democratic societies people cannot be made to move like machines. They must continue to act out of their own conviction and that is possible only when they derive full satisfaction through adoption of innovations well suited to their needs and resources.

2.6 SCOPE OF EXTENSION EDUCATION

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

- 1) Increasing efficiency in agricultural production.
- 2) Increasing efficiency in the marketing, distribution and utilisation of agricultural inputs and outputs.
- 3) Conservation, development and use of natural resources.
- 4) Proper management on the farm and in the home.
- 5) Better family living.
- 6) Youth development
- 7) Leadership development
- 8) Community development and rural development.
- 9) Improving public affairs for all round development.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What is the objective extension education?

ii) Mention a few principles of extension

2.7 LET US SUM UP

A principle is a universal truth that has been observed and found to be true under varying conditions and circumstances. A principle is a fundamental truth and a settled rule of action. For an extension worker it is very important to possess a sound knowledge of the principles of extension. Various principles of extension education are principle of interest and needs, grass-roots principle of organisations, principle of cultural differences, principle of cooperation and participation, principle of applied science and democratic approach, principle of learning by doing, principle of trained specialists, adaptability, principle in the use of extension teaching methods, principle of leadership and principle of satisfaction.

The fundamental objective of extension education is the development of the people, to encourage them to grow their own food, eat well and live well, to promote better social, natural and spiritual life among the people and to open new opportunities for rural people so that they may develop all their talents and leadership.

2.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The fundamental objective of extension education is to raise the standard of living of the rural people by helping them in using their natural resources in the right way. It should also help in providing minimum health, recreational, educational and other facilities for improving family living conditions in the villages.

2. Some of the principles of extension education include: the principle of felt needs, principle of cultural differences and cultural change, principle of learning by doing, principle of trained specialist.

2.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q1. Describe in details the principles of extension education.

Q2. Describe the objectives and scope of extension education.

2.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. B.P. Mohapatra (2016). Dimensions of Extension Education. New India Publishing Agency.
2. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
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**CHARACTERISTICS AND NATURE OF EXTENSION WORK,
EXTENSION EDUCATION AND EXTENSION SERVICE**

STRUCTURE

- 3.1. Introduction
- 3.2 Objectives
- 3.3 Extension Work
- 3.4 Extension Education
- 3.5 Extension Service
- 3.6 Difference Between Extension Education & Extension Service
- 3.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.8 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 3.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 3.10 Suggested Reading

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the earlier chapter you have learned about the Principles underlying extension, along with understanding the objectives associated with it. The current lesson will clarify the concept of extension work, extension education and extension service. It will provide information about the similarities and differences in the three concepts.

3.2 OBJECTIVES

To learn and gain clarity about Extension work, Extension Education and Extension Service.

3.3 EXTENSION WORK

Extension is a continuous process designed to make the rural people aware of their problems, and indicating to them ways and means by which they can solve them. It thus not only involves education of the rural people in determining their problems and the methods of solving them, but also inspiring them towards positive action in doing so (Planning Commission, 1953).

According to Rudramoorthy (1964), the process of extending the knowledge of recent advances in science and technology to the people who need to use it most, is generally known as Extension.

Extension work is to assist people through educational and service approach. Through extension work, people are stimulated to make changes that result in more efficient production and marketing, conservation of natural resources, improved livelihood security, health, and more satisfying family and community life. Extension work is at the lowest of the hierarchy, but highly broad based on usage. It is also radically location specific and usually susceptible to outside criticism. Extension work is to help people to help themselves. For example, many times, people demand that local extension workers do various works. Unless the people are also taught to do these things, themselves or involve them in those works, it is not extension education but simply a service. Example: conservation of forest trees by extension workers vs. Community forest management by Vana Sarmrakshana Samities.

The major characteristics of Extension work are:

1. It is a non-formal education system

2. It aims at transforming socio-economically the individuals and the community
3. It provides linkage between extensionists, scientist and clients
4. It gathers, processes, stores and disseminates innovations
5. It is people oriented, knowledge based and problem focused.

Principles of Extension Work:

1. Principle of Identification: The principle of the problem identification involves the problem that arise from the application of new technology by farmers, cattle breeders. Poultry raisers or any kind of people engaged in farm occupations. It arises also from the particular conditions in a local area. This may be geographical, soil conditions, climate conditions or economic conditions etc. the problems could be due to economic and governmental regulations, the identification of problems of these fields and others should be the first step before an educator or instructors or a media man thinks of approaching a group of farmers to communicate with them. There is no point in trying to teach a farmer without first knowing his problems.

2. Principle of co-relation: According to Mahatma Gandhi co-relation is relationship between learning and doing or picking knowledge through doing. This is something which should be thought a fresh. For adult farmers this principle is needed for initiating the learning process. A farmer would not be interested unless the learning is more or less directly related to the doing and earning process.

3. Principle of participatory demonstration: Participatory demonstration implies demonstration at the place of work of the learner. This helps farmers to get firsthand experience of new ideas. Farmers are physically, mentally and economically involved in experimenting with new ideas on their own farms.

4. *The principle of up-to-dateness:* This demands continued exposure of the new ideas. This can be achieved through in service training. This also requires broad view of total surrounding in which he is operating.

5. *Principle of equality and communication:* It implies an environment of equality between the instructor and the learner. However, the person who least observes the principle of equality in communication is the professional teacher and government extension officer. Both of them treat the adult farmer as somewhat inferior person, this attitude has to be given up. Inequality is a great barrier in communication.

6. *Principle of continued self study:* This emphasizes ever alertness to learn from the circumstances and even the client himself. The change initiator should not feel complacent mere by passing the information. He must study its consequence also. It is wrong to assume that, what farmers are doing since generations is all wrong. This needs appreciation within the realm of socio-economic reality.

7. *Principle of need and interest:* It has been accepted throughout world that success of the people's development programme is greatly dependent on their involvement in its planning and execution. It has been also observed that successful programme have been based on peoples felt need. A need is an expressed feeling to bridge the gap between what is and what ought to be. Identification of the local needs leads to informal discussion between change agent and the client. This process leads to development of interest on the part of extension worker in the life setting of the people for whom they are going to work and as it involves local people. They too come to realize the various facts of the situational reality and start taking interest in working out the solution. Thus, it creates productive relationship.

8. *Grass root principle of organization:* Extension work in the field is carried out through an organization. To be successful, it should draw people's cooperation through democratic

process. Imposition from top discourages people's cooperation. The activities must spring from below and spread like a grass on horizontal spread in the society. In our society, it is being achieved through grass root democratic institution like village panchayats, block samities, and zila parishads. The village level programmes should emerge from the democratically elected Panchayat and should be executed through its assistance.

9. Principle of cultural difference: Indian society consists of a wide variety of culture. Culture is a learnt behavior which is transmitted from generation to generation. Recognition of cultural traits of the people, with whom work is to be carried out is a prerequisite for extension workers. Although the communities do differ culturally, yet a strategy has to be developed by the extension worker to work with them. He should appreciate the cultural differences and try to mould his approaches of working with the people accordingly.

10. Principle of learning by doing: Confidence about the efficacy of new methods can be developed in the people, if they are encouraged to do the things themselves. Learning has been found effective by actually doing the thing by self involvement. It is also most effective in changing people's behavior on a lasting basis. Direct experiences of new agricultural information, is exciting. It creates a sense of achievement in the doer. Thereby it encourages him to try innovations himself.

11. Principle of leadership: Involvement of local leaders is a crucial factor in making the developmental programme success. Local leaders represent the feelings and opinion of the people and act as motivator for adoption of innovations, therefore, the extension worker while working as friend, philosopher and guide, should encourage and nurture the local leadership for achieving the developmental goals. There is no community where local leaders are not available. It is a question of identifying them and creating an environment which will permit and encourage their development and performance. They may be identified, trained and developed to serve as a interpreter to the new ideas in the communities.

12. Principle of Satisfaction: In the democratic society, voluntarism is the basic for the participation of the people in the progress. The participation is based on their continued experience of success. They derive satisfaction from the achievements and thus get motivated to move further with the programme. Satisfaction is the key to the success of the work. The work which is accomplished by them should be satisfying so that they continue to act out of their own conviction.

13. Principle of Evaluation: Evaluation helps in finding out the strengths and weaknesses of the developmental programme. Evaluation at regular intervals of time forms an indispensable part. It helps to modify the further action so as to accelerate the pace of achievement in desired direction. It also helps to build faith and confidence of the participants in the programme. Therefore, there is a need to develop a scientific tool and technique for the constant evaluation of ongoing programme-internally as well as externally.

3.4 EXTENSION EDUCATION

Extension education is education for rural people outside the regularly organized schools and classrooms for bringing out social and cultural development. Extension means to extend, to spread or to disseminate useful information and ideas to rural people. It tries to develop the social behavior of the people, their different social groups and the intra- and inter relationship of these social groups. It also tries to bring out cultural development. The term culture means the socially standardized ways of feeling, thinking and acting which an individual acquires as a member of the society. The behavior of the individual is influenced, controlled and directed by culture. The culture may be material or non material. With changes in time and environment the patterns of culture undergo change. Sometimes one aspect of culture undergoes rapid change leaving other aspects behind and thereby creating a cultural lag. A cultural lag occurs when technological and material changes take place more rapidly than non material changes in social values, attitudes and social organizations. Extension education helps in bridging the gap created by the cultural lag by advising means

of adjustment in the new environment. By this process the development of culture takes place.

Extension education uses information obtained and assembled from research studies all over the world, from experience wherever, it can be found and utilized and from the results of demonstrations performed for the purpose of extending knowledge. Rural people have different interests and needs and hence extension education has to be broad and varied in its meaning to meet the interest of the people it serves. It is an educational programme for the people, based on their needs and problems. It is designed to meet these needs and solve problems on the basis of self help. Thus, extension education is a teaching and learning process. It tries to bring out three types of changes in human behavior

- a) Changes in knowledge or things known'
- b) Changes in skills or things done
- c) Changes in attitudes or things felt

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

New inventions are giving rise to new technology. Farming is no exception to this phenomenon. The farmers need to be supplied with recent, useful and practical information related to agriculture. Agricultural development will be closely related with the development of the ability of the farmer's understanding and adoption of this technology. The researchers neither have time nor are they equipped for the job of persuading the villagers to adopt scientific methods, and to ascertain from them the rural problems. Similar it is difficult for all the farmers to visit the research station s and obtain firsthand information. Thus there is a need of an agency to interpret the findings of the research to the farmers and to carry the problems of the farmers to the research stations for solution. This gap is filled by the extension agency.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What are the characteristics of extension work?

ii) Where can the concept of extension be used?

iii) Why is extension education considered a teaching-learning process?

3.5 EXTENSION SERVICE

Earlier we have discussed Extension Education as a discipline and now its service dimension will be treated in a systematic manner. The tools and techniques which are constantly developed and revised by the discipline are supposed to be passed on to the service sector, so that same could be utilized for educating the masses effectively. Since extension education followed the extension service, therefore the two have a relationship. Many a times this symbiotic relationship has lead to confusion, as if both the concepts are same, which is however, not true. This becomes explicitly clear from the origin of Extension Service.

Origin of Extension Service: According to FAO (1954) Extension work originated in various countries, in several different ways, depending on the local conditions.

1. Farmers themselves formed local associations for the purpose of improving their agricultural methods and hiring advisors to assist in bringing them the latest scientific knowledge (Example: Denmark and Finland)
2. Extension work developed as an extension of the teaching of agricultural schools, colleges and universities (Example: Scotland and Switzerland)
3. Governments established agricultural extension services through their ministries of agriculture or local government authorities (Example: India)
4. Research workers conducted extension activities among farmers in an effort to put the results of scientific agricultural research into practice. A great many research workers and research institutions still conduct this type of extension activity both with and without the help of regular extension workers (Example: Many Developed and Developing Countries).

Extension service is a continuous process designed to make the rural people aware of their problems and indicating to them the ways and means by which they can solve them. It involves not only education of rural in determining their problems and methods of solving but also inspiring them towards positive actions in achieving them (Krishnamachary, V.T., 1962).

Thus, extension service can be defined as a ‘non-formal education system based on peoples need for transforming their quality of life by establishing a linkage between clients, knowledge generating system and services’.

Extension service is the mission and mandate of the development department in all the States. Extension service is a program for development employing the extension process as a means for implementation. Extension service is location specific, input- intensive, service oriented and field-level professional activity with two objectives-

- (i) Transferring new technologies or innovations, and advising the people on improving methods; and

(ii) Communicating development constraints to research institutes / development organization / policy makers, as feedback for participatory technology development.

Thus, extension service serves as a link between researchers, development workers, and people. Extension service also works together with other development departments, and input agencies to multiply their efforts and effects.

Philosophy of Extension Service:

The Extension service seeks to work and develop the inner potentialities of the individuals, groups and communities, so that they start realizing their inner strength and gradually become self-reliant. It also aims at building the various faculties of mind of the individual so that they do not hesitate in undertaking hard work and thus start moving from step to step on the ladders of development. The philosophy of extension service has been discussed as under:

1. Change through education: In a democratic society like ours the decision to adopt practices lies with users. We cannot force them to change overnight. Hence, the change agents have only one left over weapon, that is, educating people for change. Such an education is a slow process. Gradually, its roots are established; subsequent changes become easy and quick. This implies that the extension system will explain the what and why of the idea.

2. Faith in individual freedom: In our welfare state, the citizens are supreme. The tendency to treat them as inferior is thus undesirable. The extension agency must have faith in the people that if presented with complete and right information at right time, they are capable of making right decisions. This necessarily means respect of human beings.

3. Peoples participation: No educational and democratic programme can succeed if the people for whom it is meant don't participate in its development and executions. The trusted programme seldom succeeds as it lacks people's sanctions. We have plenty of

examples of such failures, scattered throughout the country. The houses made for tribal's by state with modern layouts were not occupied whereas tribal felt comfortable in their poor dwelling. The reason being, they were not taken in confidence while planning and executing.

4. Democratic behaviour: Participation in the programme can not be forced by law and revenue relating activity. Participation in extension programme is voluntary. It should attract people and convince them about its utility. Leaving the choice either to practice or not.

5. Cultural respect: Our country being vast, it has multiplicity of cultures. The cultural variations arise due to faith, climate and language variability's. There cannot be set prescriptions for all the community throughout the country at a given time. The tradition, custom, belief etc. need appreciation. As they form the hard core of culture they may not be touched in the beginning however as the programme unfold, the time may come, when people realize the irrelevance of some of the cultural trait.

6. Unending process: The extension efforts are ongoing process. They are just like the waves of the sea as one touches the shore and other follows. Similarly when one need of the people is met, there are many more to be tackled, hence, this process of education for change is a never ending phenomena.

3.6 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN EXTENSION EDUCATION AND EXTENSION SERVICE

The difference between extension education and extension service can easily be understood from the following figure:

Extension Education	Extension Service
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Body of knowledge being accumulated for the growth of the discipline. • Training is being imparted to develop manpower. • Formal education system. • It develops individuals capabilities for introducing behavioural changes in the society. • It is broad based and general. • It generates information. • It is strengthens linkage by providing generated information. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experience gathering for day to day effective work. • Utilization of trained manpower. • Non formal education system. • It transforms the individual and community socio-economically. • It is people oriented, problem based. • It gathers, processes, stores and disseminates information. • It provides linkage between field and lab.

3.7 LET US SUM UP

After going through the chapter we have learnt that Extension Education and Extension Service are two distinct concepts. Even though the two are highly interrelated yet, there are significant differences in their nature and objectives. Extension education is education for rural people outside the regularly organized schools and classrooms for bringing out social and cultural development. It uses information obtained and assembled from research studies all over the world, from experience wherever, it can be found and utilized and from the results of demonstrations performed for the purpose of extending knowledge. On the other hand, extension service is a non-formal education system based on peoples need for transforming their quality of life by establishing a linkage between clients, knowledge generating system and services. It seeks to work and develop the inner potentialities of the individuals, groups and communities, so that they start realizing their inner strength and gradually become self reliant.

3.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Following are the major characteristics of extension work:

- a) It is a non-formal education system
- b) It aims at transforming socio-economically the individuals and the community
- c) It provides linkage between extensionists, scientist and clients
- d) It gathers, processes, stores and disseminates innovations
- e) It is people oriented, knowledge based and problem focused.

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

3. Extension education uses information obtained and assembled from research studies all over the world, from experience wherever, it can be found and utilized and from the results of demonstrations performed for the purpose of extending knowledge. Rural people have different interests and needs and hence extension education has to be broad and varied in its meaning to meet the interest of the people it serves. It is an educational programme for the people, based on their needs and problems. It is designed to meet these needs and solve problems on the basis of self help. Thus, extension education is a teaching and learning process.

3.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q1. What is extension work? Describe its principles in details.

Q2. Write a detailed note on Extension Education.

Q3. What is extension service? Also, discuss its philosophy.

3.10 SUGGESTED READING

1. B.P. Mohapatra (2016). Dimensions of Extension Education. New India Publishing Agency.
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**HOME SCIENCE EXTENSION AS A DISCIPLINE AND ITS
CONTRIBUTION TOWARDS DEVELOPMENT
QUALITIES OF AN EXTENSION WORKER**

STRUCTURE

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Objectives
- 4.3 Home Science Education: An introduction
- 4.4 Branches of Home Science
- 4.5 Role of Home Science Extension in rural development.
- 4.6 Qualities of extension worker
- 4.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.8 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 4.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 4.10 Suggested Reading

4.1 INTRODUCTION

As far you have learned that extension imparts education and knowledge leading to behavioural changes in the desired direction. It is a process of informing people and motivating them to adopt innovations. Chapter 3 clarified the concepts of extension work, education and service and explained how each one of it contributes to development of people. In the current chapter now, we will learn about home science extension and how it can contribute towards nation building and development.

4.2 OBJECTIVES

The main objective of the lesson is to clear that students concept about.

- a. Home Science as discipline.
- b. Contribution of Home Science Extension in development.
- c. Qualities of an extension worker.

4.3 HOME SCIENCE EDUCATION- AN INTRODUCTION

Preparing young girls for their future homemaking responsibilities has been in the past, and is still to some extent the function of the mother and grandmothers in the family. During the last few decades, the concept of homemaking has undergone a considerable change. The homemaking knowledge of the older generation is very limited and has little relevance to the present day needs of homemaking. Besides many modern housewife are physically too far away from her relatives to derive the benefit of their knowledge. Decision making, for example, in a very limited sense was a dimension of the olden day's housewife's role. Life was steady and free of changes so that all that the young bride had to do was to conform to the established traditions of the joint family. Today, the young housewife cannot escape decision making. She is faced with the problem of selecting the 'right' foods, fabrics, equipment, housekeeping methods, child-rearing methods., etc., from the large variety which the modern advances of science, technology and means of communication have rendered available to her. The decision must be hers.

Further, the present drive of formal education for women in schools and universities also necessitates them to spend a larger part of their day outside the home, which means that they have little or no time to spend with their mothers and grandmothers. And yet, homemaking continues to be an important function of every woman.

As such the need for agencies outside the home, which would assist in the task of educating women for homemaking, began to be felt around 1930 in this country. Since then many institutions one by one, began offering courses in different aspects of homemaking. The concept, nature and scope of the subject have, in the last 40 years, undergone a tremendous change. The contents and duration for which the courses are offered still vary from university to university. But today home science is largely conceived of as a field of knowledge and service primarily concerned with strengthening family life through:

- (a) Educating the individual for family living;
- (b) Improving the services and goods used by families;
- (c) Conducting research to discover the changing needs of individuals and families and the means of satisfying these needs; and
- (d) Furthering community, national and world conditions favourable to family living.

Generally the aspects of family life such as the following are of concern to the discipline:

- (a) Family relationships and child development;
- (b) Consumption and other aspects of personal and family living;
- (c) Nutritional needs and the selection, preservation, preparation and use of food;
- (d) Design selection, construction and care of clothing, and its psychological significance;
- (e) Textiles for clothing and for the home;
- (f) Housing for the family and equipment and furnishings for the household;
- (g) Art as integral part of everyday life; and

(h) Management in the use of resources, so that values and goals of the individual, the family or of society may be attained.

Apart from the knowledge drawn from the fundamental arts and sciences, home science also has to have its own research.

(a) To discover the changing needs of individuals and families and the means of satisfying these needs; and

(b) In improving the services and goods used by families

4.4 BRANCHES OF HOME SCIENCE

The aims of Home Science education are many and manifold. Based on this, the structure of “Home Science Education” is built up with wide areas of specialization such as:

i. Human development and family studies.

ii. Foods and nutrition

iii. Family resource management

iv. Clothing's and Textiles

v. Home Science Extension Education

vi. Food Service Management

i. *HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND FAMILY STUDIES:* The area of human development and family studies exposes the students to the various aspects of human growth and development from conception, through infancy, early-childhood years; adolescence, adulthood and the period of old age. It aims at creating awareness regarding the crucial importance of early childhood, school going and adolescent years and the

dynamics of contemporary family life. The major purpose is to understand child care, development, education, guidance, special needs of children and adolescents, develop various indigenous and practically possible skills for organizing children's activities. It also includes the study of women, population education, psychology, sociology, the life span development, counseling and guidance, and community development.

ii. *FOODS AND NUTRITION:* This area of Home Science helps pupils to recognize that nutrition is important for healthy living, and that health is essential for success and happiness. It gives understanding about the types of foods, its functions, requirements, sources, storage, preparation, principles and methods of preserving foods, chemistry and metabolism of nutrients in health and diseases, meal planning about the dangers of the population explosion on the health status of the people; understanding community nutrition problems and ways of imparting nutrition and health education to different target population.

iii. *FAMILY RESOURCE MANAGEMENT:* This is another important area of Home Science Education. It aims at imparting various concepts and principles of management in home managing, acquiring information's regarding the selection of suitable equipment for home, their operation, care and maintenance; learning to make wise financial decisions (expenditure and savings, etc.); facts about housing, work simplification, interior decoration, fuel and energy management with the proper technologies available for better living.

iv. *CLOTHING AND TEXTILES:* This area aims at providing knowledge regarding purchasing family clothing's- its construction, nature and types of fibers; dyeing, printing, and weaving of clothes, etc. It deals with the care and maintenance of varied types of clothing's and its selection according to the climate, occasion, and availability. This branch

of Home Science requires a science background, as it deals with the understanding of the chemistry of textile engineering.

v. **FOOD SERVICE MANAGEMENT:** This is the most-recent branch of Home Science is owing to the need and demand of the present-day society. It provides knowledge regarding different foodstuffs, its requirement by the individuals at different stages and conditions of life; nature and type of servicing two different institutions like schools, colleges, hospitals, hotels, industry and organizations, etc. Along with its knowledge regarding food values, nutrients, preservative function, it also provides training and education regarding the types of diets required during special health conditions.

vi. **HOME SCIENCE EXTENSION EDUCATION:** The role of extension education in Home Science is crucial as it deals and interacts with all other branches of Home Science. The major objectives of it are to extend and translate the knowledge of other branches of Home Science. Such as nutrition, human development & family studies, clothing's and textiles into action for the general well-being of people focuses. Its special focus involves the understanding of the rural economic structure, as India lives and survives in rural villages and improving their general standard of living. It tries to improve the social, economic, education status of the common mass through the use of audio-visual aids, adult education programs, functional literacy program, planning and execution of welfare programs.

The above discussion clarifies Home Science Extension is strongly related to all other four areas of Home Science because this area deals with individual, family and community uplift. Home Science Extension sensitizes the individuals by acting as carriers

of knowledge of all other areas of Home Science for changing the process of development both in rural and urban sectors.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) Define Home Science as a discipline.

ii) What are the various branches of home science?

4.5 ROLE OF HOME SCIENCE EXTENSION IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

While developing an extension programme, the extension worker has two responsibilities. First to guide his/her clients in satisfying their felt needs; and secondly to contribute, through the clients, in achieving the national goals. In the process of programme planning, which itself is an educational process, the extension worker must help his/her clients in developing an awareness of the national problems and objectives. When they set priorities for their day-do-day problems, to be solved with extension's help, they should be helped to see the importance of selecting those with the dual advantage of realising both their personal goals as well as the national goals. Some of the present day problems of our country, the strategy of solving which falls, at least in part, within the scope of home science extension, which include the following.

(a) Food and water shortage;

- (b) Poor health and nutrition;
- (c) Over population;
- (d) Environmental pollution;
- (e) Poverty;
- (f) Lack of understanding and/or practice of democracy and
- (g) Low work-efficiency on the part of all elements of our population, etc.

Home science extension has a definite role to play in assisting the rural home-makers to contribute their small bit in solving many of these problem, as they perform their routine functions.

Home science extension work can result in the raised standard of living for the rural families, and a more satisfying and dignified life for them. The raised aspirations of the rural family as a result of home science extension work, will in turn help to create the necessary motivation among its members for the efforts to increase farm production. Increased farm production is a means for raising both the level and standard of living. Home science extension and agricultural extension are thus complementary to, and dependent upon, each other.

4.6 QUALITIES OF AN EXTENSION WORKER

Extension Education is one educational process to provide knowledge to several people about improved practices in a convincing manner and help them to take decisions within their local conditions. The Extension worker plays an important and necessary role in the extension field. The extension worker is bound to touch upon all aspects of rural life and hence he should have comprehensive understanding of the village people and their problems. He should participate in sorrows and joys of the villagers and must develop close contact with the village people. He is to win the willing and enthusiastic cooperation of the people and the work is to start with the local felt needs.

The whole extension process is dependent upon the extension worker, who is the critical element in all extension activities. If the extension worker is not able to respond to a given situation and function effectively, it does not matter how imaginative the extension approach is or how impressive the supply of inputs and resources for extension work. Indeed, the effectiveness of the extension worker can often determine the success or failure of an extension programme. The worker has to work with people in a variety of different ways. It is often an intimate relationship and one which demands much tact and resourcefulness. The worker inevitably works with people whose circumstances are different from his own. He is an educated, trained professional working with farmers, many of who have little formal education and lead a way of life which may be quite different from his.

Through extension work, the worker basically intervenes in the life of the farmers in a particular area. The extension worker is a change agent, he intervenes to bring about change in order to help improve the lives of the farmers and their families.

The extension worker should have knowledge and personal skills. The four main areas of knowledge are important for the extension worker and form the basis of extension training:

Technical: The worker must be adequately trained in the technical aspects of his work and have a good working knowledge of the main elements of the agricultural system in which he is working.

Rural Life: This includes anthropological and sociological studies of the rural area where he is working, local traditions, practices, culture and values.

Policy: The worker would be familiar with the main legislation of government or other institutional policies which affect the rural areas, development programmes, credit programmes, and bureaucratic and administrative procedures.

Adult Education: Since extension is an educational process, the worker must be familiar with the main approaches to adult education and group dynamics and with the techniques of developing farmer participation in extension activities.

Personal Skills: The extension worker should possess the following skills:

i) Organization and Planning: The extension worker must be able to plan extension work, to organize its implementation and generally to manage and effectively control and extension office and its activities.

ii) Communication: The worker must above all be a communicator, both verbally and non-verbally, and this skill is the basis of all extension activity,

iii) Analysis and Diagnosis: The extension agent must be able to examine situations which confront him, recognize and understand the problems that exist and propose course of action.

iv) Leadership: The extension worker should inspire confidence and trust in the farmers he serves, set them an example and take the lead in initiating activities.

v) Initiative: The extension worker may often have to work in isolation and unsupervised. He must have initiative and confidence to do so without depending upon guidance and support from his superiors.

Other qualities that the extension worker should possess include his commitment to extension work and dedication, humility, confidence in his own abilities, good communication skills, ability to speak in public, honesty and reliability.

4.7 LET US SUM UP

Through the lesson we have learned that Home Science Education is the well-structured education of home living. Through its core courses such as clothing and textile, foods and nutrition, human-resource development, human development and

Extension education, it helps to bring economic independence in individual to raise the standard of living. Science of Home is concerned with maintenance and enrichment of human relationship within and outside the family, through the development and judicious use of all human and material resources to achieve maximal satisfaction for all members of a family. Home Science extension aims at dissemination of scientific knowledge and technology among the rural masses, in order to improve their quality of life. Also, it was explained that the extension worker needs to have multiple qualities in order to be an effective and efficient agent of change.

4.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Home Science can be interpreted as Systematic Education for home living. Home Science deals with all aspects of the life of the community and the nation. It integrates the application of knowledge synthesised from different sciences and humanities to improve the human environment, family nutrition, management of resources, child development, community resource management and consumer competence.

2. The main branches of home science are:

- i. Human development and family studies.
- ii. Foods and nutrition
- iii. Family resource management
- iv. Clothing's and Textiles
- v. Home Science Extension Education
- vi. Food Service Management

4.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

- Q1. What is the role of Home Science Extension Education in Rural Development?
- Q2. Describe the qualities required to be possessed by an extension worker.

4.10 SUGGESTED READING

1. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
2. S. Shekhar and S. Ahlawat (2013). Textbook of Home Science Extension Education. Daya Publishing House: New Delhi.
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5. V.K. Dubey and Indira Bishnoi (2008). Extension Education and Communication. New Age International Ltd., Publishers: New Delhi.

EXTENSION PROGRAMME - CONCEPT AND SCOPE

STRUCTURE

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Objectives
- 5.3 Extension Programme: An Introduction
- 5.4 Extension Programme: Concept & Scope
- 5.5 Importance of extension programme
- 5.6 Characteristics of extension programme
- 5.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 5.8 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 5.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 5.10 Suggested Reading

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous Unit you were introduced to the concept of extension. You were provided information related to the nature, objectives, scope and principles governing extension. It was emphasized that extension education and extension service are two related but different concepts. You were also explained the concept of home science extension and how it can contribute to national development. Now, in this Unit II, you will get to know about Extension programme planning. This current chapter specially deals with extension programme and its related aspects.

5.2 OBJECTIVES

This lesson will help students to understand the concept and scope of extension programme. They will especially learn about the importance and characteristics of an extension programme.

5.3 EXTENSION PROGRAMME: AN INTRODUCTION

An extension programme is a carefully prepared statement written in a form that clearly sets forth the significant changes that are needed in the behaviour of the people and in the conditions in which they live, to be attained over a period of time. The purpose of extension programme is to aid people in solving their problems. The ultimate objective of extension teaching is to promote the physical, mental, spiritual and social growth of the individual farmer, his wife and children. This can be done by helping them in analysing their own problems, in finding solutions to them, and in bringing about active participation in formulating and carrying out the plans necessary to put these solutions into effect. One should not act on the assumption that any group of persons will act on the plan about which they have not been consulted. In order to obtain their participation, it is necessary that they should be involved in the preparation of the plan.

Programme planning is a continuous series of activities or operations leading to the development of a definite plan of action to accomplish particular objectives. It is the process by which people work together to determine goals. In this process they agree and feel that the goals and experiences may help them in reaching their objectives.

The first four steps are included under programme planning while the remaining four steps are grouped under programme action. As stated earlier the programme planning process is a continuous one and it is better if it starts from the first step and moves to the last step. Each step has its own importance and if any one step is missed the programme may not be realistic, and naturally there will not be the expected change or development

due to that programme. It is, therefore, necessary that steps of the programme planning process should not be overlooked or missed while preparing and implementing the programme.

Facts are the foundation stones upon which the community leaders and the problem committee build and carry out their programmes. It is the responsibility of the change agent to assemble and interpret factual information for the use of the community leaders. The local situation is the bench mark from where people should start the process of programme planning. People are more concerned with facts that grow out of or are related to their own experiences. For instance, people are generally more interested in facts secured from a result demonstration held in their own village than in information from a demonstration or experiment station located many miles away.

The emphasis on placing a high value on the local situation does not minimise the importance of using facts secured from sources outside the community in which the work is being carried out. These facts are important, effective and assist in determining a sound programme. The facts obtained from outside the local situation arouse interest and are valuable in deciding recommendations growing out of local experiences.

For instance, a statement that wheat yields under irrigated conditions on the farm of a progressive farmer gave 15 quintals of wheat per acre is the presentation of an important fact about a local situation. If this statement is followed by the report of 75 national demonstration results stating an average of 12 quintals of wheat per acre, then the local fact just presented is more nearly clinched. If the agricultural university experiment station data shows the same results, it is very likely that the village planning committee will consider this fact seriously while planning the wheat programme. The assembling of the facts pertaining to local situations is a continuous activity. It is important that facts about local situations be

regularly recorded in the project file by the change agent. It will be convenient to maintain the record of facts each day in a daily diary. Afterwards this information may be transferred to the permanent project file for later reference.

Facts may be secured from revenue records, panchayat samiti records, local newspapers or magazines, by personal visits, records of demonstrations, surveys, reports from key leaders, conferences and meetings and other sources.

After assembling the facts pertaining to local situations it is important to analyse these facts in such a way that they will be useful to individuals or committees. This analysis or interpretation means a translation of these facts into familiar language or terms. It also means -an explanation of the meaning of facts as they apply to the local farm or community. Interpretation of facts involves careful reasoning backed up by experience and judgment. The change agents sometimes with the help of specialists or technicians and a committee of experienced farmers, are in the best position to interpret information in terms of local adaptation.

Facts about local situations after analysis are helpful in identifying the problems. When facts are properly interpreted they help the change agents and leaders in showing the situation as it is. The facts arouse the interest of the people. They identify the problems and needs and indicate solutions to problems. They also point out weaknesses, indicate shortages and direct attention to undesirable trends. In order to have adequate facts about a local situation it is generally necessary and often advisable to secure information that falls within three categories, namely:

- i) Trends.
- ii) The present local situation.
- iii) Recommendations.

These three types of information can be illustrated by relating them to the facts that should be assembled about a particular local situation. Wheat cultivation is used as an example in the following lines: i) Trend information on local wheat cultivation.

- a) Changes in the wheat area for the past 10 years.
- b) Changes in wheat yields per acre for the past 10 years.
- c) Changes in wheat fertilizer/irrigation/cultivation for the past 10 years.
- d) Changes in wheat varieties.
- e) Changes in marketing systems.
- f) Changes in the quality of wheat produced.
- g) Other changes.
- ii) Information on present wheat cultivation.
 - a) Area under wheat in the locality.
 - b) Wheat production per acre.
 - c) Level of fertilizer use per acre for wheat.
 - d) Method of irrigation adopted.
 - e) Systems of marketing wheat.
 - f) Others which may help to identify problems and obstacles to wheat cultivation.
- iii) Recommendations.

The change agent after consulting the specialists and the experienced farmers should arrive at certain recommendations for increasing the wheat yields. These recommendations may be in terms of a package of practices for wheat cultivation of that area as a short-term

measure. It may also be a long-term recommendation like developing the irrigation potential of the area.

Objectives are expressions of the ends towards which efforts are directed. The objective has a definite meaning. One has to know that a great deal of thought and planning has to be put into efforts to reach the objective. The success or failure of a particular movement is judged in terms of whether or not the objective is reached. The success in reaching one objective affects the other task and has an accumulated effect on the out-come of the project. For instance, if an individual farmer decides his objective as raising 10 quintals of wheat per acre and if he does not succeed then it has an effect on the total wheat production of the area and finally on the national income. If large numbers of farmers do not reach the desired objective of raising the wheat then it has an accumulated effect on the wheat yield of the area. In other words, objective is that which a person, group or agency sets before itself as an object or condition to be attained.

There is a slight distinction between objectives and goals. Objectives are the directions of movement, while a goal is the distance in any given direction one expects to go during a given period of time. Objective, aim and purpose are used synonymously by educators, but generally only one word, i.e., 'objective' is used for these terms. Objectives can be grouped into three levels depending on their specificity.

1) Fundamental objectives are the all-inclusive objectives set for society. These objectives are found in the constitution of the country. The fundamental rights of citizens, good life, better citizenship, democracy and the development of the individual are a few examples of these objectives.

2) General objectives are more definite than fundamental objectives. They are generally found in the statements of policies and purposes of the organisation. Providing better recreational and housing facilities to the rural people is an example of this objective.

3) Working objectives are the specific items which are to be achieved. These may be stated from the change agent's stand-point and from the standpoint of the people. It is important to harmonize what rural people feel, what they need and what professional extension workers think they ought to have. In an ideal situation there would be perfect agreement between these two. For example, to increase the wheat yield per acre by using improved varieties, following the *sara* method of irrigation, etc.

While stating the objectives it is necessary to test them for their usefulness in meeting the standards of educational attainment and for achieving the desired targets.

- a) The objectives should be clearly stated. They should identify the people concerned or to be concerned, the changes that people desire to make and the content of subject matter of areas involved.
- b) The objectives should be achievable considering the people concerned and the available resources.
- c) The objectives should be developmental and lead to an expansion of interest and satisfactions.
- d) The objectives should be such that they can be evaluated and evidences of accomplishments can be identified.

5.4 EXTENSION PROGRAMME: CONCEPT & SCOPE

Thus, extension work is characteristically a cooperative venture. It is very essential in such a public movement that the statements of its purpose are clearly understood both by the extension workers and the people. Ten reasons are given by Kelsey and Hearne in their book *Cooperative Extension Work* in support of having a programme.

- (1) To ensure careful consideration of what is to be done, why and how.

- (2) To have available in written form a statement for general public use.
- (3) To furnish a guide against which to judge all new proposals.
- (4) To establish objectives towards which progress can be measured or evaluated.
- (5) To have a means of choosing.
 - (a) The important from the incidental problems;
 - (b) The permanent from the temporary changes.
- (6) To prevent mistaking the means for the end, and to develop both felt and unfelt needs.
- (7) To give continuity during changes of personnel.
- (8) To avoid wastage of time and money and promote general efficiency.
- (9) To help in the development of leadership.
- (10) To help justify appropriations by public bodies.

It is necessary that the extension workers who work with the rural people should bear in mind always the following principles:

- (1) It must be based on felt needs and interest of the people.
- (2) It should be based on a careful analysis of the situation.
- (3) It must be developed through joint participation of village leaders, Block staff, and taking into account recommendations from the district, state and central Government personnel.
- (4) It must be in line with local as well as state and national needs.
- (5) It must be flexible but with a “back-bone” that give it stability and continuity.
- (6) It must provide for a system of priorities in line with local needs, interest and resources.
- (7) The programme should start where people are and what they have.

- (8) It must have objectives that are attainable within the economic, social and mental capacities of the people through, education with a minimum of Government aid.
- (9) It must be highly significant economically, socially, aesthetically or morally to a relatively large number of people in each village or block.
- (10) The objectives and solutions must offer satisfaction to the participants.
- (11) The programme should have a plan of action.
- (12) It must be developed, understood, conducted and judged as an educational instrument for helping people learn how to help themselves.
- (13) The programme should be balanced and comprehensive in nature.
- (14) Evaluation of results should guide future programme plans.

The process of extension programme planning can be broken down into the following consecutive steps.

- (1) Collection, analysis and evaluation of data Assessing the Situation.
- (2) Determination of objectives based on the needs of the Community.
- (3) Definition of problems.
- (4) Finding solutions to problems.
- (5) Selecting problems to be attacked with due consideration to priorities.
- (6) Draw a plan of action.
- (7) Carrying out the plan.
- (8) Continuous checking and evaluation of results.
- (9) Reconsideration.

Thus, extension programme planning is a continuous process. Good planning depends on the availability of adequate and reliable data and a scientific elaboration and interpretation of the same. Extension worker must have adequate knowledge of what

farmers produce, how and under what conditions they produce it, how production can be stepped up to the maximum knowledge of the cropping patterns, procedures of farm management and the factors of production.

Therefore, it is of great importance that all extension workers must possess basic farm and family information for preparing a sound family village, and Block Plan. But, in general information on the following items should be collected:

A. Basic information about the village.

- (1) Population.
- (2) Total number of families.
- (3) Number of farm families.
- (4) Other main occupations of the villagers.
- (5) Facilities of communication.
- (6) Facilities of schooling.
- (7) Facilities of medical aid.
- (8) Facilities of drinking water, etc.
- (9) Attitudes and beliefs of the rural population.

B. *Information about farm management and production Programme.*

- (1) Total area under cultivation in the village.
- (2) Size of an average agricultural holding.
- (3) Types and quality of crops grown and types and quality of livestock keeping.
- (4) Soil types and problems connected with soil fertility, Soil erosion, drainage, soil management, etc.
- (5) Cattle feeds.

- (6) Utilization of grass land.
- (7) Disease and pest control.
- (8) Agricultural machinery including traditional and improved.
- (9) Irrigation resources.
- (10) Financial position of the farmers.
- (11) Credit facilities.
- (12) position of labour
- (13) Collect information about present practices of main farm enterprises by interviewing few average farmers.
- (14) Collect research recommendation on main farm enterprises by consulting specialists.

The data can be collected by the V. L. W. and other workers from the villagers themselves, from the local institutions, and from the records of the revenue assistant.

Objectives will become the direction of movement towards the attainment of a desirable situation. The basics objectives of the programme should be determined by the villagers in consultation with the extension staff. This means that the villagers must have a very clear understanding of the projects so that they are able to set up appropriate objectives for village programme. Objectives of the programme can be decided upon by the head or active member of the participating family in family plans. The village panchayat can also determine the objectives of activities to be undertaken on a community or village basis. However, advice of the extension worker must be taken by the villagers in order to make a clear understanding about the objectives of the programmes.

If the determined objective of a programme is not specific and clear in understanding, it can not be evaluated very easily. The more definite an objective the more

useful it becomes. Make a point of analysing the words used. For example, what does increased yield mean? Does it mean tons per acre or kilograms per tree? How much increase is expected? Is the increase a matter of one season or an average over a period? Consider the following objective. To influence the farmers of Anand Taluka for adopting the cultivation of hybrid bajri 115. Let's define what we mean. "Influence" refers to all the pressures which tend to encourage the practice, Some of these may be entirely outside the work of the extension service. But -cooperative it is intended that all the method bearing on hybrid bajri-115 will be included. "Adopt" means "to understand and use the Hybrid bajri 115 in the farm plan." "Hybrid bajri-115" means the farmers cannot use their seed which are produced by them last year. They have to purchase a new seed of Hybrid bajri-115 for getting hundred per cent more yield out of its cultivation. "Farmers" means the farmers growing bajri in Anand taluka. This is called defining the objective. Generalities may serve to create interest, but only specific statements challenge the thought and facilitate the action.

Criteria for judging objectives

Several tests may be used to judge the usefulness of objectives.

- (1) Are they dynamic? Are they likely to promote action?
- (2) Are they socially desirable? Will they lead towards the general aims of extension?
- (3) Are they achievable by the level of maturity of the group and permitted by available resources?
- (4) Are they developmental? Will they lead to constantly higher levels of achievement?
- (5) Can they be defined in terms of behaviour or changes in people?

(6) Can they be evaluated? Are they measurable? Can evidence of actual progress of individuals be secured?

(7) Are they specific?

Levels of objectives

Three levels of educational objectives may be recognized:

(1) Fundamental objectives: Example: the good life; better citizenship: democracy; the development of the individual.

(2) The general but more definite social objective: Example: helping rural people to have better home living.

(3) Working objectives in programme: These may be stated in two ways. One way is from the extension workers stand-point; for example, influencing cotton growing farmers to adopt hybrid cotton-4. Another way is from the stand-point of the people; for example, to adjust a plow, to get electricity on the farm, to increase milk production etc.

Objectives can also be classified on the basis of period of achievement. They are three types of objectives.

(1) Long term objectives: The objectives which will be achieved after more than 10 years are called as long term objectives. For example, the good life and better citizenship.

(2) Medium term objectives: The objectives which will be achieved within the period of 3-5 years are known as medium term objectives. For example, to create minor irrigation facilities.

(3) Short term objectives: The objectives which will be achieved within one year or one season are termed as short term objectives. For example, to step-up yield per acre.

The village activities should be classified properly to give an opportunity to the planners and participants to assess their potentialities and capacities for executing the programme.

(a) Problems which can be solved by the villager with their own resources: For example, improving yields by adopting improved methods of agricultural production.

(b) Problems that need community cooperation without involving much outside assistance. For example, the construction of a village approach road by voluntary effort.

(c) Problems that require assistance from outside sources on account of high costs involved and the technical knowledge needed such as the construction of a school building and purchase of plant protection equipment etc.

In this way, internal and external resources can be utilized economically and quicker results obtained. It is also desirable to break-up the complex problems step by step into simple problems.

The gramsevak working at the village level and the Extension Officer working as a specialist at the Block level are two important functionaries who advise the village families and village institutions on their problems. They must have a clear understanding of the village problems and keep themselves equipped for offering solutions to the problems which villagers have presented to them. They must consult their superior specialists on problems which could not be solved by them.

As time changes, the economic and social levels of villagers also change. Therefore, it is necessary for the extension workers and village institutions to select problems and concentrate their efforts on those projects in a phased way. Sporadic efforts sometimes do not end in lasting and convincing impressions on the minds of rural people. Therefore programme committee set up at village: or Block level must review the situation periodically for determining how much progress has been made on projects underway and which projects are complete and projects may be initiated. This would provide opportunities for selecting problems for programming planning in a more methodical and democratic manner.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What is programme planning?

ii) Enlist some of the principles the extension worker should follow while developing a plan of work.

5.5 IMPORTANCE OF EXTENSION PROGRAMME

The extension programme are useful for the following reasons.

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

5.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF GOODS PROGRAMME

A good programme should be suitable for use by the staff, planning groups, and other, individuals or groups concerned with the programme.

- 1) The written programme should be suitable for use by the staff, planning, groups, and other individuals or groups concerned with the programme.
- 2) It should state the primary facts, and clearly reveal the situation on major subjects or problem areas.
- 3) It should clearly state the important problems or needs identified by the staff and the people in the programming process.
- 4) It should state both long-term and short-term objectives for each major subject or programme that is to be focussed on in programme execution over a period of time.
- 5) It should state the objectives of the programme clearly and meaningfully.
- 6) It should specify the subject matter related to each objective that is highly significant to people, socially and economically.
- 7) It should include the summary of the long-term programme prepared in a form suitable for public distribution.
- 8) It should be made available in a summary form to all members of the planning groups and the professional staff.
- 9) It should be circulated by appropriate means so that the general public can understand its nature and objectives.
- 10) It should be used as a basis for developing an annual plan for work.

5.7 LET US SUM UP

An extension programme is a carefully prepared statement written in a form that clearly sets forth the significant changes that are needed in the behaviour of the people and in the conditions in which they live. The purpose of extension programme is to aid people in solving their problems. The extension work is characteristically a cooperative venture. While making a programme the following questions give key orientation and justification. What needs do people have? How can needs be identified? What plans of priority should be set up for meeting people's needs? What resources are necessary to meet people's needs? How should resources be organized and directed to help people meet their needs? "If we could know where we are now, and where we ought to go, we could better judge what to do, and how to do it". This statement by Abraham Lincoln lies at the heart of the nature and role of planning for rural development. The term programme indicates, focus, priority and design. Effective programmes for rural development do not just happen; they have to be built. Planning does not happen automatically; it has to be made to happen.

