

COURSE IN TRAINING METHODOLOGY
& TECHNIQUES FOR AFGHAN TEACHERS
VMWICM, PUNE.- Oct. 5 to 31, 1979
(Study Visits - Nov. 1 to 10, 1979)

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Oct. 31, 1979

COURSE IN TRAINING METHODOLOGY
& TECHNIQUES FOR AFGHAN TEACHERS

COURSE REPORT

Introduction:

This Course is a burning example of Cooperation among cooperatives - not only at the local level but also at the International and National level. At the request of Mr. Lars Gronkvist, Project Adviser, Project on Agricultural Cooperatives and Credit in the Republic of Afghanistan (PACCA Project), the International Cooperative Alliance, Regional Office and Education Centre for South-East Asia (ICA ROEC), New Delhi, agreed to conduct a 5 weeks' Course for 12 Afghan Trainers in Training Methodology and Techniques from 3rd October to 7th November 1979 at the Vaikunth Mehta National Institute of Cooperative Management (VMNICM), Pune. It is expected that on completion of the training programme the trained personnel will form the core faculty of the proposed Cooperative Inservice Training Centre, which is expected to be established shortly at Kabul.

Objectives of the Course

The following objectives were identified to be achieved at the end of the programme:

1. The participants will know the principles of Communication and Learning;
2. The participants will acquire the knowledge and skills of some of the important modern teaching techniques and methods (particularly lecture method and group discussion method);
3. The participants will be able to handle and use projected and non-projected teaching aids for teaching purpose; and
4. The participants will acquire the ability of curriculum formulation and will be able to prepare lesson plans and communicate these effectively to the trainees.

Target Population

The background of the participants under the training varied from those who have good theoretical background and little practical experience to those with low education but long practical experience within the framework of the P.A.G.C. Project. Out of the 12 selected for participation in the programme, one dropped out at the last moment. The list of the 11 participants along with their qualification etc. is attached as Annex-I.

Duration and Timing

The duration of the Course was 5 weeks. The last one week is assigned for field visits (practical study visits).

Timing: 4th October to 7th November 1979. Due to unavoidable circumstances the course which was to start on 4th of October 1979 could start only on 5th October. However, the loss of time was compensated by working on Sunday, the 7th October 1979 and some additional hours for 3 to 4 days.

Course Design and Curriculum

In order to achieve the objectives of the Course, the course was divided into three parts. The detail programme is attached as Annex-II. Part-Ist consisted of Theoretical input (knowledge part) in the area of (a) human communication process, psychology of adult learning, (b) skills of effective communication - skills of effective learning. Part-IIInd gave emphasis on Teaching techniques and methods, techniques of obtaining feed-back (evaluation) and the use of audio-visual aids, The entire Part-IIInd of the programme aimed at providing skills in the lecture method and group discussion method. Besides this participants were also given the adequate knowledge and skills about the utility of various projected and non-projected aids. During this part of the programme it was ensured

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that each participant had acquired the operational skills of both projected and non-projected aids. Particular emphasis was given on the following:

- i. Operation and maintenance of 16mm film projector,
- ii. Operation of slide projector.
- iii. Operation of over head projector.
- iv. Skills in teaching with:
 - (a) Flip over chart
 - (b) Flannel Board
 - (c) Chalk Board
 - (d) Magnetic Board

The participants were also imparted with the knowledge as to how to teach with a film or overhead projector or slides