A good programme should state the primary facts that clearly reveal the situation on major subjects, and should state the needs identified by the staff and the people in the programming process. It should specify the subject matter related to each objective that is highly significant to people, socially and economically.

5.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Programme planning is a continuous series of activities or operations leading to the development of a definite plan of action to accomplish particular objectives. It is the process by which people work together to determine goals. In this process they agree and feel that the goals and experiences may help them in reaching their objectives.

2. The programme plan should consider the following principles: It must be based on felt needs and interest of the people; it should be based on a careful analysis of the situation; it should be flexible; it must be developed in joint participation of all the stake holders; it must have objectives that are attainable within the economic, social and mental capacities of the people; the programme should be balanced and comprehensive in nature; and should have a component of evaluation.

5.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q1. Explain Extension programme. Write a note on importance and characteristics of Extension programme.

Q2. Write in detail about functioning of extension programme.

5.10 SUGGESTED READING

1. A.S. Sandhu (2003). Extension Programme Planning. Oxford & IBH.
2. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
3. S. Venkataiah (2001). New Dimensions of Extension Education. Anmol Publications Pvt Ltd: New Delhi.
4. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.

PLANNING: NATURE OF PLANNING

STRUCTURE

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Objectives
- 6.3 Planning: An Introduction.
- 6.4 Planning: Definition and analysis of the concept
- 6.5 Need for planning.
- 6.6 Major decisions in developing a plan.
- 6.7 Role of education in planning.
- 6.8 Involvement of people in programme planning.
- 6.9 Participation of organisations in programme planning.
- 6.10 Let Us Sum Up
- 6.11 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 6.12 Lesson End Exercise
- 6.13 Suggested Reading

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter we started off by understanding the concept and scope of extension programme. Programme planning is a continuous series of activities or operations leading to the development of a definite plan of action to accomplish particular objectives. An extension programme consists of a series of carefully prepared statements which highlight

the significant changes required to be brought about in the behavior of the people. A number of steps are involved in developing an extension programme. You have also learned about the importance and characteristics of a good extension programme. Now in this lesson 6 you will learn about the concept of and need of planning. It will also be explained how people are involved in programme planning.

6.2 OBJECTIVES

Main objective of this lesson is to clarify the concepts related to the basics of planning in extension programme.

6.3 PLANNING: AN INTRODUCTION

Plan of work is a definite outline of procedure for solving the different problems of the extension programme. Such a plan identifies specifically the different jobs that need to be done, the means to be used, the methods of using them and when each specific phase or part of the plan is to be executed in order to achieve the objectives. The plan of work should be a written statement of detailed action. It should guide teaching in different phases of the programme. It is a blueprint for the extension workers and the people to follow in moving forward on their programme.

6.4 PLANNING: DEFINITION AND ANALYSIS OF THE CONCEPT

Kelsey and Hearne have defined the plan of work as “an outline procedure so arranged, as to enable efficient execution of the entire programme. It is the answer to what, where, when and how the job is to be done,”

A.H. Maunder terms it as, “a listing of activities by which the objectives already decided upon shall be achieved,”

Lynn L. Pesson refers to it as, “an annual document that outlines the activities to be conducted with people in order to accomplish the objectives of the programme. It describes the efforts that they will expand with people. When properly designed it should be based primarily on helping people to achieve these objectives.”

A.T. Mosher, says that it is: “a decision as to which teaching activities are to be employed and with what frequency, with respect to each of the objectives of an extension programme within a given period of time.”

To summarise the above definitions, it is clear that a plan of work contains:

- (1) Listing of activities for a season, preferably a year.
- (2) These activities are detailed outlines of predetermined objectives.
- (3) They are immediate goals to be achieved,
- (4) It is an outline of action to be taken namely:

Where it is to be done;

What is to be done;

How it is to be done;

Who is to be reached

How results might, be measured.

Here each change agent develops specific projected to carry out recommendations passed in the programme. Edger J. Boone, rightly emphasized that, “educational jobs listed in the plan must be related to the general objective in the programme as planned.” He further says, “included in the plan of work are planned things as :

The specific jobs than need to be done;

The subject matter that is needed;

The people who are reached;

How each job will be done

Where each job will be done and

Who will do each job”

Thus the plan of work becomes a teaching plan. It is a guide for daily action. It dictates directions in the selection of learning experiences and teaching tools and methods.

6.5 NEED FOR PLANNING

Good programmes are not developed merely by wishing for them, but by working for them. Planning gives meaning and system of action. It prepares the basis for a course of future action. Professor J. Paul Leagans writes “effective rural development results from choice, not from chance; it results from design, not from drift; it results from a plan, not from trial and error.” Hence effective extension work is an intentional effort carefully designed to attain certain specific and pre-determined goals assumed to be important.

The need for planning in India was felt long ago. The struggle for political independence was the struggle for planning. The leaders of India raised a voice against the exploitation of the British rulers and the policy of not allowing any development. In the absence of planning the country became under-developed. It had poverty, ignorance, and disease. Still these are there, of course not to the same extent. Due to their policy, India became an agricultural country. Its industries, transport and communication remained undeveloped. Farm holdings divided. Farmers were not given any extension service or technical advice. The occupation

became uneconomic and risky. But our leaders formulated plans before independence for uplifting a lot of rural people. These plans are as under:

Bombay plan was called as “a plan of economic development of India.” It was prepared by eight business men of Bombay in 1945. Main objective of this plan was to double up the per capita income within the period of 15 years. It was divided into three stages of five years each. The plan embodied essential objectives in the field of balance diet, textile requirements, house construction, medical comforts, promotion of education, etc. Total outlay on it was proposed Rs.10,000 crores.

The people’s plan was prepared by M.N. Roy in 1944. Its guiding principle was production for use as distinct from production for exchange”. The estimated total expenditure was Rs. 15,000 crores. It was divided over: agriculture Rs.2450 crores, industry Rs.5,600 crores, communication Rs.500 crores, and housing Rs.3150 crores.

Visvesvarya’s plan was prepared by M. Visvesvarya and accepted by the All India Manufacturer’s Organisation in 1944. Its primary object was to raise the country’s economic efficiency to a level at which the average citizen would be able to find employment and to earn a livelihood. It was 15 years’ plan costing Rs.10,000 crores.

Gandhian plan was prepared by S.N. Agarwal, based on Gandhian ideas. Its objective was to raise the material as well as the cultural level of the masses to a basic standard of living, within a period of 10 years. Total expenditure was estimated Rs. 3,500 crores.

The National Planning Committee was appointed by the Congress Working Committee of India in 1938. Jawaharlal Nehru was its Chairman, The committee laid at present, evaluation studies undertaken by the P.E.O. are:

- (a) Selective or intensive rather than omnibus or extensive;
- (b) forward looking rather than postmortem; and
- (c) problem oriented and diagnostic.

Committee on plant projects' main function is to investigate and study the working of National Extension Service, utilization of irrigation potential and building projects, etc. Requests are also made by various ministries for research on projects undertaken by them.

6.6 MAJOR DECISIONS IN DEVELOPING A PLAN

The plan of work is usually chalked out for an year, therefore it is called as annual plan of work. The extension staff, lay leaders and appropriate subject matter specialists should be involved in development of the plan of work. The major decisions involved in developing a plan of work are indicated here:

- a) Decide *what* different things or jobs need to be done to accomplish the objectives. This will include such things as attitudes or interests that need to be developed goals or purposes that need to be established and understanding and abilities that need to be developed. These job requirements are required to be planned and executed in such a way that those participating will have motivated educational experience.
- b) Decide how best to do each of the specific jobs that need be done in order to accomplish the objectives. This will involve making decisions on questions like, what type of learning experience needs to be provided and what teaching tools, devices and techniques need to be employed to do each of these jobs, etc.

- c) Decide *who* will be responsible for planning, preparing and executing each of the specific learning experiences and plans or jobs that need to be done. This will involve such decisions as what other group, agencies or organisations will be cooperating. Will a specialist be used and for what specific job?, etc.
- d) Decide *when* each specific phase or part of the plan including meetings to be held, news stories to be written, radio-broadcasts to be made, tours, demonstrations, etc., will be executed or carried to completion. This will involve developing a detailed and complete calendar for the programme to be carried out relative to each of the overall problems of the extension programme. This calendar of work will include the chronological listing of scheduled major events and activities of importance to be undertaken by the extension staff during a given year and is included in the annual plan of work.

Executing the plan means carrying through the previously planned educational jobs and learning situations as set forth in the plan of work and the teaching plans. This assumes that a programme is planned, and a plan of work is developed. This forms the base for programme execution. The programme execution should be coordinated within the extension service and other agencies and organisations as set forth in the plan of work. Secondly, the calendar of activities and events should be followed as planned.

A variety of appropriate techniques, method, and materials should be used as planned. The subject matter should be appropriate to the objective that has achieved and the people involved and used as planned in the teaching plan. Adequate and appropriate training and other assistance as planned should be given to lay leaders in assuming their planned and accepted responsibilities in the execution of the programme. The plan for sharing of programme action responsibilities by the extension staff, other professional people and lay people should be followed. The execution of plan should be carried out as decided and unnecessary changes should not be made. If adjustments are to be made then they

should be made on the basis of revaluation, replanning and decision, and they should be accepted by all concerned.

6.7 ROLE OF EVALUATION IN PLANNING

Evaluation is the process of determining the extent to which objectives have been attained. The programme accomplishments are the changes in people and the changes in their economic and social situations resulting from the programme. Information which reveals the extent to which objectives are reached is needed to evaluate accomplishments. This will help in determining how far an activity has progressed and how much further it should be carried to accomplish objectives. The amount of accomplishment judged to be satisfactory should be determined in the light of the potential for improvement in the area, the complexity of the problem objectives and the resources available.

Evaluation is an essential step in the extension educational process. It is through the process of evaluation that one arrives at judgments or conclusions that will aid in decision making. To clarify this it will be useful to define several terms. A decision is a choice among alternatives. Judgment is an assignment of values to the alternatives. The evaluation from this point of view provides information for decision making. It will help in decisions regarding continuation, redirection, reemphasis of the present programme or decisions as to the need for new programmes. Thus evaluation is an important and integral part of all teaching and programme planning work.

- a) Without appraisal of results there is no sound basis for improving the work.
- b) It helps to identify needs for concentrated effort.
- c) It gives assurance and confidence to the persons concerned.
- d) It has a value in creating public confidence by presenting rational facts.

- e) It will help in judging the value of methods or devices used.
- f) It helps the extension teaching by compelling the extension workers to define the objectives clearly.
- g) It will help in choosing the best tools in the teaching plan.

Thus, evaluation improves the professional attitudes of those who use scientific techniques. In the previous sections it was seen that the programme planning process requires collection of facts, fixing of programme objectives, preparation of plans of work and implementation of these plans through appropriate action for achieving the desired results.

Evaluation can and should take place in relation to each of these stages. At each stage the performance of those involved in the process can be measured against standards which have been fixed for it. One can ask, “How good is the planning organisation? Do the objectives correspond to the needs of the clientele? How adequate is the plan of work? How well are the plans followed? And what has actually been accomplished? The foregoing questions can be more precise. The effectiveness of evaluation in each case will depend on the pertinent questions asked and the nature of the responses.

The questions mentioned here are widely applicable but they will require adaptation to specific standards or conditions which are to be met in each situation. The situation in an Indian village will be different from what it would be in a comparable situation, say, in Indonesia. It is the responsibility of each agency or individual making use of these questions, to select the specific standards that will be appropriate and relevant to the situation involved. Another point to remember is the intent of the question and its appropriateness to local conditions.

After fixing the conditions and standards in relation to each stage, one is confronted with practical questions such as who should carry out the evaluation. When should it be done? What information will be required? And how does one go about collecting this information? The following are a few suggestions in answer to these questions. In most of the cases the agency undertakes its own evaluation. This self evaluation is useful from time to time, to supplement the evaluation made by competent persons or groups outside the agency for overcoming biases and for introducing new ideas. Self evaluation may be done through a committee or some individual assigned to do this job. It can be done by those who are directly responsible for the phase concerned. In such cases provision should be made for coordination to ensure that evaluations are in line with the overall purposes of the agency.

The evaluation of all the stages could be done at one time, that is, at the end of a programme year. In some instances it will be better to evaluate each stage as it develops in the total planning process. One need not wait for the final results of the programme in order to evaluate its objectives. In fact, these early evaluations may lead to adjustments which will contribute appreciably to the effectiveness with which results can be accomplished. Whether evaluation is made out at the end of a programme or is carried out as a continuous process, provision for it ought to be included in the planning and implementation procedures adopted by the agency.

The information required for evaluation can be taken from the various prepared documents such as written plans, records, reports, etc. It will help, if these, are prepared in such a way as to facilitate the collection of the information useful for evaluation. Information can be collected from the people directly concerned with the programme. Information from these extension staff, committee members and local leaders may be obtained verbally or in writing. In some instances, it may be necessary to use broad survey techniques for

collecting the desired information in evaluating the results of a programme. This information may be collected at three points of attainment.

- 1) Bench mark stage: It is the initial stage when the extension programme is to be introduced. This is the point from where the people start change of behaviour.
- 2) Interim stage: This is any stage in the progress of the people towards the objective.
- 3) Final stage: After the completion of the programme, evaluation would be undertaken to measure the attainment of the final objective. One has to find out if few, some or all the people have reached that objective. It helps in deciding the retention of the objective in the plan of work or substituting it with another one and deciding the effectiveness of the teaching methods.

The surveys can be done by personal interviews or by sending out questionnaires to the people concerned. It is more feasible to interview or get questionnaires filled in of a few people who are representative of the group as a whole.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) Define Plan of Work.

ii) Enlist the major decisions involved in developing a plan.

iii) What is the role of evaluation in planning?

6.8 INVOLVEMENT OF PEOPLE IN PROGRAMME PLANNING

All people whose welfare is affected by the programme may be involved in this process. Local people with leadership abilities may be requested to serve on the formal committees responsible for programme planning. Secondly local people subject matter specialists in area such as cotton cultivation, cattle, recreation etc., may also be involved. Thirdly, the people with special production and marketing specialised extension personnel, production and marketing specialists entomologists, representatives of credit agencies and many others who have something to contribute need to be involved in this process.

The purpose of involving people is that the programmes are meant for the people and hence it is better if the plans are prepared by the people who are to be benefited by that programme. It will help the people in fulfilling their responsibilities as citizens in a political democracy by preserving and strengthening values like freedom, progress and success.

Programme planning is an excellent means of developing the leadership qualities of the people. Effective organisation, systematic fact collection, vigorous analysis and skilful decision making are all important parts of successful programme planning. Developing skills in these operations lead to the development of competent leadership.

Engaging in programme planning has proved to be an invaluable educational experience for all those who actively engage in the process. Thus the experiences gained by the people who participate in these planning sessions contribute much to their knowledge of facts and to their skill in making wise choice

The participation of the people in the programme planning process normally gives them a proprietary interest in seeing that an action programme is carried out. If they have taken enough interest to study carefully the various aspects of a given subject matter area, they would probably develop enough interest to see that it leads to action.

6.9 PARTICIPATION OF ORGANISATIONS IN PROGRAMME PLANNING

The programme development process, includes many actions. To accomplish the objectives it is necessary to have some form of organisation of the people of the area. The composition and structure of such organisation is dependent on the objectives. It is necessary to see that in these organisations participation of the people, local leaders, voluntary agencies and institutions is actively sought.

This councilor committee is responsible for programme planning and implementation should be given adequate amount of time to work with the extension staff to ensure success. There should be proper coordination between these voluntary agencies and the extension organisation at the grass-root level. The field of rural development is vast and the need for involvement of the people and their organisations' great. The number of agencies working for rural development are few and therefore, everyone sincerely engaged in the task is welcome. Only the effort has to be coordinated, so that it produces good results. There are 5000 blocks in India. Each block has a block panchayat samiti consisting of peoples representatives linked with local panchayats elected by the people. They are supported in the planning process by the block development officer, subject matter extension officers, village development officers and other local functionaries.

The spread of the voluntary agencies is not even in all these blocks. There are thousands of blocks without any voluntary agency worth the name functioning in the field

of rural development. The agencies which are in existence may cover wider areas, e.g. khadi and village industries. Some of them may take up work in smaller areas comprising a block or two while a few of them may take up a village or only a few villages. The number of voluntary agencies in the last category appears to be largest.

The extension organisation has the availability of technical knowledge, guidance, implements and equipment, and financial resources. Voluntary agencies are characterised by greater commitment to people, greater intensity of work, greater continuity and greater acceptability among the community. When the two work in coordination it is in the interest of the people. This will help in utilizing the capacity of the voluntary agency working in a chosen area with the technical and financial support from, the extension organisation. The voluntary agencies may be encouraged to expand their area of operation and fields of activity if the performance of the voluntary agency is good. In other words the extension organisation's objective so far as the participation of the voluntary agency is concerned should be to help it grow to its fullest potential and for that purpose to place all reasonable resources at its disposal.

For better participation of these agencies a provision will have to be made to nominate chief executives of the voluntary organisations to the block panchayat samiti and for zilla parishad depending upon the size and extent of their operations. This is necessary both to ensure the organisations accountability to the larger community, and to put development in the chosen area and the chosen fields in the perspective of the total development of the block of the district.

6.10 LET US SUM UP

Planning is an outline procedure so arranged, as to enable efficient execution of the entire programme. It is the answer to what, where, when and how the job will be done.

The plan of work should be a written statement of detailed action. Good programme are not developed merely by wishing for them, but by working for them. Planning gives meaning to systems of action. It prepares the basis for a course of future action. The major decisions involved in developing a plan of work are to decide what different things or jobs need to be done to accomplish the objectives. This will include such things as attitude or interests that need to be developed, goals or purpose that need to be established and understanding and abilities that need to be developed. Decide how best do each of the specific jobs that need be done in order to accomplish the objectives. Decide who will be responsible for planning, preparing and executing each of the specific learning experiences and plans or jobs that need to be done.

Evaluation, plays an important role in determining the extent to which objectives have been attained. This will help in determining how far an activity has progressed and how much further it should be carried to accomplish the objectives. It is an important and integral part of programme planning. All people whose welfare is affected by the programme may be involved in this process. Local people with leadership abilities may be requested to serve on the formal committees responsible for programme planning.

To accomplish the objectives it is necessary to have some form of organisation of the people of the area. The composition and structure of such organisation is dependent on the relevant social systems, interests and nature of the geographic areas.

6.11 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Plan of work is a definite outline of procedure for solving the different problems of the extension programme. Such a plan identifies specifically the different jobs that need to be done, the means to be used, the methods of using them and when each specific phase or part of the plan is to be executed in order to achieve the objectives.

2. Planning involves making decisions about the *what* different things or jobs need to be done to accomplish the objectives; *how* best to do each of the specific jobs; *who* will be responsible for planning, preparing and executing each of the specific learning experiences and plans or jobs that need to be done; and *when* each specific phase or part of the plan including meetings to be held, news stories to be written, radio-broadcasts to be made, tours, demonstrations, etc., will be executed or carried to completion.

3. Evaluation is the process of determining the extent to which objectives have been attained. The programme accomplishments are the changes in people and the changes in their economic and social situations resulting from the programme.

6.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q.1. What is the importance and need for planning?

Q.2. Write briefly the role of people and organisations in planning.

6.13 SUGGESTED READING

1. S. Shekhar and S. Ahlawat (2013). Textbook of Home Science Extension Education. Daya Publishing House: New Delhi.

2. S. Venkataiah (2001). New Dimensions of Extension Education. Anmol Publications Pvt Ltd: New Delhi.

3. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.

EXTENTION PLANNING

STRUCTURE

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Objectives
- 7.3 Extension planning: An Introduction
- 7.4 Steps in Extension planning
- 7.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 7.6 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 7.7 Lesson End Exercise
- 7.8 Suggested Reading

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In lesson 6 we learned about the concept and importance of planning. A plan of work is an outline procedure so arranged, as to enable efficient execution of the entire programme. It is the answer to what, where, when and how the job is to be done. Planning gives meaning and system of action and prepares the basis for a course of future action. A variety of appropriate techniques, method and materials should be used in planning. Now in this lesson we will understand about extension planning. We will also learn about the steps involved in extension planning.

7.2 OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this lesson is to clarify the concepts related to extension planning.

7.3 EXTENSION PLANNING: AN INTRODUCTION

Extension education is of voluntary nature. Its purpose is to aid people in solving problems. In doing so the widespread participation of planning and conducting these informal educational efforts is stressed. To accomplish these functions requires deliberate and careful thought if maximum efficiency of operation is to be achieved.

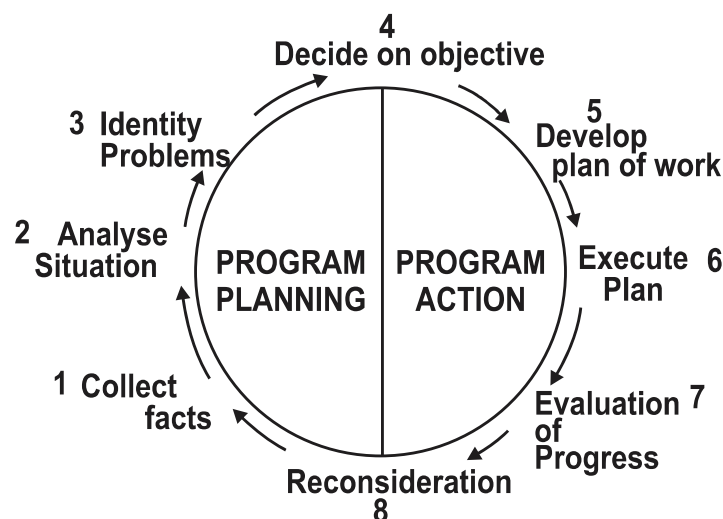
The educational efforts of any organisation should be to teach persons how to think and what to think. It is the function of the educational system to teach people to determine accurately their own needs and the solution of their problems to help them acquire knowledge and to inspire them to action. But it should be clearly understood that the action must be their own and made of their own knowledge and convictions. The physical, mental, spiritual and social growth of the individual farmer, his wife and children. This can be done by helping them in analysing their own problems, in finding solutions to them, and in bringing about active participation in formulating and carrying out the plans necessary to put these solutions into effect. One should not act on the assumption that any group of persons will act on the plan about which they have not been consulted. In order to obtain their participation, it is necessary that they should be involved in the preparation of the plan.

7.4 STEPS IN EXTENSION PLANNING

Programme planning process

Programme planning it is a continuous series of activities or operations leading to the development of a definite plan of action to accomplish particular objectives. It is the process by which people work together to determine goals. In this process they agree and feel that the goals and experiences may help them in reaching their objectives. The process has eight steps.

The first four steps are included under programme planning while the remaining four steps are grouped under programme action. As stated earlier the programme planning process is a continuous one and it is better if it starts from the first step and moves to the last step. Each step has its own importance and if any one step is missed the programme may not be realistic, and naturally there will not be the expected change or development due to that programme. It is, therefore, necessary that steps of the programme planning process should not be overlooked or missed while preparing and implementing the programme.



Extension Planning

i. Collection of facts

Facts are the foundation stones upon which the community leaders and the problem committee build and carry out their programmes. It is the responsibility of the change agent (extension worker) to assemble and interpret factual information for the use of the community leaders.

The local situation is the bench mark from where people should start the process of programme planning. People are more concerned with 'facts' that grow out of or are related to their own experiences. For instance, people are generally more interested in facts secured from a result demonstration held in their own village than in information from a demonstration or experiment station located many miles away.

The emphasis on placing a high value on the local situation does not minimize the importance of using facts secured from sources outside the community in which the work is being carried out. These facts are important, effective and assist in determining a sound programme. The facts obtained from outside the local situation arouse interest and are valuable in deciding recommendations growing out of local experiences. For instance, a statement that wheat yields under irrigated conditions on the farm of a progressive farmer gave 15 quintals of wheat per acre is the presentation of an important fact about a local situation. If this statement is followed by the report of 75 national demonstration results stating an average of 12 quintals of wheat per acre, then the local fact just presented is more nearly clinched. If the agricultural university experiment station data shows the same results, it is very likely that the Village planning committee will consider this fact seriously while planning the wheat programme.

The assembling of the facts pertaining to local situations is a continuous activity. If is important that facts about local situations be regularly recorded in the project file by the

change agent. It will be convenient to maintain the record of fact each day in a diary. Afterwards this information may be transferred to the permanent project file for later refreshment. Facts may be secured from revenue records, panchayat samiti records, local newspapers or magazines, by personal visits, records of demonstrations, surveys, reports from key leaders, conferences and meetings and other sources.

ii. Analysis of the situation

After assembling the facts pertaining to local situations it is important to analyze these facts in such a way that they will be useful to individuals or committees. This analysis of interpretation means a translation of these facts into familiar language or terms. It also means an explanation of the meaning of facts as they apply to the local farm or community. Interpretation of facts involves careful reasoning backed up by experience and judgment. The change agents sometimes with the help of specialists or technicians and a committee of experienced farmers, are in the best position to interpret information in terms of local adaptation.

iii. Identification of problem

Facts about local situations after analysis are helpful in identifying the problems. When facts are properly interpreted they help the change agents and leaders in showing the situations. The facts arouse the interest of the people. They identify the problems and needs and indicate solutions to problems. They also point out weaknesses, indicate shortages and direct attention to undesirable trends. In order to have adequate facts about a local situation it is generally necessary and often advisable to secure information that falls within three categories, namely

- a) Trends (local trends compared with state and national trends).
- b) The present local situation.
- c) Recommendation

These three types of information can be illustrated by relating them to the facts that should be assembled about a particular local situation. Wheat cultivation is used as an example in the following lines :

- 1.) Trend information on local wheat cultivation.
 - a) Changes in the wheat area for the past 10 years.
 - b) Changes in wheat yields per acre for the past 10 years.
 - c) Changes in wheat fertilisation / irrigation/cultivation for the past 10 years.
 - d) Changes in wheat varieties.
 - e) Changes in marketing systems.
 - f) Changes in the quality of wheat produced.
 - g) Other changes
- 2) Information on present wheat cultivation.
 - a) Area under wheat in the locality.
 - b) Wheat production per acre.
 - c) Level of fertiliser used per acre for wheat.
 - d) Method of irrigation adopted.
 - e) Systems of marketing wheat.

f) Others which may help to identify problems and obstacles of wheat cultivation.

3) Recommendations

The change agent after consulting the specialists and the experienced farmers should arrive at certain recommendations for increasing the wheat yields. These recommendations may be in terms of a package of practices for wheat cultivation of that area as a short term measure. It may also be a long term recommendation like developing the irrigation potential of the area.

iv. **Decide on Objectives**

Objectives are expressions of the ends towards which efforts are directed. The objective has a definite meaning. One has to know that a great deal of thought and planning has to be put into efforts to reach the objective. The success or failure of a particular movement is judged in terms of whether or not the objective is reached. The success in reaching one objective affects other tasks and has an accumulated effect on the out-come of the project. For instance if an individual farmer decides his objective as raising 10 quintals of wheat per acre and if he cannot succeed then it has an effect on the total wheat production of the area and finally on the national income. If large numbers of farmers do not reach the desired objective of raising the wheat then it has an accumulated effect on the wheat yield of the area. In other words objective is that which a person, sets before himself as an object or condition to be attained. There is a slight distinction between objectives and goals. Objectives are the directions of movement while a goal is the distance in any given direction one expects to go during a given period of time. Objective, aim and purpose are used synonymously by educators, but generally only one word, i.e., 'objective' is used for these terms.

Objectives can be grouped into three levels depending on their specificity.

- 1) Fundamental objectives are the all-inclusive objectives set for society. These objectives are found in the constitution of the country. The fundamental rights of citizens, good life, better citizenship, democracy and the development of the individual are a few examples of these objectives.
- 2) General objectives, are more definite than fundamental objectives. They are generally found in the statements of policies and purposes of the organisation. Providing better recreational and housing facilities to the rural people is an example of this objective.
- 3) Working objectives are the specific items which are to be achieved. These may be stated from the change agent's stand-point and from the standpoint of the people. It is important what rural people feel, what they need and what professional extension workers think they ought to have. In an ideal situation there would be agreement between these two. For example, to increase the wheat yield per acre by using improved varieties, following the *sara* method of irrigation etc.

While stating the objectives, it is necessary to test them for their usefulness in meeting the standards or educational attainments and for achieving the desired targets.

- a) The objectives should be clearly stated. They should identify the people concerned or to be concerned the changes the people desire to make and the content or subject matter areas involved.
- b) The objectives should be achievable considering the people concerned and the available resources.

c) The objectives should be developmental and lead to an expansion of interest and satisfactions.

d) The objectives should be such that they can be evaluated and evidences of accomplishments can be identified.

v. Development of Plan of Work

Plan of work is a definite outline of procedure for solving the different problems of the extension programme. Such plan identifies specifically the different jobs that need to be done, the means to be used, the methods of using them and when each specific phase or part of the plan is to be executed in order to achieve the objective. The plan of work should be a written statement of detailed action. It should guide teaching in different phases of the programme. It is a blueprint for the extension workers and the people to follow in moving forward on their programme. The plan of work is usually chalked out for a year and therefore, it is called as annual plan of work. The extension staff, lay leaders and appropriate subject matter specialists should be involved in development of the plan of work.

The major decisions involved in developing a plan of work are indicated here:

a) Decide What different things or jobs need to be done to accomplish the objective. This will include such things as attitude or interests that need to be developed, goals or purpose that need to be established and understanding and abilities that need to be developed. These job requirements need to be planned and executed in such a way that those participating will have motivated educational experience.

b) Decide how best do each of the specific jobs that needs to be done in order to accomplish the objectives. This will involve making decisions on questions like, what type

of learning experience needs to be provided and what teaching tools, devices and techniques need to be employed to do each of these jobs etc.

c) Decide Who will be responsible for planning, preparing and executing each of the specific learning experiences and plans or jobs that need to be done. This will involve such decisions as what other group agencies or organisations will be cooperating. Will a specialist be used and for what specific jobs? etc.

d) Decide when each specific phase or part of the plan including meetings to be held, news stories to be written, radio-broadcasts to be made, tours, demonstrations, etc., Will be executed or carried to completion. This will involve developing a detailed and complete calender for the programme to be carried out relative to each of the overall problems of the extension programme. This calculation of work (activities and events) will include the chronological listing of scheduled major events and activities of importance to be undertaken by the extension staff during a given year and is included in the annual plan of work.

vi. Execute Plan

Executing the plan means carrying through the previously planned educational jobs and learning situations as set forth in the plan of work and the teaching plans. This assumes that a programme is planned, and a plan of work is developed. This forms the base for programme execution.

The programme execution should be coordinated within the extension service and other agencies and organisations as set forth in the plan of work. Secondly, the calendar of activities and events should be followed as planned. A variety of appropriate techniques, methods and materials should be used as planned. The subject matter should be appropriate to the objective to be achieved and the people involved and used as planning in the teaching

plan. Adequate and appropriate training and other assistance as planned should be given to lay leaders in assuming their planned and accepted responsibilities in the execution of the Programme. The plan for sharing of programme action responsibilities by the extension staff, other professional people and lay people should be followed.

The execution of plan should be carried out as decided and unnecessary changes should not be made. If adjustments are to be made then they should be made on the basis of reevaluation, replanning and decision and they should be accepted by all concerned.

vii. Evaluation of Progress

Evaluation is the process of determining the extent to which objectives have been attained. The programme accomplishments are the changes in people and the changes in their economic and social situations resulting from the programme. Information which reveals the extent to which objectives are reached is needed to evaluate accomplishments. This will help in determining how far an activity has progressed and how much further it should be carried to accomplish objectives. The amount of accomplishment judged to be satisfactory should be determined in the light of potential for improvement in the area i.e complexity of the problem, objectives and the resources available.

Importance

Evaluation is an essential step in the extension educational process. It is through the process of evaluation that one arrives at judgements or conclusions that will aid in decision making. To clarify this it will be useful to define several terms. A decision is a choice among alternatives. Judgement is an assignment of values to the alternatives. The evaluation from this point of view provides information for decision making. It will help in decisions regarding continuation, redirection, reemphasis of the present programme or decisions as to the need for new programmes. Thus evaluation is an important and integral part of all teaching and programme planning work.

- a) Without appraisal of results there is no sound basis for improving the work.
- b) It helps to identify needs for concentrated effort.
- c) It gives assurance and confidence to the persons concerned.
- d) It has a value in creating public confidence by presenting rational facts.
- e) It will help in judging the value of methods or devices used.
- f) It helps the extension teaching by compelling the extension workers to define the objectives clearly.
- g) It will help in choosing the best tools in the teaching plan.

Thus, evaluation improves the professional attitudes of those who use scientific techniques.

When should Evaluation be Done?

The evaluation of all the stages could be done at one time, that is at the end of a programme year. In some instances it will be better to evaluate each stage as it develops in the total planning process. One need not wait for the final results of the programme in order to evaluate its objectives. In fact, these early evaluations may lead to adjustments which will contribute appreciably to the effectiveness with which results can be accomplished. Whether evaluation is made out at the end of a programme or is carried out through a continuous process, provision for it ought to be included in the planning and implementation procedures adopted by the agency.

From Whom Should Information be Collected?

The information required for evaluation can be taken from the various prepared documents such as written plans, records reports, etc. It will help, if these are prepared in

such a way as to facilitate the collection of the information useful for evaluation. Information can be collected from the people directly concerned with the programme. Information from these extension staff, committee members and local leaders may be obtained verbally or in writing.

In some instance, it may be necessary to use broad survey techniques for collection of the desired information in evaluating the results of a programme. This information may be collected from three points of attainment. 1) Bench mark stage: It is the initial stage when the extension programme is to be introduced. This is the point from which the people start in their change of behaviour.

2) Interim stage: This is any stage in the progress of the people towards the objective.

3) Final stage: After the completion of the programme evaluation would be undertaken to measure the attainment of the final objective. One has to find out if few, some or all the people have reached that objective. It helps in deciding the retention of the objective in the plan of work or substituting it with another one and deciding the effectiveness of the teaching methods.

The surveys can be done by personal interviews or by sending out questionnaires (mailed questionnaires) to the people concerned. It is more feasible to take an interview or get questionnaires filled from few people who are representative of the group as a whole.

viii. Reconsideration

The findings of evaluation need to be used by applying it to future work. A report of the findings or information obtained in evaluation is purely a tool and not an objective. A report is written to clarify the thinking of the evaluator and for presenting it to other person. When a teacher takes a test in the class, he finds that he failed to teach certain topics in the

class prior to the test. In this case the teacher need not write a report of what the test has shown, but has to reconsider the findings and apply them to a future situation. The teacher should try to make up his failure in the days ahead while teaching the course the next time. Secondly, he should try to present those ideas that he failed to present well in a different way to see if they are properly understood by the students.

The important thing is that the evaluation process has not served its purpose unless the conclusion drawn from it has entered the continuing plans of the workers. 'In other words it is the reconsideration of the whole issue in the light of the findings of the evaluation. If it is found that the present activities of the worker fail in reaching certain objectives or certain defined people, then the worker has not improved himself professionally. The value of his work will be poor and he will have to attempt to modify his activities so that they might reach the objectives or the people. Thus the findings of evaluation need to be presented either by talk with the local leader or in the form of a report for reconsideration. The way in which findings are presented for reconsideration is determined by the audience or the reader. If they lack the training or background for interpreting the statistical table or discussions but are supposed to use the findings in their work, the findings should be entirely interpreted for them and presented to them in terms of activities or recommendations that they can understand. If the purpose of the presentation is to provide statistical proof for a decision or recommendation, the statistics need to be included in the presentation or publication. If the audience or readers are interested in the procedure involved in collecting the data, that should be included. If the inclusion of such details distracts from the importance of the findings or confuses certain types of audience or readers, it should be limited to the barest essentials. In many cases, the findings from surveys have to be presented in more than one way to meet the needs of several kinds of audiences or readers.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What is the first step in programme planning? Explain briefly.

ii) What are the three levels of objectives?

iii) What you understand by execution of plan?

7.5 LET US SUM UP

Extension programme planning is a continuous series of activities or operations leading to the development of a definite plan of action to accomplish particular objectives. It is the process by which people work together to determine goals. The process has eight steps. The first four steps are included under programme planning while the remaining four steps are grouped under programme action : (i) Collection of facts are the foundation stones which the community leaders and the problem committee should build and carry for their programme. (ii) After assembling the facts pertaining to local situations it is important to analyze these facts in such a way that will be useful to individuals or community. This

analysis or interpretation means a translation of these facts into familiar language or terms. (iii) Facts about location, situations after analysis are helpful in identifying the problems. When facts are properly identified, they help the change agents and leaders in showing the situation as it is. (iv) Objectives are expressions of the ends towards which efforts are directed. The objective has a definite meaning. One has to know that a great deal of thought and planning has to be put into efforts to reach the objective. The success or failure of a particular movement is judged in terms of whether or not the objective is reached. (v) Plan of work is a definite outline of procedure for solving the different problems of the extension programme. Such a plan identifies specifically the different jobs that need to be done, the means to be used, the methods of using them and when each part of the plan is to be executed in order to achieve the objective. (vi) Execution of plan means carrying through the previously planned jobs. (vii) Evaluation is the process of determining the extent to which objectives have been attained. Evaluation is an essential step in the extension process. It is through the process of evaluation that one arrives at judgments or conclusions that will aid in decision making. (viii) The findings of evaluation need to be used by applying it to future work. The evaluation process has not served its purpose unless the conclusion drawn from it has entered the continuing plans of the workers. In other words it is the reconsideration of the whole issue in the light of the findings of the evaluation.

7.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The first step in programme planning is the collection of facts. Facts are the foundation stones upon which the community leaders and the problem committee build and carry out their programmes. It is the responsibility of the change agent (extension worker) to assemble

and interpret factual information for the use of the community leaders. The local situation is the bench mark from where people should start the process of programme planning.

2. Depending upon their specificity, objectives can be grouped into three levels: Fundamental objectives, General objectives and Working objectives.

3. Executing the plan means carrying through the previously planned educational jobs and learning situations as set forth in the plan of work and the teaching plans. This assumes that a programme is planned, and a plan of work is developed. This forms the base for programme execution.

7.7 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q.1. Explain in brief the steps used in extension planning process.

Q.2. Write in detail about evaluation process in extension planning.

7.8 SUGGESTED READING

1. M.S. Chouhan and L.L.Somani (2018). Extension Education At a Glance. Agrotech Publishing Academy: Udaipur.

2. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.

3. S. Shekhar and S. Ahlawat (2013). Textbook of Home Science Extension Education. Daya Publishing House: New Delhi.

4. S. Venkataiah (2001). New Dimensions of Extension Education. Anmol Publications Pvt Ltd: New Delhi.

5. S.V. Supe (2012). An Introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
6. V.K. Dubey and Indira Bishnoi (2008). Extension Education and Communication. New Age International Ltd., Publishers: New Delhi.

EXTENSION PROGRAMME PLANNING: MEANING, DEFINITION, RATIONALE, SCOPE AND PRINCIPLES

STRUCTURE

- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Objectives
- 8.3 Defining Extension Programme Planning
- 8.4 Meaning of Extension Programme Planning
- 8.5 Rationale/ Assumptions of Extension Programme Planning
- 8.6 Role of Common People in Extension Programme Planning
- 8.7 Importance and Scope of Planning Programme in Extension
- 8.8 Characteristics of Extension Programme Planning
- 8.9 Principles of Programme Planning
- 8.10 Let Us Sum Up
- 8.11 Answers To Check Your Progress
- 8.12 Lesson End Exercise
- 8.13 Suggested Reading

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter we noted that programme planning is an organized and purposeful process, initiated and guided by the agent, to involve particular group of people in the process of studying their interest, needs and problems, deciding upon and planning education and other actions to change their situation in desired ways and making commitments

regarding the role and responsibilities of the participants. Further, it was explained that programme planning is a progressive step by step process, beginning with collection and analysis of data and culminating with review of progress and understanding the projections of the plan. Now, in this lesson 8 we will learn about the rationale behind programme planning, its scope and principles.

8.2 OBJECTIVES

Main objective of this lesson is to help students understand about the meaning importance, principles and scope of extension programme planning.\

8.3 DEFINING EXTENSION PROGRAMME PLANNING

Programme planning is a procedure of working with the people in an effort to recognise unsatisfactory situations or problems, and to determine possible solutions, or objectives and goals. This is a conscious effort to meet the needs, interests and wants of the people for whom the programme is intended. According to Kelsey and Hearne (1949) “an extension programme is a statement of situation, objectives, problems and solutions,”

USDA (1956) defined “an extension programme, which is arrived at cooperatively by the local people and the Extension staff and includes a statement of: (i) the situation in which the people are located, (ii) the problems that are a part of the local situation, (iii) the objective and goals of the local people in relation to those problems; and (iv) the recommendations or solutions to reach these objectives on a long--term basis (may be several years) or on a short term basis (may be one year or less),”

Lawrence (1965) says that “an extension programme is the sum total of all the activities and understanding of a County Extension Service, It includes (i) The programme planning process, (ii) Written programme statements, (iii) Plan of work, (iv) Programme execution, (v) Results and (vi) Evaluation”

In drawing up a programme, the following questions give key-orientation and justification: What needs do people have? How can needs be identified? What plans of

priority should be set up for meeting the people's needs? What resources are necessary to meet the people's needs? How should resources be organised and directed to help people meet their needs?

In programme planning, we are required to know where we are now, and where we ought to go, so that we may be better judge of what to do and how to do it? It gives meaning and system to action. It prepares the basis for a course of future action it is an intentional effort carefully designated to attain certain specific and predetermined goals assumed to be important.

8.4 MEANING OF EXTENSION PROGRAMME PLANNING

Having said that extension programme planning is a social action, decision- making, interactional process in which advance thinking is needed for identifying the needs, interests and resources of the people through educational means to prepare a blueprint for action we are now ready to formally define this concept. The meaning of **extension programme planning can be understood from the following:**

.i. Programme planning is viewed as a process through which representatives of the people are intensively involved with extension personnel and other professional people in four activities (Boyle, 1965):

- Studying facts and trends;
- Identifying problems and opportunities based on these facts and trends;
- Making decisions about problems and opportunities that should be given priority; and
- Establishing objectives or recommendations for future economic and social development of a community through educational programmes.

ii. This is the process whereby the people in the country, through their leaders, plan their extension programme. Country and state professional extension staff members assist in this process. The end-result of this process is a written programme statement (Lawrence, 1962).

iii. Extension programme planning is the process of determining, developing and executing programmes. It is a continuous process, whereby farm people, with the guidance and leadership of extension personnel, attempt to determine, analyse and solve local problems. In this, there are three characteristics:

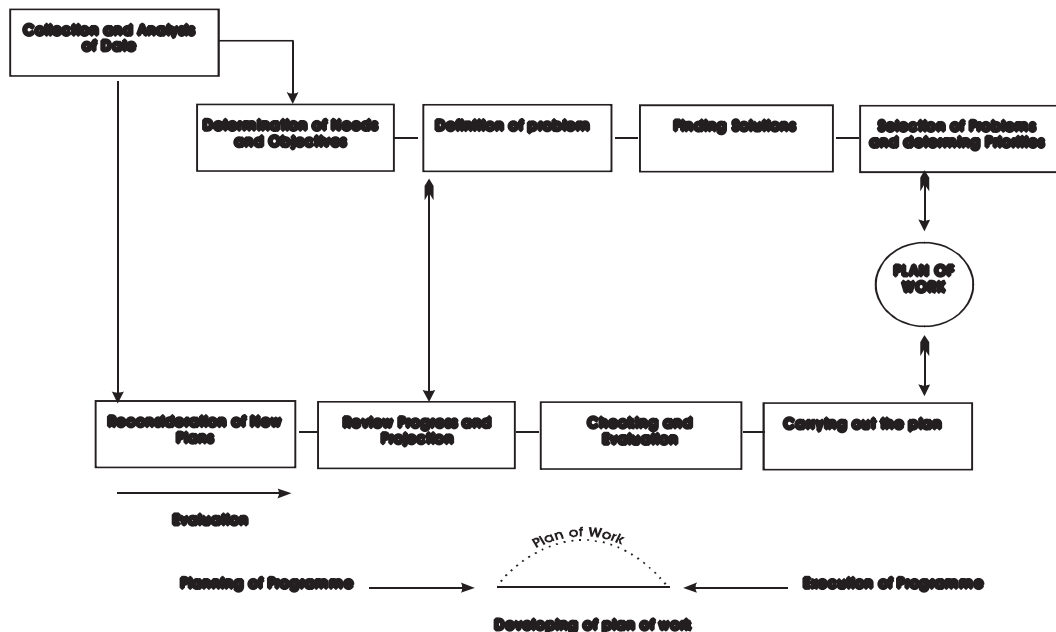
- What needs to be done;
- When it should be done; and
- How it should be done (Musgraw, 1962).

iv. An organized and purposeful process, initiated and guided by the agent, to involve a particular group of people in the process of studying their interests, needs and problems, deciding upon and planning education and other actions to change their situation in desired ways and making commitments regarding the role and responsibilities of the participants (Olson, 1962).

An analysis of these and other definitions of extension programme planning implies that it:

- Is a decision-making, social process;
- Involves advance thinking;
- Is a progressive step-by-step process;
- Uses educational means in defining the goals and situations;
- Is built around improved technology, people, their needs, interests, resources, values, attitudes and skills; and

- The end-product is a written statement of situation, problems, objectives and solutions.
- Thus extension programme planning may be defined as:
- A decision-making, social-action process in which extension educationists involve people's representatives,
- To determine their needs, problems, resources and priorities,
- In order to decide on an extension programme consisting of situation analysis, problems, objectives and solutions,
- Which will form the basis of extension teaching plans for a given period.



8.5 RATIONALE/ ASSUMPTIONS OF EXTENSION PROGRAMME PLANNING

The concept of extension planning is based on a number of assumptions. Boyle (1965) has listed the following assumptions in this regard:

- Planning change is a necessary prerequisite to effective social progress for people and communities.
- The most desirable change is predetermined and democratically achieved.
- Extension education programmes, if properly planned and implemented, can make a significant contribution to planned change.
- It is possible to select, organize and administer a programme that will contribute to the social and economic progress of people.
- People and communities need the guidance, leadership and help of extension educators to solve their problems in a planned and systematic way.

8.6 ROLE OF COMMON PEOPLE IN EXTENSION PROGRAMME PLANNING

The main components of programme planning are: People-their needs, their interests, useful technology the educational process, analysing situations making decisions about what should be done, determining action, projecting the desired shape of things into the future, etc. It involves the study and use of facts and principles, knowledge, imagination and reasoning ability. Often it requires a mastery of skills and techniques of research, the ability synthesis facts and value judgments in a process of sound decision-making about the objectives which the programmer seeks to attain.

All people whose welfare is affected by the programme may be involved in this process. Local people with leadership abilities may be requested to serve on the formal committees responsible for programme planning. Secondly, local people who have special and vital interest in success of a specific subject matter area such as cotton cultivation, cattle, recreation, etc., may also be involved. Thirdly people with special talents or resource such as specialised extension personnel, production and marketing specialists, entomologists, representatives of credit agencies and many others who have something to contribute need to be involved in this process. The purpose of involving people is that the programmes are meant for the people and hence it is better if the plans are prepared by the people who are to be benefited by that pro-gramme. It will help the people in fulfilling their responsibilities as citizen in a political democracy by preserving and strength-ening values like freedom, progress and success.

Programme planning is an excellent means of developing the readership qualities of the people. Effective organisation, systematic fact collection, vigorous analysis and skilful decision making are all important parts of successful programme plan-ning. Developing skills in these operations lead to the development of competent leadership.

Engaging in programme planning has proved to be an in-valuable educational experience for all those who actively engage in the process. Thus the experiences gained by the people who participate in these planning sessions contribute much to their knowledge of facts and to their skill in making wise choices.

The participation of the people in the programme planning process normally gives them a proprietary interest in seeing that an action programme is carried out. If they have taken enough interest to study very carefully the various aspects of a given subject matter area they would probably develop enough interest to see that it leads to action.

8.7 IMPORTANCE AND SCOPE OF PLANNING PROGRAMME IN EXTENSION

Jalihal K.A. (1970) has pointed out the importance of a plan of work. He says, “in extension teaching, it is needless to mention that the teaching should be designed to organise learning experiences so as to bring about learning, resulting in the desired change of people’s behaviour in order to solve their day-to-day problems based on their needs and interest.”

The plan of work starts the extension teaching process by assisting people to come out with some of their objectives for their learning, based on their felt needs and resources, so as, to help them solve their problems.

When this plan of work has been agreed upon, it should be recorded in precise but understandable terms, and copies distributed to an organisation and persons who are concerned with its implementation. Unless this is done even those participating in the decisions will soon disagree as to what was proposed to be done.

This will contribute to uniformity of presentation, ensure attention to necessary details and facilitate comparison and co-ordination of plans at the various levels and in the areas involved.

It is the function of the Village Block and District Programme Committees, in consultation with the extension agencies, and workers, to determine the number and kind of activities to be carried out, and where necessary to appoint committees or designate local organisation with the responsibility for their implementation. This is only possible when we develop a plan of work, at each level and for each projects.

8.8 CHARACTERISTICS OF EXTENSION PROGRAMME PLANNING

Extension programme planning has some characteristics which give us an idea of its nature. These are as follows.

1) *Programme planning is an educational process*: It involves both teaching and learning. It teaches skills to the people in finding, analyzing, deliberating and focusing on the solutions to the problems. It gives more knowledge of the facts to the people. It changes the attitude of the people towards the planning process.

2) *Programme planning is an unifying and integrating process*: Through the process of identifying problems, fixing priorities, setting objectives and goals, and providing continuity and monitoring people get a total picture of where they are, what they shall do and where they are likely to reach.

3) *Programme planning is a coordinating process*: It requires coordination of the efforts and activities between officials and non-officials, between institutions and organizations, between people and materials, and the like.

4) *Programme planning is an evaluating process*: Evaluation of accomplishment is not the only criterion. It also provides for evaluation of the planning process and the organization.

Based on the characteristics the basic objective of extension system is to develop in village people, the ability to make a better living and to live a more satisfying life as individuals, as family members as well as citizens of their community, state and the nation. In order to reach this objective, the first step in any systematic attempt to promote rural development is to prepare a useful programme. As we know, the term programme indicates focus, priority and design. Programme has to arise from the felt needs of the people, if it is really to be meaningful to them. One of the important jobs of the extension worker is to convert unfelt needs of the people into felt needs. It should be recognized that those felt needs are the motivating forces for their participation and involvement in extension programmes. It assumes the ability among the planners to distinguish important needs from unimportant

ones. Such a programme must be based on people's needs to make it significant and on their interests to make it effective. In short, programme planning is basically a process of making decisions that will carry into the future. Decisions have to be made about what the present situation is, how it could and ought to be changed and what means can be used to accomplish the new and more desirable situation.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What are the various activities carried out by professionals in extension programme planning?

ii) Enlist any two rationales behind extension programme planning.

8.9 PRINCIPLES OF PROGRAMME PLANNING

After a critical analysis of the programme planning principles available in extension literature, Sandhu (1965) identified a set of principles that may be applicable in developing countries.

I. Programme

1. Extension programme planning is based on analysis of the facts in a situation

It is important to take into account the conditions that exist at a particular time. This implies that factors such as land, crops, economic trends, social structure, economic status of the people, their habits, traditions and culture, in fact, everything about the area in which the job is to be done and its people, may be considered while planning an extension programme for an area. These factors may be viewed in terms of established long-term objectives and rural policy. The outcome of previous plans should also be reviewed and results utilized.

Brunner and Yang (1949) argue that there is no greater mistake than to assume that technical know-how alone will solve the problems of the farmers. They say that no programme or even technique can achieve the desired results when not in harmony with the culture of the people. 'Extension knows, if need be, the surer way is to effect cultural change by the slow but certain process of education'.

2. Extension programme planning selects problems based on people's interests

and needs: Sound programme building selects problems based on people's needs. It is necessary to select these problems which are most urgent and of widest concern. Choice of problems must be from among those highlighted by an analysis of the facts regarding what are felt as unfelt needs. To be effective, extension work must begin with the interests of the families. It must meet interest and use them as a spring-board for developing further interests. It is common knowledge that people join together because of mutual interests and needs.

Brunner (1945) said that an extension programme must meet the felt needs of the people. Leagans (1961) has recommended that the extension workers adapt the subject matter and teaching procedure to the educational level of the people, to their needs and interests, and to their resources.

3 Extension programme planning determines definite objectives and solutions which offer satisfaction

In order to hold interest, we must set working objectives and offer solutions which are within reach and which will give satisfaction on achievement. This is related to motivation for action. People must see how they or their communities are going to benefit from the proposed solutions. Very often the simplicity or dramatic effect of the practice recommended is the most potent factor in its wide adoption. Further, if there is to be progress and not more evolution in the development of man, the objectives must be periodically revised in view of the progress made. In other words, as changes occur, objectives need to be re determined to allow for even further progress to be realized.

4. Extension programme planning has permanence with flexibility

Any good programme must be forward looking and permanent. Permanence means anticipating years of related and well organized effort. Along with this lower process, which both follow and makes a long-term trend, experience has shown that particular items will need to be changed to meet unforeseen contingencies or emergencies. Without flexibility, the programme may not, in fact, meet the needs of the people. A programme should be prepared well in advance of its execution but not too far ahead of time. Ordinary events may subject it to change in part though not in total. It is obvious that an extension programme must be kept flexible to meet the changing needs and interests of the people.

5. Extension programme planning has balance with emphasis

A good programme should cover the majority of people's important interests. It must be comprehensive enough to embrace all groups, creeds and races at all levels and community, block, state, national and international problems. It is futile to deal with only one phase of

life in a community as an end in itself. At the same time, a few of the most important or timely problems should be chosen for emphasis. To avoid scattered effort, something must stand out. Decisions must be made as to which of the needs are most urgent. The next consideration in choosing items for emphasis is to promote efficiency by permitting a good distribution of time and effort throughout the year. Too many things carried out simultaneously will divide either the worker's or the people's attention.

II. Planning process

6. Extension programme planning has a definite plan of work

No matter how well a programme is thought through, it is of no use unless carried out. This implies good organization and careful planning for action. A plan of work is an outline of procedure so arranged as to enable efficient execution of the entire programme. It is the answer to what, where, when and how the job will be done. In carrying out programme plans, different leaders and groups may work on various phases, i.e., the women in the community may work on one segment, the men on a second segment and youth-club members on a third. Organization should be used as a tool to accomplish these purposes, never as an end in itself.

7. Extension programme planning is an educational process

The people who do the planning may participate in local surveys and neighbourhood observations. This provides an opportunity for them to learn more about their own community and area and increases their interest. The extension worker has the responsibilities of providing local leaders with the knowledge, skills and attitudes they must have if they are to help in educationally serving the people. Essentially, learning takes place through the experiences the learner has and the responses he makes to the stimuli of his environment.

The experience gained in finding facts, analyzing situations, recognizing problems, stating objectives and thinking of possible solutions and alternatives should make for a better and more effective learning environment. The extension personnel should remember this fact and provide opportunities for the effective participation of local people in programme planning.

8. Extension programme planning is a continuous process

Since programme planning is viewed as an educational process and since education is seen as a continuous process, therefore it logically holds that extension programme planning is a continuous process. There is no question of exhausting new knowledge, either in the subject matter with which we deal or in the methods of teaching. With the constant flux of agricultural technology, extension education is faced with an increasingly more difficult job as it tries to serve the needs and interests of the people. Sutton (1961) said that extension in a changing society must adjust and plan for the future to serve the needs of people. He set forth five steps which might be useful in making necessary adjustments:

- i. Give choice to the people
- ii. Be flexible and ready to grasp with firmness new problems as they arise.
- iii. Work with people in seeking practical solutions to their problems.
- iv. Keep abreast of technological and social change.
- v. Close the gap between research discovery and practical application.

It is obvious that tomorrow's problem will not be the same as today's. So extension must make periodic adjustments in its plans to meet the changing problems. Extension must also be alert to the change that is going on in Science and Technology. With new

technology, solutions to problems change. It is therefore necessary to view extension programme planning as a continuous process though its recurrence is cyclic.

9. Extension programme planning is a co-ordinating process

Extension programme planning finds the most important problems and seeks agreement on definite objectives. It coordinates the efforts of all interested leaders, groups and agencies and considers the use of resources. It obtains the interest and co-operation of many people by showing them why things need to be done. This is important in working with people. Within the extension organization, the block staff may work together on an integrated programme, each member devoting part of his energy to appropriate phases.

10. Extension programme planning involves local people and their institutions

Involvement of local people and their institutions is very essential for the success of any programme for their development. People become interested and give better support to the programme when they are involved in the planning process. So, extension programmes should be planned with the people and not for them.

11. Extension programme planning provides for evaluation of results

Since extension programme planning involves decision-making procedures, so evaluation is important in order to make intelligent decisions aimed at achieving the stated objectives. Matthews (1962) pointed out that extension programme planning and evaluation go together. Kelsey and Hearne (1949) have said that all other principles of programme building are related to evaluation.

Effective evaluation will, of course, depend on clear objectives, knowing which people we are trying to teach and having records of the results in terms that reflect changes in their

action. Starting a programme with the intention of engaging in a careful evaluation at the close of a specific period has a salutary effect on all the intermediate processes. However, provision has to be made both for concurrent and ex-post facto types of evaluation.

8.10 LET US SUM UP

After going through the lesson you must have understood that extension programme planning may be defined as a decision making, social-action process of bringing about planned change and involves both change agent and client systems, to determine their needs, problems, resources and priorities, design extension programme consisting of situational analysis, problems, objectives and solutions which form the basis of extension activities for a given problem. You also learned that extension programme planning is continuous process based on the needs of the people.

8.11 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. According to Boyle, 1965, the four main activities involved in extension programme planning are:

- Studying facts and trends;
- Identifying problems and opportunities based on these facts and trends;
- Making decisions about problems and opportunities that should be given priority; and
- Establishing objectives or recommendations for future economic and social development of a community through educational programmes.

2. The two rationales behind extension programme planning are:

- a) Extension education programmes, if properly planned and implemented, can make a significant contribution to planned change.
- b) It is possible to select, organize and administer a programme that will contribute to the social and economic progress of people.

8.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

- Q 1. Discuss the meaning and characteristics of extension programme planning in details.
- Q 2. Explain the various principles of extension programme planning.

8.13 SUGGESTED READING

1. B.P. Mohapatra (2016). Dimensions of Extension Education. New India Publishing Agency.
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7. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
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**PROGRAMME PLANNING MODEL: NEED FOR A MODEL,
PRINCIPLES TO BE CONSIDERED IN EVOLUTION OF A MODEL**

STRUCTURE

- 9.1. Introduction
- 9.2 Objectives
- 9.3 Extension Programme planning
- 9.4 Need/ Rationale of programme planning
- 9.5 Extension programme planning model
- 9.6 Contemporary extension models
- 9.7 Let us sum up
- 9.8 Answers to check your progress
- 9.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 9.10 Suggested Reading

9.1 INTRODUCTION

In the earlier lessons of Unit II i.e from 5 to 8 you were provided in depth information about what is an extension programme, and what is the nature of planning involved before an extension plan can be implemented or enforced. You also learned that principles that lay the foundation of an extension programme planning. Now in this lesson 9 you will learn about the need for developing a model of programme planning, along with knowing about the different models of extension programme that have evolved over time.

9.2 OBJECTIVES

The lesson deals with highlighting the need or rationale behind a programme model and also understanding the principles involved in evolution of a model.

9.3 EXTENSION PROGRAMME PLANNING

Having described the concepts of planning and extension programme, now the stage is set to examine the concept of extension programme planning. A few points need to be explicated before attempting a definition.

i. Extension programme planning is a process

The dictionary meaning of ‘process’ is ‘any phenomenon which shows a continuous change in time’ or ‘any continuous operation or treatment’. If we accept this concept of process, we view events and relationships as dynamic, ongoing, ever-changing and continuous. When we label something as a process, we also mean that it does not have a beginning, an end, a fixed sequence of events. It is not static, at rest. The basis for the concept of process is the belief that man cannot discover the structure of physically reality; man must create it.

This definition of process suggests that ‘a process is involved in which a series of actions culminates in the accomplishment of a goal’ (Boyle, 1965). Viewed in this way, the concept of process involves a method, i.e., a process should be viewed as a sequential set of steps or several systematically ordered steps of planning, the performance of which leads to the accomplishment of a goal. In extension programme planning, the immediate goal would be the development of a programme document.

The concept a person has of the extension programme planning process will affect actions and mode of researching the process. Many programme-planning processes

take place at any particular time at different levels of the extension organization. For example, programme planning occurs at the national level (five-year plans), at the state level (state plans, annual plans of work) and at the block level. In fact, planning at the block level is taking place when:

- The long-time plan or projected plan is being developed;
- The schematic budget is being planned;
- The annual plan of work is being developed;
- Detailed plans for individual learning experiences are developed with a major project.

ii. Extension programme planning is a decision-making process

Planning is basically a decision-making process- and so is extension programme planning. In extension programme planning, scientific facts are put to value judgments of the people through the implementation of a rational planning model in order to decide a programme which will be carried out through the extension teaching activities.

iii. Extension programme planning requires advance thinking

If we could know ‘where we are’ and ‘where we are to go’ we could better judge ‘what to do’ and ‘how to do’. This statement lies at the heart of the nature of planning. Planning does not take place in a vacuum or automatically. It has to be made to happen. The most basic fact giving rise to planning is that effective rural development result from choice, not from chance; it results from design, not from drift. Good extension programme planning is an intellectual activity since it usually involves a study and use of facts and principles. It requires knowledge, imagination and reasoning ability. It is a complex exercise

as it involves people their needs, their interests, useful technology, educational process, analyzing a situation and making decision about what should be done, determining useful actions, projecting the desired shape of things in future and several other components, which are rarely simple.

iv. Extension programme planning requires skill and ability on the part of planners

Planning effective extension education programmes requires a number of high-level professional skills. Needed abilities include understanding and skill in the following broad areas:

- Understanding the nature and role of extension education organization.
- Knowledge and understanding of the technology related to the subject with which the programme is concerned.
- Ability to clarify the objectives of a programme and to so state them that they are useful in guiding its execution.
- Skill at seeing the relationship between principles and practice.
- Skill at inquiry and human relationships.

v. Extension programme planning is built around content

A programme regarding any extension activity can only be built on the basis of content. Without some express purpose, there can be no planning. Extension programme planning is build around available improved technology, the people, their resources, problems, needs and interests.

vi. Extension programme planning is a social action process

Extension programme planning involves interaction and the decisions so taken in the form of a programme affect others. Interaction assumes some type of communication between two or more people in the planning process. So when the extension staff involving specialists and people's representatives decides on the programme content for extension teaching for the coming year, it is involved in social planning. In this process, the scientific data is put to value judgements so as to decide the intended direction of change and also the appropriate methods to be used to reach these goals. Further, the resultant programme has many social consequences in terms of interaction with other people, e.g., to inform them, educate them, persuade them, in order to introduce improved technology into their minds and actions.

vii. Extension programme planning is a collaborative effort

Extension programme planning is a collaborative effort involving identification, assessment, evaluation of needs, problems, resources, priorities and solutions.

viii. Extension programme planning is a system

Extension programme planning is a system as its procedures and processes are interrelated, ordered and linked progressively to form a collective whole. It includes several subprocesses, such as planning, designing, implementing, evaluation etc.

ix. The end-product of extension programme planning is an extension programme

The first consideration for anyone who is to concern himself with a process or set of procedures for planning is to clearly identify the primary purpose of the planning process to be developed. Many have suggested that the purpose of planning is for educating those

who participate. According to Vanderberg (1965), ‘the primary purpose of any planning, first and foremost is that of developing a sound, defensible and progressive course of action or plan. In the process followed, many other benefits might accrue, such as the education of participants, but we want a plan which can and will be used’.

9.4 NEED/ RATIONALE OF PROGRAMME PLANNING MODELS

i. Progress requires a design: Effective education is a result of design not drift; it results from a plan-not from trial and error. The experience of workers in education and in other educational agencies has been that progress is made most effectively when a plan of action is set forth and followed. The pay-off for educational effort comes when people change their behaviour to improve their situation. These results come most rapidly when careful planning is done and when effective teaching methods are used.

ii. Planning gives direction: There are no tests for directing the people’s learning in extension. This arguments the difficulty of designing a plan and underscores the fact that planning is one of the most important jobs of extension workers.

In planning or constructing a course of study, the teacher should be guided by five major factors: (1) the purpose for which the course is offered, its aims; (2) the characteristics and needs of those who are to take the course; (3) the educational environment of these persons; (4) the sources of information available; and (5) the requirements or demands of the vocation or other uses to which the learning is to be put. These factors apply to the development of extension programmes as well as to the curriculum of the public schools. The factors that apply to the study of a situation will be considered more closely a little later.

iii. Effective learning requires a plan: There must be consciously directed effort on the part of the teacher to give guidance to the learning process. The direction of this teaching

effort can best be stated in terms of objectives. They must be developed with the people to be taught and must be capable of attainment by and with the people concerned.

iv. Planning precedes action: The results of an action are dependent on the following: adequacy of analysis of the problems, situation of objectives and involvement of the people. Through the planning process, questions such as these are posed:

- a. What information do farm men and women need most?
- b. Which kind of information shall be extended?
- c. What information shall be extended first?
- d. How much time shall be devoted to this line of work?
- e. How much effort shall be devoted to this line of work?

The answers to these questions lie in the programme planning process.

Kelsey and Hearne (1949) have given the following rationale for a planned extension programme .According to them, sound extension programme planning:

1. Is based on analysis of the facts in the situation;
2. selects problems based on needs;
3. determines objectives and solutions which offer satisfaction;
4. reflects performance with flexibility;
5. incorporate balance with emphasis;
6. envisages a definite plan of work;

7. is a continuous process;
8. is a teaching process;
9. is a coordinating process;
10. involves local people and their institutions; and
11. provides for evaluation of results.

Thus it could be said that planning programmes is an integral part of the development process and ensures better and efficient utilization of resources, accountability and human development.

9.5 *EXTENSION PROGRAMME PLANNING MODEL*

Several extension programme planning models have been designed which describe its different steps, phases or procedures. Some of these are given below:

Warner (1955) identified the following steps for programme planning

- i. Analysis of local situation
- ii. Determining objectives
- iii. Plan of action
- iv. Calendar of work
- v. Evaluation of results.

Maunder (1956) prepared one of the earliest working model of the extension programme planning process

- i. Collection and analysis of data
- ii. Determining of needs and objectives

- iii. Defining problems
- iv. Finding solutions
- v. Selecting problems and determining priorities
- vi. Preparing a plan of work
- vii. Carrying out the plan
- viii. Checking and evaluating results
- ix. Review of progress and projection of plan

USDA (1959), suggested the following programme planning procedure

- i. Situation analysis
- ii. Organization of planning
- iii. Programme planning process
- iv. the planned program
- v. Plan of work
- vi. Execution of plan of work
- vii. Appraisal of accomplishment

Chang developed a triangular model for extension programme planning which is listed as below:

- i. Programme determination
 - * Describe
 - * Analyze
 - * Identify problem
 - * Consider alternative
 - * Formulate objectives
- ii. Programme Implementation
 - * Decide goals

- * Decide subject matter to be taught
- * Decide teaching methods to be used
- * Fix responsibilities
- * Work out a calendar of work
- * Prepare learn plans
- * Evaluate plans

iii. Results

- * Find out degree of success
- * Discover new problems

Boyle (1965) model consists of the following five phases:

- i. Formulation of a broad organizational philosophy, objectives, policies and procedures for programme planning in the state
- ii. Identification and clarification of a need and preparation for planning country programme
- iii. Organization and maintenance of country planning groups
- iv. Reaching decisions on the problems, concerns and opportunities
- v. Preparation of written programme document.

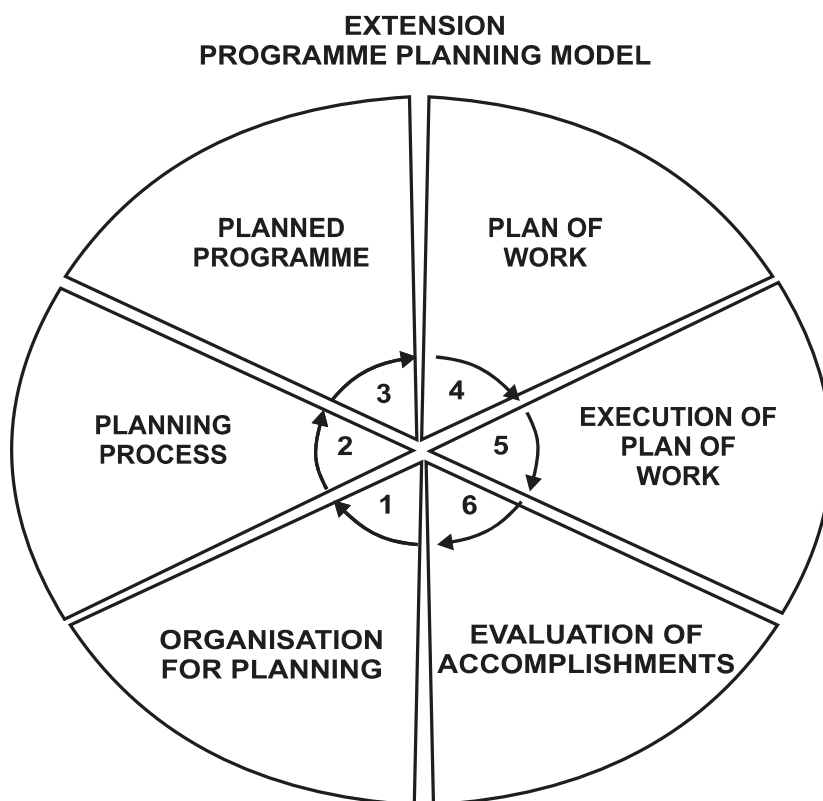
Pearson (1966) proposed eight steps in the programme planning process:

- i. Collect facts
- ii. Analyze situation
- iii. Identify problems
- iv. Decide on objectives
- v. Develop plan of work
- vi. Execute plan
- viii. Determine progress
- viii. Reconsideration with evaluation at each step.

Sandhu (1965) developed a model for planning extension and rural development programmes. This model has six phases with a number or steps to be followed under each phase.

Planning Process Involves

- 1. Reaching, Understanding regarding principles, procedures, roles and time schedules**
- 2. Analysis situation**
- 3. Determining programme objective**
- 4. Selection problems**
- 5. Finding solution**



Extension Programme Planning Model

The various phases and steps involved in this model are:

Organisation for Planning

I. Planning Process

1. Reach understanding regarding principles, procedures, roles and time schedule.
2. Analyse situation.
3. Determine objectives.
4. Select problems with due regard to priorities.
5. Find solutions.

II. Planned Programme

Prepare a written statement of:

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------|
| i) situation | ii) objectives; |
| iii) problems; and | iv) solutions. |

III. Plan of work

Prepare a plan of work containing information regarding:

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| i) people to be reached; | ii) goals, dates and places; |
| iii) teaching procedures to be followed; | |

- iv) duties, training and recognition of leaders;
- v) roles to be played by extension personnel; and
- vi) roles to be played by other agencies.

IV. Execution of plan of work

- i) Make advance arrangement for inputs and teaching aids.
- ii) Interpret the approved programme to the staff and people's representatives.
- iii) Carry out the planned programme, phase by phase, in a co-ordinated manner.

V. Evaluation of accomplishments

- i) Do concurrent evaluation.
- ii) Do *ex-post facto* evaluation.

Organisation for Planning

The concept of involving potential clientele in the planning of extension programmes has received widespread acceptance. Involvement of people in making decisions about educational objectives not only results in better decisions about educational objectives, but also speeds up the process of educational change. By participating in the analysis of the local situation, the people's representatives are better informed and are better prepared for positive action.

The following conditions should be met in order to ensure that a good organisation has been set up

1. All social systems and special interest groups are identified.

2. Members of the planning committee represent all major interest groups, various economic and social levels of people, major vocations of the locality and other important elements in the area.
3. Each member of the planning committee clearly understands
 - a) the purpose of the group;
 - b) how the group should function in attaining its purpose; and
 - c) his individual role as a member.
4. Members of the planning committee have been elected, nominated or co-opted by appropriate democratic procedures.

I. Planning process

1. Reaching understanding regarding principles, procedures, roles and time schedule

It is necessary that all staff and the people's representatives are familiar with the principles and procedures of programme planning for the purposes of clarity and uniformity of action.

The following conditions should be met in order to fulfill the spirit of this step:

- i). A clearly defined statement of purpose and roles of each member is given by the planning committee.
- ii). The block, district and state level extension workers and programme planning committee members have understood :
 - a) the roles of extension workers in programme planning;
 - b) the role of programme planning committee members;
 - c) the purpose of programme planning;

- d) the scope of extension's educational responsibilities;
- e) the procedures to be followed;
- f) the principles to be kept in view; and
- g) the time schedule to be followed.

2. Analyse situation

Situation analysis involves collection, analysis and interpretation of the existing facts. Good planning depends on the availability of adequate and reliable data and scientific elaboration and interpretation of the same.

The following criteria should be met in order to ensure that this step has been adequately followed.

- Facts needed to evaluate the accomplishment of the previous year's programme are collected.
- Local facts needed to define correct and projected needs and interests and problems of the area are assembled
- The basic facts assembled and collected about background information are analysed and interpreted.
- The major needs and problems of the area, which are within the scope of extension's educational responsibility, are identified.

3. Determine objectives

It is essential in the programme planning process that before deciding on the projects to be undertaken, basic objectives of the programme are determined by the villagers in consultation with the extension staff.

The following conditions or qualities will exist when objectives have been determined adequately and properly

- Objectives have been determined relating to major problems, need and/or interests as determined by the programme planning committee.
- Both immediate and long-term objectives have been determined.

4. Select problems with due regard to priorities

Selection of problems to be tackled will involve identification, classification and selection with due regard to priorities. Identification of problems will be done on the basis of situation analysis. Once the problems have been identified, it is desirable that they be properly classified into the following categories:

- Problems which can be solved by the people themselves with no outside financial aid.
- Problems which can be solved by the people with the aid of the Panchayat Samiti
- Problems which can only be solved with the help of Government funds

The following conditions will exist when the requirements of this step have been adequately met:

- Of the identified problems, the most felt and of widest concern are selected by the extension agents and people's representatives.
- Selected problems are related to the family, community block and situation.
- For tackling the selected problems, the time is scheduled on greatest priority basis

5. Find solutions to problems

The Village Level Workers at the village level and the concerned Extension Officer at the block level are two most important functionaries who advise the village families and the village institutions regarding solutions to their problems. The other Extension officials at various levels may join with the team in finding solutions to problems. Experiences of the farmers and suggestions of the specialists will help in arriving at a joint decision.

The following conditions will exist when this step has been properly carried out

- All the available research findings in the State are collected and projected.
- Block level and district level specialists make suitable solution to the problems according to the research findings.

II. Planned Programme

As Leagans (1961) pointed out, it is of utmost importance that the staff and the people in each area not only develop an extension programme, but also prepare the programme in a written form that is readily understood and is suitable for obtaining approval and use as a guide for officials and non-officials.

The problems should be stated from the viewpoint of the farm, the home and the community. They should not be stated in terms of solutions. The objectives should also be stated at a lower level in specific and measurable terms. They should include details about the learners to be reached subject matter to be taught and the behavioral changes to be effected. The objectives may also be stated from the point of view of the extension organisations and the extension public.

The following conditions will be met in order to have a good programme statement :

- The written programme should be suitable for use by the staff, planning groups and other individuals or groups concerned with the programme.
- It should clearly state the important problems or needs identified by the staff and the people in the programming process.
- It should specify the subject matter related to each objective that is highly significant to the people, socially or economically or both.
- It should be used as the basis for developing annual plans of work.

III. Plan of Work

Preparing a plan of activities directed towards solving selected problems is an important step. A plan of work is the listing of activities by which the objectives already decided upon are to be achieved.

The following conditions should exist in a good plan

- The plan of work is in written form.

- It has been developed co-operatively by the extension workers and people's representatives.
- It identifies the specific educational job to be done.
- The plan indicates for each educational job.
 - How it will be done
 - When it will be done
 - Where it will be done
 - Who will do it
 - What people are to be reached
- The subject matter is appropriate considering the people's level of interests, knowledge, attitude and available time and technology.
- The plan provides for the needed training of extension workers and leaders.
- Specific changes to be achieved or evidence of accomplishment are indicated clearly.

IV. Implementation Phase

1. Make advance arrangement for inputs and teaching aids

The conditions to meet the requirements of this step are

- Realistic needs of inputs such as fertiliser, seeds, credit facilities etc. have been worked out jointly by the areas extension staff and the Panchayat Raj institutions.

- Needed inputs have been procured well in time and stocked at proper places.
- Teaching aids to be used by the extension workers have been prepared and/or procured in sufficient quantity, well in time.

2. Interpret the approved programme to the staff and the people's representatives.

The following criteria will be met to ensure that this step has been adequately undertaken

- The approved programme has been explained adequately.
- The plan of work has also been explained adequately.
- They have been explained to all the block staff, all the people's representatives and other important leaders.

3. Carry out the plan of work

The approved programme should be carried out, step by step, according to the plan of work and in a co-ordinated manner. The success of a programme depends on the methods used to implement it.

It should be ensured that -

- the plans for coordination including calendar of activities within and outside extension agency system
- the techniques, methods and materials vary appropriate to the situation and clientele
- the subject matter used was appropriate considering the people and their objectives

- the plans for shared responsibilities were followed.

V. Evaluation of Accomplishments

Concurrent and *ex-post facto* review of progress towards the objectives is an essential phase of extension programme planning. This keeps the extension agency on the right track and helps in differentiating means from ends. Evaluation of the activities should be undertaken jointly by the extension staff and the people's representative organisations at different levels.

Conditions that will exist when this guideline is met are as under

- Evaluation plans were developed for each of the phases of the programme to be evaluated as indicated in the annual plan of work.
- A report of accomplishments and implications was made to the extension governing group. The governing group in projecting their plans for extension activities gave the findings from the report of accomplishments and implications.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What are the skills required by an extension planner?

ii) What are the components of Maunder's model of extension planning?

9.6 CONTEMPORARY EXTENSION MODELS

Emerging extension models extension education planners throughout the world face the difficult challenges of being creative in their programming development efforts and responsive to the needs of rural communities and farmers. In today's world, people are continuously involved in change process either as passive elements or as active citizens, more often as mere project recipients or targets.

Participatory model: Non-government paradigms in agricultural extension the predominant linear view of technology transfer is insufficient for addressing complex agricultural problems that exist, especially in a limited resource country like India. The time tested models like T&V system of extension and others are mostly top-down approaches and they are one-way paradigms. The inadequate linkages between research and extension establishments are a major weakness of development. Public sector extension systems have had limited success working with resource-poor farmers. The NGOs play an increasing important role in agricultural extension in developing countries. The ability of public extension institutions is especially limited due to inadequate human resource and facilities. Due to their good linkages with resource – poor farmers and grassroots organizations the NGOs have considerable advantage. They offer some refreshing alternative programmatic approaches compared to dominant agricultural technology transfer / extension paradigm.

The approach of NGOs is different from traditional extension models. They adopt participatory approach, progressive development and execution and operating through grassroots network. The participatory approach is significantly different from the predominant technology transfer paradigm. The farmer is not viewed as the “end recipient”

as in the case of top-down technology delivery models. Likewise extension worker is not just viewed as a “conduit” (channel) for conveying information to farmers. Rather than formulating a pre-packaged prescription for farmers, more effective NGOs regard farmers as valued partners in the development process at all levels of intervention need assessment, programme development, participatory technology development, implementation and evaluation. The partnership model entails giving equal value to the extension worker, and the farmers.

9.7 LET US SUM UP: After going through the lesson you must have understood that Extension programme planning is a decision-making process requiring higher intellectual activity. It is a planned and systematic process which is built around a content. It is in fact a social action process which happens to be collaborative in nature. Extension programme planning is needed because progress requires a design, and planning gives direction to the entire activity. Hence any extension activity requires that a good and effective model be developed. Various models of programme planning have been developed all of which highlight the stages in which the plans are developed and executed. In the contemporary world however, today the extension models have become more participatory in nature with adequate involvement of the NGOs.

9.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Following are the skills required by an extension worker at the stage of planning:

- Understanding the nature and role of extension education organization.

- Knowledge and understanding of the technology related to the subject with which the programme is concerned.
- Ability to clarify the objectives of a programme and to so state them that they are useful in guiding its execution.
- Skill at seeing the relationship between principles and practice.
- Skill at inquiry and human relationships.

2. Maunder's Model of extension programme planning involves the following stages:

- Collection and analysis of data
- Determining of needs and objectives
- Defining problems
- Finding solutions
- Selecting problems and determining priorities
- Preparing a plan of work
- Carrying out the plan
- Checking and evaluating results
- Review of progress and projection of plan

9.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q 1. Describe the need for developing a programme planning model.

Q 2. Describe in details Sandhu's model of extension planning.

9.10 SUGGESTED READING

1. S. Venkataiah (2001). New Dimensions of Extension Education. Anmol Publications Pvt Ltd: New Delhi.
2. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
3. V.K. Dubey and I. Bishnoi (2008). Extension Education and Communication. New Age International Ltd., Publishers: New Delhi.

HISTORY OF COMMUNICATION AND CONCEPT OF COMMUNICATION

STRUCTURE

- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Objectives
- 10.3 Meaning And Definition Of Communication
- 10.4 History of Communication
- 10.5 Characteristics of Communication
- 10.6 Key Aspects of The Communication Process
- 10.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 10.8 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 10.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 10.10 Suggested Reading

10.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous two Units we have learned that extension can be used to bring about sustainable changes in the lives of the rural population. Ever since its start in the 1950's in India, it has contributed in making definite changes in the lives of our rural counterparts. We have also understood that the discipline of extension education and extension service

are two faces of the same coin. From the preceding Unit we have understood about extension programme planning. We studied that an extension programme is a carefully prepared statement written in a form that clearly sets forth the significant changes that are need in the behavior of the people and in the conditions in which they live.

The current Unit pertains to the Process of Communication. In this 10th chapter we will study about the meaning and concept of communication along with tracing its history from the ancient to the modern times. You will also learn about the characteristics of communication process and basics of the communication process.

10.2 OBJECTIVES

The main objective is to make learner understand

- a) the basic concept and meaning of Communication
- b) history of Communication at different intervals of time
- c) Characteristic features of Communication and
- d) Elements of Communication Process

10.3 MEANING AND DEFINITIONS OF COMMUNICATION

The word ‘communication’ is derived from the Latin word, communis, which means ‘common’. Communication is a process, which involves organizing, selecting and transmitting codes in an appropriate way to ensure that the listener perceives and recreates in his/her own mind the intended meaning of the communicator. And, communication is not only

important as it facilitates mutual understanding but also because it is the crux of all human relations.

All life forms communicate, however man's ability to communication surpasses that of all other beings. Human beings alone have the power to express their ideas and feelings in words. Sight, sound, touch, smell and taste are modes of communication. Further, communication is a two-fold process between two parties—the sender and the receiver. It involves exchange and progression of thoughts, ideas, knowledge and information towards a mutually acceptable goals or direction. Communication performs many functions as well; it provides us information, it can influence change, helps in decision making and, most importantly, it becomes the basis of our social relationships.

Communication can be describe as a process wherein, one person stimulates an idea in another person's mind; it is not a panacea—that is, it can neither create nor help eliminate problems—but it definitely opens a platform to come out with problems, differences and conflicts, and resolve them. However, when communication is not effective, it can aggravate the problem. You must have observed when you are very angry and upset with someone, your pitch goes up, and your language becomes rude and gets out of control. At such moments, family or friends witnessing the situation may advise the arguing individual to be quiet, move to a different room, drink water or some such solutions. After a few hours or days the arguing persons may laugh over the matter they argued over, or they may be to find the reason in the other person's view and may be able to get over that moment of anger. What does the indicate? It means communication in itself is no answer. The content or feeling with which the communication is made is the deciding factors of its usefulness. Therefore, the question is not whether people are communicating or not, but what is it they are communicating about. Hence, the quality of communication cannot be determined by its quantity.

Educationists like to know more about it to make the teaching-learning process more interesting, sociologists and anthropologists use it to understand the process of change in societies and study its role in the power dynamics within groups and communities, psychologists use it to understand human behavior in different situations and behavioural problems emanating out of communication in relationships.

Public administrators examine the use of communication in designing strategies to change human behavior—— for instance, in promoting the use of contraceptives or prevention of HIV, in promoting immunization or the use of latrines. Communication is an essential element of participatory governance, as in the case of negotiating with people when their land is proposed to be used for large-scale infrastructure projects like dams and mining. Thus, we find that since a variety of profession use communication as a key element in their endeavour, we find a variety of definitions put forth by them with respect to their perceived understanding of the use of communication in their respective fields.

According to Paul Leagans (1961), an expert in the area of agricultural communication ‘communication is a process by which two or more persons exchange ideas, facts, impression in a way that each gains a common understanding of the meaning, content and use of message’.

According to Wilbur Schramn (1954), a well known communication expert, ‘communication occur when two corresponding systems couple together transfer along through one or more non- corresponding system assume identical status as a result of a single transfer along the chain, we are trying to establish commonness’.

According to John Dewey, an educationist, ‘communication is a process of sharing experiences till it becomes a common possession. It modifies the disposition of both the communicator and the receiver interacting in communication’. He emphasized that the shared experience is the key element.

According to Patri, a psychologist, ‘communication is a mode of transmitting information, culture, mode, emotions, thought, reactions as well as data in the form of symbols, figures and diagrams. Good communication reduces friction and promotes positivity.’

Dahama and Bhatnagar (2003), specialists of extension education, defined communication ‘as a process of social interaction, i.e. in a communication situation two or more individual interact’. Further, the *American College Dictionary* defines communication as ‘the imparting or interchange of thoughts, opinions and information by speech, writing or signs’ (quoted in Dahama and Bhatnagar 2003).

We can easily associate the following with the concept of communication from these definitions:

1. Communication is a two way process. It involves a sender and a receiver and there is a sharing of information among them. The sender and receiver can be an individual or a group.
2. Because of this exchange of information, communication leads to commonness and share experiences between the sender and receiver. The commonness includes factors like common culture, common language and common information.
3. Communication is basically meant to convey a message. Message can be in the form of information, a directive, an enquiry, a feeling, an opinion or an idea.
4. It provides an opportunity for the receiver to understand the message and share his/her response (feedback) with the sender.

All these definitions of communication help to clarify the concepts of communication, drawing attention to essential features of communication irrespective of the context like whether it is a communication between agriculture expert and farmers or a leader and his/her followers or a teacher and students. The basic of communication remain the same.

10.4 HISTORY OF COMMUNICATION

The history of communication can be largely attributed to two factors and their intrinsic interplay: (a) the prevailing socio-cultural and political factors and (b) the growth of communication technology.

Each of these factors influenced the other and determined the evolution of each. There is a direct relationship between technology and the socio-cultural and political ideologies prevailing in a society. The origin of communication can be attributed to nature, where different animals and birds used different signals to communicate. The crackling sound of the leaves, the sound of the breeze, the chirping of the birds, crying of the animals, all were but an example of communication. Even humans at that time used signals and gestures to communicate. Thus at different historical periods of time the progress of civilization has been shaped by the changing technologies. Let us now look at the various periods and the milestones of communication development within them.

The classical period

This period lasted from 5th century BC to 4th century AD. By this period human being had developed the basic skills and tools to communicate their ideas and the evolution of the human brain had made it possible for the species to master speech—a form of communication much more effective than signs and symbols. Speech meant easier coordination and cooperation, technological progress and development of complex, abstract concepts such as religion or science, and the transmission of information and knowledge down generations. This period also marked the development and focus on persuasion and argumentation as skills.

It was Aristotle, the famous Greek philosopher who was a student of Plato and the teacher of Alexander the Great, who—through his work *Rhetoric* (300BC)—made an attempt to examine the underlying elements of persuasion through public speaking. He

identified five canons of public speaking: invention, arrangement, style, memory and delivery. Invention referred to the idea or subject of an individual's speech, and the discovering of facts and arguments that could lead to sound conclusions. Arrangement was the ordering of ideas in one's speech so that it was effective. Style referred to the selection of words and expressions to clearly convey the message. Memory referred to the memorizing of speeches, as without it an oral speech could not be effective; Aristotle laid stress on techniques of memory enhancing. The final aspect was delivery, which included not only the voicing of a speech but also the various non-verbal elements incorporated within it. In addition this, Aristotle identified three modes of persuasion: 'ethos' using words that indicate a good moral character of the speaker; 'logos', using words that indicate that the speaker thrives on logic and reasoning; and 'pathos', use of emotions in one's speech to sway the audience and gain their confidence.

The Medieval and Renaissance periods

The Medieval Period lasted from 400 to 1400 AD, while the Renaissance period spanned from 1400 to 1600 AD. The particular highlight of these periods was that communication was no more limited to merely discovering the truth or clarifying the facts. Instead it went ahead to focus on how communication be expedited. Modes of communication during the Medieval Period were very limited. In the absence of the mass communication methods, postal service and the internet, correspondence took place in the form of letters delivered by private messengers. Letters were written on parchments with the use of ink and quill. Books were written by hand and were expensive. The focus in this era was not on oral communication, but on preaching the principles of spirituality. Rhetoric took a backseat (for further information, see <http://educators.medievaltimes.com/1-2-communication.html>; accessed 31 March 2016).

The Modern Period

Spanning from 1600 to 1900 AD, this particular period saw the advent of democratic and political reforms with many powerful politicians emerging during this era. As a consequence, rhetoric, which had been overshadowed by the preaching and teaching practices in the Renaissance Period, was again revived and took centre stage. Public speaking and mass addressing became a norm in this period. According to Patri and Patri (2002), four directions emerged in the area of communication at this time:

1. The classical approach where insights in terms of truth were ascertained.
2. The psychological approach which sought to understand the link between communication and thought.
3. The belletristic approach where the focus was on writing and due to which speaking was perceived as an art form and standards of judging creative arts like drama, poetry, etc. emerged.
4. The evolutionary approach which tried to look into how verbal and non-verbal presentations can be improved in oratory, through instruction and training.

As a result of these four directions, a lot of thrust was given to the research in communication. Research was done on various fields, from the process of communication to the style of communication and development of tool kits and guides for effective communication. The emphasis thus shifted on making communication effective through the application of these approaches and developing research-based innovations in the area of communication.

The Contemporary Period

This particular period which includes the 20th and 21st centuries thrives on the development of new-age technology. Computer-based technologies have led to the possibility of the transfer and management of data of all sorts (data files, music, videos, etc), opportunities to network and create new communities cutting across socio-cultural

and political boundaries, and the emergence of real-time information systems which gets information as it happens across great distance.

We live in an era of human history where huge changes take place from one generation to the next. Cave drawings were murals that people painted onto walls of cave and canyons to tell the story of their culture. Drums were one way to send signals to neighboring tribes and groups. The drumming pattern would tell them of concerns and events they needed to know. Smoke signals were another way to send messages to people who were not close enough to communicate via words. But today, one can't imagine living without a cell phone. Internet, social networking, applications, voice routing, e-books are just a few examples of the advancements being made in the field of communication today.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What is communication?

ii) What are the features of communication in the contemporary society?

10.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF COMMUNICATION:

The characteristic of communication is explained below:

- 1. Communication is a Universal process:** Every day from the time we wake up in the morning to the time we go to bed. We find ourselves in different situations of communication. Communication is all pervasive and omnipresent. It is present everywhere, be it at home, at work or at play. Each individual, young or old in formal or informal environment is engaged in the process of communication. When

we are aware, 70 per cent of our time is spent in communicating. Sharing and exchanging of information is a continuous process and it continues in all contexts, be it personal or professional.

2. **Communication may be Formal or Informal:** Communication may occur formally or informally. Formal or organizational communication follows the principle of scalar chain hierarchy where communication flows through different levels of hierarchy. For example, while applying for a vacant position in an organization, usually, we have to communicate first with the human resources department and then our letter/ mail will be forwarded to the specific department we want to be part of and finally we have to meet with the head of the organization. Informal communication does not need an order or official channel for flow of communication. Members of the group feel free to communicate with anyone and are not required to take cognizance of any hierarchy. A group of friends talking among themselves is an example of informal communication.
3. **Communication is a Cultural Process:** Culture defines the rules, norms, beliefs and attitudes prevailing in a society. It may be alright in some cultures to call seniors colleagues by their first names and in others it may be considered rude. Thus, culture also influences content, styles, approach and channels of communication. We adapt our words and symbols in accordance to the prevailing cultural systems. People from different cultures differ in the meaning they assign to words. Effective communication requires that we select appropriate symbols (verbal and non-verbal) in accordance to the other person and the meaning they will derive from it and not what we may think.
4. **Communication is Purposeful:** All communication has a purpose. Communication happens because there is a purpose to it; there is meaning attached to it. The

purpose may be personal or social gratification, problem solving, decision making or even venting out our emotions for that matter.

5. **Communication is both an Art and a Science:** Human beings are social animals and possess an urge to communicate; to express their feelings and thoughts. It was earlier perceived that effective communicators possess these qualities because they have inherited them. This misconception that communication is an inborn quality has now become obsolete. Scientific research into the discipline of human communication has given ground to the theory that communication skills can be acquired through training and practice. The knowledge of various aspects of communication skills can be learnt to enhance communication skills. Communication is therefore a science; its learning is based on a body of knowledge that the discipline has. Communication theory is based on certain principles which are fundamental to the discipline. The discipline has distinct models that help comprehend communication in all its forms. Systematic learning within the vast body of knowledge of human communication will lead people to enhance their skills and become effective communicators. Which means, for instance, the results of watching the same film or listening to a lecture can be measured to objectively show why one is better than the other.

Communication is an art. Just as how one story can be told by different filmmakers very differently, the same content can be conveyed to students very differently by different teachers. This skill can be learnt with training and practice. As communication is related to the behavioral aspects of the individual involved, each individual behaves or perceives a situation different from the other. This makes every interaction unique. There is no one best way to communicate. Each individual has her/his own personal style of communicating; which makes her/him different.

Even though two communicators may have the same level of knowledge, how they express themselves to explain the same concept depends on their individual selection of words, expressions and examples. Their understanding of information is manifested in their presentation which makes one better than the other. You may find a particular teacher better than the other because of her/ his ability to explain. You may like any particular actor better than the other due to their action skills. Although it is difficult to pinpoint one single logical reason for why someone is an effective communicator, there is no denying that the uniqueness of the communicator tends creativity to communication. Many reported personalities have garnered visibility and appreciation because of the way they articulate their thoughts. Some people can negotiate better than the others. This is the art of communication.

Hence communication is both an art and a science; it has its own approach, its own set of theories, yet it is based on the individual's practical skills and the dynamics that prevail. The art and science of communication intricately interwoven as both theoretical and practical information are needed by individual to appropriately respond to situations.

Having understood the nature of communication, it is important for us to look at the misconceptions about communication; which are pre-conceived notions most of us have in our minds about the process of communication and its ability.

1. **Communication is an answer to all problems:** Communicating has the potential to solve our problems, relationships and apprehensions. Talking it out does make a difference; but it does not necessarily always lead to a solution to the problem. Sometimes it can be futile to communicate, while at others, it may worsen the

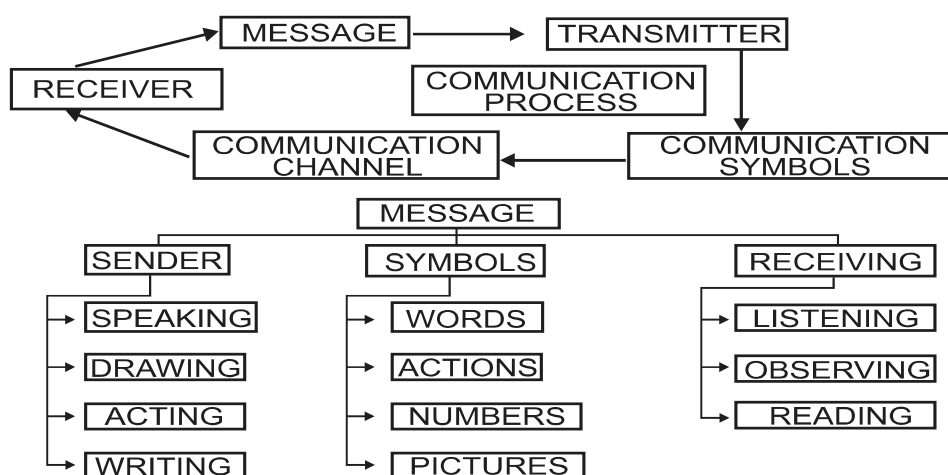
situation. Again, it is the quality of communication- and not the amount-that affects the potential to solve our problems.

2. **Communication can go kaput:** Letting oneself stop or restraining from communicating does not mean that communication has stopped working or it has collapsed. Communication can never breakdown, while the situation or a relationship can. People may fail to interact, but the potential of communication to foster change does not go down.
3. **Communication is an innate forte:** We are not born with the inherent ability to communicate; we gradually learn and, in the process, excel in communicating effectively. Communication is not a natural instinct; over time we get ourselves trained to communicate agreeably.
4. **Communication is a positive affair:** Communication is neither good nor bad; it is neither positive nor negative as a phenomenon. It is just a medium that can improve or deteriorate through our day-to-day interactions. The final output of communication thus depends on how we use it.
5. **Expression has significance:** It is generally assumed that the way we express ourselves, through words, language, actions and other non-verbal symbols gives out what we want to convey entirely. But, expressions just by themselves do not have much significance or meaning associated with them. The actual meaning is derived by the people or the individuals who are communicating with.

10.6 KEY ASPECTS OF THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

After having understood what communication is, its nature and the misconceptions associated with it, let us now glance through the various possibilities of communication interactions. Communication can be: (a) mediated, when it uses certain technology as the primary channel, or (b) unmediated, when it primarily thrives on the interaction between the participating parties without the use of any technology. Communication could also be: (a) verbal, when we use words in the form of speech or writing to communicate, or (b) non-verbal, when it involves the use of symbols- such as gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, tone of voice, use of space and touch.

Central to human communication are certain key aspects which help understand the process of communication and the conveying of meaning. Understanding these aspects provides valuable insights about communication and helps understand the variations in our communication and the factors influencing them. The key aspects of the communication process are:



The Process of Communication

1. Communication context: All communication takes place in a context, i.e. the environment in which communication takes place. A change in the context influences the nature of communication.

2. **Source-Receiver:** The communicator or sender is the person who is sending the message, while the receiver is the recipient of the message. The source/receiver can be an individual, group or an organization and decides not only the content of the message but also its encoding and decoding.
3. **Message:** It is the key idea that the sender plans to communicate. It elicits the response of the receiver. The message must be so designed that it is easily comprehended by the receiver. The message may take any form as in writing, in speech or signals.
4. **Channel:** The communication channel is the medium through which the message is exchanged between the sender and the receiver. The sender may use any channel depending on availability, convenience and requirement; and it should be chosen such that the message reaches the receiver as expected.
5. **Feedback:** Feedback is the response to the sender's message. Feedback allows the communicator to adjust message and be more effective. Messages sent back to the communicator by the receivers tell the former about the effects of communication on them.
6. **Noise:** Noise prevents a receiver from getting as well as understanding the message a source is sending. Noise acts as a barrier for effective communication and must be reduced as far as possible.
7. **Effects:** Communication always has some effect on one or more persons involved in the communication act. These may include enhanced knowledge and new learning (cognitive effects), change in attitude, beliefs, emotions and feelings (affective effects), and/or learn new skills (psycho-motor skills).

The key aspects of the communication process make it a cyclic process with the element of feedback incorporated. These key aspects help us to understand the various types of communication using multiple channels for different purposes.

10.7 LET US SUM UP

Communication is transmission and interaction of ideas, facts, opinions, feelings or attitudes. Communication plays a vital role in changing the behaviour of the receiver i.e. without communication no work can be done successfully. It could be in the form of words, symbols, signs, letters or actions. Essentially, communicating therefore is a process that uses a set of media to share ideas, facts, feeling from one individual to another. The whole process of communication involves the elements like message, transmitter, communication symbols, communication channel and receiver. For good communication ten commandments are required like, clarifying of ideas before communicating, examine the true purposes of communication, take that entire environment, physical and human into consideration, beware of the overtones as well as the basic content of the message, communicate with the future as well as the present in mind, be a good listener.

10.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Communication is a two way process. It involves a sender and a receiver and there is a sharing of information among them. The sender and receiver can be an individual or a group. It provides an opportunity for the receiver to understand the message and share his/her response (feedback) with the sender.
2. The contemporary period thrives on the development of new-age technology. Computer-based technologies have led to the possibility of the transfer and management of data of all sorts, opportunities to network and create new communities cutting across socio-cultural

and political boundaries, and the emergence of real-time information systems which gets information as it happens across great distance. Internet, Mobile phones and other computer aided mechanisms have added a new dimension to communication.

10.9 SELF CHECK EXERCISE:

- Q1. Explain in details the meaning and concept of communication.
- Q2. Trace the history of Communication from the ancient to the present times.
- Q3. Elaborate on the characteristic features of communication.
- Q4. What are the key elements of the Communication process?

10.10 SUGGESTED READING

- 1. B.P. Mohapatra (2016). Dimensions of Extension Education. New India Publishing Agency.
- 2. G.L. Ray (2015). Extension Communication and Management. Kalyani Publishers.
- 3. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
- 4. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
- 5. V.K. Dubey and I. Bishnoi (2008). Extension Education and Communication. New Age International Ltd., Publishers: New Delhi.

NATURE AND SCOPE OF COMMUNICATION

STRUCTURE

- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Objectives
- 11.3 Nature of communication : An introduction
 - 11.3.1 Is communication an art or a science.
 - 11.3.2 Communication is an art and science
 - 11.3.3 Communication is a social process
 - 11.3.4 Communication is a Human Process
- 11.4 Scope of communication
 - 11.4.1 Verbal
 - 11.4.2 Non verbal
 - 11.4.3 Levels of communication
 - 11.4.4 Communication and different fields
 - 11.4.5 Communication industry
 - 11.4.6 Communication in management
 - 11.4.7 Communication removes the time lag
- 11.5 Let Us Sum Up

11.6 Answers to Check Your Progress

11.7 Lesson End Exercise

11.8 Suggested Reading

11.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous lesson we read that communication is a process, which involves organizing, selecting and transmitting codes in an appropriate way to ensure that the listener perceives and recreates in his/her own mind the intended meaning of the communicator. It is an exchange between two or more people where there is transmission and interchange of facts, feelings, ideas and course of action. We also have traced the history of communication from the ancient period to the modern times and have understood that it is a universal phenomenon. Now, in this lesson we will learn about the nature and scope of communication.

11.2 OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this lesson is to make the students understand the nature and scope of communication.

11.3 NATURE OF COMMUNICATION : AN INTRODUCTION

Organisations are represented as communication systems. It is a formal process to accomplish the desired common goals. It is an exchange of information between individuals, groups, departments, etc. Every organisation has its own sub-systems and there is always interaction and interface between sub-systems to achieve goals. Communication transmits information and data to the sub-systems as well as to the total

system. Management information system operates effectively through communication. It involves information gathering, processing, and monitoring.

It includes both present and past information. Communication is a tool and vital aspect of management process. As a matter of fact superior-subordinate relationship can exist only with effective and meaningful communication. There must be two parties to the process of communication. The communicator or sender or transmitter of message and the receiver or recipient or listener or reader is another party at the end. The nature of communication is exchange of message and interaction. Communication may be through written or verbal action, figures, pictures.

The purpose of communication is to make others to understand and act upon it accordingly in the same sense. Communication is effective when the message is shared and understood with one another. There can be no communication if the information is not understood by the receiver in the same sense as it was intended to be by the communicator. It need not be necessary in effective communication that the receiver must agree or accept the information. It is sufficient if the information is understood even though information is rejected or disagreement exists.

11.3.1 Is Communication An Art Or A Science?

The concept of communication is universal and is as old as human beings. That is why different views have been expressed about the nature of communication. The nature of communication becomes clearer with the following important issues :

1. Is communication an inborn quality?
2. Is communication a science or an art?
3. Are the principles of communication of universal application? .

These question are often raised. For answers to these questions, it is necessary to understand the exact meaning of the terms, science and art.

1. Communication, an Inborn Quality

Communication is an inborn quality. To communicate with one another is a compulsive urge of human beings. Communication is like birth, death, breath and wanting to be loved as an art or of life itself. Man is a communication animal because he alone has the power to express in words. Sight, sound, touch, smell and taste are the modes of exchange of messages.

No doubt, communication is an inborn quality but not an inborn quality without scientific base. In the pre-scientific management of communication period, prior to 1880, there had been a leading concept that communication was an inborn quality. Many people believed that it is not necessary to study any organised body of knowledge of communication concepts, principles, as managers were born and not made. There may be some people who are so efficient and talented in making effective communication since their birth, they lead and are successful in effective exchange of ideas, feelings, facts etc. But, as we see today, this concept has become obsolete by the development of the faculty of communication as a separate discipline.

Therefore, to communicate effectively, it is necessary that one should acquire skills of communication like speaking skills, listening skills, writing skills, reading skills. This is the reason why successful and effective communicators are made but not born. Therefore, this subject is the story of man and his efforts to achieve effective communication. Prehistoric man produced sounds and sent smoke-signals, gestures to convey his feelings. Civilization and cultural progress was possible through communication. It was within the family and very closely living people helped the primitive communities to achieve this.

The last century witnessed the rapid transmission of communication by electronic media which became possible due to the rapid advancement of sophisticated communication technologies. In this “age of communication” the most significant technologies are based

on silicon chips, the lesser, fiber optics and a set of technologies known as biotechnologies. The information technology revolution has transformed the communication conscious human society into a global village.

What is Science?

Science may be defined as an organised and systematized body of knowledge based on proper findings and exact principles, pertaining to an area of study and contain some general truths explaining the past events or phenomena. The body of knowledge has been systematised through the application of scientific methods. Thus we may speak of the science of astronomy, physical sciences, biological science, chemistry and social sciences like sociology, political science, economics etc.

We speak about these sciences to indicate accumulated knowledge with reference to the discovery of general truths. Science explains phenomenon because it establishes relationship between cause and effect and its principles are universally applicable. The hypotheses, which are generally called generalisations are tested for their accuracy. Science may be classified into two groups, namely, positive science and normative science. Positive science deals with “what is” and normative science deals with “what to be.”

The principles are universal and truthful. For instance, water is formed with two volumes of hydrogen mixed with one volume of oxygen. According to the law of gravitation, if anything is thrown towards the sky, it will come down to the earth. On the other hand, water turns into vapour when it is boiled.

What is Art?

Art is the ability or skill which is due more to practice than learning. In other words, art refers to the best way of doing things. It guides how an objective is to be achieved. The art of management deals with the application of skill and effort for accomplishing desirable results. It is knowing how the application part of a body of

knowledge is required. On the other hand, under science, one usually understands the knowing “why.”

According to Chester I. Barnard it is the function of the art to accomplish concrete ends, effect results, produce situations, that would not come about without the deliberate effort to secure them. It is the application of the body of knowledge acquired. Every art is practical in that the proof of the practitioner’s competence lies in the tangible results.

11.3.2 Communication is an Art and a Science

It is obvious that communication contains both the element those of a science and those of an art. Then, communication is both art and science. The science of communication provides a body of principles which can guide the managers to find a solution to the specific problems and objective evaluation of results. Like any art communication is also creative. It develops new situations, new designs and new systems needed for further improvement.

It is true that there is no best way of communicating. Everyone has his individual approach, skill, behaviour and techniques in dealing with a particular situation. So, communication is the oldest of the arts and the youngest of the sciences. The process of communication is very much related with the behavioural aspects of the people at work and their dynamics cannot be predicted in exact manner.

The limitation of social sciences is there with the science of communication. But, with the introduction of sophisticated communication technologies in the field, communication is fast growing as a science. The subject has an organised and systematised body of knowledge having its own theories, principles, concepts and nature.

The knowledge of communication can be imparted to newcomers also through formal training. Though communication is an inborn quality, it cannot be effective without

proper training. So, managers can be made effective communicators but they are not born.

To illustrate, a doctor knows the body of knowledge of science of anatomy. But, he also practices by applying the principles of science of anatomy. It is similar in a chemist, a physicist, an engineer etc. That is why theoretical knowledge is accompanied with practical work also. Similarly, the skills of communication should be theoretically acquired and practised as an art. The art of communication deals with the application of skill and effort for producing desirable results. So, as a conclusion, we can say that communication is a science as well as a social science, having its own approach, dynamics of different work situations. Both - the theoretical knowledge and the practical knowledge are necessary.

They are complementary to each other and are not mutually exclusive. With the increase in the technique and knowledge of communication, the art is to be improved. Communication science and communication art are indeed interwoven and overlapping in nature. It may be true to say that the art of communication is as old as human history, but the science of communication is an event of the recent past. The emergence of communication as a distinct and leading technology is a pivotal event in social history. In recent years considerable attention has been given to communication, resulting in the emergence of sophisticated communication technologies.

11.3.3 Communication is a Social Process

The above discussion establishes that communication process involves the sender of the message and the receiver of the message. In between, encoding and decoding of symbols takes place. Reception, listening and knowledge represent the reception stage. Communication is also a special process because there is interpersonal communication process in which two or more people are involved. In case of a written communication, the sender is a writer and receiver is a reader. In case of oral communication the speaker

transmits the message and the receiver is the listener. In the case of visual communication, the function of the receiver is observation.

Communication as a social process affects the entire society. It is a tool that enables everyone in society to satisfy his basic needs and desires and to get along with other people. As a social process, it is a means of recording and preserving knowledge by way of writing, symbols or by some other device to pass it on to the next generation. Thus, communication is not only a means of individual and group progress and social advancement. Society as a whole interacts in the communication process to influence the society.

11.3.4 Communication is a Human Process

Basically, communication is a human process - an art and craft of transmitting information. Communication is indeed an activity process, consisting of some basic techniques and models for getting information and transmitting of information on the activities or the enterprise for accomplishment of broad objectives. Whatever the broad objectives formulated by the management to be accomplished through organised efforts and co-operative endeavour of individuals and groups, communication becomes a necessity for informing, directing, co-ordinating and unifying the efforts of managerial people towards a common goal. It is the informing, collecting information and activating element in a business enterprise.

The art of getting things done through and with the people in a formally organised group cannot be achieved without a proper communication network. The job of management is to disseminate as much detailed information by various networks and media so as to enable the management groups to understand objectives, policies, procedures, rules to accomplish organisational objectives. On the other hand, it is the function of the management to gather detailed information from appropriate channels which helps managers

in making sound decisions and in turn to communicate. Thus, communication is a function of management by means of which purposes and objectives of an individual or group are determined, communicated, directed, coordinated and achieved.

Communication is a human process because two or more people are involved. In an oral communication, every word spoken requires a listener, every letter in a written communication requires a reader, every visual communication requires an observer. The receiver may respond by reporting to someone or by taking some action that will influence others. The recipient of the message in an organisation may try to tell it to someone else or respond by taking some action. communication, as an organizational process, affects all. It enables us to satisfy our basic needs and desires and to get along with other people. This human and organisational process is also the means of recording knowledge and passing it on to the succeeding generations. Without it, business enterprise cannot operate. Communication is the means of individual and group progress.

11.4 SCOPE OF COMMUNICATION

The scope of communication is very wide and comprehensive. It is a subject of almost unlimited dimensions and is a interdisciplinary one.

11.4.1 Verbal : The researches show that, on an average, a person spends about 45% percent of his active time on communicating verbally—listening, speaking, reading and writing. In other words each of us spend about 10 or 11 hours a day on verbal communication. Language is one of the codes we use to express our ideas.

11.4.2 Non-verbal: Non-verbal, communication includes the gestures, facial expressions level of movements of arts etc, which make our communication more effective.

11.4.3 People communicate on many levels: For many reasons, with many people, and in many ways, a typical man on an average day may communicate in the following ways (the illustration is of an Agricultural Extension Officer).

- (a) He reaches his office and gets his mails-it is written communication.
- (b) He reaches a peon in the office conveys to him that the BDO wants him in his office-it is spoken communication.
- (c) When the clerk enters his office and greets him with a “Namaste, Sir? - it is spoken communication .
- (d) He conducts a meeting of VLWs-it is group-communication
- (e) When he comes back to his office and is engaged in thought about writing the report-it is self-communication.
- (f) He goes through the reports from the VLWs-it is written communication again.

11.4.4 Communication in different field: The word communication has become popular in management, in industry, in agricultural universities the extension services and advertisements, newspapers, magazines, photography, journalism are markets for professional communicators. The market has been increased by the need for advertising and public relations experts, radio, television and film producers, audio-visual experts, etc.

11.4.5 Communication industry: Opinion seekers, attitude researches and marketing researchers, etc., all play their roles in the communication industry. On the basis of researches differentiation can be made between advertisements. The audio-visual experts create the impact of the message on the audience.

11.4.6 Communication in management: In industrial management most of the time the working days is spent in talking, giving information to subordinates, receiving information

from top management and transmitting it to them. Meetings and interviewing increases the efficiency of workers and improves coordination. As automisation develops even the mere machine operator will spend more time in manipulating symbols.

11.4.7 Communication removes the time-lag: The accelerated pace of research has made it more difficult for scientific, technical and operating personnel to keep abreast of recent developments. An extension worker in agriculture is outdated if he lacks communication about the latest researches on wheat, paddy, soybean and other crops varieties, the use of fertilisers; and the plant protection measures developed in the last given years. This necessitates in-service training, development of communication centres, extension directorates and other such agencies to keep them up-to-date. Similarly the farmers have to be demonstrated the improved practices, given information through radio-programmes, supplied with literature which they can follow, they have to be given the opportunities of seeing demonstrations, exhibitions, the farms of the progressive farmers or agricultural colleges, etc. If this gap between the knowledge developed and the technology known to extension workers and farmers is widened, the pace of progress will be slow.

Thus, the scope of communication is very wide and comprehensive. It is a two way process involving both transmission as well as reception. It is a continuous process of exchange of facts, ideas, feelings, attitudes, opinions, figures, and interactions with others. In the process, it uses a set of symbols; symbols may be words, action, pictures, figures. Communication, however, does not mean downward movement of sending directions, orders, instructions etc. It is only one-way communication.

Two-way communication represents movement of communication upward. Internal communication flows in different directions - vertical, horizontal, diagonal, across the organisation structure. Internal communication may be formal and informal. External communication is concerned with transmission of messages outside the organisation with

Government and its departments, customers, dealers, intercorporate bodies, general public investors, etc. External communication promotes goodwill with the public. Internal communication helps in discharge of managerial functions like planning, direction, coordination, motivation etc.

The broad policies and objectives flow downward from top management to a lower level. Both written and oral or verbal media can be used to transmit messages. Written media consist of instructions, orders, letters, memos, house journals, posters, bulletins, boards, information racks, handbooks, manuals, annual reports, union publications, etc. Verbal media may consist of face-to-face conversation, lectures, conferences, meetings, interviews, counselling, public address system, telephone, grapevine, etc. Recently, a number of sophisticated communication technologies have emerged, both in oral and written communication on account of technological advancement.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) Is communication a social process?

ii) What are the components of non verbal communication?

11.5 LET US SUM UP

Communication is an exchange of information between individuals, groups, departments etc. It includes both present and past information. Communication is a tool and vital aspect

of management process. As a matter of fact superior-subordinate relationship can exist only with effective and meaningful communication.

The purpose of communication is to make others to understand and act upon it accordingly in the same sense. The concept of communication is universal and is as old as human beings. Communication is an inborn quality. To communicate with one another is an compulsive urge of human beings. Communication is like birth, death, breath and wanting to be loved as an art or of life itself. No doubt, communication is an inborn quality but not an inborn quality without scientific base. To communicate effectively, it is necessary that one should acquire skills of communication like speaking skills, listening skills, writing skills, reading skills. Communication is both an art and science. The science of communication provides a body of principles which can guide the managers to find a solution to the specific problems and objective evaluation of results.

11.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Communication is a social process as it affects the entire society. It is a tool that enables everyone in society to satisfy his basic needs and desires and to get along with other people. As a social process, it is a means of recording and preserving knowledge by way of writing, symbols or by some other device to pass it on to the next generation. Society as a whole interacts in the communication process to influence the society.
2. Non verbal communication includes gestures, facial expressions, body language, proximity or distance between people etc

11.7 LESSON END EXERCISE

- Q.1 Discuss the scope of communication.
- Q.2 Discuss whether communication is an art or a science.
- Q.3 Describe the nature of communication.

11.8 SUGGESTED READING

1. B.P. Mohapatra (2016). Dimensions of Extension Education. New India Publishing Agency.
2. G.L. Ray (2015). Extension Communication and Management. Kalyani Publishers.
3. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
4. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
5. V.K. Dubey and I. Bishnoi (2008). Extension Education and Communication. New Age International Ltd., Publishers: New Delhi.

FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION
AWARENESS OF SELF IN COMMUNICATION
PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNICATION

STUCTURE

- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Objectives
- 12.3 Functions of communication
- 12.4 Awareness of self-confidence
- 12.5 Principles of communication
- 12.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 12.7 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 12.8 Lesson End Exercise
- 12.9 Suggested Reading

12.1 INTRODUCTION

Lesson 11 dealt with the nature and scope of communication. It emphasized that the concept of communication is universal and is as old as the human race itself. Communication contains the elements of both art and science. It is both a social as well as a human process. Further, the scope of communication is broad and includes both verbal as well as non verbal components. Now, in this lesson we will learn about the functions of

communication, along with understanding the role of self awareness in communication. The last section of the lesson deals with the principles of communication.

12.2 Objectives

This lesson aims to help students understand:

- i. Functions of communication
- ii. Role of self-awareness in communication
- iii. Principles of communication

12.3 FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION

One of the functions of communication which humanity has developed to their extreme social advantage is that of communicating to some living aspect of the environment (such as a person) in order to establish, maintain, exploit or alter the relationship with that person. According to Lee Thayer the basic functions of communication may be categorised as under:

12.3.1 The information Function

The basic elements of adapting oneself to the environment or adapting the environment to oneself is information we must have some information about going on in our environments to concern ourselves about it. And we must have some information about ourselves, our intentions, goals, etc., in order to have something to be concerned about. So the getting or giving of information thus underlies all communication encounters, either directly or indirectly. Information is basic to all of the other applied functions of communication. Communication is not going to occur unless someone is acquiring and consuming some information about himself or his environment.

Usually, when we speak of informative communication, we refer to ‘international’ communication. That is, we refer to the consequences of reactions intended or sought by the originator.

Thus the purpose of function or communication in an organisation is to inform the individual or group about the subject. Top management informs policies to the lower level through the middle level. In turn the lower level informs the top level of the reaction through to middle level. Information exchange flows vertically, horizontally and diagonally across the organisation. Becoming informed or informing others is the main purpose of communication.

12.3.2. Instructive or Command functions

The instructive function invariably deals with the commanding nature. It is more or less of directive nature. Under this, the communicator transmits with the necessary directives and guidance so as to enable them to accomplish his tasks. In this, instructions flow downwards from top to the lower level.

Those who are hierarchically superior (in family, business, military, civic or personal life) often initiate communication either for the purpose of informing their subordinates or for the purpose of telling them what to do, how to do, etc.

One of the expectations that properly socialised subordinates bring to their relationships with superior is that they are obliged to accept certain kinds of orders from certain superiors to do certain kinds of things. When the rules about who can order whom to do what thing, are mutually understood, neither the superior nor the subordinate expects to engage in a dialogue.

The command and instructive functions of communication are more observable in formal organisations than they are in informal organisation. Individuals who are hierarchically

(positionally) superior within an organisational structure are both privileged and obligated to command (and/or to control) certain task-related behaviour of their subordinates.

According to David Barlo, a person can and will accept a communication as authoritative only when the following four conditions are simultaneously obtained:

1. he can and does understand the communication.
2. at the time of his decision he believes that it is not inconsistent with the purpose of organisation
3. at the time of his decision, he believes it to be compatible with his personal interest as a whole; and
4. he is able, mentally and physically to comply with it.

The command purpose of communication is as pertinent to informal relations as it is to formal relations although in ways which are probably not as apparent.

Informal relations which persist over a time, particularly two person or one person face-to-face encounter, are founded upon mutually understood relationships prescribing certain behaviour towards one another. The participants continuously exercise some permanent or momentary prerogative they have in order to command the behaviour of another person.

Whenever we exercise such a prerogative to order or direct another's behaviour in some way, the communication which occurs is serving the command purpose. Whether being exercised by one person or by an aggregate in some collective way, the command function inevitably underlies much human interaction.

12.3.3 Influencing Function: A complete communication process is necessary in influencing others or being influenced. It implies the provision of feedback which tells the effect of communication. Motivational forces in an individual are to be provided and then stimulated through communication. Motivation is a behavioural concept through which

one may try to understand why people behave as they do. Motivation is the result of interaction among three groups of factors such as (a) Influences working within the individual, (b) Influences working within the organisation. (c) Influences working in the external environment.

According to Berlo (1950), the sole purpose of communication is to influence. We communicate to influence, to effect with intent the behaviour of other person(s).

Aristotle defined the study of rhetoric (communication) as the search for all the available means of persuasion. So he implied that the main aim of communication was 'persuasion'.

The purpose of influencing another's comprehending system in some way would be to alter that receiver's general beliefs, understandings, values, orientations, etc., in some desired way. By contrast, influencing another's behaviour is typically more action specific and situational.

12.3.4 Integrative function:

It is a unifying function under which integration of activities is endeavoured. The integration function of communication mainly involves to bring about inter-relationship among the various functions. It helps in the unification of management function.

The major functions of communication at the interpersonal level is that of self integration or of continuously offsetting any disintegration, (i.e. entropy that might otherwise occur).

At the level of formal organisation, larger than face-to-face human groups, integrative functions are provided by bureaucratisation, proceduralisation, industrialisation, etc. When a social system exceeds the integrative limits of face-to-face encounters, the necessary integration mechanisms become embedded in that social systems, literature, art, folklore, mythology beliefs, mores, orientations, etiquette and institutional practices.

It is important to realise that the integrative functions of communication (as is true for all the functions of communication) are ephemeral. Undoubtedly there is some advantage both to the individual and to the organisation in the relative integrity of their perspective structures. But this advantage would hold only if the competencies or capabilities thus created have some value or usefulness to the adaptive or the goal pursuing capabilities of the individual and or the organisation.

In the seventeenth century a school of thought known as faculty of Psychology made clear distinction between the 'mind' and 'soul'. This-mind-soul dualism was interpreted as a basis for two independent purposes for communication. One purpose was intellectual and the other was emotional. By this theory, one purpose of communication was informative, an appeal to mind. A second purpose was persuasive, an appeal to the soul, the emotions. A third purpose was entertainment. There has, however, been a tendency to interpret these purposes, as exclusive. One is not giving information when he is entertaining or entertaining when he is persuading and so on.

Schramm (1949) described the purpose of communication as immediate reward and delayed reward. He suggested that individuals are rewarded immediately on receiving or producing some kind of message. Both these are consummatory purposes. For example, an artist may compose a piece of music and be satisfied in the composing process. As against this, the purpose of communication could be instrumental, e.g., the favourable response produced in his audience is instrumental in producing further behaviour on their part.

All communication behaviour has as its purpose, its goals, the production of a response. When we learn to phrase our purpose in terms of specific responses from those attending to our messages, we have taken the first step towards efficient and effective

communication. The failure to affect the receiver in way that was intended can be attributed to one or both of the two causes-inefficiency and or misperception.

12.3.5 Evaluation Function: Examination of activities to form an idea or judgement of the worth of task is achieved through communication. Communication is a tool to appraise the individual, his contribution to the organisation. Evaluating one's own inputs or another outputs or some ideological scheme demands an adequate and effective communication process.

12.3.6 Directive Function: Communication is necessary to issue directions by the top management or managers to the lower level. Directing others or being directed or instructed cannot take place without a complete communication process. The managerial function of directing involves giving orders to employees immediately subordinate to do a task, stop it or modify it. Directing others may be communicated either orally or in writing. An order may be a common, request order or implied order.

12.3.7 Incidental Neutral Function: Communication discharges several incidental and neutral functions. Many pieces of communication are not directly connected with the accomplishment of the objectives of an organisation. Communication sometimes may contribute indirectly to the organisational goals. For instance, communication has to provide social contact within the organisation.

12.3.8 Teaching Function: The importance of personal safety on the job has been greatly recognised. A complete communication process is required to teach and educate workers about personal safety on the jobs. This communication helps the workers to avert accidents, risks etc. and avoid cost, procedures etc.

12.3.9 Image Projecting Function: A business enterprise cannot survive by remaining aloof from the rest of the society. There is interrelationship and interdependence between the society and an enterprise operating in the society. Public goodwill and confidence are

necessarily created among the public. It is the communication with its multimedia approach which has to project the image of the firm in the society. Through an effective external communication system, an enterprise has to inform the society about its goals, activities, progress, and social responsibilities.

12.3.10 Orientation Function: The employees of the organisation are to be oriented with the organisation structure. Communication helps to make people acquainted with the co-employees, superiors and with the policies, objectives, rules and regulations of the organisation.

12.3.11 Interview Function: Interview as a medium of communication. It is through interviewing people, the interviewer selects qualified and worthy people for the enterprise. Recruitment process implies face-to-face or oral communication.

12.3.12 Other Functions: Effective decision-making is possible when required and adequate information is supplied to the decision-maker. Communication, either verbal or written, helps the, process of decision-making. In general, everyone in the organisation has to provide with necessary information so as to enable them discharge tasks effectively and efficiently.

12.4 AWARENESS OF SELF-CONFIDENCE IN COMMUNICATION

Self-confidence is an essential interpersonal variable for effective communication. The literary meaning of the word “self-confidence” is trust or belief in one’s confidence. It is a belief and faith in one’s own ability to speak. The manager when he is communicating a piece of information gives in the belief that he is transmitting messages in such a way that the receiver receives it and understands the message. In other words, the communicator must have a great deal of trust in oneself or in one’s own power of communication. Oral

communication is more than a physical process. It has also psychological aspects like establishing justification, developing confidence, etc.

Self-confidence is one thing to speak about the message and quite another thing to have confidence and preserve the same throughout the communication process with the greatest of vigilance and care. One has to be self-trusted and strong minded to exchange one's message in an understandable manner. There are so many temptations around us and it is always possible that the calls and worries of the organisational problems continuously haunts a person and opportunities go astray.

It is, therefore far simpler to follow a crooked way than stay Judiciously in the in the right course. The weak and the vacillating will hardly make the grade of the man with a good conduct as they are to fall victims to some alluring situations. The weakminded managers are generally dazzled by the glamour and colour of experience tasks. In course of time, however, the inevitable is bound to happen and the weak people become converted to the ways of their experienced comparison.

Self-confidence is the most important characteristic as an essential interpersonal variable for effective communication. Mental qualities find their highest manifestation in self-confidence. With trust and belief a person can communicate more effectively. The old proverb says, "where there is a will, there is a way." Similarly, where there is self-confidence, there would be good communication. It is an art which can be perfected by experience and practice but cannot be fully taught.

The process of building up of self-confidence consists efforts of mental exercise and situation dealings that have to be undergone before a person may hope to acquire the full control over his self or over his will. If the self and the will are strong fanned by the desired goals, the way is generally open to him, the way of all the tenacity and preservance that a person has. It is, therefore, not easy to have a determined belief or trust outright.

One has to experience various interpersonal situations of communication and work for it with all efforts availing opportunities and one has to develop and grow self-confidence gradually and steadily. Analysis of interpersonal communication situations reveals that one good interaction everyday adds to his self-confidence as one every work will eat into it and hamper its development.

It is not always easy to cultivate one's self-confidence without proper feedback. Managers just occupying positions or beginners may have temperamental capabilities and in these formative periods of interactions, one can make or unmake one's self-confidence. Experience in practical situations is not yet fully set and there is enormous scope for improvement of self-confidence.

One has to develop justifiable self-confidence for this purpose. M.P.Wolf etc. have suggested to maintain a personal achievement journal. They suggested to record particulars of success, failures, experiences which can help to learn, improve and achieve. "From those summaries, write quarterly and yearly accounting for yourself. By reviewing your achievement journal, you will give yourself an ongoing personal inventory of self-insight, performance, and future direction. You will have relevant data for documenting the development of your career. And you will have a communication aid for constantly developing justifiable confidence in yourself."

A communicator cannot establish self-confidence and rise to the occasion all of a sudden. The speakers are otherwise the first to rehearse. M.P. Wolf and others, have suggested the following fundamental steps for self-confidence:

- (1) First rehearse alone; and
- (2) Rehearse in front of try-out group.

Self-confidence is related to interpersonal communication. One can experience trust when his relationship with another person is characterized by various situational contexts. According to Rossiter and Pearce, the following are much situational context:

- (1) Contingency.
- (2) Predictability.
- (3) Alternative Options.

(I) *Contingency*: “Contingency” means a situation in which the results of another person’s actions significantly affect.

(2) *Predictability*: “Predictability” means the degree of confidence that one may have in his expectations about the other person’s behaviour or intentions. Establishing self-confidence neither happens by magic nor there is technical, manual or readymade guide which specifies the steps to be followed to make self-confidence. In fact there is no sure way to make self-confidence. Developing self-confidence sometimes encourages to convince others in interpersonal communication. This, trusting one’s own strength, however, always makes others to distrust the speaker.

Another technique for building goodwill among an audience is to make the listeners to feel important. Due importance should be given to the listeners. The purpose of speech is to make them to understand the message. This can be achieved by showing appreciation for listeners and by taking a personal interest in listening to them and clarifying their doubts. It is an art and tact of the speaker to make them feel important. Speaking from their point of view and mentioning of various practical instances also makes them feel important.

Goodwill is friendly and kindly attitude. Listeners’ goodwill is a major object of oral communication. Indicating acceptance of suggestions by the listeners will go a long way towards achieving a successful speech. Indicating attention and acknowledgement of what is being suggested will produce positive and favourable reaction from listeners. It will

create a friendly, confident feeling towards the communicator. Much of interpersonal communication depends on how one is definite in dealing with a situation.

One must appraise his interaction with others in terms of his self-esteem. One of the most dangerous barriers for interpersonal effective communication is lack of self-confidence. Unless a person has self-confidence, he cannot transmit his achievement, his personal abilities, and his future prospects. The communicator indispensably has to build and develop in himself a justifiable confidence. The exhibition of feelings of anxiety and problems by facial expression are indications of lack or low-self-confidence. A person who is closely associated with the qualities of low self-confidence is unable to communicate and put across to a quite different cross-sections of people and in different situations. In real life situations, communicators feel it is difficult to face different faces of audience.

Every person communicating has to endeavour to overcome stage fright. Stage fright is a misdirected awareness on the part of the communicator. When the sender of a message or speaker lacks self-confidence, one may sense a nervousness, a tensing of muscles, a quivering voice, etc. In any case, self-confidence is more important which creates a positive outlook in the person.

A successful manager always endeavours to establish self-confidence among the subordinates. Stanley Coppersmith has suggested three conditions relating to self-confidence. They are:

- (1) Managers have to make total acceptance of his subordinates.
- (2) To have clearly defined and enforced limits.
- (3) To have managerial respect for individual action within the defined limits.

It is the motivation and encouragement of his subordinates which promotes free flow of communication within the organisation in turn building up a right level of self-confidence among the people working in the organisation. This not only establishes good

formal relations but also informal relationships which are conducive to effective communication.

Leland Brown has suggested the following eight steps. If followed logically, one can achieve self-confidence:

- (1) Message preparation. Avoid forgetfulness, which results in stage fright.
- (2) Practice aloud, rehearse more times, imagine audience.
- (3) To hear one's own voice by tape recorder. Not to memorize talk.
- (4) Appropriate dress and appearance for the occasion.
- (5) Think about your audience, but not about yourself.
- (6) Begin slowly stage fright disappears after starting.
- (7) Speak louder than ordinarily.
- (8) Speak as often as you can. The more the practice, the easier it is to speak

with confidence.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What is the instructive function of communication?

ii) What is mean by influencing function of communication?

iii) Enlist some of the strategies of improving self confidence in communication.

12.5 PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNICATION

The principles of communication are in the nature of universal application. The principle of universality of communication is one of the characteristics pertaining to the nature of communication. Truly speaking, the problem of effective communication is present in all interpersonal, group and organisational activities. The problems are present everywhere whether it be a family, a school, State and Central Government departments, undertakings, corporations, trade unions and in all joint activities.

The principles and techniques of communication are universal in application but not necessarily and exclusively applicable to only business. They are applicable to social, religious, charitable, formal, non-formal, non-profit organisations also. Communication is a universal process. The fundamental principles of scientific communication are applicable to all human activities, from the simplest small groups to great corporations, and the public. There are a number of fundamental elements in the process of communication which are common to the process of communication in different walks of life. It is on the basis of these elements that theory of communication can be evolved.

Communication is based on certain foundational principles. The central postulates of communication (universally-accepted truths) are explained below.

- *Communication is transactional:* It means that our communication with other progress on the basis of responses produced to the original communication. The other implication is that each person is seen both as a listener and is therefore simultaneously sending and receiving messages, e.g. communication between a husband and a wife perpetuates through each second of their lives, whether they are discussing about their children, managing household chores, at work, talking or fighting. They constantly keep swapping their roles as speaker and listener. Any

communication in this relationship is a result of the previous communication between them and will result in another event of communication.

- *Communication is a process of adjustment and is punctuated:* Every time we interact, we adjust; we try to interpret and decode the symbol we receive, learn it and then understand it. Because not each and every individual involved in the communication sends or receive identical signals. To better understand adjustment, let us look at a few examples. In the case of communication within a family, if one of the members is unwell, all other members may feel low and sad. Similarly, in an educational institution if the laboratory staff goes on strike, neither will teacher be able to demonstrate nor will students able to perform experiments. The overall goal of the institute to impart knowledge through practical learning will not be fulfilled.

The communication process is a continuous transaction. Communication flows in a systematic and organised manner. For communication to occur, first there has to be (a) a sender, who send the message and enclose it, than there has to be (b) a message appropriately designed, which flow through (c) a channel to (d) a receiver who decode the message and interprets it. As the number of elements increase, the communication process becomes more complex. All these elements of communication must be organised to make the message interpretation effective. And for the conversation to be perceived better it is punctuated by the sender/ receiver. Punctuation is the tendency to divide a continuous stream of communication into smaller sequences of stimuli and responses. Every participant in the communication process divides the communication into causes and effects to better understand what goes on.

- *Communication involves content and the dimensions of relationship:* Most communication interactions involve some degree of content. This content may be known to both the parties, or known by either of them or by none. For example, a teacher lecturing a diverse group of students shares content with them which she is well versed with but the students aren't. Further, communication also indicates the relationship between the two parties; the kind of dynamics that exists between them. For example, when a student enters late into classroom, the teacher may get angry and say, 'Make sure you see me after the class'. This simple statement clearly indicate that the teacher is at a position of authority and expects her student to report to her after the class. On the other hand, if the teacher would have said, 'Please make sure you are on time next time'; this would have indicated that the teachers has empathized with the student and must have understood that the student's delay would have been due to some problem. Thus communication carries along with the content a relationship dimension as well.
- *Communication is a package of signals:* Communication occurs not only through words, but also through gestures, body language and other non-verbal symbols. Usually, verbal and non-verbal symbols reinforce or support each other (DeVito, 2006). As a result we convey our messages and feelings more effectively when our verbal and non-verbal symbols are aligned. One cannot claim to be excited about opening a gift box, if one continues to lie down on the bed. On the other hand, we may express dual feelings through the package of these verbal and non-verbal signals while communicating. For example, if a guest suddenly arrives at your house when you are very tired, out of formality you would indeed say, 'Welcome home, so glad to receive you'; but accompany it with a blank and

unsmiling face and a cold hug, indicating the other half of your feelings—that you are not too pleased with receiving this uninvited guest. Thus, communication is a package of signals.

- *Communication involves symmetrical and complementary interactions:* The interactions during communication are primarily of two types: symmetrical and complementary. In symmetrical relationships, both the members behave in a similar manner. In fact, what one does is reflected by the other. If one gets aggressive, the other gets aggressive too; if one gets excited, the other gets excited too. In symmetrical relationship, there is equality with minimal difference. Although this is good, an adverse effect of this type of relationship is when both individual are negative in their behavior; there is a likelihood of potential conflict that may worsen the situation to a great extent. Consider an example of two teenaged siblings fighting over an issue; one gets aggressive, the other gets aggressive, and consequently the situation spirals out of control. The other type of interaction is complementary interaction, in which two individual indulge in different behaviors. Behavior of one acts as a stimulus for the other to engage in a complementary behavior. In this type of interaction maximization of differences is observed for example, in a family—if one partner acts in an authoritative way, the other may want to be democratic; if one acts superior, the other inferior and so on. As you know, culture often dictates such relationship. For example, the relationship between men and women tend to be asymmetrical across culture but the degree of equality in a relationship may vary. In develop countries like Sweden, the difference may be minimal, in the US the difference may be moderate but in countries like India the difference may be

high and in countries like Afghanistan the difference may be very high with restrictions even on mobility of women outside the house.

- *Communication is inevitable, irreversible and unrepeatable:* Communication is inevitable. We human beings have an innate instinct to communicate, to talk, to ask, to tell others. The history of communication can be traced to story of human civilization; it has been inevitable for human life to flourish. Once a message has been communicated it cannot be taken back. Another important factor to be noted is that the communication process cannot be reversed. You may have experienced situations where you may have used foul language and later on regretted it. Those words cannot be taken back. Even if you apologize, the damage done cannot be fully reversed. And, communication is unrepeatable. You can't exactly help replicate a communication situation as it occurred, as contextual and personal factors cannot exactly help replicate a communication encounter that occurred previously. For example, a teacher usually repeats the same lesson across various sections. It would not be the same interaction across the various sections as the individual students composition varies. The context, physiological and psychological states of the students and his/her mind operate differently and will make a difference in the way he/she will transact this repeat class.
- *Communication has many purposes:* Communication as a process not only helps us share our feelings, thoughts and actions, it also help us change our beliefs and adapt to change that the other communicator intends for us. As a process communication has many such purposes that help us deal and interact with the elements of our social system.

12.6 LET US SUM UP

Communication is one of the essential features of a human society. Communication performs multiple functions such as the information function, instructive function, influencing function, integrative function, evaluative function, directive function, teaching function, orientation function etc. Self awareness in the form of self confidence plays a crucial role in making the communication effective. There are various strategies that can be used to improve the self confidence of a communicator. There are several principles that underlie the communication process. It is transactional in nature, it focuses on adjustment, involves a content and dimension of relationship. In fact, it is a package of signals and is further inevitable irreversible and unreplenishable.

12.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The instructive function invariably deals with the commanding nature. It is more or less of directive nature. Under this, the communicator transmits with the necessary directives and guidance so as to enable them to accomplish his tasks. In this, instructions flow downwards from top to the lower level.
2. The influencing function notes that a complete communication process is necessary in influencing others or being influenced. It implies the provision of feedback which tells the effect of communication.
3. Some of the suggested ways to improve the self confidence in communication are:
 - Message preparation. Avoid forgetfulness, which results in stage fright.
 - Practice aloud, rehearse more times, imagine audience.
 - To hear one's own voice by tape recorder. Not to memorize talk.
 - Appropriate dress and appearance for the occasion.

- Think about your audience, but not about yourself.
- Begin slowly stage fright disappears after starting.
- Speak louder than ordinarily.
- Speak as often as you can. The more the practice, the easier it is to speak with confidence.

12.8 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q1. What are the different functions of communication?

Q 2. Describe the principles of communication in details.

12.9 SUGGESTED READING

1. G.L. Ray (2015). Extension Communication and Management. Kalyani Publishers.
2. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
3. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
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NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION: FUNCTIONS, TYPES

STRUCTURE

- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Objectives
- 13.3 Non verbal communication: Meaning and nature
- 13.4 Importance of non-verbal communication
- 13.5 Functions of Non-Verbal Communication
- 13.6 Types of Non-Verbal Communication
- 13.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 13.8 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 13.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 13.10 Suggested Reading

13.1 INTRODUCTION

So far in Unit I you have read about extension including its concept, meaning, nature history, philosophy, scope, objectives and principles. Home science extension was also briefly explained. Unit II focused on programme planning and explained in details the

nature, meaning, rationale, scope and principles of extension programme planning. Unit III dealt with communication and described the history, concept, nature, function and scope of communication also with the principles underlying communication. Now in this lesson we will learn about non-verbal communication and understand its functions and types.

13.2 OBJECTIVES

The objective of the lesson is to acquaint the learner with

- a) Meaning and nature of Non-verbal communication.
- b) Functions of Non-verbal communication
- c) Types of Non-Verbal Communication

13.3 NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION: MEANING AND NATURE

One of the multi-media of communication is non-verbal communication, also called “communication by implication.” Communicating a message without using arbitrary symbols, i.e., words or meaning of words, is termed as “non-verbal communication.” In other words, non-verbal communication is word-less communication. The communication behaviour of the speaker, as our experience indicates, can be by postures, movements and other cues. A speaker may use many languages of communication, both verbal and non-verbal.

Non-verbal languages consist of hidden messages; it is the cues which convey message. These messages are necessarily wordless or non-verbal, conveyed through without resorting to words or meaning of words, but conveyed through other media like spatial, kinesics, Oral cues, objective language action, etc. Kinesics is the most generally used medium of communication. Actions like stroking, hilling, holding, patting and hand-shaking convey meaningful messages. All the forms of non-verbal communication media essentially

convey meaning like words in verbal communication media essentially convey meaning like words in verbal communication.

In simple terms, non-verbal communication includes all messages other than those expressed in oral or written words.

Behavioural expressions or cues that do not rely on words or word symbols are known as “non-verbal communication.” Words alone are, in many cases, not adequate to express our feelings and reactions. When someone remarks that he does not know how to express himself in words, it can be concluded that his feelings are too intense and complex to be expressed in words.

Non-verbal messages express true feeling more accurately than the spoken or written language. Both kinds of data can be transmitted intentionally or unintentionally. Even smile symbolises friendliness, in much the same way as cordiality is expressed in words.

Verbal and non-verbal behaviour may be the duplication of one another. If a person says: “Please have a seat” and points towards a chair, they can be complimentary. For example, a person smiles and explains “Come in, I am pleased to see you.”. The two codes - verbal and non-verbal - can be contradictory. A listener tells the speaker how interested he is in what is being said, while the former is seen staring across the hall with an attractive young woman.

People express their feelings through gestures. In business interactions, the knowledge of body language and non-verbal cues can be of immense use and value.

13.4 IMPORTANCE OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

The Importance of non-verbal medium of communication cannot be overemphasized. It is necessary that every listener should get himself acquainted with skills of non-verbal communication to observe and understand effectively. Every speaker when talking to us, uses and gives non-verbal signals. According to one study, only seven per cent of a message effect is carried by words and listeners receive the other 93 per cent through non-verbal means.

The question often arises whether silence is a mode of a communication or not. The answer is that one can communicate silently. So silence is a mode of communication. Silence also sometimes speaks louder than words. Actions often speak louder than words; Silence, gestures, handshake, shrug of the shoulders, a smile all have meaning and hence communicate with others.

13.5 FUNCTIONS OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

There is a close relationship between non-verbal cues and the words accompanied. Non-verbal cues have certain functions to be performed. According to Baird, the functions of non-verbal cues fall into six categories. A brief description of these functions is discussed under the following paragraphs:

- (1) *Repeating*: Repeat or repeating is an important function of non-verbal cues. It implies to say something again which one has heard to someone else. Thus non-verbal cues are helpful to restate the verbal message.
- (2) *Contradiction*: The function of contradiction in a non-verbal communication is to contract the verbal or spoken message. It is used in a situation where a statement or idea contains a contradiction. It indicates to say the opposite of, to argue or disagree with. It is quite often that contradiction/discrepancy occurs between a person's words and action. For instance, when A is introduced to B by C who says "Happy to meet you." So while

giving a limp hand-shake, he looks in another direction. In this situation, one can observe discrepancy or contradiction between his words and action. Therefore, in such circumstances, one must understand the non-verbal message than spoken words.

(3) *Substituting*: Non-verbal cues also perform the function of substituting. The substituting function implies that a thing or person in or to take the place of someone or something. In other words, they serve as substitutes for spoken words or messages. Non-verbal cues like O.K., peace sign, victory, clenched fist (hostility), a stooped position (submissiveness), a bowed head (depression), obscene etc., serve as substitutes for spoken or verbal messages. Thus, some emblems affect displaces, peace signs, gestures, slumping postures, depressed look etc., on are substitutes for words.

(4) *Complementing*: Non-verbal cues help to make up a whole message, the words of predict, not including the verb. In other words, the cues invariably complement or elaborate upon verbal message. Baird states that the phrase “I love you”, spoken sincerely usually is accompanied by vocal and physical cues that demonstrate the feeling behind the message. When something is said in anger, the feeling is shown not only in the spoken message but in the clenched fists, flashing eyes and strained voice which accompany the words.

(5) *Accenting*: The function of non-verbal cues from this point of view is to accentuate the verbal message. Non-verbal accenting gives various meanings. While speaking, accenting gives extra force or stress shown to one part of a word, more than one syllable or to certain words in a sentence. Accentuating gives more force or importance to certain words.

So accenting in the non- verbal cues can emphasise the meaning of spoken or non-verbal message. Accentuate the verbal message appears when increasing the Non-Verbal Communication Skills volume of the voice for giving appropriately timed gesture.

For instance repeat the phrase “I dislike you” or “I hate you” to yourself alternatively emphasizing the first, second and third words as indicated below:

1. “I dislike you” or “I hate you” -emphasises the person who dislikes or hates.
2. I dislike you or “I hate you” - emphasises the sentiments like emotion and feelings.
3. “I dislike you” or “I hate you” - emphasises the lucky recipient of the emotion.²⁴

Therefore, meaning and intensity varies through non-verbal accenting.

(6) *Regulating*: Yet another important function of the non-verbal cues is to control the flow of communication. Cues act as regulators. Some non-verbal cues control by means of a system or adjust to obtain the desired results. “A forward lean, a nod, a vocal inflection, or a change in eye behaviour can indicate to the other that you have finished your statement or that you want to interrupt”.

13.6 TYPE OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Different experts and specialists have classified non-verbal communication into various categories. Ruesch and Kees were the first researchers in the field of non-verbal communication. They described three categories of non-verbal communication as three distinct languages.

However, the modes of non-verbal communication are discussed in the following paragraphs.

a) Sign Language: Marks or symbols used to mean something is termed as signs of language. Gestures are used in the place of words, number, or punctuations marks in the sign language. The language system of deaf people and the hitch-hiker’s finger is the example of sign language.

b) Action Language: It is a language of movements. Action is one of non-verbal media of communication, a third type of communication. Action in a particular situation and context is capable of interpretation. By action, one may knowingly or unknowingly be communicating with others. Action speaks louder than words. Some believe in action and some others in words. Some people do what they say they will do, while some others say one thing but do another. The difference between these styles of communication is called a person's "Communication Credibility Gap" and when the credibility gap is large, it signifies loss of confidence or distrust.

c) Objective Language: (Artifacts) Objective language medium of non-verbal communication indicates display and arrangement of material things. This method may include intentional or unintentional communication of material things like clothing, ornaments, books, buildings, room furniture, interior decorations etc. Objective language speaks something. Objective language with reference to silence or non-verbal communication refers to dress and decoration which communicate a great deal about the speaker's feelings, emotions, attitudes, opinions etc.

Clocks, jewellery, hairstyle, interior decorative items communicate something. Their revealing is symbolic, communicating something special about the person. Dress by people of different countries varies. Dress of army men differs from civilians, army, airforce and naval personnel according to their rank. Dress of religious heads, political leaders, lawyers, judges, doctors, nurses, sports person and workers, differs from one another. The executive look is different between women and men. Similarly, differences can be noted between professional look, blue collar look etc. Objective language is non-verbal message communicated through appearance of objects.

d) Spatial or Environmental: It is relating to the place or environment in which the actual process of communication takes place. It may be physical or psychological. The environment for communication must be congenial and conducive to effective communication. It is the responsibility of the leader of the group in the case of a small group, to provide an environment conducive to effective two-way communication. The necessary requirements of environment are lighting, colour, ventilation, temperature, seating arrangement, chalkboard, public address system, audio-visual equipment etc., which would contribute a lot to attract and make listeners more attentive. So, environmental factors also have an impact on communication in face-to-face or interpersonal communication.

e) Silence: In many circumstances, silence also is an effective medium of communication. Through silence, some people evoke response from others. Take for instance, a speaker entering a meeting hall to address a gathering finds the meeting environment unconducive with humming and noise created by the audience. In order to divert the attention of the audience, the speaker climbs up to the stage and takes his position near the mike - a silent posture. The attention of the audience is diverted to the presence of the speaker. It indicates that the audience should be quiet now so that he could commence his speech.

In a number of situations if no response or reply is received within a specific period or happening or non-happening of a situation, the silence on the part of the respondent signifies communication. The practice of silence is usually taken as approved in a number of personal, business and social transactions as practice, custom, tradition or understanding.

Silence as a mode of communication has some legal significance, particularly in the law of contracts. Legal doctrines speak on silence. The acceptance of an offer can neither be implied through silence nor by his failure to answer. Sometimes, silence itself is considered equivalent to speech. In some cases, silence is considered as fraud and in

some other cases it is not a fraud. Thus silence is likely to affect the willingness and consent of another person also. However, silence as a medium of communication is considered as a dangerous mode of communication.

f) *Demonstration:* Demonstration is a process of showing how some-thing works. It indicates a display or exhibition of how something works. It is a public expression of opinion by holding meetings and processions showing play cards. Demonstration is thus yet another effective method of non-verbal words or meaning of words. In this method of non-verbal skills may be shown. Demonstration is made and dramatised as a means of emphasis on the subject under consideration.

Take, for instance, a salesman giving a demonstration to a person or group of persons as to how to operate or use a product. Such demonstrations naturally work out to be more telling and effective than providing written or oral description of the same. Demonstration as to how to use or operate a particular product provides a clear and better understanding of the product.

g) *Inaction:* It is opposed to action as discussed above. Inaction also is one of the non-verbal media of communication. Inaction explains with illustration as to how to use or operate a product. A person's inaction in certain circumstances can be a method of communication. Unexplained action often communicates meaning which is not intended.

“Take for instance, some machinery that has been removed from the production floor under the orders of the manager, without telling the workers the reasons for the same.

To the workers, this appears an apprehension of a threatened shut down shifting of the plant to another city. Obviously, such unexplained action will communicate a meaning, and a message, the manager has no intention to send”.

h) Proximity: The distance that the people keep themselves between the speaker and the listener is termed as proximity. Generally, people are not conscious and aware about proxemics but the distance affect interpersonal communication. Personal space is an invisible factor or rule.

Space between persons indicates relations at the same time and is a dimension of interpersonal communication. Personal space and interpersonal distance are important components of communication. Edward T. Hall in his scholarly work identified three components of Interpersonal distance. They are:

(i) Intimate.

(ii) Social.

(ii) Public.

They govern interpersonal relationship.

* Intimate: (i) The intimate distance ranges from very close (3 to 6 inches - for soft whispers; secrets are intimate communication).

(ii) To close (8 to 12 inches - for giving confidential information)

(iii) To near (12 to 20 inches - for speaking in a soft voice).

* Social: The social distance ranges from 20 inches to 5 feet.

* Public: The public distance from 6 feet to above 100 feet. Cultural patterns regulate personal space and interpersonal communication. They are unspoken and invisible rules governing personal distance. People who stand too near when they are more intimate. When they are not so close, they should be at a distance.

Interpersonal distance may vary from culture to culture. Different cultures and backgrounds also keep distance. For instance, standoffishness prevails in British culture

which tends to widen the gap. On the other hand, closeness to one another prevails in French and Italian culture. The family differences are due to cultural differences.

M. Patterson's study indicates that people in relatively close proximity are viewed as warmer, friendlier and more understanding than people farther away,

Albert Mehrabian found that physical distance emphasises the status differences and that status is minimised by greater closeness.

i) Time: Use of time is also as chronemics as an important non-verbal method of communication. Time also conveys the message. Time speaks. Edward T. Hall is the first scholar who has investigated time dimension of inter-personal communication. Time is a mode of interpersonal communication. Time is an important factor which is precise and valuable. In these days of busy living, business and social relations, time can be saved, wasted, given and taken.

Punctuality or delay speaks pleasant or unpleasant feelings and attitudes. Tardiness is considered an insult in some cultures. Late arrival to attend a meeting, in time, convey something. Time is very valuable in group activities in any organisation. In certain circumstances, arriving at an appointed place on or before time, communicate something. A telephone call at too early hours or late night, conveys, significant message. For instance, a telephone call at 1 a.m. or 2 p.m. Communicates something of urgency, unusual message to be attended to on a priority basis.

j) Para language: Another important dimension of non-verbal communication is paralanguage. Non verbal things in communication are called paralanguage. Sounds are the basis for paralanguage. Paralanguages included tone of voice, power or emphasis, pitch, rhythm, volume, pause or break in sentence, speed of delivery, loudness or softness etc.

These languages too influence meaning and convey message. Paralanguage can be divided into four parts:

- (1) Voice qualities: Including such factors as pitch, resonance, volume, rate, and rhythm.
- (2) Vocal Characterizers: Embracing laughter, coughing, throat clearing and sighing.
- (3) Vocal qualities: Referring to variation in pitch and volume.
- (4) Vowel Segregates: Including the silent's and such as 'ash' and 'ers' and pauses. These clues do much to influence meaning.

k) Kinetics: Kinetic indicates gestures, body movements of head, hands, feet, limbs with the help of body orientation, openers and postures, it is quite possible to change attitudes and influence others. The modes of kinesics are:

1. Facial expressions
2. Gesture
3. Body movements
4. Posters
5. Eye contact
6. Tactile (touch)

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) Explain any one function of non-verbal communication?

ii) Is silence also a type of non-verbal communication?

iii) What is the role of paralanguage in communication?

13.7 LET US SUM UP

After going through the chapter you must have understood that nonverbal communication is summary of nonverbal messages, which are consciously or unconsciously transferred by a person to other person or people. Non verbal communication is on the border of conscious and unconscious interaction; whereas by words we often consciously hide our true mood and opinion, we unconsciously through our face, gestures or body movement signal to others our true mood and opinion. The primary functions of non verbal communication include repeating, contradicting, substituting, complementing, and accenting. Further, there are various types of non verbal communication which include sign, action, spatial, silence, demonstration, inaction, proximity, time, paralanguage and kinetics.

13.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. One of the functions of non-verbal communication is substitution. Sometimes verbal communication can be partly or entirely be substituted by non verbal signs, symbols, gestures and body movement.

2. Yes, silence is also part of non-verbal communication. In a number of situations if no response or reply is received within a specific period or happening or non-happening of a situation, the silence on the part of the respondent signifies communication. The practice of silence is usually taken as approved in a number of personal, business and social transactions as practice, custom, tradition or understanding.

3. Non verbal things in communication are called paralanguage. Sounds are the basis for paralanguage. Paralanguages included tone of voice, power or emphasis, pitch, rhythm, volume, pause or break in sentence, speed of delivery, loudness or softness etc. These languages too influence meaning and convey message.

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13.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

- Q1. What do you mean by Non-verbal Communication?
- Q2. Describe the functions of Non-verbal Communication.
- Q3. Explain the various types of non-verbal communication.

13.10 SUGGESTED READING

- 1. G.L. Ray (2015). Extension Communication and Management. Kalyani Publishers.
- 2. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
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**NON VERBAL COMMUNICATION : SIGNIFICANCE WITH
REFERENCE TO BODY, FACE, EYE MOVEMENTS SPACE AND TOUCH
COMMUNICATION**

STRUCTURE

- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Objectives
- 14.3 Significance with reference to Body
- 14.4. Facial expression
- 14.5 Eye Movement
- 14.6 Space (Proximity)
- 14.7 Touch Communication
- 14.8 Some small illustrations of Non-verbal communications.
- 14.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 14.10 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 14.11 Lesson End Exercise
- 14.12 Suggested Reading

14.1 INTRODUCTION

Non verbal communication is instant part of our life. Without saying a word, we still send message about ourselves by means of non verbal communication and we make conclusions about others. We use gesticulation by arms, body movement, mimic in face, body poster, space around us, our clothes and lay out and many other elements of communication. In the present lesson we will learn specially the significance of body, face, eyes, space and touch with reference to communication.

14.2 OBJECTIVES

The objective of the lessons is to acquaint the learner with the significance of body, face, eye movement, space and touch.

14.3 SIGNIFICANCE WITH REFERENCE TO BODY

Body language is an important mode of non-verbal communication. People communicate in natural way giving meanings to others with their bodies in interpersonal interaction. In verbal communication, body language supports in most parts of the words in a speech. Face and head are used for body language mostly along with other body languages like eye-contact, eye- movement, smile, frown, touching, furrowed brow, hip movement, closeness and breathing rate.

Body movements communicate messages effectively. Some movements are intentional, or unintentional, conscious or unconscious. A speaker some-times may be in upright position but his body moves. Body movement definitely transmits feelings, emotions, ideas, reasons, opinions, attitudes etc.

Myers and Myers on facial expression and body movements state that a person may tend to lean forward when he is involved and interested, and to lean back when not interested. The way of walking often indicates to others whether feeling good, happy and cheerful or sad, gloomy, tired and dejected. They further say that, “You indicate your perception of status by your postures. You tend to relax around people of equal or lower status and tense up around people who you perceive as having of higher status. You sometimes feel that someone is disrespectful simply because he or she talks in a more relaxed manner than you think is appropriate.”

Body movements include movements of hands, head, face, eyes and postures which give meaning without using words. One can read others’ thoughts by their body movements. They show personal relationships between people, as their body movements speak to others how they feel and think. Unless listeners are aware of and sensitive to others’ postures, gestures, facial expressions they cannot understand the message as clearly and effectively as possible.

Gestures: A gesture is a movement of the head, hand, body etc., to express an idea, feeling, emotions etc. Speakers sometimes emphasise their words with gestures. Action when exhibited, is intended to show a person’s feeling. Gestures were probably one of the first means of communicating even before oral communication came into being.

Gestures convey meaningful messages which either accompany spoken words or stand alone. For instance nodding head means to say ‘yes’ and in certain circumstances it also means no.’ Similarly, shaking of head sideways is to say ‘NO.’ The language of the deaf is a sign language. A blind person has his own sophisticated systems or sign language. A speaker usually in a serious mood, while presenting the text, uses many gestures of hands and head to emphasise certain words.

Gestures play an equally important role as medium of non-verbal communication to convey messages effectively. Some example are: thumbs up, shaking hands, arm folders, leg gestures, head shake, eye signals, wink of the eyes etc. are all various types of gestures of communication.

“A traffic constable is able to direct traffic on crowded road through gestures of hands and arms, without verbal communication. People reveal their feelings and attitudes by the way they stand or sit and the way they move parts of the body. We feel more comfortable conversing with those who adopt a relaxed posture. Here are some interesting findings.

Cooperative Situation: People stand or sit at a right angle to one another.

Stranger or bargaining: Face to face position.

Women often prefer to converse with their partners at a slight angle or side by side especially if they know each other well.

Men often prefer the face-to-face position unless they are in a competitive situation

14.4 ROLE OF FACE

Facial expressions too communicate message effectively. As a matter of fact, facial expressions as a form of non-verbal communication medium is more effective and communication completes its circle by it. Some expressions are intentional or unintentional, conscious or unconscious. Facial expressions definitely transmit feelings, facts, emotions, ideas, opinions, attitudes etc. It is one of the kinesics media that include smile, frown, narrowed eyes, exhibit friendliness, anger, disbelief etc.

Human face has four important parts. They are:

- (i) Upper face - Eyebrows and Forehead
- (ii) Middle face - Eyes, eyelids and nose
- (iii) Lower face - Mouth and chin
- (iv) The sides of the face - like cheeks

These parts of human face are capable of conveying wide range of expressions and emotions. Facial expressions convey happiness, anger, surprise, boredom, fear, sadness, disgust, liking, disliking, rejection, love, jealousy, agreement, frustration, ease, pain, pleasure etc.

Smiling at a subordinate communicates meaning. For instance, when a subordinate approaches his superior, with his task assigned, completed to get his approval, the superior expresses his silent approval by a smile. Otherwise, he may frown at to express dissatisfaction or raise an eye-brow to show surprise. The expression or movement to make the forehead wrinkle and the eyebrow move down are signs of worry, disapproval of deep thought. He frowned at the worker for bad work or behaviour. The way of looking, i.e., long look or short look communicates a great deal about one's feelings attitudes, emotions, tense or relaxed mood of the speaker.

Demond W. Evany has listed the following possible components of facial expressions:

- (1) Forehead - upward and downward frowns.
- (2) Eyebrows - raising or knitting, furrowing.
- (3) Eyelids - Opening closing narrowing.
- (4) Eye pupils - dilating.

- (5) Eyes - upwards, downwards, gazing, holding or avoiding eye contact.
- (6) Nose - wrinkling, flaring nostrils.
- (7) Facial muscles - drawn up or down, for grinning, teeth clenching.
- (8) Lips - smiling, pursing, drawn in.
- (9) Mouth - wide open, drawn in, half-open.
- (10) Tongue - licking lips, moving around inside cheeks, sucking teeth.
- (11) Jaw/chin - thrust forward, hanging down.
- (12) Head - thrown back inclines to one side, hanging down, chin drawn in, inclined upwards.

Emotions and Facial Expressions: There are important indications of emotions. The positive feeling such as love, happiness, surprise as the easiest to decipher. Negative emotions like anger, sadness, anxiety are usually somewhat difficult to recognise. There are six basic emotions associated with facial expression:

- (i) *Anger:* Eyebrows furrowed wrinkles on forehead, eyes squinting, lips pressed together or bared teeth.
- (ii) *Sadness:* Eyebrows drawn together, eyes glazed, with dropping upperlip, mouth closed with out corners pulled slightly down.
- (iii) *Surprise:* Lifted eyebrows, wide-open eyes, slightly open mouth, parted lips, a strange sparkle in the eyes.
- (iv) *Fear:* Eyebrows raised and drawn together, corners of the mouth drawn back, lips stretched, eyes open wide drops of perspiration on face.

(v) *Frustration*: Lowered eyebrows wrinkled nose, mouth open or semi--open eyes fixed in a particular direction upper lip pushed up by lower lip.

(vi) *Happiness*: Relaxed eyes, corners of lips raised, usually drawn back, no distinctive eye-brows

14.5 EYE MOVEMENT

Eye contact occurs when two people look at each other's eyes at the same time. In human beings, eye contact is a form of nonverbal communication and is thought to have a large influence on social behaviors. Coined in the early to mid-1960's, the term came from the west to often define the act as meaningful and important sign of confidence, respect, and social communication. The customs and significance of eye contact vary between societies, with religious and social differences often altering its meaning greatly.

The Language of the eye contact:

- (1) Much of our knowledge is obtained through our visual sense. We are more apt to maintain eye contact with the speaker while discussing pleasant topics.
- (2) We are more likely to avoid eye contact while discussing unpleasant or embarrassing topics.
- (3) We tend to look more at those whom we admire or with whom we have more intimate relationship.
- (4) Women tend to have greater eye contact than men probably because they feel more comfortable with intimacy.
- (5) The function of eye gaze or the lack of it is to regulate interaction.

(6) The individuals who engage in high levels of eye gaze are typically seen as more influential and effective in their dealings with others.

(7) Eye contact serves as a signal of readiness to interact and its absence tends to reduce the chances of such interaction.

14.6 SPACE (PROXIMITY)

Proximity is a kind of nonverbal communication resting in the distance between participants of communication. The distance that the people keep themselves between the speaker and the listener is termed as proximity. Usually we speak of horizontal distance. Hall (1959) distinguished according to the distance between people intimate, personal, social and public zones, but the subject of proximity study is also vertical distance between subjects for example, high arm chair of the boss, platform at school are signs of superiority.

Generally, people are not conscious and aware about proxemics but the distance affect interpersonal communication. Personal space is an invisible factor or rule. In today's multicultural society it is important to consider the range of nonverbal codes as expressed in different ethnic groups. When someone violates an 'appropriate' distance, people may feel uncomfortable or defensive. Space between persons indicates relations at the same time and is a dimension of interpersonal communication. Personal space and interpersonal distance are important components of communication.

In Western society, four distances have been defined according to the relationship between the people involved. The four main categories of proxemics are

* Intimate Distance (touching 45 cm)

* Personal Distance (45 cm to 1.2 m)

* Social Distance (1.2 m to 3.6 m)

* Public Distance (3.7 m to 4.5 m)

These four distances are associated with the four main types of relationship – intimate, personal, social and public. Each of the distances is divided into two, giving a close phase and a far phase, making eight divisions in all.

* Intimate Distance: Intimate distance ranges from close contact to the far phase of 15-45 cm. Inappropriate distance for public behavior and entering the intimate space of another person with whom you do not have a close relationship can be extremely disturbing.

* Personal Distance: The far phase of personal distance is considered to be the mostly appropriate for people holding a conversation. At this distance it is easy to see the other person's expressions and eye movement, as well as their overall body language. Handshaking can occur within the bounds of personal distance.

* Social Distance: This is the normal distance for impersonal business. Seating is also important communication is far more likely to be considered as a formal relationship if the interaction is carried out across a desk. In addition if the seating arrangement is such that one person appears to look down on another, an effect of domination can be created. At a social distance, speech needs to be louder and eye contact remains essential to communication, otherwise feedback will be reduced and the interaction may end.

* Public Distance: Teachers and public speakers address groups at a public distance. At such distances exaggerated non-verbal communication is necessary for communication to be effective. Subtle facial expressions are lost at this distance, so clear hand gesture are often used as a substitute. Larger head movement are also typical of an experienced public speaker who is aware of the changes in the way body language is perceived at larger distance.

Interpersonal distance may vary from culture to culture. Different cultures and backgrounds also keep distance. For instance, standoffishness prevails in British culture which tends to widen the gap. On the other hand, closeness to one another prevails in French and Italian culture. The family differences are due to cultural differences. M. Patterson's study indicates that people in relatively close proximity are viewed as warmer, friendlier and more understanding than people farther away. Albert Mehrabian found that physical distance emphasises the status differences and that status is minimised by greater closeness.

14.7 TACTILE COMMUNICATION (TOUCH)

A gentle touch of a friendly hand on shoulders communicate encouragement. Feeling of sense communicates something. One can communicate a great deal by touch. Like, touch is also one of the earliest methods of communication of human beings. Infants, learn much about their environment by touching, feeling, cuddling and tasting. A pat on the back, shaking hands, or holding hands can express more than a lengthy speech. Lovers know this, and mothers too. Touching is a powerful communicative tool and serves to express a tremendous range of feelings such as fear, love, anxiety, warmth and coldness.

Haptic communication is a branch of nonverbal communication that refers to ways in which people and animals communicate and interact via the sense of touch. Touch or haptics, from the ancient Greek word *haptikos* is extremely important for communication; it is vital for survival. The sense of touch allows one to experience different sensations such as: pleasure, pain, heat, or cold. One of the most significant aspect of touch is the ability to convey and enhance physical intimacy. The sense of touch is the fundamental component of haptic communication for interpersonal relationships. Touch can be categorized in many terms such as positive, playful, control, ritualistic, task-related or unintentional.

14.8 SOME SMALL ILLUSTRATIONS OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Small Illustrations -

- (i) Touch: A gentle touch of a friendly hand on the shoulders can communicate encouragement.
- (ii) Taste: Message may be transmitted by flavour of preparation of food products. They communicate fulfillment of recipes and proper operation of equipment.
- (iii) Smell: Fragrance, aroma and odour can signify fulfillments of production packing and storage instructions.
- (iv) Hearing: For instance, type writer's bell, calling bell indicate the end of the line or calling a person. Bells in schools, colleges indicate commencement or end of the hour.
- (v) Horn: A horn of a vehicle indicates approach of a vehicle
- (vi) Calling Bells Buzz. Beeper etc. Their sounds indicate calling or attention.
- (vii) Shrug of Shoulders: There is a symbolic meaning in the most ordinary shrug of shoulders.
- (viii) Hand movements: The standardised hand movements express ideas.
- (ix) Pointed Fingers: Doing skills are exhibited. A pointed finger meant that something is to be demonstrated. They convey a whole range of meanings by stylised finger movements. Ticktak men on the race course can convey complex messages to one another.
- (x) Visual Aids: For details see Chapter on Communication Technology.

(xi) Vocal Expressions: “The tone of one’s voice is a valuable clue to the feelings. Para language is a term denoting the subtle variations in meanings between what is said and how it is said.

The words “wow! How fast you are this time!” Could be a compliment. But if the tone of the voice is sarcastic, it symbolises disgust and anger.

Different meanings can be conveyed by the rate, pitch, and volume of the voice.

Speaking fast may indicate nervousness and haste. A soft voice soothes and calms.

A loud, shouting voice foretells danger, urgency, serious problem, joy or anger.

Emphasis on key words indicate the degree of importance you attach to it.’

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What does body movement include?

ii) What is the role of face in communication?

iii) What are the different categories of proximity?

14.9 LET US SUM UP

Non verbal communication is a significant aspect of communication. The human body and movement signify a deeper meaning to the entire communication process. The face and facial expressions have a connotation for all communication. Our emotions are usually expressed through our facial expressions. Similarly, eye movement, space in terms of proximity and touch are also important in non verbal communication.

14.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Body movements include movements of hands, head, face, eyes and postures which give meaning without using words. One can read others' thoughts by their body movements. They show personal relationships between people, as their body movements speak to others how they feel and think. Unless listeners are aware of and sensitive to others' postures, gestures, facial expressions they cannot understand the message as clearly and effectively as possible.

2. Facial expressions too communicate message effectively. As a matter of fact, facial expressions as a form of non-verbal communication medium is more effective and communication completes its circle by it. Some expressions are intentional or unintentional, conscious or unconscious. Facial expressions definitely transmit feelings, facts, emotions, ideas, opinions, attitudes etc. It is one of the kinesics media that include smile, frown, narrowed eyes, exhibit friendliness, anger, disbelief etc.

3. The four main categories of proxemics are

* Intimate Distance (touching 45 cm)

* Personal Distance (45 cm to 1.2 m)

* Social Distance (1.2 m to 3.6 m)

* Public Distance (3.7 m to 4.5 m)

14.11 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q 1. Write a note on the role of the following in communication:

1. Facial expression
2. Gestures
3. Body movements
4. Touch

14.12 SUGGESTED READING

1. G.L. Ray (2015). Extension Communication and Management. Kalyani Publishers.
2. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
3. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
4. V.K. Dubey and I. Bishnoi (2008). Extension Education and Communication. New Age International Ltd., Publishers: New Delhi.

**VERBAL COMMUNICATION: MEANING, PRINCIPLES &
SIGNIFICANCE**

STRUCTURE

- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Objectives
- 15.3 Verbal Communication: Meaning
- 15.4 Principles of oral communication
- 15.5 Significance of verbal communication
- 15.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 15.7 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 15.8 Lesson End Exercise
- 15.9 Suggested Reading

15.1 INTRODUCTION

In the earlier chapter you have read that non verbal communication is a significant aspect of communication. The body language, body movement, facial expressions, eye contact, space in terms of proximity and touch all contribute to non verbal communication. In the present chapter now we will study about verbal communication.

15.2 OBJECTIVES

This lesson will help students to clear their concept regarding nature & significance of verbal or oral communication.

15.3 VERBAL COMMUNICATION: MEANING

Among the various forms of communication, oral communication is considered to be the earliest and common medium of communication. In oral communication, speech is a widely adopted tool of communication. The sender, the medium, the receiver and the message are the four basic factors associated with communication. Socrates, and Demosthenes were great and renowned speakers. The world is full of speeches. Every day, in educational institutions, the students and the teachers come into contact; they converse and communicate. In offices, the superiors talk to the subordinates, the subordinates to superiors, superiors and among themselves. In productive and service organisations, the customers carry on conversation with the suppliers, lawyers, doctors, auditors, consultants with their clients, so on and so forth.

Whether it is business communication or otherwise, oral communication should be clear and effective to achieve the objects of communication. Speech is an art; for this, there are no fixed rules which can be uniformly followed always and in all circumstances. There are a number of factors which influence effective oral communication. Factors like conversation style of the speaker, language, medium, the temperament of the receiver and speaker, size of audience, importance of message, fear of superiors etc. are important. For instance, an important person, appearing on the TV, words if wrongly selected and used may damage his image.

Human relations are the fundamental elements of public relations. It is with speech, one gets along well with the public, both internal and external. The public are of three categories : (a) there are those who know you and like you; (b) there are those who know you and do not like you; (c) there are those who neither know you nor care for.

The technique involved in the process of communication is through speech to do business with all types of people. The essential basis of all cross-sections is the communication process. It is the transfer of information from one to another. The message is transmitted by spoken or written words or by image or a combination of these or other media, such as music, colour, mimicry, design, odour, and sense of touch.

In competitive and dynamic market economy, there are information gaps which cannot be filled up by the interaction of supply and demand through prices and costs. This is where communication activity steps in.

15.4 PRINCIPLES OF ORAL COMMUNICATION

The capacity to communicate effectively and clearly is an important skill. The speaker has to make the message clear and easily understandable, both in work and outside. In any profession, it is not possible to get through without communication. Communication is a valuable asset for all the people in modern days of a busy world, particularly to lawyers, teachers, auditors, consultants, administrators, politicians, business executive, parents and children. Thus, speech or talk is basic and indispensable in any group facilities in a civilized society. Speech is for others to understand. The confusion and misunderstanding in conversation are due to ineffective, faulty and vague speech.

There are no standard rules to be followed in making oral communication effective once and for all times to come. However, effective oral communication calls for certain

principles to be followed. Whatever the circumstances, the following are the essential ingredients of good oral communication.

(1) **Brevity:** A message to be delivered should be brief. It should neither be too short nor too long. In real life quite often audience comments about a speech, as too long or too short. Time factor is important because not only the speaker's time is wasted but also that of the audience. So, a message must be brief. Lengthy sentences confuse and may lead to misunderstanding. It should be a short one. One can achieve brevity by taking pains and framing short sentences rather than lengthy and complex. We do come across people who start speech with short sentences. Conversation in short sentences giving the listener time and opportunity to follow what the speaker endeavors to put across. Using precise words, simple and familiar words, and avoiding superfluous words are important factors in effective communication.

(2) **Clarity:** The essential of good oral communication is clarity. Clarity of message is the first and foremost important among principles. The three most important qualities of oral communication style are: first, clarity, then clarity and last clarity. Before you start talking, think and rethink ideas till they are clear. Then, only can one put ideas in conversation in clear-cut terms. Clarity can be achieved with simple words, short sentences and common words.

(3) **Choosing Precise Words:** Precision is the most important principle in effective communication. Using the precise word means speaking in exact detail using the right words at right place to the context alone will convey the meaning intended by the speaker. In oral communication, the precise words which are often the concrete words express the real and correct meaning. As far as possible, using vague words should be avoided. But in

practice, it is difficult to replace one word with another. No two words give exactly the same meaning. It is better to have full knowledge of synonyms and antonyms of words.

(4) **Cliche:** Cliche means a phrase which is used often, and has no meaning. The cliches are now stale in oral communication. An effective good communicator avoids cliches. A speaker may use them unconsciously when he is involved in a serious mood of conversation. Examples of cliches are 'I mean', 'oh, really', 'quite fine', 'yes' etc. A cliché is generally used to express indirectly a simple idea, when it suddenly strikes the speaker.

(5) **Sequences:** Presentation of matter in a logical sequence is yet another important principle of effective communication. The speaker should not jump to points or change the sequence. Consistency, continuity, and logical development of the subject matter should be there. The manner in which a speaker says something is important than something itself that matters in communication.

(6) **Avoid Jargon:** In our conversation, we must be conscious to avoid jargon. Jargon is a field, applicable or relating to a particular section of profession. It means language or terminology relating to law, commerce, sports, defence etc. It may be called as legal jargon, military jargon, commercial jargon etc. Only people who are well-versed in a particular subject can understand. But in general conversation, the words used must be clear to other people as well.

(7) **Avoid Verbosity:** To convey meaning is more important than using superfluous words. Verbosity in oral communication is a great danger. Using more words does not assure greater clarity. Using more words will take more time and the time of audience is wasted. The listener may tire and may misunderstand the meaning.

(8) **Seven C's of Communication:** Francis J. Betgin advocates that there are seven Cs to remember in spoken communication. They are:

1. Candid
2. Clear
3. Complete
4. Concise
5. Concrete
6. Correct
7. Courteous

(9) ***Prepositions:*** Use of unnecessary prepositions should be avoided. For instance, all employees must follow the safety regulations in regard to work. Here the word ‘about’ can be used in place of “in regard to.” Some other examples, are: in connection with, reference to, in relation to, with regard to.

(10) ***Adjectives and Adverbs:*** Adjectives and adverbs should be used where necessary. They emphasise the meaning with the degree of importance. For instance, the problem is under active consideration, a positive decision will be taken definite results comparatively, the results are poor.

15.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF ORAL COMMUNICATION

Thus, the most important and the earliest form of communication is verbal or oral, everything is oral and there is no question of black and white. Face -to-face discussion, telephone talks, lectures, conferences, interviews, public speeches are the forms of media of oral communication. The most important merits of verbal communication are outlined as under:

(1) ***Time Saving:*** Considerable amount of time is saved in verbal communication. Time is the most important factor to be productively and profitably utilised. It reduces the time of one person. It reduces duplication and errors in saving of time.

(2) ***Saving in Cost:*** In oral communication, nothing is reduced to writing. There is no work to put in black and white. There is no need to have qualified and technical personnel like stenographers and typists. The whole of the typing and stenographic work is avoided in verbal communication; ultimately resulting in saving of cost. It results in saving of stationery and other incidental cost in various departments.

(3) ***Effective Media:*** Oral communication is comparatively more effective than the others. Communication between persons in the departments is always by way of face-to-face or through mechanical devices. Convincing impression can be created immediately. The action, reaction and the attitude of the persons can be understood by observing facial expression.

(4) ***Easy Understanding:*** Easy understandability of message is important in oral communication so that the receiver can respond quickly and correctly. This advantage of easy understandability can be achieved in oral communication. In a face-to-face conversation, there are no 'chances of misunderstanding or inability to understand the message. Doubts and clarifications can be sought and the correct idea and meaning of the speaker can be understood. Intentions and objectives can immediately be interacted and confusion can be removed.

(5) ***To Measure the Effect of Communication:*** To measure the effect of communication is difficult in written communication. But, in oral communication, it is easier to understand the listener whether he is understanding or not the speaker's message, so that it is possible to clarify and explain immediately his viewpoint to the other party. In the

case of oral communication, immediate changes and amendments are possible on the spot. The recipient's attitude as to acceptance or rejection of communications can be studied.

(6) **Emergency Needs:** Oral communication is the best media to send messages during an emergency or urgency or extraordinary circumstances, when you need quick and speedy communication.

(7) **Not a Costly System:** Since in each department, communication takes place without the use of any tool or tools like pen, paper, typewriter and other requirements which are necessary in the case of a written communication.

(8) **Place of Work:** Oral communication is not possible effectively when the communicator and the recipients are far off. It takes a lot of time to meet each other. It is a problem particularly with field workers and others who are at different work places within the premises but located at distant places.

(9) **Costly Devices:** Introduction of mechanical devices for oral communication involves a lot of capital investment and recurring expenditure. Since each department or section is to be equipped with mechanical devices for effective communication, it amounts to costly system. The small organisations cannot afford to go in for such system.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What is verbal communication?

ii) What is the significance of verbal communication?

15.6 LET US SUM UP: Oral communication is a widely adopted tool of communication. It is considered as the earliest and common medium of communication. Whether is business communication or otherwise oral communication should be clear and effective to achieve the objects of communication. These are number of factors which influence effective oral communication. Factors like conversation style of the speaker, language, medium, the temperament of the receiver and speaker, size of audience, importance of message, fear of superiors etc. Effective oral communication calls for certain principles to be followed like brevity, clarity, choosing, precise words, sequence, prepositions adjectives and adverbs. For an effective speech steps like, selection of topic, narrow down the scope state the object prepare an outline locate material and date, rough, draft, aids, rehearsal etc, should be kept in mind. To make communication effective, appropriate media may be selected to meet particular situation to which the speaker, intervenes to put across.

15.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Verbal communication is the use of sounds and words to express yourself, especially in contrast to using gestures or mannerisms. It is sharing of information between individuals by using speech.
2. The significance of verbal communication lies in it being time saving, cost saving, effective medium, ease of communication etc.

15.8 LESSON END EXERCISE

- Q.1 Write a note on principles of oral communication
- Q.2 Write in short about significance of verbal communication.

15.9 SUGGESTED READING

1. G.L. Ray (2015). Extension Communication and Management. Kalyani Publishers.
2. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
3. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
4. V.K. Dubey and I. Bishnoi (2008). Extension Education and Communication. New Age International Ltd., Publishers: New Delhi.

ACQUIRING LANGUAGE SKILLS FOR SPEAKING & WRITING
IMPROVING LANGUAGE COMPETENCY

STRUCTURE

- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Objectives
- 16.3 Acquiring language skills: An Introduction
- 16.4 Techniques in oral communication
- 16.5 Speech Preparation -useful hints
- 16.6 Vocal control, pronunciation and physical behaviour
- 16.7 Guide lines for effective communication.
- 16.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 16.9 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 16.10 Lesson End Exercise
- 16.11 Suggested Reading

16.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous lesson we have understood that verbal communication is one of the simplest and most commonly used form of communication. It is not only easy but also doesn't cost much. It is much easy to understand but at the same time requires a few prerequisites. In the

present lesson we will look into the skills required for speaking and writing. We will try to understand the ways of improving language competency.

16.2 OBJECTIVES

Main objective of this lesson is to help students to understand about various techniques of acquiring language skills.

16.3 ACQUIRING LANGUAGE SKILLS: AN INTRODUCTION

There are several ways in which speech may be considered ‘good’ or ‘bad’ by different people and this is usually because it may be used for many different purposes.

First, why do we speak at all? In fact, is speaking really necessary? We are sure, we all agree that it is. We may say then that the first and foremost use of speech is to convey our ideas to other people. It is when our speech does not do this, immediately and clearly that it may be truly said to be “bad.” Certain techniques should be followed to be a successful communicator. He must build into his speech an element of goodwill to which the listener will react favourably. A speech creates goodwill provided a message produces a favourable reaction among the listeners. A positive favourable reaction from the listeners can be achieved by promoting a friendly, kind attitude, cheerful towards listeners. Listeners are human, of all common and various capacities. They should be treated as such and the message is capable of being understood by them all. A favourable effect of a message is important. One principle is being courteous, which is fundamental in all oral communication and good relations.

16.4 TECHNIQUES IN ORAL COMMUNICATION

The following are the important techniques in oral communication to be successful:

(I) Audibility of Voice: Different people speak in different situations; speech which may be perfectly adequate in some circumstances may be inadequate in others. For instance,

a soft voice is usually quite satisfactory in the home but the same voice might not be heard at the back of a classroom, while a competent teacher, who is clearly audible in the class room may not be heard in a large lecture room, a, court of law, a theatre or church. So, the first requirement of good speech is that in any given circumstance, “the voice should be audible.”

Here a warning note should be sounded: one should fill, not overfill, the space occupied by one’s hearers. It is unpleasant to be shouted at, so unpleasant indeed that anyone with sensitive ears will stop listening to an overloud voice and, then, of course, whatever speaker had to say will not have been taken in and for the effect he has laid on his hearers, he might have not spoken as well. At first, this presents for the speaker, a real difficulty: how to speak loudly enough not too loudly. There is also another difficulty which comes into this category, how to avoid letting an audible voice fade into inaudibility at the end of phrases.

(2) Audibility of Words: The voice of most speakers are in fact usually well audible but quite often, their ‘words’ are not, and, in cases of this kind, though the speaker is heard, his meaning is not conveyed to us and so again, his speaking is without effect. As with the voice, the amount of clarity required in the articulation of words depends on where one is speaking; it is obviously much easier to make words carry in a small room than in a large one and it is especially difficult if there is a slow “revirberation’ time” (usually called erroneously, an ‘echo’) as in most of our lovely stone churches.

(3) The Part Fashion Plays in Speech: Whether we find it pleasant or unpleasant may ‘depend on mere prejudice but it often depends on “fashion.” What is called “Standard English” is really just the most fashionable way of speaking at this particular period in time. It is, we think, one of the many pleasant ways of speaking out language but what gives it a very real value is the fact that it is accepted, without comment, in any type of society all

over the English speaking world. The moment a speaker of Southern Standard English opens his mouth, he is comprehensible to other speakers in England. Also he sounds educated. In fact, a person with a different accent may be and often is much more highly educated than the speaker with a standard accent but some people feel that they must make sure of his attainments before they accept him. This sounds foolish, but it is a fact. Let us not under-rate the importance of fashion; we all subscribe to it in several ways, in our clothes, of course, but also in the way we spend our holidays, the books we read, in the food we eat and in a thousand other ways. In the choice we make in these matters, we express a good deal about ourselves; show much more than we tell people when we speak. Let us then become aware of how we sound to others and if this is not how we would choose to sound, then let us alter our way of speech.

(4) Bringing Out the Meaning : Even when voice and words are easily and suitably audible, the meaning of what we say may still not be conveyed. For instance, if, after a lecture or a sermon, someone who was not there asks what was all about, a person who was present and has heard the talk may find that he does not really know. He heard it all clearly at the time but was not made to understand it. This happens, frequently. After hearing a talk, it is a good test to ask your friends, or yourself to recapitulate the points and arguments that were put forward. If this cannot be done, it is best for everyone to blame himself for not speaking well and the listeners should blame themselves for not concentrating properly.

In fact, if we have-not listened to what it is being said, this may have been the fault of the speaker since he may have failed to interest us. Apart from the subject, the choice of words, illustrations and so on, what makes a speaker interesting? It is not only the quality of his voice and the clear way in which he expresses his ideas; it is also the variety in his voice and speech and gestures. We all get bored if we have to keep on doing the same

thing day after day, if we have to stay always, beautiful or if we-meet new people, however, much we like our old friends. It is the same with speech: variety is the essence of interest. We must remember that an interesting subject may be made boring by a dull speaker and a dull subject made interesting by a good speaker.

(5) Sincerity: All speech, if it is to sound sincere, must be stimulated by thought, feeling and imagination. Sometimes, one or another of these may predominate. For instance, when one is hurt, the ejaculation “Ow” expresses the feeling of pain while the sighing “Oh” at the sight of something beautiful expresses a feeling of pleasure. On many occasions, thought is predominant and often in poetry, for example, imagination is more important than feeling or thought. All the three elements, however, should be present and we must always think, feel and imagine before we speak if we are to bring out the full meaning.

(6) Tone: Tone is the quality of sound or voice. Tone indicates the speakers attitude towards a message as well as the response of the listeners. The word choice, paragraphs, structure and the punctuations are the evidence of tone. These factors may influence listener’s judgement and response. Tone helps to persuade, to influence, to gain goodwill and inspire confidence. Selection of words affect tone. Therefore, the speaker has to choose the words with due care for context and audience, denotation and connotation. Pronouns demand special attention because they indicate the sender’s self-concern with receiver’s needs. For instance, using words like “me”, “I”, “my or “mine” often in a sentence may result in losing rapport with the listeners. Tone of this style indicates exposing and boasting about ones sense of self-importance, as a result, alienates patient listeners. On the other hand, the use of words, like “we”, “ours”, “ourselves” can bring the speaker and listeners closer together. Though occasional use of words like “you”, “your”, “yourself” are tolerable, but “you - one” can be reinforced by the use of listener’s name. Technical tone should be avoided as far as possibled; constructive tone is accepted for constructive criticism.

(7) opening & Closing Words: The opening message should carefully be framed for the situation, audience, subject with appropriate words and sentences to draw the attention of the listeners. The message should be like key-note, to signal core-thought or prepare the listeners for what follows. The effect is adverse when the message is with unnecessary wordiness. Concise and right words would attract attention. The speaker must select that kind of opener which attracts listeners' attention and interest by using relevant and neutral statements.

Developing suitable closing sentence is also equally important. The selection of closing of sentence must reinforce goodwill and good impression or simulate action. For instance, the use of words like "thank you" is discoteous, because it implies taking listeners for granted. Thank the listeners for their patient and effective listening. But do so after the completion of the speech.

(8) Simplicity: Be sincere in delivering a speech in simple sentences. It is easier to understand, keep in mind, memories, refresh and grasp. When a speech is delivered in long sentences, the position of a speaker is so pathetic when the thread is lost. Simple sentences with subject and predicate makes the speech effective. It is better to split long sentences.

(9) Avoid Long Words: Always use only short words and avoid using long words. Use of long words is not good style from literature's point of view. When there is a shorter word to mean the same meaning, it is good practice to use only short words.

(10) Use of Slang: "Slang" means words and phrases used very informally in a speech, and not for formal and polite use. Appropriate occasion is important for its use but should always be used with restraint. Generally they are used in the relation of a humorous anecdote.

Such words are used mainly by, and typical of, a particular group. For instance, to speak rudely and angrily, vulgarly to or about someone or something. It is equivalent to abusing.

(11) Use of quotations: Every speaker should be cautious in using quotations. Referring a quotation in a speech no doubt gives effectiveness to the subject but it must be apt. Avoid using too much as well as long, foreign or Latin quotations. When it is used, it should be correct and full. A little knowledge and learning is a dangerous thing.

(12) Humour: The technique of being amusing is a very important characteristic that most good communicators possess. The ability to amuse people when speaking means that pleasantness and friendliness will permeate what is spoken. Especially when taking any decision, or action, let the speaker's humorous attitude be apparent from the very beginning, opening with a smile. It is the most desirable feature of oral communication. Being humorous in conversation and speech not only puts the speaker at ease but also relaxes his listeners. Understanding, the right situation and using a technique of humour to deliver message whenever an opportunity arises will increase his speaking ability.

Making a speech humorous or witty is a technique to build a goodwill provided the wit is relevant to the context and effective. Jokes or anecdotes are recommended when used carefully; otherwise the image of the speaker goes down. Corwin's Law: "Never make People laugh. "If you could succeed in life, you must be solemn, solemn as an ass. All the great monuments are built over solemn asses." "Never try to make people laugh, teach a point." Marked says "Humour is okay, wit can be dangerous, wisecracking is disastrous."

In most speeches the use of humour is necessary but it must be in good taste and amusing. The safest joke is against the speaker. An original joke is better which the audience never heard before. Again do not repeat the same; it must be being on the subject of the speech.

(13) Stage Fright: It refers to the place of actual delivery of the message before audience, and is concerned with controlling nerves. Fear of forgetting may result in stage fright. It is a misdirected awareness of the speaker. A speaker who feels stage fright may experience nervousness, tensing of muscles, a quivering of voice. A speaker with a stage fright concentrates his mood excessively on himself than on the listeners or the message.

Stage fright and nervousness can be overcome by constant practice and developing self-confidence. The following guidelines may help to overcome stage fright.

- (i) The best method is dress rehearsals addressing before a tryout group.
- (ii) To obtain comments from judges of different points of view, like praising, positive features, negative features and areas need improvement.
- (iii) Try to increase the supply of oxygen to blood and thus steady nerves. It is good to delate lungs and then take in a full breath of air and expel it slowly.
- (iv) Constant preparation of the subject.
- (v) Concentration on the ideas.
- (vi) Constantly thinking, rethinking, memorising, remembering and refreshing the ideas.
- (vii) Build reinforce self-confidence.
- (viii) Do sufficient home-work.
- (ix) Know about the listeners, their traits needs, type, desires, attitudes, belief etc.

(14) Accent: Accent is another important factor to be achieved in good speech. It is a thing which may prevent meaning from being clear. If a person is speaking in an accent which is not familiar to the hearers, they may be worrying about the meaning of a word which he has used while he is saying the next phrase and so they do not even listen to the second phrase. The word “accent” covers two separate meanings. It is used in some contexts to mean extra breath force on a word or syllable (stress): it is also used to indicate the different of pronunciations heard in different parts of our own country.

(15) Friendly Atmosphere: It is the responsibility of the speaker to create a friendly or kindly attitude, benevolent atmosphere at the place. A sincere speech should be in a conversational manner. The message should be capable of putting into writing a cheerful consent, feeling of warmth to the listener as necessary.

(16) Personal Greeting : The speaker must use a personal greeting while starting speech the salutation in oral communication to the listener.

It is always desirable to call the person by name, say “Dear Mr. Saxene” but not “Dear Sir”. Use the person’s name once or twice during oral conversation.

(17) Appreciation: Showing appreciation towards listeners is a technique for building goods will. It involves to be grateful to the audience. The speaker must show his personal appreciation for what they have listened. It means giving thanks to an appreciative audience. Every listener likes to be appreciated. The success of speech depends entirely on his satisfaction with his listeners. The listener likes to be treated as an individual and to be recognised as a person.

(18) Personal Interest: Showing awareness and interest in the listeners as an individual is the desirable quality of successful communication. He can say it gives me a great pleasure to inform you. I am happy to learn that you are joining the organisation. He must make honest efforts to make the other person feel better or more important.

(19) Smile: The communicator has to open his speech with a smile. It involves showing pleasure. It is an act of a smiling speech or the resulting facial expression. It gives clues to feelings and meanings. In a happy frame of mind when speaking, means that pleasantness and friendliness will pass through what is spoken. This is particularly necessary when taking favourable action. It demands for a happy attitude to be apparent from the very beginning.

(20) Listeners to Feel Important: Another technique for building goodwill among the audience is to make the listeners to feel important. Due importance should be given to the listeners. The purpose of speech is to make them to understand the message. This can be achieved by showing appreciation for listeners and by taking a personal interest in listening to them and clarifying their doubts. It is an art and tact of the speaker to make them feel important. Speaking from their point of view and mentioning of various practical instances also makes them feel important.

(21) Listener's Goodwill: Goodwill is a friendly and a kind attitude. Listener's goodwill is a major object of oral communication. Indicating acceptance of suggestions by the listeners will go a long way towards achieving a successful speech. Indicating attention and acknowledgment of what is being suggested will produce positive and favourable reactions from listeners. It will create a friendly confident feeling towards the communicator. Creating an impression is a very difficult task. It is reciprocal and can be applied in all speeches. Speech can be given, but, however, one must remember, listener's goodwill.

(22) Empathy: Empathy is important to a group of audience. Empathy means ability to understand and share the feelings, experiences, opinions etc., of listeners. A certain empathy must exist between the speaker and the listener. It is necessary to show every consideration for the listener that will create interest and persuade the listener. Empathize with the listeners is the projection of one's personality into the listeners in order to understand the listeners better.

(23) Language: Language is very essential in a good communication. He can adapt his own language but should speak at the listener's level. This will make the message pleasing and interesting. An individual listener is interested in listening anything which satisfies the purpose and desire. A pleasing message not only puts the speaker at ease but also relaxes his listeners.

(24) Honesty: If the speaker is genuinely interested in the listener's view point, then the speaker should be honest in his response. Honesty in speech promotes confidence among the listeners.

(25) Personal Appearance: The style in which a speaker dresses communicates something to listeners. Communicating with an acceptable and gentle dress is one of the most direct and silent way of communication.

(26) Action: How physical movements or "still" stand in relation to the audience one is communicating with has a real impact on communication. Message or idea is often communicated through action. A person's gestures also communicates meaning. The movements give us clues to a person's self-confidence or interest in the topic. If one is not interested in a subject, he may more likely to lean towards.

(27) Use of Aids: Sometimes, it may be necessary to use aids, visual or audio-visual, in support of speech. Their use is recommended for effective presentation of the matter. It is practically possible to use electrical or electronic tools. The speech is nearly always combined with media. Charts, graphs, tables, TV, visual projections form equipment etc. The speaker must see where they can be used rightly, and use only those aids which will carry message.

(28) Handouts: Prepare a brief note of the subject matter of speech and distribute to the audience. Handouts serve the audience to keep with them which acts as permanent reminders of the speaker's message. Whatever is heard in the meeting may go out of mind soon after the speech is over.

(29) Hearing Ourselves: Now we all hear our own voice and speech from inside ourselves while other people hear us only from the outside, so it is difficult to know, without mechanical aid, how we actually do sound to others. Now that so many people use own tape recorders, it is good idea to listen ourselves through one of these useful

instruments. Listening to a record does not, in itself, make speech better. It only makes one aware of good and bad points in our own voice and speech and in our use of speech, mumbling, hesitation, dullness, repetitions are noticeable on a record, especially in a prepared conversation. When we have become aware of our faults, hard' and concentrated work is usually required in order to alter our habits.

(30) Beauty of Speech: A point about speech, which is beyond the very practical points raised above, is the actual quality of the voice itself. Some people are more sensitive to this than others or, perhaps, it would be truer to say that they are more consciously so. A beautiful voice in itself is interesting and pleasant to listen to but here again, another warning must be given: The owner of the lovely voice often takes great pleasure in listening to it himself and anyone who does this is apt to go off the track. Another point is that he may be talking of something ugly or unpleasant and then the unsuitability of lovely tone makes him sound insincere.

(31) Style in Speaking: In fact, suitability of voice and speech to the subject is even more important than the aesthetics of the room. In addition, the style should be suited to the audience and to the situation; a good speaker uses different styles when he is speaking, for instance, to small children, to adult students interested in the subject or to the guests at a wedding reception.

(32) Thought Dressing: Dressing by people differ's from place to place and from country to country like the dress of army men, naval personnel, airport personnel dressing by religious Heads, political leaders, lawyers, doctors, sports people etc. Likewise, thoughts are so dressed by speakers as to gain attention and interest of the audience. Swami Vivekananda began his address to the .parliament of religions in Chicago as "Brothers and Sisters" - Not "distin-guished Ladies and Gentlemen", as others did before Swamiji's turn had come. Similarly, it is more appropriate to quote the speech of the great Congress

leader, Chittaranjan Das, to a vast audience “I feel the weight of iron chains over my body, the handcuffs in my wrist; it is the agony of bondage; the whole of India is a vast prison....”

(33) **Build a Vocabulary:** We do not inherit words and tales they tell. Many a time, as the story of Aladdin and his Wonderful Lamp has been told, it must be told again for every child as new generation comes upon the stage.

When building a vocabulary fit to express all our thoughts, hopes and emotions, we need to remember that words are symbols, standing for things. If we do not have fit words, we should be condemned to carrying around large bundles of things instead.

(34) **Voice Segregation:** “Ums” and “ahs” and other punctuations in a speech are common features. Sometimes, it may irritate the audience and may cause discomfort. The two main reasons for punctuate speech are insufficient preparation and lack of concentration. Generally, used to buy time, to think, rethink or refresh. Punctuation in a speech divides sentences by voice segregation. When used repeatedly, it interrupts the concentration. If a speaker needs time or pause to think, then it should be a silent pause.

(35) **Deciding the Purpose of Speech:** A speaker has to deliberately determine the purpose which will not only economies but also enhance speaking task. He must justify the audience. The audience will listen effectively when the message meets their needs. To speak to them about themselves and their needs is the best way to make the people listen. The purpose of the speech is to determine, in terms of a just transmitting message, stimulate, create awareness, educate, affect attitude and behaviour change.

(36) **Analyze Audience:** A good speaker first proceeds to analyse the characteristics of the composition of audience, nature, size, interest, traits, etc., which will determine the message purpose. The nature of the audience, purpose of listeners would play an important role in planning and presentation of the message. Awareness and knowledge of the traits of the listeners, such as one person or hundreds or thousands, group tasks etc., to whom

the message is addressed are necessary. An analysis of audience includes detailed examination of their educational background, experience, occupations, social and political backgrounds, age, sex, etc., will help on effective communication process.

(37) **Evaluation of Situation:** A critical examination of the circumstances of a communication event is termed as an evaluation of the situation of the speaker, context, arrangements, facilities, lighting, furniture, shape and location of the hall or auditorium, environment etc., which will influence effective speech and effective listening. Evaluation of a situation also includes the need and availability of audio-visual equipment, overhead projector, charts, tables, maps, diagrams, models, public address system, microphones, etc. Evaluation of these factors will help the speaker to familiarise, psychological and physical setting to face and deliver the message.

(38) **Organising the Message:** Effective and efficient delivery of message require organising the subject systematically. It is to be arranged and organised taking into consideration the purpose, type of audience, nature, and need of the audience. There are no hard and fast rules uniformly applicable to all situations governing organising the message because it may differ from situation to situation like objectives, audience, circumstances. However, factors like drawing attention of the audience, developing audience interest, making listener--oriented discussion and stimulating audience action would generally help to make effective speech.

(39) **Attention Creation:** A speaker seeks attention at two levels:

1. The physical level and
2. The psychological level.

The contents of your message furnish the psychological input and the physical composition of your message furnishes the other input.

Remember to make use of some of the attention getting stimuli:

- (i) Intensity: A loud voice is a reliable stimulus and is a momentary attention-getter.
- (ii) Repetition: Repetition is quite helpful in reinforcing a stimulus.
- (iii) Movement: Movement, coupled with gestures of the speaker is likely to attract and strengthen the attention of the listeners.
- (iv) Contrast: Tactful variation in rate, loudness and pitch help to maintain attention of the listeners.

16.5 SPEECH PREPARATION - USEFUL HINTS

Advance preparation and careful planning will prove very helpful in making effective speeches. A check list of the following steps should be kept in view:

- (I) Select a Topic: Selection of a subject matter for a speech is the first and the most important task on the part of the speaker. The topic should be specific in content and in scope.
- (2) Narrow Down the Scope: For example, environmental pollution is too general but noise pollution or air pollution are specific themes. Similarly, in a speech like communication skills, it should be specified as speaking skills, writing skills or listening skills. However, in some cases, narrowing the focus may not be practical.
- (3) State the Objective: It may be one or the combination of two or more like to inform, to persuade or influence and to entertain.
- (4) Prepare an Outline: Make a rough blue print like introduction, body, copy, major thrust and conclusion.
- (5) Locate Material and Data: Collect information and organise it from books, documents, speeches, magazines, reports etc.
- (6) Rough Draft: Attempt the rough draft and refine it. It includes introduction, quotation, anecdotes, body, examples, references and conclusions.

(7) Aids: Consider and procure visual, audio-visual aids like charts, overhead projector, T.V. etc.

(8) Rehearse: Rehearsal and practice should be recognised as advantageous for improvement in speech delivery. Rehearsal gives self-confidence. It is desirable to rehearse in front of try-out group. Invite good points or bad points of the speech, indicating verbal and non-verbal behaviour of the speaker. This will help to infuse confidence. Do retouching of draft where necessary.

A speaker steadily gains confidence, and is able to anticipate questions from the listeners and answer the queries, use transitional phrases to establish relationship between ideas and concepts.

16.6 VOCAL CONTROL, PRONUNCIATION AND PHYSICAL BEHAVIOUR:

The use and coordination of the above attributes enhances the effectiveness of a speaker's message.

1. Vocal Control: (a) Pitch: It is a listener's interpretation of frequency of sound. The high pitch is, in many cases, the result of emotional and physical tension. Through practice and experience, it is possible to adjust the pitch and use different levels and give inflections to enhance the effect. Two irritating features of the quality of voice must be avoided like:

(i) Muffled effect

(ii) Breathlessness or whispering effect.

(b) Rate: An average speaker can deliver 120-150 words per minute. About 90-120 words per minute is considered ideal. Uniformity in rate is considered boring. Avoid continuous word delivery. Generally, All-India Radio news reading pattern keeps high range but, in practice, it is not suited to speech-making. Reading at a speed of 120-150 words per minute is acceptable for a short or brief speech or announcement.

(c) Volume: It refers to loudness or softness of a speaker's voice. The simple rule is to accent syllables and important phrases which you think should orally stand out. The volume should match the contents of the various parts of the speech.

2. Pronunciation: Inaccurate and faulty pronunciation reduces the credibility of communication. There are great variations of pronunciation based on national and regional characteristics. But with practice and effort, pronunciation can be improved and stabilised.

3. Physical Behaviour: There are four levels of physical activity that a speaker can utilise to improve the transmission of his message:

(a) Eye Contact: This helps to generate a feeling of directness and every member in the audience feels the speaker is talking to him.

(b) Facial Expressions: This is the second level of physical reinforcement. The speaker shows his interest, enthusiasm and belief in his ideas, reflecting a sincere effort to share them with his listeners.

(c) Movement: Taking a few steps during speech delivery suggest transition, enhances emphasis and helps to overcome nervousness. Adopt a posture in which you feel comfortable but avoid clumsy movements.

(d) Gestures: The verbal expressions should be reinforced with graceful movements of head, Shoulders, arms or hands. The effect of your ideas is enhanced with gestures-coordination.

16.7 GUIDE LINES FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

(I) Audience: The communicator should know his audience and accordingly to put ideas across. If the audience or listeners are not able to understand, it is an ineffective communication.

(2) Ideas: The transmitter should have clear information to be communicated. One must be clear about ideas, opinions, facts to be communicated otherwise he cannot make them the ideas clear.

- (3) Ambiguity: Using words in current use is important and to avoid words which convey vague meaning. A vague communication gives way to confusion in communication.
- (4) Conditions: Necessary physical conditions, facilities and environment are to be provided to both the speaker and the listeners.
- (5) Not to Talk and Talk: Speak only that much i.e sufficient to convey the central idea of the subject matter. A verbal communication should be short, clear and simple to pass message.
- (6) Gestures and Tone: The style in which the message is conveyed is as important as what is being said. There must be integration between facial expression, voice, gestures, mood to the action of what is said about.
- (7) Not to Talk to Impress: The purpose of communication is not to impress but to express, to inspire confidence and make them understand. Expressing and conveying a better message creates an impression. It is not communication if the speaker tries to conceal, intimidate and to impress.
- (8) Feedback: Feedback is probably the most important method of improving communication. Two-way process ensures feedback. The communicator has to obtain feedback from the receiver.
- (9) Emphasis on Purpose: The subject matter and its theme should be greatly emphasised to draw the attention of the listener.
- (10) Avoid Extremes: Some subject matters are too good or too bad. It is desirable to avoid extremes in speaking.
- (11) Cultivate Speaking: Listening is different from hearing. Listening and understanding require a lot of reasoning and attitude. The reasons of non -listening are boredom, bias, fear, interruption, etc.
- (12) Clarify Ideas: The communicator first has to clarify his ideas himself before; think on the message clearly and clarify ideas to ensure effective communication.

(13) Purpose: The purpose of communication is to make others understand the subject matter. The communication is ineffective if the purpose is not achieved.

(14) Physical and Human Setting: An atmosphere of mutual trust is to be created in the process of communication. It is mainly the responsibility of the superiors. The informal relations is the best weapon to promote physical and human setting in the organisation.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) Enlist some of the ways of attracting attention?

ii) What are the components of vocal control?

16.8 LET US SUM UP: Verbal communication requires that the voice should be audible, should be meaningful, should have appropriate tone, and should be simple and clear. Speech should be well prepared including selecting a topic, narrowing down on the scope, stating the objective, preparing an outline, locating material and data, preparing a rough draft, using appropriate aids, and rehearsing. Vocal behavior, pronunciation and physical behavior also effect verbal communication.

16.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Some of the ways to attract attention to stimuli are:

- (i) Intensity: A loud voice is a reliable stimulus and is a momentary attention-getter.
- (ii) Repetition: Repetition is quite helpful in reinforcing a stimulus.
- (iii) Movement: Movement, coupled with gestures of the speaker is likely to attract and strengthen the attention of the listeners.
- (iv) Contrast: Tactful variation in rate, loudness and pitch help to maintain attention of the listeners.

2. The components of vocal control are:

- (a) Pitch: It is a listener's interpretation of frequency of sound. The high pitch is, in many cases, the result of emotional and physical tension. Through practice and experience, it is possible to adjust the pitch and use different levels and give inflections to enhance the effect. Two irritating features of the quality of voice must be avoided like: Muffled effect; Breathlessness or whispering effect.
- (b) Rate: An average speaker can deliver 120-150 words per minute. About 90-120 words per minute is considered ideal. Uniformity in rate is considered boring. Avoid continuous word delivery.
- (c) Volume: It refers to loudness or softness of a speaker's voice. The simple rule is to accent syllables and important phrases which you think should orally stand out. The volume should match the contents of the various parts of the speech.

16.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q.1. Write in detail about different techniques of acquiring language skills or oral communication.

Q.2. Write in short about different points that one should keep in mind for effective communication.

16.11 SUGGESTED READING

1. G.L. Ray (2015). Extension Communication and Management. Kalyani Publishers.
2. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
3. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
4. V.K. Dubey and I. Bishnoi (2008). Extension Education and Communication. New Age International Ltd., Publishers: New Delhi.

RELATIONSHIP OF CULTURES AND COMMUNICATION

STRUCTURE

- 17.1. Introduction
- 17.2 Objectives
- 17.3 Meaning of Culture
- 17.4 Characteristics of Culture
- 17.5 Relation of Cultures and Communication
- 17.6 Cross cultural differences in Communication
- 17.7 Let us sum up
- 17.8 Answers to check your progress
- 17.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 17.10 Suggested Reading

17.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous lesson we have discussed about verbal communication and emphasized on how the speaking and writing skills can be improved. We also have understood that verbal communication though is simple still requires a few skills on the part of both the sender and the receiver. Now in this lesson we will learn about culture and its characteristics and also will understand the linkage between culture and communication.

17.2 OBJECTIVES

The objective of the lesson is to acquaint the students with the concept of culture, and how Culture and communication are interlinked.

17.3 MEANING OF CULTURE

Culture as a term is widely used in academic as well as in daily speech and discourse, referring to different concepts and understandings. While the term originally stems from ancient Greek and Roman cultures (Latin: *cultura*) it has various dimensions today built from the different needs and uses of each field, be it anthropology, sociology or communication studies.

The term “culture” refers to the complex collection of knowledge, folklore, language, rules, rituals, habits, lifestyles, attitudes, beliefs, and customs that link and give a common identity to a particular group of people at a specific point in time.

All social units develop a culture. Even in two-person relationships, a culture develops over time. In friendship and romantic relationships, for example, partners develop their own history, shared experiences, language patterns, rituals, habits, and customs that give that relationship a special character—a character that differentiates it in various ways from other relationships. Examples might include special dates, places, songs, or events that come to have a unique and important symbolic meaning for two individuals.

Groups also develop cultures, composed of the collection of rules, rituals, customs, and other characteristics that give an identity to the social unit. Where a group traditionally meets, whether meetings begin on time or not, what topics are discussed, how decisions are made, and how the group socializes are all elements of what, over time, become defining and differentiating elements of its culture.

Organizations also have cultures, often apparent in particular patterns of dress, layout of workspaces, meeting styles and functions, ways of thinking about and talking about the nature and directions of the organization, leadership styles, and so on.

The most rich and complex cultures are those that are associated with a society or a nation, and the term “culture” is most commonly used to refer to these characteristics, including language and language-usage patterns, rituals, rules, and customs. A societal or national culture also includes such elements as significant historical events and characters, philosophies of government, social customs, family practices, religion, economic philosophies and practices, belief and value systems, and concepts and systems of law.

Thus, any social unit—whether a relationship, group, organization, or society—develops a culture over time. While the defining characteristics—or combination of characteristics—of each culture are unique, all cultures share certain common functions. Three such functions that are particularly important from a communication perspective are (1) linking individuals to one another, (2) providing the basis for a common identity, and (3) creating a context for interaction and negotiation among members.

17.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF CULTURE: Following are the characteristics features of culture:

1. Cultures are complex and multifaceted: Cultures are complex “structures” that consist of a wide array of characteristics. The cultures of relationships or groups are relatively simple compared to those of organizations and, especially, societies.
2. Cultures are subjective: There is a tendency to assume that the elements of one’s own cultures are logical and make good sense. It follows that if other cultures—whether of relationships, groups, organizations, or societies—look different, those differences are often considered to be negative, illogical, and sometimes nonsensical. For example, Someone

from a culture that permits one man to have only one wife may find it quite inappropriate that another culture allows one man to have multiple wives. With regard to culture, the tendency for many people is to equate “different” with “wrong,” even though all cultural elements come about through essentially identical communication processes.

3. Cultures change over time: Cultures are ever changing—though the change is sometimes very slow and imperceptible. Cultures are not fixed, monolithic entities, but are fluid, always changing and responding to pressures and influences, such as the changing experiences of its members, or interaction with other cultures. Many forces influence cultural change. As indicated above, cultures are created through communication, and it is also through communication between individuals that cultures change over time. Each person involved in a communication encounter brings the sum of his or her own experiences from other (past or present) culture memberships. In one sense, any encounter between individuals in new relationships, groups, organizations, or societies is an intercultural communication event, and these varying cultural encounters influence the individual and the cultures over time. Travel and communication technologies greatly accelerate the movement of messages from one cultural context to another, and in small and large ways, cultures come to influence one another through communication.

4. Cultures are largely invisible: Much of what characterizes cultures of relationships, groups, organizations, or societies is invisible to its members, much as the air is invisible to those who breathe it. Language, of course, is visible, as are greeting conventions, special symbols, places, and spaces. However, the special and defining meanings that these symbols, greetings, places, and spaces have for individuals in a culture are far less visible.

5. Cultures are learned: When we are born we don’t automatically know all the values, words, beliefs, customs etc that our culture has adopted. We do not inherit culture. Rather,

culture is learned. While much of what we learn about the culture can be learned through school, family, peers, and the media, there are many other things about a culture that are learned subconsciously.

6. Culture is shared: The very concept of culture makes it a social construct. To learn a language, behavior, or tradition often involves interacting with other people. Thus, culture is largely shared. Despite the shared nature of culture, that doesn't mean that culture is the same for everyone. There can be certain things within a culture that are shared between some groups but not others.

17.5 RELATION OF CULTURES AND COMMUNICATION

The relationship between communication and culture is a very complex and intimate one. First, cultures are created through communication; that is, communication is the means of human interaction through which cultural characteristics—whether customs, roles, rules, rituals, laws, or other patterns—are created and shared. It is not so much that individuals set out to create a culture when they interact in relationships, groups, organizations, or societies, but rather that cultures are a natural by-product of social interaction. In a sense, cultures are the “residue” of social communication. Without communication and communication media, it would be impossible to preserve and pass along cultural characteristics from one place and time to another. One can say, therefore, that culture is created, shaped, transmitted, and learned through communication. The reverse is also the case; that is, communication practices are largely created, shaped, and transmitted by culture.

To understand the implications of this communication-culture relationship, it is necessary to think in terms of ongoing communication processes rather than a single communication event. For example, when a three-person group first meets, the members bring with them

individual thought and behavioral patterns from previous communication experiences and from other cultures of which they are, or have been, a part. As individuals start to engage in communication with the other members of this new group, they begin to create a set of shared experiences and ways of talking about them. If the group continues to interact, a set of distinguishing history, patterns, customs, and rituals will evolve. Some of these cultural characteristics would be quite obvious and tangible, such that a new person joining the group would encounter ongoing cultural “rules” to which they would learn to conform through communication. New members would in turn influence the group culture in small, and sometimes large, ways as they become a part of it. In a reciprocal fashion, this reshaped culture shapes the communication practices of current and future group members. This is true with any culture; communication shapes culture, and culture shapes communication.

The relationship between communication and culture is a complex and intimate one. Cultures are created through communication; that is, communication is the means of human interaction through which cultural characteristics—customs, roles, rules, rituals, laws or other patterns—created and shared. It is not so much that individuals set out to create a culture when they interact—in relationships, groups, organizations or societies, but rather cultures are a natural by-product of social interactions. In a sense, cultures are the ‘residue’ of communication. Without communication and communication media, it would be impossible to preserve and pass along cultural characteristics from one place and time to another. Thus we can safely say that culture is created, shaped, transmitted and learn through communication. The reverse is also true; that is, communication practices are largely created, shaped and transmitted by culture. Organization also have culture, often apparent in particular pattern of dress, layout of workspaces, meeting style and function, ways of thinking about and talking about the nature and directions of the organization, leadership styles and so on. Where a group traditionally meets, whether meeting begins on time or not, what topic are discussed, how decision are made and how the group socializes are all elements of what become defining and differentiating elements of its culture over

time. And often observed difference is in work place relationship—in some organization people may call their boss by their first name and may be casual in their attire and communication with each other, while in some other organizations formal communication and formal attire is the work culture.

The culture in which a person is raised profoundly affects every aspects of that person communication behavior and interpretation of messages. Communication among people of diverse background (and, therefore, with diverse communication patterns) is challenging.

It is observed that on many occasions people become ethnocentric, i.e. they believe their personal native culture is superior and judge everyone else behavior by the norms of their own culture. But successfully communication among culturally diverse individual requires them to give up their ethnocentricity.

To fully understand the deep relationship between communication and culture, it is necessary to think in terms of ongoing communication process rather than a single communication event. For example, when a group of people meet for the first time the members bring with them their individual thoughts and behavior pattern for previous communication experience and from other cultures of which they are, or have been, apart. As individual start to engage in communication with other members of this new group, they begin to create a set of shared experiences and ways of talking about them. If the situation continuous to interact, a set of distinguish history, patterns, customs and rituals will evolve with time. Some of these cultural characteristics would be quite obvious and tangible, such that a new person joining the group would encounter ongoing cultural ‘rules’ through which they would learn to conform to communication. New members would in turn influence the group culture in small- and sometimes, large-ways as they become a part of it. In reciprocal fashion, this reshaped culture shapes the communication practices of current and future

group members. This is true with any culture. Communication shape culture and culture shapes communication.

17.6 CROSS CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN COMMUNICATION

Culture is all socially transmitted behavior, arts, architectures, languages signs, symbols, ideas, beliefs, norms, traditions, rituals etc which is learned and shared in a particular social groups of the same nationality, ethnicity, religion etc. Culture is handed down from one generation to another, it gives people their way of seeing the world and interpreting life. A single culture has many sub-cultures.

Cultural diversity makes communication difficult as the mindset of people of different cultures are different, the language, signs and symbols are also different. Different cultures have different meaning of words, behaviours and gesture. Culture also gives rise to prejudices, ethnocentrism, manners and opinions. It forms the way people think and behave. When people belonging to different cultures communicate these factors can become barriers. The way we communicate is affected by the culture we are brought up in. The opposite of this also true. Culture is, to a large extent determined by the way we communicate.

In America, people communicate freely and that is part of their culture. In Germany an Indian who is used to being very indirect with his communication might find their direct way of speaking rude. Being direct is part of Germany's culture and is reflected in the way they communicate. Communication shapes culture and culture shapes communication.

Causes of Cultural barriers:

Language: There are billions of people in the world who do not understand English or cannot communicate in English properly. Not speaking properly can cause various misunderstandings and can be a barrier to communication.

Different cultures have developed their own language as a part of their heritage. People are comfortable in communicating in their own languages, where as they have to work hard to learn new languages. Even when people try to express their own language many misunderstanding arise. It becomes more profound in people speaking in different languages.

Signs and Symbols (Semantics): Non verbal communication cannot be relied upon in communication between people from different cultures as that is also a different like language. Signs, symbols and gestures vary in different cultures. The culture sets some meaning of signs, which might not be the same in other cultures.

Stereotypes and prejudices: Stereotyping is the process of creating a picture of the whole culture, over generalizing all people belonging to the same culture. As having similar characteristic and categorizing people accordingly. It is a belief about a certain group and is mostly negative.

Stereotyping can be done on the basis of many things like nationality, gender, race, religion, ethnicity, age etc. Negative stereotyping creates prejudices and it provokes judgmental attitudes. People look at those cultures as evil and treat the people following the religion wickedly. Media is a tool of mass communication which promotes stereotypes and prejudices and creates more communication barriers.

Behaviour and Beliefs: Cultural differences causes behavioral and personality differences like body language, thinking , communication, manners, norms, etc. which leads to miscommunication. For example, in some cultures' eye contact is important where as in some it is rude and disrespectful. Culture also sets specific norms which dictates behavior as they have guidelines for accepted behavior. It explains what is right and wrong. Every action is influenced by culture like ambitions, careers, interest, values, etc. beliefs are also

another cause for cultural barriers. For instance, mostly people who believe in God can cope with their lows of life easily than atheist.

Appropriate amount of emotions that must be displayed is also different in different cultures. Roles are defined by culture. Good communication occurs between people with different cultures if both accept their differences with open mind.

Ethnocentrism: Ethnocentrism is the process of dividing cultures as ‘us’ and ‘them’. People of someone’s own culture are categorized as in-group and other culture is out-group. There is always greater preference to in-group. There is an illusion of out-group as evil and inferior. This evaluation is mostly negative. If the culture is similar to us, then it is good and if it is dissimilar it is bad. Other’s culture is evaluated and assessed with the standard being their own culture. Ethnocentrism affects the understanding of message and encourages hostility. For example, the books in schools use reference of their own culture to describe other cultures by either showing common things or differences.

Religion: Similar to ethnocentrism and stereotyping religion also disrupts communication as it creates a specific image of people who follow other religions. People find it difficult to talk to people who follow different religions. Religious views influence how people think about others, it creates differences in opinions.

Apart from these there are other cultural barriers like frames of reference, political opinions, priorities of life, age etc. Cross cultural communication is not only a barrier but also an opportunity for creativity, new perspectives and openness to new ideas and unity in the world. To make communication effective, the causes of cultural communication barriers must be eliminated as much as possible. Cross cultural understanding must be increased as it decreases communication barriers caused by culture differences.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) Define culture.

ii) What are the characteristic features of culture?

17.7 LET US SUM UP: Culture is a complex concept. The simplest definition of culture is: culture is the conformity of different forms of traits created by human beings. Culture is created by humans and it is in fact the smallest independent unit of human creation. Cultures tend to vary from one society to another and in the same society at different times. Since culture is the product of human groups, it must be through communication that culture gets shared by people. Culture and communication constitute an interactive relationship, where each of them gets affected by the other sometimes directly and sometimes indirectly.

17.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The term “culture” refers to the complex collection of knowledge, folklore, language, rules, rituals, habits, lifestyles, attitudes, beliefs, and customs that link and give a common identity to a particular group of people at a specific point in time.

2. Cultures are ever complex, ever evolving, multifaceted, and largely invisible. They are learned and shared.

17.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q 1. Describe the interrelationship between culture and communication.

Q 2. Describe the characteristic features of culture.

17.10 SUGGESTED READING

1. G.L. Ray (2015). Extension Communication and Management. Kalyani Publishers.
2. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
3. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
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**ROLE OF HOME SCIENCE EXTENSION IN THE DEVELOPMENTAL
PROCESS**

STRUCTURE

- 18.1 Introduction
- 18.2 Objectives
- 18.3 Meaning of Home Science Education
- 18.4 History of Home Science In India
- 18.5 Concept of Home Science
- 18.6 Home Science Extension:
- 18.7 The Philosophy of Home Science Extension:
- 18.8 Objectives of Home Science Extension:
- 18.9 Characteristics of Home Science Extension:
- 18.10 Role of Home Science Extension:
- 18.11 Role of Home Science Extension In National Development
- 18.12 Let Us Sum Up
- 18.13 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 18.14 Lesson End Exercise
- 18.15 Suggested Reading

18.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit IV the various aspects of communication were discussed. Non verbal and verbal communications are both important forms of communication. Around 70% of our communication happens to be non-verbal in nature, while the remaining 30% comprises of verbal and written communication. Also, you have read that communication and culture are interrelated concepts, which tend to influence each other. Now, in this lesson we will understand the role of home science extension in the developmental process.

18.2 OBJECTIVES

The lesson will clarify the concept of home science extension and explain how extension can contribute to the developmental process.

18.3 MEANING OF HOME SCIENCE EDUCATION

Home Science Education is the well-structured education of home living. Through its core courses such as clothing and textile, foods and nutrition, human-resource development, human development and extension education, it helps to bring economic independence in individual to raise the standard of living. Science of Home is concerned with maintenance and enrichment of human relationship within and outside the family, through the development and judicious use of all human and material resources to achieve maximal satisfaction for all members of a family. Home Science Education advocates for the personal and professional development of all members of the family.

18.4 HISTORY OF HOME SCIENCE IN INDIA

The teaching of Home Science in India has a short history. During the British Rule between 1920 and 1940, the then rulers introduced Home Science in some schools and colleges. In the beginning, Home Science was referred to as Domestic Science. The princely

state of Baroda was one of the first states to introduce Home Science in Schools, in Maharani Girls High School. The subject remained in the school curriculum in several states. After winning independence India in 1947, many changes were brought about in its curriculum. In the sixties and seventies, Home Science and related subjects were fused together at the school level. A stream was developed at the higher secondary level in Gujarat and some other states. Gradually, Home Science became a popular subject in Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and some southern states.

Even so, the courses were not offered at the college level of that time. Hence, many institutions faced problems of providing further opportunities for students who completed Home Science at the secondary level. In 1932, Home Science was started at the college level in Lady Irwin College in Delhi. From 1938 onwards Madras University offered Home Science at the degree level. Queen Mary's College and Women's Christian College in Madras started Home Science in 1942. The Agricultural Institute of Allahabad also started a Home Science Diploma course in 1935. In 1945, it turned into a University Department. By 1950, Baroda became a significant nucleus of Home Science education. Since 1950, outstanding Home Science Colleges were started in Coimbatore (Tamil Nadu) Ludhiana (Punjab) Bombay (Maharashtra) New Delhi, Udaipur (Rajasthan) and Tirupathi (Andhra Pradesh) in the mid-1960 and 1970's Agriculture Universities were established in most of the states. The teaching of Home Science was recognized in most of the Agricultural Universities. There is a steady progress of Home Science education in India at the school and college levels. In 1920 only a few students enrolled in Home Science. By 1980s, many influential institutions in India offered by B.Sc, M.Sc. and Ph.D. degrees in Home Science. At present, thousands of postgraduates and Ph.D. degree, holders are in prominent positions in reputable institutions all over the country.

18.5 CONCEPT OF HOME SCIENCE

A plan of teaching Home Science must begin with an understanding of the discipline of home science. It is a simple, direct explanation of the relevance and significance of home science in the modern context. People often ask how home science is associated with the home. This question brings out the basic premises upon which the discipline of home science is built. The science of the home is concerned with the maintenance and enrichment of human relationships through the development and judicious use of all available human and material resources to achieve a maximal satisfying life for all members of the family. Home science education prepares youth for the greatest of all vocations - Home Making. It orients young girls and boys towards preparation for some professions- teaching, nursing; dietetics, research, welfare, management, art application, extension work, and communication. There are some ways of managing homes. Men, as well as women, have played the roles of breadwinners and homemakers. It has become necessary for men to share housework, to enable women as professional persons to contribute to the nation.

It advocates that

- * Home is a place for the development of both sexes through equal opportunities.
- * The individual and professional development of both sexes is possible within the home.
- * The roles and norms for both sexes pertain to their individual and professional lives.

Therefore, the imbalance between the roles of man and woman must be avoided.

The single dimensional role of a woman as a homemaker produces constraints for women's development within a society, and individuals have changed and therefore, the woman is the lopsided role as a homemaker, needs to be fused with professional roles. All knowledge applied is fundamental, which can be used to liberate women and men from

undue pressure within and without the home, is the content of Home Science. The goal of home science education is to help everyone to live more useful and satisfying personal, family and community life. General-education aims at the all-round development of individuals to enable them to take their places in society as effective members. In the development of their abilities, the emphasis is placed on personal development for living in a social group. The functional philosophy of education calls for preparation for living through living. Home science helps to fulfill these purposes in a unique way. It helps pupils to develop a point of view that challenges them to explore how to live together happily with their families, other social groups, and communities.

Home science aims to achieve family happiness, raise its moral standards and improve its economic conditions, and these objectives are to be achieved by fully allowing the man as well as the woman to develop personally and professionally. Home is a place where life begins and school is the place where formal education begins. Hence what has been generated at home can be further enriched at school.

18.6 HOME SCIENCE EXTENSION

Home Science Extension was introduced into the colleges and agricultural universities after the launching of the community development program in 1952. This was due to the realization of the fact that women can contribute to the national economy and thereby to national development. Therefore, Home Science colleges being exclusively for women these days took up the task of training their students for extending knowledge of home science beyond their college classrooms. Thus, slowly the concept of home Science a finishing course for girls of the upper class changed and the objective of contributing to national development through the extension service came up from a new perspective. However, today there are specific programs of community development and welfare,

which have a strong component of Home Science. So far, only home Science extension departments of home science colleges were fulfilling this objective. However, recently there has been a move in almost all areas of home Science to include a component of extension service in their curriculum.

The concept of extension education, in general, is to bring positive changes in terms of knowledge, skill, and attitude. The major objective of this process is to develop the capacity of individuals in order to make self-reliant and productive citizens of society. When this concept of extension applies to home science, it is called Home Science Extension. It aims at further developing the capacities of girls and women mainly involved in home and farm activities. Thus, the term Home Science Extension means the type of education, which extends beyond the four walls of the classroom to those who have been deprived of formal education in Home Science for some reasons.

Chandra (1987) has explained the term Home Science Extension as, “the dimension of social science, which concerns itself with functional and attitudinal changes in the home and the family through scientific and technological knowledge”.

Dey (1987) has also given a somewhat similar explanation. She says Home Science Extension deals with the means and methodology of dissemination of scientific and technical information is of significance in their activities, production, and improvement.”

Desai and Rani (1987) have noted that the concept of Home Science Extension evokes various responses among different people. For example, in some parts it is termed to be the nutritional aspects, in another, it is health and sanitation, in some others it is welfare activities.

The concept of Home Science Extension has to be treated as multidimensional and interdisciplinary since it involves various aspects such as technology, growth and investment opportunities for women, building up the capacity of women, their roles and

responsibilities, etc., therefore, the system of home science extension should be planned on multidisciplinary lines.

From the above viewpoints, the following definition of Home Science Extension can be given:

1. “Home Science Extension is an applied science which aims at bringing about change on the behavior among the target groups through the dissemination of scientific and technical information on the areas of Home Science.”
2. Home Science Extension encompasses multidisciplinary activities aiming to promote and enhance attitudes, skills, and knowledge among the people at large, relating to various aspects of day to day life; ultimately leading to overall improvement in the quality of life of people.

Sethi (1987) has described three important components of Home Science Extension:

- a) Extension Education
- b) Extension Service
- c) Extension work

Home Science Extension is concerned with teaching, research, and extension, which are the functions of the universities and institutes of research, extension and higher learning. It is a need-based program available resource. It aims at bringing about desirable behavioral changes in people by using various methods of extension. Home Science Extension service performs the task of bridging the gap between research centers and homemakers by working as a linkage between the institutions of higher learning and the organizations for homemakers. To do this help of Government and voluntary organizations for homemakers. To do this the help of government and voluntary organizations is sought in planning and conducting Home Science extension programs as well as by utilizing their

resources. Thus, home Science Extension also aims at strengthening the work of the government and the voluntary organizations.

18.7 THE PHILOSOPHY OF HOME SCIENCE EXTENSION

The philosophy of home science extension is based on the development within the individual, who is the most important component of the community and of national development. Every individual can solve his or her problems and in the process, thus, he or she learns, improves and develops. Home Science extension aims at utilizing this human ability to recognize problems and take decisions to solve them. Home science extension workers help people to explore possible ways to solve problems. It is left to the people to select the methods to solve their problems and take necessary action.

Thus, extension education stresses on educating people to have freedom of action. In this process of taking decisions and making choices, and through voluntary and active participation in the extension programs, an individual grows, develops and becomes self-dependent.

An individual is a part of his or her family, community, and nation. Therefore, if an individual initially develops and improves, it follows that the community and nation will also develop and change towards better. The family is the foundation for any changes within the individual and society. It is the family's acceptance which encourages a person to change his or her practices because he/she is primarily concerned with his or her family. In the process of bringing about changes in the individual, home science extension puts a lot of stress on scientific methods and approaches. The philosophy of extension education also accepts the psychology of individual differences. It accepts individuals as they are and start working with them from where they are. That is, with whatever background of knowledge and characteristics they have come. This is why stress is put on knowing the

skills and abilities of people to bring changes their beliefs, values, taboos, their leaders, institutions and organizations and understanding, their problems as they perceived them before planning extension programs.

18.8 OBJECTIVES OF HOME SCIENCE EXTENSION

1. To promote all-round development of all individuals within the home.
2. To assist individuals in the effective use of the available resources in solving their day-to-day problem.
3. To strengthen the work in the government and non-governmental agencies in providing all round developments of individuals through
 - a) Imparting knowledge on health, nutrition, home management, child development, their rights and responsibilities, modern technologies and other relevant information, which will lead to nutrition and social standards.
 - b) Developing functional and vocational skills like tailoring, food preservation, educational skills, etc., which will help them in improving their economic status and empowerment of women especially.
 - c) Bringing about change in their attitude and practices aiming at increasing the literary levels, the standard of living and ultimately community and national development.

18.9 CHARACTERISTICS OF HOME SCIENCE EXTENSION

*** It is a multidisciplinary approach-** It derives its body of knowledge of all sciences like physics, chemistry, physiology, nutrition and health, child development, textiles and clothing and also includes management, sociology, psychology, communication, etc.,

* **It is action oriented-** Home science extension refers to a series of activities, which impart knowledge on selected topics and help the target group to develop necessary skills for its application. Home Science extension education aims at action and results.

* **It empowers women and youth-** In order to improve the economic status, this is essential. These technical advances are shared, and they are made to work independently with better status within the community.

* **Its results are intangible-** Change in attitude and knowledge is a slow process, and results cannot be seen immediately. Sometimes it is difficult to perceive concrete results and should not be taken as a measure of the effectiveness of a program.

* **Home Science extension establishes a two-way communication--channel** by bridging the gap between centers of higher education and research and the beneficiaries. Now technology is transferred to the field through various communication media or methods, and target groups are helped to realize the importance of using it for improving their standard of living. Similarly, the needs and problem of the people are communicated to specialists who in turn find solutions to these, and that is passed on to field workers.

* **It is a need-based program-** Home science extension program will exist or function only on the needs among the people. It can be long-term or a short-term need, but without this, no program for development can be planned.

* **It is family oriented-** The very word home means the family and so home science extension aims at the overall development of every individual in the family young or old, men or women.

* **It is voluntary-** There is no compulsion on the people to participate in home science extension programs. They are made to realize the need for developmental progress, but accepting and participating in developmental programs is totally left to the people.

18.10 ROLE OF HOME SCIENCE EXTENSION

Home science as a discipline plays a very crucial role in the development of society.

1. Linking Home Science at the grass root level: Grass root refers to individuals, families and informal groups within the target population. Through Home Science Extension, a mechanism of linkage can be established and strengthen to disseminate technologies to attain the quality of life.

2. Optimal process of Home science knowledge: Through Home Science Extension the knowledge base of other fields like foods and nutrition, human development, clothing and textiles, resource management can be optimally processed and this package of knowledge and skill can be transferred to the needy families.

3. Transfer of Home Science knowledge at grass root levels: The dissemination methodologies, extension approaches, and communication capabilities are of much use in transfer of various technologies to all the stakeholders.

4. Maintaining sustenance in transfer of knowledge: Knowledge transfer is a continuous process. As needs of individuals, family and community are numerous. The fulfillment of one's need arises from another need and hence needs fulfillment is an endless process. Home science extension agents should assume the role of the conveyor belt for an unbroken supply of information and technology to rural families.

5. Monitoring and evaluation of knowledge and technology transfer: The challenge lies in continuous monitor of transfer of knowledge and technology for its acceptance. Monitoring basically deals with techniques of management activities while evaluation is an action-oriented process for gathering information about the impact of activity for systematic and objective analysis. Hence, Home science plays a crucial role in this direction for sustaining the quality of life of rural families.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) Trace the early development of Home Science as a subject.

ii) Enlist the objectives of Home Science extension.

iii) What are the characteristic features of Home Science Extension?

18.11 ROLE OF HOME SCIENCE EXTENSION IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Literally, the word Home Science can be interpreted as Systematic Education for home living. The art of home making had a significant place in the sixty four arts an individual had to master for successful living. Home Science deals with all aspects of the life of the community and the nation. It integrates the application of knowledge synthesised from different sciences and humanities to improve the human environment, family nutrition, management of resources, child development, community resource management and consumer competence.

Today Home Science is described as a multipurpose programme of study which takes care of individual's need and interests and develops need abilities and capacities for successful homemaking in a dynamic society. Home Science extension aims at dissemination of scientific knowledge and technology among the rural masses, in order to improve their quality of life. The social, technological and economic development of the country has its ultimate objective in improving the quality of life of its population. Hence, the overall goals

of all national development programmes are to make adequate provision for fulfilling the basic needs of the people- like good food, clothing, adequate housing, good health care facilities, education, recreation and job opportunities. In the age of globalization, a multitude of pressures and problems such as physical, social, emotional and psychological nature confront the individuals, families and communities.

Extension focuses on dissemination of the information relating to advanced technology in agricultural production, which includes usage of improved seeds, methods of use of chemical fertilizers; application of advanced scientific knowledge to the farming and home of the rural people; Scientific management of land based farming such as horticulture, sericulture, dairying, poultry etc, by the farming community; Overall improvement of the quality of life of the rural people within the framework of the national economic and social policies as a whole. The eradication of extreme poverty and hunger, promotion of gender equity and the empowerment of women, combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, and ensuring environmental sustainability, are among the declared United Nations' Millennium Development Goals, which are closely related to the extension function.

In this context of growing pressures in the work environment and the external world of competitions, the family assumes a vital role in shaping the citizens of tomorrow. Here comes the major role of Home Science extension education, as it equips the future citizens with relevant knowledge and competence, and prepares them to become efficient custodians of the nation's futures.

Through its various spheres of involvements, it aims at developing the nation through eradication of poverty and illiteracy, infusing creativity in all aspects of life, social reform and enlightenment, increasing food production, its better distribution and preservation,

reduction in unemployment by promoting self employment, rural development, urban development, population education, income generation, resource mobilization and utilization.

Apart from providing nutrition education to the community, extension education helps the community to know the trends in income, employment, poverty, unemployment, labour force participation, and other social and economic statistics which are very crucial for the development of the nation. Extension education has played an important role in strengthening the inner ability of our women by enhancing their level of education and by imparting financial independence.

Home Science education has played an important role in strengthening the inner ability of our women by enhancing their level of education and by imparting financial independence. Home Science extension education has played an important role in strengthening the inner ability of our women by enhancing their level of education and by imparting financial independence. The establishment of adult education, continuing education and community resource centres all over the world, is a reflection of the need, necessity and relevance of extension education. Being one of the major role of University, extension education acts as change agents in conveying messages, ideas, knowledge, technology, information and skills to a captive target audience, and also brings back the viewpoints and feed back of the people back to the sources for further improvement.

Home scientists with their knowledge and concern and human life and happiness can work effectively since many of the national development programs are for women and children. Home scientists can successfully help the nation to achieve their targets. The role of Home Science as an educational discipline in developing the future citizen and inculcating in them citizenship qualities for their future role is significant.

18.12 LET US SUM UP: Home Science Education is the well-structured education of home living. Through its core courses such as clothing and textile, foods and nutrition,

human-resource development, human development and extension education, it helps to bring economic independence in individual to raise the standard of living. Science of Home is concerned with maintenance and enrichment of human relationship within and outside the family, through the development and judicious use of all human and material resources to achieve maximal satisfaction for all members of a family. Home Science Education advocates for the personal and professional development of all members of the family. Home Science Extension was introduced into the colleges and agricultural universities after the launching of the community development program in 1952. The concept of extension education, in general, is to bring positive changes in terms of knowledge, skill, and attitude. The major objective of this process is to develop the capacity of individuals in order to make them self-reliant and productive citizens of society. When this concept of extension applies to home science, it is called Home Science Extension. It is a multipurpose programme of study which takes care of individual's need and interests and develops need abilities and capacities for successful homemaking in a dynamic society. Hence, Home Science extension aims at dissemination of scientific knowledge and technology among the rural masses, in order to improve their quality of life.

18.13 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. During the British Rule between 1920 and 1940, the then rulers introduced Home Science in some schools and colleges. In the beginning, Home Science was referred to as Domestic Science. The princely state of Baroda was one of the first states to introduce Home Science in Schools, in Maharani Girls High School. The subject remained in the school curriculum in several states. After winning independence India in 1947, many changes were brought about in its curriculum. In the sixties and seventies, Home Science and related subjects were fused together at the school level.
2. The objectives of home science extension include:

- * Promoting all-round development of all individuals within the home.
 - * Assisting individuals in the effective use of the available resources in solving their day-to-day problem.
 - * Strengthening the work in the government and non-governmental agencies in providing all round developments of individuals.
3. Home Science extension is a multidisciplinary approach, it is action oriented, it empowers women and youth, its results are intangible, it establishes a two-way communication—channel, it is a need-based program, it is family oriented, and it is voluntary.

18.14 LESSON END EXERCISE

- Q 1. Define home science extension. Also, describe its philosophy.
- Q 2. Trace the history and development of Home science extension.
- Q 3. Discuss the role of Home Science Extension in national development.

18.15 SUGGESTED READING

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**DEVELOPMENTAL PROBLEMS OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN
ELEMENTS OF THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS
COMMUNICATION AS AN ESSENTIAL ELEMENT OF EXTENSION AND
DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS**

STRUCTURE

- 19.1 Introduction
- 19.2 Objectives
- 19.3 Developmental Problems of Women
- 19.4 Developmental Problems of Children
- 19.5 Elements of Communication Process
- 19.6 Communication as An Essential Element Of Extension And Development
Process
- 19.7 Principles of Communication/ Media Use in Extension
- 19.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 19.9 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 19.10 Lesson End Exercise
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19.1 INTRODUCTION

In the last lesson we have learned about the role of home science extension in development of the nation. Home science extension is a specialized field of extension education which aims at improving the status of women and other stakeholders. It can address various issues of national importance. In the current chapter we will look into the developmental problems encountered by women and children. The various elements of communication in extension will be discussed along with analyzing how communication is an essential element of extension.

19.2 OBJECTIVES

The chapter deals with

- a) Developmental problems encountered by women and children
- b) Communication and extension

19.3 DEVELOPMENTAL PROBLEMS OF WOMEN

Some of the developmental problems confronting women are discussed as follows:

i. Access to Education

A 2013 report by UNESCO found that **31 million girls** of primary school age were not in school, and about one out of every four young women in developing countries had never completed their primary school education. That number represents a huge pool of untapped girl power: that same report suggests that educated women are more likely to get married later, survive childbirth, raise healthy kids, find work, and earn more money, among other positives.

ii. Employment Opportunities

Even in a country as wealthy and developed as the US, women still experience major inequality in the workforce: By **some estimates**, women earn only \$0.77 for every \$1 earned by men. Globally, the gender gap is **even wider**: women earn only one tenth of the world's income despite working two thirds of the total work hours. Empowering women to earn their fair share could benefit their entire communities in a big way: women are likely

to [invest more](#) of their money back into their families and communities than men typically do.

iii. Reproductive Health & Rights

225 million women in developing countries have an unmet need for family planning, contributing to 74 million unplanned pregnancies and 36 million abortions every year, according to figures cited by [Women Deliver](#), a women's advocacy group. Helping women take charge of their baby-making reduces unsafe abortions and maternal deaths by over 70% each, and conserves precious resources that would otherwise have gone toward pregnancy-related costs.

iv. Maternal Health

The World Health Organization estimates that 800 women die every day from preventable, [pregnancy-related causes](#). That's nearly 300,000 lives per year needlessly lost during what is fundamentally a life-creating event.

v. Gender-based Violence

1 in 3 women experience physical or sexual violence in their lifetimes, according to [WHO](#). Whether it's domestic abuse, rape, or sexual trafficking, gender-based violence denies far too many women the opportunity to live happy, healthy, and fulfilling lives.

vi. Child Marriage

An [estimated](#) 140 million girls will become child brides between 2011 and 2020. Girls who marry before age 18 are typically denied an education, at risk of complications related to premature childbearing, and more vulnerable to intimate partner violence.

vii. Water & Sanitation

When clean drinking water and hygienic sanitation facilities are in short supply, women and girls suffer most. Case in point: Girls whose schools lack proper bathrooms will often

skip school during their menstrual periods for fear of embarrassment or stigma. It's also true that women in developing countries are frequently tasked with fetching water, which can be a time-consuming process.

viii. Gender Equality

Equality (or the lack thereof) is a recurring issue when it comes to women and girls, whether it's unequal access to schooling for girls in developing countries, or unequal pay for women in the workplace. In a world where 95% of countries are led by a male head of state, it's clear that we as a global community have a long way to go before women are given a fair share.

19.4 DEVELOPMENTAL PROBLEMS OF CHILDREN

Despite India ratifying the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Children in 1992 to work towards child rights, we still have a long way to go. India needs to use aggressive corrective measures to address malnutrition, infant mortality, low school enrollment and other issues. Identifying these issues with their complexities enables civil society, governments, and individual strategies to resolve them. With socially conscious corporations and citizens who donate to charity, child rights are today a cause for everyone.

i. Health issues

Diarrhoea and malnutrition are two of India's biggest killers of children under the age of 5. Along with poor access to nutritious foods, both these issues are linked to poor hygiene, as infections trigger mineral depletion and loss of appetite. India finds prominent mention in the annual global tally of deaths of children under the age of 5. For every 1,000 live births, 42 die, and every 20 seconds a child dies from preventable causes like pneumonia, preterm and birth complications, newborn infections, diarrhoea and malaria. National Family Health Survey (NFHS) India 2006 estimates show that 61 million children under

the age of 5 are stunted, and 53 million are underweight. Another 25 million have a low weight to height ratio. One-third of the world's 'wasted' children live in India, and rampant in rural areas, among scheduled tribes.

ii. Survival issues

India leads the global tally of child (ages 0 – 5) deaths – 1.2 million deaths were reported in 2015, a quarter of 5.9 million child deaths worldwide. Another finding reported that 1.83 million children die every year before their fifth birthday (of 26 million children born annually). Children from India's poorest communities are at a higher risk of death before 5. There are sharp inequities in mortality rates across India - under 5 mortality rate in Kerala is much lower (14 deaths per 1000 live births) than Madhya Pradesh (92 per 1000). At 1.83 million, India has the highest child deaths in the world.

iii. Lack of education

A UN report recently revealed that India is home to the world's largest population of illiterate adults (287 million), and contributes 37% of the global total. While the latest data shows that literacy rose from 48% (1991) to 63% (2006), population growth cancelled out these gains, meaning no effective change in the number of illiterates. Primary education spending is a decider in literacy, as seen in Kerala, one of India's most literate states of the country, where education spending per pupil was about \$ 685. Educational disparities are noticed in richer and poorer states. However, girl child education requires not only investment but also social awareness that educated girls are a valuable asset. Today, India ranks 123 among 135 countries in female literacy.

iv. Exploitation in the form of child labour

India has the world's most number of people under 'modern slavery' – 14 million. This includes slave labour conditions like bonded labour, sex trafficking, child labour, domestic 'help' etc. Children today continue to be employed in hazardous occupations -

over 12 million children (aged 5 – 14) work in construction, manufacturing of beedis, bangles and fireworks industry. A 2016 amendment to Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 hasn't established a blanket ban, instead legalising a form of child labour by allowing children to work in family enterprises, creating scope for misuse.

v. Violence and abuse

In 2013, India was among the top 5 countries with the highest rate of child sexual abuse. A 2013 report by the Asian Centre for Human Rights revealed that sexual offences against children in India were at an “epidemic” level – citing, over 48,000 rape cases between 2001 to 2011, and a 337% increase in child rape cases from 2001 (2,113 cases) to 2011 (7,112 cases). Child sex abuse (CSA) occurs across geographies, economic levels, and even across relationships – strangers, friends, family members had all been perpetrators. In 2012, 9500 child and adolescent murders were reported, making India the third largest contributor to child homicide (WHO 2014, Global Health Estimates). One in 3 adolescent girls experiences violence (physical, sexual or emotional), from significant others.

19.5 ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Communication - the sharing of ideas and information - forms a large part of the extension agent's job. By passing on ideas, advice and information, he hopes to influence the decisions of farmers. He may also wish to encourage farmers to communicate with one another; the sharing of problems and ideas is an important stage in planning group or village activities. The agent must also be able to communicate with superior officers and research workers about the situation faced by farmers in his area. There are many ways in which extension agents and farmers communicate.

Any act of communication, be it a speech at a public meeting, a written report, a radio broadcast or a question from a farmer, includes four important elements:

- the *source*, or where the information or idea comes from;
- the *message*, which is the information or idea that is communicated;
- the *channel*, which is the way the message is transmitted;
- the *receiver*, who is the person for whom the message is intended.

Any communicator must consider all four elements carefully, as they all contribute to effectiveness.

Information often passes through several channels before it reaches a particular receiver, but it is rarely passed on in exactly the same words in which it was received. In particular, technical information is often distorted as it goes from one person to another. Extension agents should aim at being accurate sources and channels of information, and should make sure that farmers have heard and fully understood any information passed on to them. Leaflets and posters can be useful reminders of the spoken word.

Not all communication is deliberate. For example, people's behaviour, the way they speak to each other or the clothes they wear reveal much about them and their attitudes. If an extension agent is always late for meetings with farmers groups, the members may come to the conclusion that he does not take them seriously. If he wears casual clothes when addressing a formal village meeting, villagers may say that he has no respect for them. Even if this is not so, the fact that they think it is will affect their relationship with the agent and, therefore, his effectiveness. The message that is received is not always the one that the source intends to pass.

Listening

A good communicator listens more than he speaks. An extension agent who does not listen to farmers and engage in a dialogue with them is unlikely to be very effective. There are four main reasons why a two-way exchange or dialogue is more effective than a monologue.

- Information needs can be assessed.
- Attitudes concerning the topic of the communication will emerge.
- Misunderstandings that occur during the exchange can quickly be identified and cleared up.
- Relationships of mutual respect can develop. If an agent listens, farmers will know that one agent is interested in them, and they will be more likely to pay attention to what the agent has to say.

Shared meanings

Communication is only successful when the receiver can interpret the information that the source has put into the message. An extension agent may give what he feels is a clear and concise talk, or an artist may be satisfied that he has designed a poster that conveys over the desired message, but there is no guarantee that those for whom the talk and poster are intended will interpret the message correctly. In the figure below, for example, the intended message is that crops should be rotated; however, many farmers may not understand the meaning of the arrows, or the symbols that stand for the different crops.

It is important that the same meanings for the words, pictures and symbols used in communication be used by the source and the receiver. If this does not happen, various kinds of problems can arise.

Language. Even if source and receiver speak the same language, local variations or dialects may use similar words with different meanings.

Jargon. The technical language of specialists has to be translated into words that are familiar to the receiver. Extension agents need to learn what words and phrases farmers use when talking about their farming activities.

Pictures and symbols. Attempts to communicate through pictures and visual symbols often fail because the receiver does not recognize what they represent. Interpreting pictures is a skill which, like reading, has to be learned.

19.6 COMMUNICATION AS AN ESSENTIAL ELEMENT OF EXTENSION AND DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Mass media is the most commonly used format of communication in extension. Mass media are those channels of communication which can expose large numbers of people to the same information at the same time. They include media which convey information by sound (radio, audio cassettes); moving pictures (television, film, video); and print (posters, newspapers, leaflets). The attraction of mass media to extension services is the high speed and low cost with which information can be communicated to people over a wide area. Although the cost of producing and transmitting a radio programme may seem high, when that cost is divided between the millions of people who may hear the programme, it is in fact a very cheap way of providing information. The cost of an hour's radio broadcast per farmer who listens can be less than one-hundredth of the cost of an hour's contact with an extension agent.

However, mass media cannot do all the jobs of an extension agent. They cannot offer personal advice and support, teach practical skills, or answer questions immediately.

Their low cost suggests that they should be used for the tasks to which they are well suited. These include the following:

- Spreading awareness of new ideas and creating interest in farming innovations.
- Giving timely warnings about possible pest and disease outbreaks, and urgent advice on what action to take.
- Multiplying the impact of extension activities. A demonstration will only be attended by a small number of farmers, but the results will reach many more if they are reported in newspapers and on the radio.
- Sharing experiences with other individuals and communities. The success of a village in establishing a local tree plantation might stimulate other villages to do the same if it is broadcast over the radio. Farmers are also often interested in hearing about the problems of other farmers and how they have overcome them.
- Answering questions, and advising on problems common to a large number of farmers.
- Reinforcing or repeating information and advice. Information heard at a meeting or passed on by an extension agent can soon be forgotten. It will be remembered more easily if it is reinforced by mass media.
- Using a variety of sources that are credible to farmers. Instead of hearing advice from the extension agent only, through mass media farmers can be brought into contact with successful farmers from other areas, respected political figures and agricultural specialists.

Mass media communication requires specialist professional skills. Few extension agents will ever be required to produce radio programmes or to make films. However, extension agents can contribute to the successful use of mass media by providing material

to media producers, in the form of newspaper stories, photographs, recorded interviews with farmers, items of information about extension activities or ideas for new extension films; and by using mass media in their extension work, for example, by distributing posters and leaflets or by encouraging farmers to listen to farm broadcasts.

19.7 PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNICATION/ MEDIA USE IN EXTENSION

For extension through mass media to be effective, farmers must:

- have access to the medium;
- be exposed to the message: they may have radios, but do they listen to farm broadcasts?;
- pay attention to the message: information must be attractively presented and relevant to farmers' interests;
- understand the message.

Mass media messages are short-lived and the audience may pay attention for only a short time, particularly where the content is educational or instructional. If too much information is included, much of it will soon be forgotten. This means that information provided through mass media should be:

Simple and short.

Repeated, to increase understanding and help the audience to remember.

Structured, in a way that aids memory.

Coordinated with other media and with advice given by extension agents. It is important that what the farmers hear and see via mass media matches what extension agents tell them.

A poster on a shop wall in Malawi, containing several complex messages

Dialogue is also an important part of communication. With mass media, however, there is little opportunity for a genuine dialogue between farmers and those who produce the material. Consequently, media producers are not in a good position to determine farmers' precise information needs, or to check whether their messages are understood correctly.

One solution to this problem is for the producers to carry out research into farmers' existing knowledge, attitudes, practices, and problems concerning farming topics, and for mass media messages to be pretested. This means that a preliminary version of the message is given to a small number of farmers so that, if they have any difficulties interpreting it, revisions can be made before the final version is prepared.

Extension agents can help media producers by keeping them informed of farmers' concerns and information needs, and by reporting any failure to understand the content of the products of mass media. People who produce radio programmes' posters and films are usually more educated than farmers and are not normally in regular daily contact with rural people. They cannot, therefore, easily anticipate how well farmers will interpret the material they produce.

Radio

Radio is a particularly useful mass medium for extension. Battery-operated radios are now common features in rural communities. Information can reach households directly and instantly throughout a region or country. Urgent news or warnings can be communicated

far more quickly than through posters, extension agents or newspapers. Yet, despite radio's mass audience, a good presenter can make programmes seem very informal and personal, giving the impression that an individual listener is being spoken to directly. Radio is one of the best media for spreading awareness of new ideas to large numbers of people and can be used to publicize extension activities. It can also enable one community or group to share its experiences with others.

There are, however, a number of limitations to the use of radio in extension work. Batteries are expensive and often difficult to obtain in rural areas, and there may be few repair facilities for radio sets that break down. From the listener's point of view, radio is an inflexible medium: a programme is transmitted at a specific time of day and if a farmer does not switch on the radio in time, there is no further opportunity to hear it. There is no record of the message. A farmer cannot stop the programme and go back to a point that was not quite understood or heard properly, and after the broadcast there is nothing to remind the farmer of the information heard.

A further limitation is the casual way in which people generally listen to the radio. They often listen while they are doing something else, such as eating, preparing food, or working in the field. For this reason, radio is not a good medium for putting over long, complex items of information. A popular format in many countries, therefore, is for short items of farming news and information to be presented between musical records. Radio drama, in which advice is given indirectly through a story or play, is also popular. This can hold attention and interest for longer than a single voice giving a formal talk. Finally, there is little feedback from the audience, except with a live broadcast where it is possible for listeners to telephone in their questions or points of view directly to the programme presenter.

Where there is only one national radio station, it may be difficult to design programmes that meet particular local needs. Moreover, it may not be possible to cater for variations in agricultural practices and recommendations in different areas. However, the growth in recent years of regional and local radio stations does make it possible for locally relevant information to be broadcast, and for extension agents to become more closely involved in making radio programmes. Local radio stations may be willing to allow extension agents to have a regular weekly programme; if so, they will usually offer some basic training in recording and broadcasting skills.

Farm broadcasts will only be attractive to farmers if they are topical and relevant to their farming problems. Extension agents can help to make them attractive by sending information and stories to the producers, and by inviting them to their area to interview farmers who have successfully improved their farms, or to report on demonstrations, shows and other extension activities.

Ways by which extension agents can achieve a more effective use of radio include:

Recording farming broadcasts on a cassette recorder for playing back to farmers later. This could greatly increase the number of farmers who hear the programmes.

Encouraging farmers to listen to broadcasts, either in their own homes or in groups. Radio farm forums have been set up in a number of countries; a group meets regularly, often with an extension agent, to listen to farm broadcasts. After each programme, they discuss the contents, answer each other's queries as best they can, and decide whether any action can be taken in response to the information they have heard.

Stimulating the habit of listening to farming broadcasts, and the expectation of gaining useful information from the radio. This can be done by the extension agent listening to the programmes and talking about the contents in his contacts with farmers.

Many extension agents will at some time have an opportunity to speak over the radio. They may be asked to interview farmers in their area or perhaps give a short talk themselves.

Film

The main advantage of film as a mass medium for extension is that it is visual; the audience can see as well as hear the information it contains. It is easier to hold an audience's attention when they have something to look at. It also makes it possible to explain things that are difficult to describe in words, for example, the colour and shape of an insect pest or the correct way to transplant seedlings. Moreover, by using close-up shots and slow motion, action can be shown in far greater detail than it is to see possible watching a live demonstration. Scenes from different places and times can be brought together in order to teach processes that cannot normally be seen directly. The causes of erosion, for example, can be demonstrated dramatically by showing how a hilltop stripped of trees no longer prevents rain-water running down the slope, creating gullies and removing topsoil. Similarly, the benefits of regular weeding can be shown by filming crops in two contrasting fields at different stages of growth. Once a film has been made, many copies can be produced with the result that thousands can then watch the film at the same time.

Films come in two formats: 16 mm and 8 mm. Most cinema and educational films are in the larger 16-mm format. Equipment and production costs for 8-mm films are much lower, but because the picture quality is not quite so good and the projected picture size is relatively small, 8 mm has until recently been regarded as suitable for amateur domestic use only. As equipment improves, however, more organizations are producing training and educational films in 8-mm format. An 8-mm film cannot be shown on a projector made for 16-mm films or vice versa. Whichever format of film is to be used, it is necessary to have

a projector; a screen or a white wall on which to project the film; a loudspeaker for the film's soundtrack (unless it has no soundtrack, in which case the extension agent may need a microphone, amplifier and loudspeaker so that he can give his own commentary); and a power source, which will either be mains electricity or a generator. If a generator is used, it should be as far away as possible from the projector and the audience so that its noise does not distract them from the film.

Because films require this cumbersome equipment, it is not practical for the extension agent to show them in villages unless he has motor transport. It is more common for mobile cinema vans to bring films to rural areas, or for films to be shown in schools and rural training centres where equipment is available.

Film has a number of other limitations as a medium for rural extension. A film may take several months to produce since filming, processing, editing and copying all take time. Films are also expensive to make, and are worth making only if they can be shown many times over a number of years. They are, therefore not a good medium for topical information which soon becomes out of date.

The films seen by rural audiences have often been made in areas that are very different from those where they are shown. It may be difficult for the audience to relate their own farming to the crops, livestock, farm implements, people and housing that they see on the screen. The content may therefore seem of little relevance to them. Furthermore, there is no opportunity for a dialogue between film producer and farmer. Extension agents should, therefore, preview a film wherever possible, be prepared to explain the relevance of the information it contains whenever the details may be unfamiliar to local farmers, and be ready to answer farmers' questions afterwards. Finally, like radio programmes, a film is over very quickly and there is no permanent record of what was seen and heard.

An extension agent should only use a film when it fits in with his extension programme. If farmers are interested in dairy farming, then a film on the topic can give some ideas about the equipment, breeds of cattle and forms of organization they might

need. Again, if an agent wishes to spread awareness of the dangers of soil erosion, a suitable film could explain the causes and effects as well as control measures.

When using film for extension purposes, an agent should keep the following points in mind.

Select films which fit in with the extension programme.

Publicize the film, after selecting a suitable date and venue in consultation with local leaders. Films are best shown in the evening; if the weather is suitable, the film can be projected against the outside white wall of a school or other building.

View the film in advance, and decide if the information needs to be adjusted to suit local conditions. This can be done either by speaking to the audience afterwards, or by turning the sound commentary off and giving a verbal explanation while the film is being shown.

Try out the equipment, especially if there is to be no technician present. It is useful to know how to change the bulb in the projector, for example, as these occasionally break.

Follow up the film by discussion and questions to help the audience to understand the content, relate it to their own situation and remember it.

Television and video

Television, like film, combines vision with sound and like radio, it can also be an instant medium, transmitting information directly to a mass audience. Television signals can be broadcast from a land-based transmitter, by satellite or through cables. However, in many countries, television transmission and sets are still restricted to urban areas, and the potential of television for rural extension will remain low until sets become more widely available. Television sets are much more expensive to buy and repair than radios, and programme production costs are also far higher. Where television has been used for rural extension

communication, access and impact have been increased by group viewing followed by discussion.

Video combines most of the advantages of film and of audio cassettes. Using a video camera, picture and sound are recorded on a magnetic tape and are then immediately available for viewing on a monitor or television set. This enables the production team to re-record any material that is not satisfactory. As with audio cassettes, unwanted information can be removed and the tape reused.

As a mass medium, video has more to offer than film, since video programmes can be made far more quickly in multiple copies, and the lightweight video cassettes are relatively easy to distribute. As video equipment - television monitors and video cassette recorders - becomes more robust, it will be possible to use mobile units to show up-to-date programmes, made within the country and even within the area, to large numbers of rural families. The tape can be slowed down, wound back to repeat a particular action, or held on a particular frame while the extension agent explains a point. The same mobile units could carry portable video cameras to collect material for new programmes. The main limitation to viewing is that only 20 to 30 people can satisfactorily watch a video programme on a normal television set, while several hundred can see a film projected on to a large screen.

Printed media

Printed media can combine words, pictures and diagrams to convey accurate and clear information. Their great advantage is that they can be looked at for as long as the viewer wishes, and can be referred to again and again. This makes them ideal as permanent

reminders of extension messages. However, they are only useful in areas where a reasonable proportion of the population can read.

Printed media used in extension include posters, leaflets, circular letters, newspapers and magazines.

Posters are useful for publicizing forthcoming events and for reinforcing messages that farmers receive through other media. They should be displayed in prominent places where a lot of people regularly pass by. The most effective posters carry a simple message, catch people's attention and are easy to interpret.

Leaflets can summarize the main points of a talk or demonstration, or provide detailed information that would not be remembered simply by hearing it, such as fertilizer application rates or names of seed varieties.

Circular letters are used to publicize local extension activities, to give timely information on local farm problems and to summarize results of demonstrations so that the many farmers who cannot attend them may still benefit.

Newspapers are not widely available in rural areas. However, local leaders often read newspapers, and a regular column on agricultural topics is useful to create awareness of new ideas and to inform people of what other groups or communities are doing.

Printed media can be either very sophisticated, with colour photographs and a variety of lettering styles, requiring expensive equipment that is only available in large cities, or produced simply and cheaply using equipment found in many local extension offices, such as a typewriter, stencils, a duplicator and a photocopier. This simpler technology makes it possible for extension agents to produce leaflets and circular letters that are relevant to their area and can be made available quickly to farmers. With the use of two duplicators -

one with black and one with red ink- quite attractive leaflets can be produced. Stencil duplicators cannot reproduce photographs, so illustrations must be limited to simple outline drawings and diagrams. Modern photocopiers, however, can produce reasonable copies of black-and-white photographs.

Where the extension agent is using printed material that has been mass produced, he should make sure that it complements his extension activities. Posters may be used, for example, to draw attention to a topic related to a later demonstration, but printed material that the farmer does not see as relevant to what the extension agent does or says will have little impact.

Printed media are of little use if they are not distributed. Expensively produced posters, leaflets and magazines should not be allowed to gather dust on extension office shelves: they should be made widely available and farmers should be encouraged to look at and discuss them. Posters should be replaced regularly with new ones. In addition, where printed material proves to be irrelevant or difficult for farmers to understand, those who produced them ought to be informed so that improvements can be made. Posters and leaflets that seem clear to the extension agent may not be fully understood by farmers. Whenever possible, the agent should help to explain their meaning. In time, farmers will become used to the ways in which pictures and words convey information and will find it increasingly easy to interpret printed media.

When the agent is preparing his own printed media, or material is being produced to his specifications, the following stages offer a very useful guide. They apply equally to posters, leaflets, circular letters and newspaper articles.

Define the context. The agent should be clear about the purpose of the material. Is it intended to create awareness and stimulate people to seek more detailed information? Or to remind farmers of what they have learned? Or to provide detailed technical information and serve as a reference for future use? The agent also needs to know how the material will be used by the audience. Will it be seen casually as people pass by a notice-board? Will it be studied individually in the home, or discussed at a group meeting?

Know the audience. Before planning the content, the agent needs information about the particular audience: their knowledge and attitudes concerning the subject-matter of the information, and their farming practices.

Decide on content. The information must be relevant to farmers' needs, and the content and amount of information should also suit the context in which the media will be used. A poster, for example, should contain one simple message in large, readable type that can be interpreted quickly by a passerby.

Attract attention. The material must be attractive at first glance. Only if a person's attention is caught by a leaflet or a poster will he spend the necessary time to look at, read and absorb the information it contains. This can be helped by short, boldly printed headings, eye-catching pictures and sufficient empty space to prevent it from looking too dense or cluttered.

Structure the information. The agent can help farmers to understand and remember the information by dividing the contents into sections that lead logically from one to another, and by the use of headings and underlining to bring out the main points.

Pre-test. All locally produced material should be pre-tested before use. It can be shown to a few people from the target group, who should then be asked what information they

have learned from it. This gives an opportunity to improve the material, if necessary, before beginning final production.

Exhibits and displays

Apart from being a useful way of sharing information, an attractive, neat display suggests to people that the extension agent and his organization are efficient and keen to communicate. Displays are suitable for notice boards inside and outside extension offices, at demonstration plots (where the progress of the demonstration can be recorded in pictures), and at agricultural shows. Although a good display can take quite a long time to prepare, it will be seen by many people. With displays on permanent notice-boards, it is important that the material be changed regularly so that people develop the habit of looking there for up-to-date information.

A display should stick to a single theme broken down into a small number of messages. It should include several pictures (preferably photographs) and diagrams which must be clearly labelled. If there is a lot of printed text that is not broken up by pictures, the display will look dull and fail to attract attention.

Campaigns

In an extension campaign, several media are used in a coordinated way and over a limited period of time in order to achieve a particular extension objective. The advantage of campaigns is that the media can support and reinforce one another. The disadvantage is that campaigns can take a lot of time and effort to plan. Often the extension agent will be involved in campaigns planned by staff at national or regional level. His role will be to make local arrangements for meetings, film shows, demonstrations advance publicity, accommodation for visiting staff and distribution of printed material.

An extension agent can also plan his own local campaigns. A campaign can be useful in situations where the farmers of an area face a common problem for which there is a solution which could readily be adopted. Campaigns require careful planning to make the best use of all extension methods and media available. Principles of extension planning and guidelines for the various methods and media should be used in planning campaigns.

Traditional media

Traditional forms of entertainment can also be used as extension media. Songs, dances and plays can convey information in an interesting way. Even when they are prepared in advance, they can be adapted at the last minute to cater to local situations and response from the audience. No modern technology is required and these media are especially useful where literacy levels are low. By involving local people in preparing the plot of a play, extension agents can stimulate the process of problem analysis, which is a fundamental part of the educational aspect of extension.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) Write a brief note on health problems of children.

ii) How can mass media be used in extension?

19.8 LET US SUM UP

Women and children are highly vulnerable group of our society. They tend to face many problems which require intervention and the extension worker can help improve the status of women and children. Communication is an essential feature of extension. Mass media format like radio, T.V, films, printed material can be employed to make the extension work more effective.

19.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Diarrhoea and malnutrition are two of India's biggest killers of children under the age of 5. Along with poor access to nutritious foods, both these issues are linked to poor hygiene, as infections trigger mineral depletion and loss of appetite. India finds prominent mention in the annual global tally of deaths of children under the age of 5. For every 1,000 live births, 42 die, and every 20 seconds a child dies from preventable causes like pneumonia, preterm and birth complications, newborn infections, diarrhoea and malaria. National Family Health Survey (NFHS) India 2006 estimates show that 61 million children under the age of 5 are stunted, and 53 million are underweight. Another 25 million have a low weight to height ratio. One-third of the world's 'wasted' children live in India, and rampant in rural areas, among scheduled tribes.

2. Mass media is the most commonly used format of communication in extension. Mass media are those channels of communication which can expose large numbers of people to the same information at the same time. They include media which convey information by sound (radio, audio cassettes); moving pictures (television, film, video); and print (posters, newspapers, leaflets). The attraction of mass media to extension services is the high speed and low cost with which information can be communicated to people over a wide area.

19.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q 1. Discuss the developmental problems of women.

Q 2. How is communication related to extension?

19.11 SUGGESTED READING

1. B.P. Mohapatra (2016). Dimensions of Extension Education. New India Publishing Agency.

2. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.

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AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS IN EXTENSION, CLASSIFICATION OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Structure

- 20.1 Introduction
- 20.2 Objectives
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- 20.4 Classification of Audio-Visual Aids
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20.1 INTRODUCTION

In the earlier lesson you have learned that women and children face many issues which require inputs from the extension worker. Communication is an essential part of the extension process. In fact, no sustainable development is possible without the integration of communication. In the present lesson we will learn about audio-visual aids and their classification.

20.2 OBJECTIVE

After going through this chapter students will be able to understand meaning of Audio-visual aids and types of Audio-visual-aids

20.3 AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS: AN INTRODUCTION

Senses are primarily the sources of contact between the individual and his surroundings. Intellectual activity is stimulated through experiences arising from the senses. The total intellectual activity is based upon sense perceptions. Senses get their information through direct, vicarious or representative and verbal or symbolic experiences. Aids which impress the mind through the sense of sight are termed as the visual-aids, and aids which impress through the sense of hearing are called audio aids. The aids which impress the mind through the senses of both hearing and sight are called the 'audio-visual aids'. The sensory aids help pupils in self-expression of various forms which are helpful to learning. Audio-visual aids are convenient teaching tools to help pupils understand the ideas which teachers communicate. They help to communicate ideas directly and effectively. Educationally, audio-visual aids help to communicate interest in learning, economise time and effort, reduce verbalism in teachers and impart broad education to the pupils. When aids and films pertaining to other countries are used, international understanding is promoted.

Audio-Visual aids provide variety in the class-room procedures. Psychologically audio-visual aids play a significant role in strengthening memory because they:

- Make the learning atmosphere life-like, realistic and interesting. Thereby, pupils acquire a comprehensive understanding of the lesson. Facilitate by communicating to pupils of varying abilities and capacities.
- Make it possible for the teacher to convey the pupils abstractions meaning fully.
- Help pupils form accurate concepts.
- Enable pupils use different senses,

It is very necessary to keep some audio-visual aids for the purpose of teaching. It provides on effective learning experiences to the students.

Audio-Visual aids may also be collected from the state and centre government department of Education. Information and Broadcasting Education organisations, Red-Cross, etc. Without much difficulty a teacher may collect teaching aids such as pamphlets, charts, maps, graphs, exhibits. But educational film, film strips may be collected form the Ministry of Education, Health and community development. If possible some aids may be purchased by the school from different agencies concessional rates.

20.4 CLASSIFICATION OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Audio visual aids can be classified in different ways. Some of these are:

According to Evolution:

- a) First generation media: Handmade charts, graphs, exhibits, models, hand-written materials etc.
- b) Second generation media: Printed/ illustrated text, printed graphics, workbooks etc.
- c) Third generation media: Photographs, slides, film-strips, films, recordings, radio, Tele-lecture etc.

d) Fourth generation media: Television, programmed instruction, language laboratories, electronic digital computers etc.

According to Senses Involved:

Audio aids	Audio-Visual aids
Radio talks	Motion pictures
Tape recording	Telecasts
Disc recoding	Sound synchronized slides
Telephone	Mobile

According to Contribution to Learning:

Dale (1965) categorized audio-visual aids in cone of experience according to their contribution to learning as follows:

Direct purposeful experiences

Contrived experiences

Dramatized experiences

Demonstration

Field trips

Television

Motion pictures

Recordings, radio, still pictures

Visual symbols

Verbal symbols

All teaching aids are educationally sound, only their selection should be carefully made on the basis of the specific socio-cultural and economic situation. Some are excellent for the individualised approach, and some for the group approach effectively. Modern

efforts for mass education require use of new communication technologies such as motion pictures, video films and television broadcasts, which can provide enormous range and type of visual resources to the teacher. Furthermore, they help to overcome the problem of abstractness and barriers of time. Radio and, television broadcasts provide the latest news and help students to keep step with the knowledge explosion. They also help to raise the availability and quality of human resources. Various teaching aids depend primarily on one or two senses -vision, hearing, touch, smell and taste. No one aid can be recommended for all the types of learning and for all the types of learners.

20.5 THREE-DIMENSIONAL AIDS

Direct, purposeful experiences are not always available and if available, are not always unseable or applicable in making the teaching very effective. To teach a concept of wild life and its preservation, it may not be possible to visit all the wild life resorts and show all those animals to the students. Some experiences belong to remote, past or future and so it is not possible to experience them in reality. A real human eye or any other human organ may be available but for a detailed study they may prove to be useless as their handling may be awkward. Thus, sometimes, the real things are too large or too small for easy handling.

i. Objects

Objects are actual real things such as furniture, toys, refrigerators, pressure cookers, fruits, flowers, books etc. Many objects are easily available in the home or from friends, local markets, educational institutions and museums. One can present the objects in the class, either by displaying them in a show case, specially those which are rare, expensive and delicate or by placing them on tables for the whole class to see. One may pass them around among the students for closer viewed study, if the objects are small, unbreakable

and safe. Make a collection of objects are that used in teaching, whenever possible, and maintain for use in future to save time and energy in hunting for them when needed. Store objects either in cardboard boxes or in cellophane bags or display them in enclosed glass show cases permanently like we find in museums.

ii. Specimens

According to Schullar, Charles and Watler, (1957), “a specimen is an object which is incomplete or which is representative of a group or class of similar objects,” examples.

- incomplete object—piece of a silk sari
- representative of a group —— a leaf, a cow, or a folder.

They can be perishable like a butterfly, flowers etc. or non-perishable like titles, fabrics, stones, grains etc. Presentation of specimens in a class depends upon their size and the size of the group of students.

- If they are large, keep it in front, in the class-room on a table and students can view them while remaining seated e.g. large decorative earthen articles from Kutch or Rajasthan.
- If they are small, convenient and safe to carry, pass them around among the students during classtime, example — cloth pieces, paper designs, colour specimens. Label them before circulating.
- If they are small, inconvenient and unsafe to pass around, call students individually or in small group to the front to study them during or latter the class, examples - diamonds, butterflies wings, fine silver jewellery etc.

iii. Models:

A model is a three-dimensional, recognisable imitation of an object. A model may be the same size as the object it represents or it can be smaller or larger. It can be handled and seen from a number of angles. Models can be of many types.

Scale Model : A scale model has the correct representation of the thing through the exactness of the scale. It can be either enlarged or reduced depending upon the need, examples—insects, buildings etc.

Simplified Model : A simplified model is roughly the external form of an object used mostly for education of children and illiterate persons, examples - birds, fruits, pots etc.

Relief Model : A relief model also known as a relief map is a realistic, recognisable, representation of a country or a part there of, examples -India, Gujarat. This is mostly used for teaching elevation in geography, however, relief map proves to be very useful in understanding the life of people living in a particular area, examples -Himalayas and plains of Rajasthan.

Working Model : A working model shows how things function in a simple way. Process and mechanism can be understood better by the use of a working model examples—working of human heart, washing machine etc.

Cut away or Cross Section Model : This type of model shows the internal structure of an object as it is cut crosswise. It is useful in teaching physiology, nutrition and technical topics, examples- models of brain, eye, compost pit, smokeless chulla etc.

Models can be bought from the educational material stores, or can be borrowed from leading libraries, universities and museums, besides being prepared by professional artists, teachers and students. They can be made from a variety of materials such as cardboard, wood, metal, wax, clay, plastic, plaster of Paris, Plasticine or cotton.

iv. Mock-ups:-

A mock-up is an imitation of an object regarding certain aspects only and may not bear any resemblance to the actual object. It helps to simplify the learning processes, mainly the technical, mechanical and functional processes. They show the working relationships of any machine or process in a simplified way, examples—mock-ups of refrigerator, radio, clock, washing machine, electric bell, respiratory system, wiring system. The same principles employed for using and storing objects, models specimens should be used for mock -ups also.

v. Mobiles:-

The origin of mobiles is a recent one. A mobile is a recent one. A mobile is a visual medium having well-arranged, attractive pictorial forms hanging with the help of cords or wires from a common top. In other words, it is a motion-composition made with the help of pictures and other visual objects hanging on wires and cords. The movements created by natural air currents or the fan help to attract the attention of the people. A mobile can be made out of card board, coloured paper, beads, broken bangles or anything that is lightweight. Some suggested topics for making mobiles in Home-Science are:

a) Child Development

- Purposes of family planning
- Children's physical growth and development
- Pregnant mother's diet

b) Pre-school education-birds, flowers, etc.

- Clothing and Textiles Postures and clothing
- Fabrics
- Colour Schemes in Clothing
- Types of fibres

c) Foods and Nutrition

- Food preservation
- Balanced diet
- Food groups
- Sources of vitamins

d) Home Management

- Colour schemes in homes
- Variety in decoration materials and forms
- Work postures
- Time and labour saving equipment

e) Education and Extension

- Vocations in Home -Science
- Teaching aids
- Areas of Home-Science
- Specimens/objects

vi. Puppets

Puppets have been used for thousands of years all over the world to stimulate and entertain people. Their use in promoting action has been experimented successfully. Puppets can be of many kinds-Hand or Glove, Rod, string or shadow. All types of puppets used for educational purposes, must possess some characteristics:

- They should have prominent, pleasant or crude features that are visible from a distance.
- They need to be colourful and of an appropriate size for a group of 30 to 40 persons.

- They should have costumes suitable for their roles, examples, rural characters should be dressed like village folks, an old couple should look old through white hair, spectacles etc.
- They should be made of durable, light-weight materials.
- To be most interesting, the puppet plays should:
- Try to convey social-action-ideas only.
- Have a topic interesting to the age and experience of the audience - children, youth or adults, urban or rural literates or illiterates.
- be short
- be based on fantasy and imagination
- be full of action rather than words
- have short and simple dialogues
- have few characters, at a time, on the stage
- have ample amount of music

The puppet stages could be either real or improvised. A charpoy or a table kept sideways can be used for hiding the puppeteers and showing glove and rod puppets from below. Pillars or two chairs with some distance (5 to 6 ft) in between can be joined with a sheet or a sari to form a hiding place for the puppeteers juggling glove or rod puppets. Extra lighting on the puppet stage, appropriate accessories and scenery with pinned-up cut-outs are a must for drawing and holding the attention of the audience.

20.6 DISPLAYS

Displays depending upon the type of the display materials, can be arranged with the help of insulex, or soft board, perforated, magnet or chalkboard of glass or painted wood, showcases, tables, stands, or blocks. A display usually involves a careful and attractive arrangement of materials which may be two-dimensional-paper, cloth, ribbons

etc., or three-dimensional-objects, models, specimens etc. A single display can have materials of both dimensions, example- a display consisting of pictures and models of houses.

i. Chalk boards (Black -Boards):-

A chalkboard, a universally used teaching aid for writing and drawing can be made of slate, or of glass, or by painting wood or a part of a wall with blackboard paint. A chalkboard could be in the form of sliding doors and storage facility can be provided behind it. A piece of oil cloth 30 x 40 inches, painted with blackboard paint can make a roller chalkboard, which can be carried from one place to another very conveniently, for community teaching and extension work. A wall chalkboard can be permanently fixed on the wall which is next to a wall which has doors or windows, to avoid glare but also to have enough light. In a graded, gallery type classroom, a chalkboard can be at the eye-level of the bottom line students. Take a round in the classroom to check the lighting and visibility from different angles. The chalkboard can be kept on an easel stand which can be carried from one room to another and also can be lowered or raised as desired by the audience. Remove any pictures, photographs or decorative pieces hanging too close to a chalkboard, which may distract the attention of the students.

ii. Bulletin Boards:-

A bulletin board is a board that is usually used to exhibit bulletins but may also be used for:-

- Making announcements.
- Placing notices.
- Posting examination results.
- Exhibiting displays.
- posting anything that has to be seen or read by the students.

A bulletin board can be of any size. It might cover a part of the wall or the entire wall but the vertical dimension should not be less than 30 inches. If illustrative materials are to be displayed, use 40 inches wide board. A bulletin board can be made of :-

- Insulux board (available in various thicknesses and on a size of 8x4 feet)
- cork board.
- Gunny bag or khadi.
- Brown paper or newspaper layers.
- Anything that is soft but firm enough to hold the display materials well with pins or tacks.

A perforated board or a panel of boards on stands with evenly distributed holes can be used with the help of special pins and accessories available with it to hold two-dimensional and small three-dimensional articles, such as craft pieces, and books. A bulletin board that is used for day-to-day purpose of posting notices, announcements and bulletins, needs no special arrangement: however it can be covered with a dark colour background or paper or cloth or permanently painted with plastic paint, (since most of the paper articles are in white or light colour.) A bulletin board display which is arranged, specially to exhibit the display materials either for classroom teaching or for special public exhibition needs very careful planning and arrangement.

iii. Flannel Boards

When one attaches pieces of flannel or sand paper to the back of pictures, photographs and drawings, and places them on a board covered with flannel, they stick to the board without pins. This magic display is called a flannel board display, or a flannel graph. Its use is flexible and its presentation can be shortened or lengthened according to :-

- Purpose of the lesson. Nature of the audience (children, youth or adults, urban or rural, education or illiterate)
- size of the board.
- amount of display material.
- Time available to the instructor.

Beside being attractive, flannel board displays makes it be easy to see and understand from a distance. So select the display material which have:

- Illustrations-big, bold and simple.
- Lettering-large, bold and print letters.

Colour- Few and pleasing colours that are clearly visible on the background.

Check the colour of the background material. There may not be much choice cotton flannel is available mostly in white and pastel shades. The display material- picture, letters and drawings, should be large enough to be seen by the up but not so large that they fall out from the flannel board, because of their weight strips or pieces of flannel and paste them with glue fevicol to the back of the display materials.

iv. Magnetic Boards

A board which attracts magnetic items has been recently introduced. White and coloured plastic letters, numbers and small articles with small magnet pieces attached at the back are available along with this board in the market. They stick to the board without pins or glue.

v. Showcase Displays

These displays are generally used for three dimensional articles which are either rare or those which are easily available, but are needed to explain the qualities of object and final products.

Showcases can be built in the wall or if small, hung on a wall. They can be made of steel or wood, with a single glass door. Or two sliding doors which can be locked that they can also be combined with storage space at the bottom. Conical shaped showcases are suitable for things to be seen from the top like, room models. The less expensive and temporary exhibits can be arranged on table inside a room with constant supervision to avoid theft etc.

Showcases can be fitted with various fixtures for displaying a variety of material. Remember that a display exhibit is seen but not read: in other words, the message must be received at a glance. To do this, put only one central idea only in an exhibit as it is easy to convey skillfully. Too many ideas cause confusion.

20.7 PROJECTED AIDS

All teaching aids projected on a screen with the help of a projector or a videocassette player can be divided into two main categories:

A. Those which have motion, along with vision and hearing simultaneously:

- Films/Motion pictures.
- Television

B. Video tapes

Those which are still pictures and the commentary is added by the teacher:

- Filmstrips slides.
- Transparencies used with overhead projector.
- Objects used with Kelidiascope.

In using all projected aids, except the objects projected through an Kelidiascope, flat transparent pictures are projected on a screen by passing a strong light through them. These projected aids can be black and white or coloured. They are a good media for

group or mass education which is specially relevant to India whose biggest problem in education is one of numbers.

i. Films/Motion Pictures A film is a series of still pictures flashed rapidly on a screen through a film projector which projects a moving image. Films, popularly known as “Cinema”, are used mostly for mass entertainment in commercial theatres. The growth of Indian Cinema from its early beginnings in 1913 to the present day has been phenomenal. Despite the video and Television revolution, the Indian feature film industry with over 900 films produced during 1985-86 holds the world record in film production. More and more films are also being made in local languages. However, the other three types of films serve a different purpose:

A. Documentary: This type provides factual information, dramatising an idea, often intending to carry a message which turns it into a medium of propaganda, examples.— films on social evils, family planning, Wildlife preservation, income tax obligations and registration of births and deaths. It is usually of 2 to 5 minutes duration.

B. Sponsored: This type is produced by commercial agencies as part of their advertising and public relations campaigns, examples are advertisements for tea, dress materials, etc.

C. Educational:- Educational foundations, film societies, government departments publicity and information, etc., produce films lasting from 5 minutes to one hour on various educational topics.

ii. Television and Video Tapes

The Television can also be used in teaching Home-Science. Expert teachers in Home-Science can deliver lessons and dramas can also be acted on it. It is just an improvement on the radio programme. It can instruct the ear and catch the eyes of the pupils. Television is the “blackboard dramatised, the picture brought to life”. It stimulates

the students to learn more. There are two types of audio-visual experiences provided by this new medium.

A. Live telecasts: of events actually taking place somewhere in the world. But these telecasts, even if prepared by experts, enable limited editing work and there is absolutely no scope for reshooting the same event. So, if some important details are missed they are lost forever. However, they are excellent media for relaying situations such as inauguration ceremonies, parades, games and daily news, which are of a temporary value. Live telecasts also offer a challenge of the unexpected and the thrill of suspense.

B. Telecasts of prepared programmes : In this type, video tapes are prepared by

- preparing skilful scripts (dialogues and visuals)
- selecting shooting spots and scenes.
- rehearsing the dialogues of necessary
- taking many shots of the same and different things, and situations, to select the best adding appropriate commentary, sounds and music.

- In short, this type of telecast is much more skilfully shot and edited than the former. It can serve serious educational purposes - telecast on nutrition, water purification, mother-daughter relationships, women's contribution to national development etc. and can be seen on television monitors of varying sizes and inches. The University grants commission has helped to set up media centres which prepare special educational programmes for the country and also select good programmes from other countries in science, health and culture, on daily/ hourly, basis with the help of a satellite-INSAT-IB-which enables learners in all parts of India to view them. More satellites in the INSAT Series have also been planned.

iii. Filmstrip and Slides

A filmstrip is a series of individual pictures, appearing in a predetermined sequence on a film roll. The number of pictures per strip varies from 10 to more than 100 the usual number ranging from 36 to 50. A filmstrip can be single framed (24 x 36mm). It can be photographic which is prepared with the help of a 35mm camera, or handmade which is prepared either by drawing on a clear 35 mm non-photographic film, which accepts special marking pen inks of different colours, and coating it with quick drying, clear, plastic spray to mark the drawing as per moment, or by scratching on a negative strip which required considerable professional skill. A slide is a single, individually mounted transparency or a clear or translucent glass. It can be 2 x 2 inches photographic or 3¼ x 4 inches handmade slide made by drawing and writing with black ink and transparent colours or by typewriting or pasting papers.

iv. Transparencies

Transparent, plastic material (carbon or acetate or cellophane) either in the form of an individual slide (10x10inches), or a roll can be used to write or draw with pencils or special colour pens either before or during a class. The typewriter and coloured plastic sheets also can be used. The transparency is then projected with an overhead projector, which is extremely simple to operate. A pencil can be used as a pointer to emphasize the points. The teacher can stand in front of a class room and face the audience and operate the overhead projector unlike other projectors which are to be kept at the back of a classroom.

v. Opaque projection

An Kelidiascope or an opaque projector is used for the projection of any non-transparent material like pictures, photographs, maps, diagrams, coins, leaves, house plans etc. Transparent filmstrips and slides can also be shown through special attachments. Flat items of 5x5 inches and of inch thickness are placed in a Kelidiascope through an

opening. Larger illustrations are shown in parts by moving the pictures up or down. The image on the screen is magnified four times the original. So small illustrations can be enlarged for preparing charts and posters by persons not possessing artistic skill to do freehand drawing. However, effective projection of opaque objects. An Kelidiascope requires complete darkness which may pose some problems in regular classroom.

20.8 AUDIO AIDS

Audio aids primarily depend on our sense of hearing to transmit the message. Research indicates that a high percentage of the average student's day is spent in verbal communication and listening occupies a large part of that time. Therefore, there is a great scope for promoting learning through audio materials as students are used to listening. Knowing how to listen effectively, will enable students to extend the range of their contacts with the outside world. The major audio aids are radio broadcasts and recordings by means of audio tapes/cassettes/discs.

i. Radio

Radio covers nearly 98 per cent of the total population with 204 stations, out of which 150 are medium wave transmitters and 54 are short wave stations. Though an instant medium of mass communication with nearly hundred per cent geographical reach, radio in India has not attained its full potential except as a source of spot news, centralised news bulletin, and film songs. Despite 60 years of broadcasting, it still suffers from centralised functioning and rigid programming. Since All India Radio (AIR) broadcasts in all major Indian languages and even in dialects, it can become a true local mass medium with locality relevant news on health, farming, trading, and other news of day-to-day household value. Many different types of radio programmes are broadcast for groups with varied interests, ages and education.

ii. Recording

Many of the limitations of radio programmes can be overcome by recordings. Sound is recorded or registered for future use either on discs or tapes.

a) Discs are usually made of lac, plastic and lacquer-coated glass and metals. They are also known as gramophone records and are available in the speed of 4.5 and 33½ revolutions per minute. The playback equipment used is the gramophone or record player.

b) Cassette/spool, tape recordings are on tapes of paper, plastic and metals. For playing these tapes, magnetic playback equipment or a tape or cassette player is needed. Tapes can have one to four tracks. On each track, separate programme can be recorded.

c) Wire recordings, done on very fine steel wires of varying length are not very common. Both tape and wire recordings can be

- Made by amateurs / students.
- Edited after being recorded.
- Reused for recording other matter.
- Kept for a long time.
- Stored easily.

20.9 GRAPHIC AIDS

Graphic aids are charts, diagrams, graphs, maps flashcards, posters, pictures., photographs, leaflets, folders, pamphlets, carbons and comics. They are two dimensional materials which communicate facts, ideas, and relationships clearly through words, lines, drawings, symbols and pictures.

i. Charts

A Chart is a visual aid which helps in explaining the subject matter through such process as summary, contrast and comparison. It may be all writing or some writing and pictures. There are many types of charts:-

- a. **Time Chart:** Any information to be plotted with time is presented in columnar form. Columns can be added or reduced depending upon the information to be presented.
- b. **Tree Chart:** Growth and development can be shown. It starts with a single source stem and then spreads out into branches.
- c. **Flow or organisation Chart:** Functional relationship within an organisation or an institutions can be shown by lines or arrows.
- d. **Comparison or contrast chart:** Similarities and contrasts between two or more things such as methods, institutions, products, persons, theories, architecture, schemes, etc., can be shown.

ii. **Diagrams:**

A diagram is a visual symbol, made with the help of lines and geometrical forms without pictorial elements to explain mostly a process or parts of something. Diagrams can be of many varieties.

- a. **Area or solid diagram :** The area and shape of objects are shown with an outline and may be filled with colours.
- b. **Cross-Sectional Diagram:** Inner parts and their arrangement are shown by cutting an object longitudinally.
- c. **Schematic Diagram :** It gives a scaled presentation of the design of a plan such as a floor plan.
- d. **Machine Diagram :** Parts of a machine are shown; threading directions also may be given.
- e. **Scientific Diagram :** Scientific experiments are explained through this type of diagram.

iii. **Graphs:**

A graph is a diagrammatic representation of numerical or quantitative data. Graphs can be in many forms,

a. Area Graphs: In an area graph, the simplest kinds of comparisons for approximate and not exact differences in size can be made. Two-dimensional, geometrical shapes such as squares, circles, rectangles are used to compare two or three items.

b. Solid Graph: In a solid graph, three dimensional, geometrical or pictorial symbols of any other shape are used for comparison. It is more difficult than the area graph as the comparison is to be made in terms of volume instead of area.

c. Line Graph: A line graph, also known as a 'curve' graph, is the most appropriate type to represent two related data in an exact and complete manner. It is mostly used to combine quantity with time to show progress, change and development of more than one data.

d. Bar Graph: A bar graph is simple and easy to construct and is used to make comparisons of two more data. It has a zero base and the data is plotted with the help of horizontal or vertical bars. The length of the bar represents the amount in terms of percentages, colours, mean, etc.

e. Pie-graph: A pie graph is also known as 'circle graph' or sector graph. Pie is the circle representing the total numerical amount and each slice is a specific percentage. It is used for showing fractional relations. However, it is difficult to prepare and to understand if the segments or percentages are too small, too many or too similar.

iv. Maps:

Webster (1967) defines a map as representation of the surface of the earth or some part of it, showing the relative size and position according to a scale or projection or position represented. Even when, study of Home-Science may not be able to involve use of maps as extensively as geography, a student must know the various physical facts about

the earth, as well as its social problems, situations and events. These can be understood best, if seen in their natural environmental setting. From this point of view, physical maps assume importance for students of Home-Science also. A physical map may be of simple geographical outlines of land and water surfaces or may contain various details such as attitudes, temperature, vegetation and soil. Maps can be presented in different forms

a. **Globe:** The globe is approximately the shape of the earth poles. It can be rotated along its vertical planes. It help us to see the various parts of the earth in relation to each other.

b. **Pictorial map :** This is a flat two - dimensional map, making use of pictures, photographs, dots, triangles or any other realistic symbols to develop strong associations between regions and relevant information. A key is a must and the symbols must be very clear.

c. **Relief Map :** This is a three-dimensional map to show the elevation and depressions on the land surface through the contours on the map. It is confined to small areas such as a community or a locality and emphasis is achieved by colouring and shading.

d. **Outline Map :** The outline map may be printed permanently on chalk-board or the outline can be traced with the help of a cardboard or wooden stencil. Copies of small size maps can be reproduced on a duplicating machine for individual students use.

e. **Projected Map :** A photographic slide of a map can be made with a 35mm camera to be used with a slide projector or a hand-made slide projector or on clear or translucent glass of 2x2 inches or 3¼ x 4 inches to be used with an Kelidiascope, can be prepared. A transparency showing a map to be used on an overhead projector also can be prepared with black ink and transparent colours.

v. **Flash Cards:** Flash cards are brief, visual messages presented on thick cards to emphasize important ideas, through the form of either a story or steps or points. While preparing flash cards remember to :-

- Have a total of 10 to 12 cards only.
- Make them on thick paper as they have to be held straight without any fastening or pins.
- Have them in an appropriate size, use the rule that an object one inch high can be properly seen from 32 feet away.
- Have ½ to 1 inch margin on all four sides.
- Have bold and simple illustrations to help convey the idea properly, easily and quickly.
- Have few minimum details, example - plain instead of printed sari, line drawing and silhouettes in different colours.
- Have a light background and black or very dark coloured illustrations ;to make it then stand out and be easily visible.
- Have few colours to provide clarity and emphasis.
- Write the number and the brief message for each card at the back of it.
- Store them in strong labelled envelopes
- Flash cards are presented in a slightly different manner than the rest of the graphic aids. Use them in the following manner.
- Rehearse the presentation of the flash cards several times before demonstrating them to the audience.
- Check that the flash cards are arranged according to their number before the talk begins.

- Make the audience sit either at the floor level (in extension work) or on chairs in a semi-circular arrangement so that all can see well.
- If necessary, give a brief introduction before displaying the flash cards.
- Stand and hold flash cards at chest level, use an easel stand for cards of 20 x 22 inches size.
- Explain the first card and then slip it behind the stack, or put it face down on the table; explain the next card and repeat the procedure till the whole series of cards is over.
- Hold the flash cards so that their surfaces are not obscured but are wholly visible to the learners, point out anything special from above or below the card.

vi. Pictures and Photographs:

Pictures and photographs are visual materials, used to stimulate a learners interest. Property selected and adopted can help readers to understand and remember the content of accompanying verbal materials. Select picture and photographs which.

- a. Are well produced with enough details to make them worthwhile.
- b. Convey a true idea or information.
- c. Give accurate impression of size.
- d. have realistic colours.
- e. stimulate the imagination.

Pictures and photographs can be displayed on a bulletin board with formal or informal arrangements in the class or outside. Instead of using pins directly to fix them on a bulletin (insulex) board, attach U-pins to a photograph and then insert a pin to fix it on the board. Cover the photographs or pictures with polythene papers.

vii. Posters

A poster is a bold illustration with little or no writing. A good poster conveys the message at a glance. It is not used for serious classroom teaching as its main purpose is to publicize-

A. an event - demonstration, lecture, exhibition etc.

or

B. An idea - save money, give up smoking, preserve water, keep clean, abolish dowry, conserve energy, etc.

While preparing a poster--

- have only one idea suggesting an action.
- use a thick chart or drawing paper which is usually available in 22 x 28 inch size, keeping 1/2 to 1 inch margin on all sides.
- have an informal but balanced layout.
- use large, bold and simple illustrations for a passer-by to get the message easily.

Avoid details and shading.

- have brief, personal, forceful and appealing titles, e.g.,

EAT VEGETABLES; — BE HEALTHY, - HEALTH IS IMPORTANT, etc.

- use simple, large, bold, horizontal lettering.
- plan definite eye movement.
- use colour to make the poster attractive. A dark colour black ground with white or light colour lettering, and an illustration speaks, a very appealing and unique poster uses a few, well matched colours to have a pleasant picture, and bright colour in small proportion to attract attention.
- place a poster at a high level, in a place which is free from other advertisements, and from where many persons pass by: examples - cafeteria, library, common room, etc.

viii. Leaflet :-

It is a single sheet of paper, giving information regarding a new product, programme or a meeting; examples - New baby food; cookery classes; or Inauguration of a workshop in Methods of Teaching.

Leaflet contains

- Just written message; or - little writing and an illustration; or - Just a title and an illustration.

The first one is used mostly for information or as a take-home- reference material while the latter two are generally used for publicity.

ix. Folder

It is a single folded sheet of paper, having several folds (generally 2 to 10). It contains more information than a leaflet. Folders can have a variety of shapes and can be folded vertically; horizontally, or diagonally.

x. Pamphlet

It has several pages (approx. 2-20 pages) pinned together, but not bound.

Factual information presented systematically in a pamphlet is usually on a definite subject of current interest unlikely to be written from a biased point of view. Pamphlets come in various sizes and provide more information than the folders. For the preparation of leaflet, folder or pamphlet. following principles are kept in mind.

- a. Select a specific topic.
- b. Present one idea at a time.
- c. Check the information for its accuracy and authenticity.
- d. Use local language.
- e. Use short and simple sentences.
- f. Leave margin on all four sides.

- g. Plan layout for each page or fold.
- h. Include illustrations wherever needed.
- i. Present ideas in a colourful and attractive way.
- j. choose convenient size.

leaflet - 3" x 5" or 5" x 10"

folder- (when folded) 10" x 7" or 4" x 7"

pamphlet- 7" x 12" or 8" x 13"

Use line drawing, hand printing techniques, and duplicating processes, in preparing these aids attractively and economically.

xi. **Cartoons**

A cartoon has been defined as “an interpretative picture making use of symbolization and holding exaggeration in order to present at a glance some message or point of view concerning new events, things or situations” (Kunder, 1950). Cartoons are used mostly to present different political view points. Though not very popular in formal teaching, they are one of the major forms of graphic communication as they are unique and appealing. They employ three principles to get across a message to the readers - enjoyment, refrains and antagonism. In Home-Science, some topics can be dealt with cartoons.

- Family problems.
- Husband - wife relations.
- Women's issues.
- Home - Science educational problems.

Good cartoons must have—

- Minimum details.
- Familiar symbols/characters.
- stereotypes that are quickly recognized and understood.
- A crisp message.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What are mobiles?

ii) What are charts and its various types?

iii) What are flash cards?

20.10 LET US SUM UP

After going through the lesson you must have understood that there are a variety of audio-visual aids that can be used in an instructional situation to help learners learn. Anything that is used in an instructional situation to help the learners reach the instructional objectives through coordinated involvement of both the sense of sight and the sense of hearing are referred to as audio-visual aids. These aids can help prevent misunderstanding, reinforce or illustrate the spoken word, help maintain the learners interest and hence assist in the learning process.

20.11 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. A mobile is a visual medium having well-arranged, attractive pictorial forms hanging with the help of cords or wires from a common top. In other words, it is a motion-composition made with the help of pictures and other visual objects hanging on wires and cords. The movements created by natural air currents or the fan help to attract the attention of the people. A mobile can be made out of card board, coloured paper, beads, broken bangles or anything that is lightweight.

2. A Chart is a visual aid which helps in explaining the subject matter through such process as summary, contrast and comparison. It may be all writing or some writing and pictures. There are many types of charts:-

a. **Time Chart:** Any information to be plotted with time is presented in columnar form. Columns can be added or reduced depending upon the information to be presented.

b. **Tree Chart:** Growth and development can be shown. It starts with a single source stem and then spreads out into branches.

c. **Flow or organisation Chart:** Functional relationship within an organisation or an institutions can be shown by lines or arrows.

d. **Comparison or contrast chart:** Similarities and contrasts between two or more things such as methods, institutions, products, persons, theories, architecture, schemes, etc., can be shown.

3. Flash cards are brief, visual messages presented on thick cards to emphasize important ideas, through the form of either a story or steps or points. These are usually in a set of 10-12 cards arranged to form a meaningful story or convey an important message.

20.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q 1. What are audio-visual aids? Classify them into various categories.

Q 2. Write a detailed note on the utility of audio-visual aids in communication.

20.13 SUGGESTED READING

1. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
2. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
3. V.K. Dubey and I. Bishnoi (2008). Extension Education and Communication. New Age International Ltd., Publishers: New Delhi.

ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS**STRUCTURE**

- 21.1 Introduction
- 21.2 Objectives
- 21.3 Advantages & Limitations of Audio-visual aids: An Introduction
- 21.4 Advantages & Limitations of Objects
- 21.5 Specimens
- 21.6 Models
- 21.7 Mock-ups
- 21.8 Mobiles
- 21.9 Puppets
- 21.10 Chalk-board (black-board)
- 21.11 Bulletin Board
- 21.12 Flannel Board
- 21.13 Magnetic Boards
- 21.14 Film/optical pictures
- 21.15 Television and video tapes
- 21.16 Filmstrip and slides
- 21.17 Transparencies
- 21.18 Opaque projection
- 21.19 Radio
- 21.20 Recordings
- 21.21 Graphic Aids
- 21.22 Let Us Sum Up
- 21.23 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 21.24 Lesson End Exercise
- 21.25 Suggested Reading

21.1 INTRODUCTION

In lesson 20 we have read about the various types of audio-visual aids that are commonly used for extension services. There is a wide variety of these aids ranging from puppets to charts, posters etc. There are display aids, projected aids, audio aids and graphic aids which can be under by the extension workers. In the present lesson we will study about the advantages and disadvantages of each of the listed audio-visual aids about which you have read earlier.

21.2 OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this lesson is to study the advantages and limitations of Audio-Visual aids.

21.3 ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS: AN INTRODUCTION

The audio-visual aids can maintain an accelerated tempo in class-room Instructions of various ways, some of these are as follows:

- i) They provide an opportunity to the teacher for freshness of his presentation and so greater incentive to learning the subject.
- ii) They help in clear understanding of the subject and in clarifying the abstract ideas.
- iii) They appeal to the sense of the pupils and so they satisfy their innate tendencies, and interests.
- iv) They bring the pupils in direct contact with objects and things.
- v) They bring near what is distant.
- vi) By bringing the world into the class-room they help the pupil in understanding different cultural background
- vii) They stimulate pupil participation. They are based on “learning by doing”

- viii) They make teaching-learning process interesting
- ix) They help in saving time and energy because it takes a long time to clarify an abstract idea verbally but the point can be made clear at once by using some appropriate teaching aid.
- x) The need of individual students are met. Some pupil learn by listening but a majority of them by doing.
- xi) They help in creating a lasting impression on the mind of the learner. Things are well retained in the mind since the sensory impressions are more permanent.

While various teaching aids are becoming more and more popular day by day, here are still some problems to be faced and solved. Some of these are.

- i) Apathy of Teacher: The teachers are yet to be convinced that teaching with words alone is very tedious, wasteful and ineffective.
- ii) Indifference of students: The judicious, use of aids arouses interest but when used without a definite purpose they lose their significance and importance.
- iii) Inefficientiveness of the Aids: In the absence of proper planning and lethargy of the teacher and without proper preparation, correct presentation, appropriate application and discussion and the essential follow-up work, the aid do not prove their usefulness.
- iv) Financial Hurdles: The central and state governments have set up board of Audio-Visual Education and have chalked out interesting programmes for the popularization of teaching aid but the lack of finance is not enabling them to do their best.
- v) Absence of Electricity: Most of the projectors can not work without electricity and so are not utilized properly.
- vi) Lack of Facility for Training: More and more training colleges or specialized agencies should be opened to train teacher and workers in the use and usefulness of these aids.

- vii) Language difficulty: Most films are in English. It is desirable to have these in Hindi and other Indian languages.
- viii) Not Catering to local Needs: No attention is paid in the production of audio-visual aids to the sociological, psychological and pedagogically factors.
- ix) Improper Selection of Films: Generally the films are not selected in accordance with the needs of a class.

21.4 OBJECTS

Advantages:

The main advantages of objects as an aid to teaching are:

- i) They require no preparation, example- actual carpets for floor coverings.
- ii) They make teaching interesting by breaking monotony of a lecture, example- vegetables and fruits for a talk on nutrition.
- iii) Objects help to visualise the concepts, example-the concept of saving time and labour through the object of pressure cooker and mixer.
- iv) Object make teaching more effective by making the explanations very clear, example-ways to make self-help children's garments through the actual garments.
- v) They give opportunity to touch, experience, investigate and study in the class

Limitation:

Sometimes, objects are not usable in the class as they may not :

- i) be suitable to classroom situation: examples-
- ii) Some may be highly perishable, example-fresh fruit, flowers, green leafy vegetable
- iii) some are not available easily in the local communities, example- expensive costumers or food items of other countries, object depicting past centuries, architecture of the remote past or future..
- iv) Some are not affordable real blue pottery.

21.5 SPECIMENS

Advantages:

Specimens are useful for class-room teaching as:-

- i) There are in expensive and can be easily collected from the same sources as objects.
- u) In some cases where original objects are not usable specimens can serve the purpose.
- iii) Specimens can be stored for ready future use.

Limitation:

The main limitations of specimen are as :-

- i) perishable specimen requires special care.
- ii) Some specimen are easily available.
- iii) Specimen may be small, inconvenient and unsafe to pass around.

21.6 MODELS

Advantages:

Models are useful:

- i) To express obstruct ideas and processes, examples-digestive system of body.
- ii) When flexibility is needed to teach by moving the articles which originally are either too big or static, examples- houses and their arrangements: layout of a garden etc.

Limitations:

- i) Models require professional skill in preparation.
- ii) Models can be expensive.
- iii) Models are breakable.
- iv) If the models are not checked and used properly, misconception may arise.

21.7 MOCK-UP

Advantages:

- i) A mock -up is a simplified version of reality, so presented as to highlight essential purpose or function while eliminating unneeded details: e.g., a mock-up of a clock helps children and illiterate persons to learn how to read time, while a mock-up of an eye explains the need for bifocals, or of a digestive system helps clarify the need to have proper food intervals.
- ii) They create interest among students and give them a chance to touch and handle and see the actual function taking place in front of their eyes
- iii) They can be reused for many years.

Limitation:

- i) Preparation of mock-ups need great skill.
- ii) Mock-ups are less effective than objects and models.
- iii) Mock-ups do not bear any resemblance to the actual objects.

21.8 MOBILES

Advantages :

The use of mobiles needs to be encouraged as they-

- i) Attract attention through colour and movement, specially of children.
- ii) Require little artistic and practically no technical skill.
- iii) Require very little space for hanging.
- iv) Are inexpensive since they can be made from inexpensive left-over materials.
- v) Can be stored and reused.

Limitation :

- i) mobiles are inconvenient for any serious teaching as they do not remain steady
- ii) lots of information cannot be presented through them

- iii) They are also rather delicate to handle and require special arrangement for hanging.

21.9 PUPPETS

Advantages :

Puppets can be advantage for educational purposes because:

- i) Being funny with exaggerated features and characteristics, help to motive learners, specially children, villagers and illiterates.
- ii) Can communicate ideas related to desirable social action such as community improvement, prohibition, family planning, nutrition, social evils, superstitions, ill treatment of women in society etc.
- iii) Can present touchy topics through the effective use of satire and humour, which may otherwise hurt the feelings of the audience.
- iv) Can be easily prepared and used, except string puppets.
- v) Are relatively inexpensive and require little by way of costumes scenery and stage equipment as compared to a real drama. When used for classroom or extension education purposes.
- vi) Can involve the entire group\class in preparation and presentation of the puppets (Puppet making, costumers, scenery, music, lighting and manipulation)
- vii) Can be reused after proper storage and a change of costumes.

Limitation:

Puppets have their limitations:

- i) Puppets cannot change their facial expressions. Throughout a play it has to wear the same face, happy, sad or neutral
- ii) Puppets cannot change their dress during the play. This creates a problem when showing a puppets doing a variety of activities in different places, example-to show a puppet getting married and then attending a funeral.

- iii) Except string puppets, other types of puppets cannot show a variety of actions, specially leg movement as they have no legs.
- iv) Topic which require detailed information cannot be taught through puppets as they can only motivate people initially.

21.10 CHALK- BOARD (BLACK-BOARD)

Advantages:

Some of the advantages of chalkboard over other visual aids are as follows:

- i) It is a very convenient teaching aid for group teaching.
- ii) It is quite economic and can be used again and again.
- iii) Its use is accompanied by the appropriate action on the part of the teacher. The illustration drawn on the black-board captures students attention.
- iv) It is one of the most valuable supplementary teaching aid.
- v) It can be used as a good visual aid for drill and revision.
- vi) These boards can be used for drawing enlarged illustrations from the text books.
- vii) It is an convenient aid for giving lesson notes to the students.

Limitation :

Some of the important limitation of a chalk-board are as under:-

- i) the use of chalk-board makes students very much dependent on the teacher.
- ii) it makes the lesson teacher paced.
- iii) it makes the lesson dull and of routine nature.
- iv) It gives no attention to the individual needs of the students.
- v) Due to constant use chalk boards become smooth and start glaring.
- vi) While using chalk-stick to write and chalk-board, the teacher spreads a lot of chalk powder which is inhaled by teacher and student and it may affect their health.

21.11 BULLETIN BOARDS

Advantages:

Some of the advantages of bulletin board as teaching aid are as follows:

- i) It is a good supplement to class -room teaching.
- ii) It help in arousing the interest of student in a specific subject or topic.
- iii) It can be effectively used as a follow up of chalk-board.
- iv) Such boards add colour and liveliness and thus also have decorative value in addition to their educational value.
- v) Such boards can be conveniently used for introducing a topic and for its review as well.

Limitation:

Some limitation in the use of bulletin boards as teaching aids are as follows.

- i) They cannot be used for all inclusive teaching
- ii) They can be used only as supplementary aids to some other teaching aid.
- iii) At time it becomes very difficult to make proper selection of the display material for certain topic.

21.12 FLANNEL-BOARDS

Advantages:

Some of the advantages of using flannel-board as a teaching aid are as follow:

- i) It is quite economical and easy to handle and operate
- ii) The picture or cutting can be easily fixed and removed when required, without spoiling the material. Thus same material can be used for display many a times.
- iii) Any display material on the board holds the interest of students and arrests their attention

- iv) Such board enables a teacher to talk along with changing illustrations to develop a lesson.

Limitation:

- i) The flannel-board is just a supplementary aid to some other teaching aid.
- ii) It gives no attention to the individual needs of the students.
- iii) Small pictures or wall cut diagrams etc. are useless for flannel-board.

21.13 MAGNETIC BOARD

Advantages :

- i) It is easy and quick to move letters and figures.
- ii) It makes teaching-learning interesting. ii) It can be used to publicise events and ideas.

Limitations:

- i) The use of magnetic board is comparatively less in actual classroom teaching, since it is difficult to prepare display items to which magnets will adhere.
- ii) Complete sets of alphabets can be bought, though often, some letters like 'a,e,i' are needed in a greater number than other letters. Thus it is difficult to make long titles with insufficient numbers of these letters.

21.14 FILMS/MOTION PICTURES

Advantages:

- i) Films depict ideas involving motion very well. They can represent continuity of happenings - such as in weaving, cooking, modelling, dances, etc.
- ii) Films are excellent media for reproducing technical demonstrations and can provide the services of an expert to great masses - expert demonstrations on batik, silk screen printing, cooking, painting, etc.
- iii) Films can enlarge or reduce objects as required for better understanding -houses,

animals, gardens can be reduced while mosquitoes, small patterns and motifs, fasteners and prints can be enlarged.

iv) Films bring realism to situations, which helps greatly in understanding - life in states and countries other than one's own, rural people, handicapped persons, pre-school children, destitute women, etc. can all be depicted realistically.

v) Films help to influence the attitudes of persons. Development of positive attitudes and elimination of negative ones is very important for a democratic society. Films are an excellent media for this kind of learning as they depict situations most correctly and authentically - films on victims of famine, flood - stricken people, victims of child labour, atrocities on Harijans, women and animals, working women, small and large families, etc.

vi) Films help in understanding abstract and difficult ideas - films is the case of newborn babies, family planning, emotions, mental processes, spread of cancer in a body etc.

vii) Films help to arouse and sustain the attention of learners on less interesting topics - films on contagious diseases, child development, solar cooking, etc.

viii) Films help to retain knowledge for a longer period of time.

ix) Films help to central the time factor - a film on growth of a focus which takes 9 months can be shown in 30 minutes, a film on the uses of improved manure for better agricultural product, can be shown in 15 minutes, while the actual process may take 3 to 4 months.

x) Films help to bring the past and present classes - Films on changes in dress, architecture, food, manners, health, family life, education, development of science and technology in relation to the time through two centuries.

xi) Films help to develop a common platform for learning. Students in a class often come from heterogeneous backgrounds. A film creates a Common understanding among

all and encourages further learning for example, films on young children will help learners who are infact at home, as well as those who do not have any experience with children.

vii) Films offers aesthetic experiences :- films on textile design, painting, interior decoration of houses, gardens, etc.

viii) Films offer an effective and comparatively inexpensive means of acquiring knowledge which otherwise can be had only through travel and experience -films on life on the moon, scientific subjects, foreign countries etc.

ix) Films can help in developing useful habits such as independent thinking, team work and cooperation - films on Jawans, cooperatives, village improvement through community action, etc. Limitations:

Incorrect use of films may make students develop:

i) Wrong time concept, example - incorrect ideas may be formed about the actual time needed for developing a healthy body after seeing a film on the effects on a new diet, unless the time is clearly specified.

ii) Incorrect size concepts, example - the real sizes of an enlarged mosquito and a reduced machine shown in a films must be pointed out.

iii) Distorted impressions, example an enlarged height of a woman to show gracefulness may lead the students to believe it to be the true one, unless clarified.

Moreover, films cannot be stopped or reversed very easily, every now and then, to clarify ideas or answer students questions. They are also more expensive compared to graphic and three-dimensional aids, so if the latter can serve the purposes as well, do not use films.

21.15 TELEVISION AND VIDEO TAPES

Advantages :

i) Television and videotapes provide concrete, real and immediate experiences ex-ample - women's rally for eradication of Sati.

- ii) Both visual and audio senses are employed to increase clarity of understanding and excitement. They can also provide enormous range and type of visual resources for descriptive materials.
- iii) Both provide uniformity of communication. Viewers share a common experience at the same time, which helps in levelling the backgrounds of all students
- iv) Because of rigidity of time and small green area, the programme producers are forced to organise the visual and auditory content with great economy and care.
- v) They are versatile vehicles - models, exhibits, and demonstrations etc. It helps to achieve clarity and broaden appeal.
- vi) They raise the availability and quality of human resources like demonstrations by experts.
- vii) They help to overcome space time barriers.

Limitations :

- i) Live telecasts seems more real and immediate than specially prepared television programmes but they cannot always be fitted into the rigorous time schedule of a class.
- ii) Limitations of time and screen area may force programmes to be oversimplified. At present, programmes on television are of very general nature and not student based. In an effort to make them applicable to heterogeneous masses, they are reduced to the most elementary levels. In teaching, one has to focus on a specific topic and deal with it in terms of the specific abilities and interests of the students.
- iii) It is a one-way communication. However well prepared, true interaction of minds and exchange of ideas cannot take place. Students cannot get their doubts cleared by asking questions.

- iv) It is somewhat difficult for television to reconstruct our ideas, thinking and actions. It mostly stimulates and reinforces our ideas and beliefs. So a teacher cannot use it as an independent aid.
- v) Time Zone handicaps, the inability to repeat programmes, the uncertainty of the content and treatment of a programme when a specific telecast is used for the first time makes television difficult to use for classroom purposes.
- vi) The language complexity of the audience in a country of 21 official languages and 888 dialects, really poses a problem in the use of television as a communication media. The student of 800 colleges with subsidised television sets cannot understand either Hindi and English adequately, and the situation is further aggravated in the absence of multi-channel facility.
- vii) Television and video tapes are the result of the new technological advances. They are likely to suffer from the usual mechanical and technical problems - no electrical supply, special, costly storage facilities and seating arrangement, equipment getting out dated, poor quality of image and voice due to faults in the television relay centres etc.
- viii) Television's specific impact on a long term basis is also not very clear.

21.16 FILMSTRIP AND SLIDES

Advantages :

Except for using topics involving motion, and attitudes, a filmstrip and a slide can both be used for most of the other objectives for which a film is used. More over, their projectors are more compact, less expensive and easier to operate than a film projector. Both filmstrips and slides occupy less space when stored and hardly have any weight, the two big advantages of filmstrips and slides are that:

- i) They can be kept on a screen as long as desired, enabling the slow learners also to learn at their own speed and allowing a teacher to discuss or emphasize a special point.
- ii) They are reversible so one can go back to a particular frame for further clarification.

Limitations :

- i) There are expensive to prepare, specially separately for each age and ability group.
- ii) Filmstrips and slides get old and out dated.
- iii) They can give incorrect size and colour concepts.
- iv) They have a greater risk of damage.

21.17 TRANSPARENCIES

Advantages :

- i) The main advantages of transparencies is that they can be viewed by a much larger group than the group with which a chalkboard can be used and so often It serves as a substitute.
- ii) Another advantage is that it can be used in an undarkened room or somewhat darkened room with the help of a day light screen, and thus, students can make notes simultaneously.
- iii) The writing on the transparencies can be wiped clean with patrol and cotton and can be reused. This is of great help in correcting mistakes also.

Limitations :

- i) Students comprehension may become difficult, if the commentaries are hard to follow due to difficult vocabulary, use of foreign language or unfamiliar diagrams
- ii) There is irregular electric supply specially in rural or poor urban localities Projectors running on patrol/diesel and patromax and portable generators may help, however, this would mean additional expenses.

21.18 OPAQUE PROJECTION

Advantages :

- i) The image on the screen is magnified four times the original so small illustrations can be enlarged for preparing charts and posters by persons not possessing artistic skills to do free-hand drawing
- ii) It requires absolutely no special advance preparation

- iii) Writing pictures and photographs, directly from a book can be projected.

Limitations:

- i) A dark room with extra good ventilation forces an institution to incur extra expenses by way of heavy curtains, fans, exhaust fans and ventilators.
- ii) Opaque projectors are costly.
- iii) The young and the low ability learners may find it difficult to follow the aid prepared for the general group.
- iv) It can give incorrect size and colour concepts.

21.19 RADIO

Advantages:

- i) It serves the purposes of quick education. It also provides the pupils with opportunities to listen to the talks by expert in their fields.
- ii) It promotes in pupils a wider understanding of themselves, their surroundings. It develops in them the habit of observation.
- iii) It present an integrated picture and idea contained in a topic.
- iv) A good school broadcast can give the teacher, through its subject matter, the freshness of its presentation, and the new technique of studio production.
- v) It offers immense scope economic and effectiveness of teaching effort. One of the most significant aspect of broadcast is that it combines the qualities both speech and writing.
- vi) The radio uses expression and sentence structures which are more easily comprehensible. Being primarily concerned with spoked word, the radio breathes life into the dead words of written materials.

Limitation:

- i) Prehearing and Rehearing are not possible. Advance preparation for introduction and clarification of doubts are not possible.
- ii) Two way communication which helps in clear understanding is not possible.
- iii) Only individuals with high attention and concentration capacity can learn profitably through radio programmes.
- iv) The speed of a radio programme is decided, keeping an average person's listening ability in mind; so slow learners may not be able to grasp the points.
- v) There may not be suitable programmes for use in classroom.
- vi) The radio set may not be available in the school or at home, in case of very poor students.
- ii) The learners may not be able to learn if they cannot hear clearly due to poor reception which may be used by distance, low power, mechanical and technical disturbances.
- viii) Attention and concentration which are important for effective listening are difficult to maintain if the room is too hot or cold or filled with aural or visual distractions and is acoustically poor.
- ix) The timings of the radio programmes may not always be suitable to the learners. Specially of formal schools.
- x) There may be facilities for the teachers to be aware of the relevant radio programmes for use in the classroom or for assigning home listening.

21.20 RECORDING

Advantages:

Tapes are most widely used for recording commercial, recreational and educational materials. They are well suited to learning situations as they.

- i) Can bring the world into the classroom by recording talk, music or speech, of anyone who is far away in another place and can be transported easily. These recordings can also be preserved for future use, long after the demise of persons, animals or birds. Can be preheard, and one can be sure of the materials recorded.
- iii) Help in planning activities carefully, as one can use them according to his or her time schedule.
- iv) Can be controlled according to one's lesson as one can stop to clear doubts and can have discussions.
- v) Run at the specific speed and permit exact timings of audio materials.
- vi) Help greatly in learning a new language and correcting speech.
- vii) Make it possible to record good radio programmes to be used later on at a convenient time.
- viii) Self instruction tapes are good for independent study to improve work quality. Teachers can also plan for tape-slide lectures-demonstrations by experts, not easily available.

Limitation:

- i) Good recording equipment beside being expensive is heavy and bulky.
- ii) Two-way communication is not possible through tape recording.
- iii) Tape-recording may not facilitate high attention and concentration to the learner

21.21 GRAPHIC AIDS

Advantages:

Graphic Aids-I (charts, diagrams, graphs and maps) are used for serious class room teaching. Graphic Aids -II (flashcards, pictures, photographs, posters, leaflets, folders,

pamphlets, cartoons and comics) include those aids which primarily are not used for very serious class room teaching. Many of them publicise educational ideas and so are good mass communication media. Graphic Aids help to :

- i) Visualise abstract concept which are difficult to understand concepts of size, rate of growth, inner structure of an object or machine etc.
- ii) Reduce the amount of verbal talking and help in giving clear explanations, visuals in charts, graphs, diagrams and posters, cut down words.
- iii) Present the information in a specific and systematic manner. Since majority of them are formal aids, they have to be very systematic and organised,
- iv) Are comparatively less expensive.
- v) Easy to make as no technical skills. Regular teachers with some knowledge of drawing and who desire to be creative can prepare them.
- vi) Easy to use very special arrangements and machines are not required
- vii) Easily storable and reusable as they are flat, two-dimensional materials.

Limitations:

- i) They may develop misconceptions of time, size and colour among the students
- ii) They require artistic ability.
- iii) These aids cannot depict ideas mainly dependent on motion.
- iv) If not properly stored, can fade and tear.
- v) They are only supplementary aids used along with other teaching aids for classroom teaching.
- vi) They may be wrongly interpreted and the students may get wrong impressions.

Check Your Progress

Note: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.

i) What are the advantages of bulletin board?

ii) What are advantages of radio?

21.22 LET US SUM UP

Each audio-visual aid has its own advantages and disadvantages which make them suitable for different situations and settings. Three dimensional models are easily available in our homes or can be borrowed from other educational institutions. Mobiles are used in a limited way in education as they mostly publicise commercial products. Displays are very versatile medium involving a lot of creativity However, they require careful planning and some -rehearsal. Projected aids can be used for a large group and they present life-like situations. But they are comparatively expensive and require other facilities. Graphic aids are easy to make, use, carry and store. But these are not primarily used for very serious classroom teaching. A better understanding of the advantages and disadvantages of these aids make us use these to their full potential.

21.23 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The advantages of bulletin board are

- i) It is a good supplement to class -room teaching.
- ii) It help in arousing the interest of student in a specific subject or topic.

- iii) It can be effectively used as a follow up of chalk-board.
- iv) Such boards add colour and liveliness and thus also have decorative value in addition to their educational value.
- v) Such boards can be conveniently used for introducing a topic and for its review as well.

2. The advantages of Radio

- i) It serves the purposes of quick education. It also provides the pupils with opportunities to listen to the talks by expert in their fields.
- ii) It promotes in pupils a wider understanding of themselves, their surroundings. It develops in them the habit of observation.
- iii) It present an integrated picture and idea contained in a topic.
- iv) A good school broadcast can give the teacher, through its subject matter, the freshness of its presentation, and the new technique of studio production.
- v) It offers immense scope economic and effectiveness of teaching effort. One of the most significant aspect of broadcast is that it combines the qualities both speech and writing.
- vi) The radio uses expression and sentence structures which are more easily comprehensible. Being primarily concerned with spoken word, the radio breathes life into the dead words of written materials.

21.24 LESSON END EXERCISE:

Q1. Give the advantages of the various Audio-Visual aids? What are the disadvantages of different Audio-visual aids?

21.25 SUGGESTED READING

1. O.P. Dahama and O.P. Bhatnagar (2012). Education and Communication for Development. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
2. S.V. Supe (2012). An introduction to Extension Education. Oxford and IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd.: New Delhi.
3. V.K. Dubey and I. Bishnoi (2008). Extension Education and Communication. New Age International Ltd., Publishers: New Delhi.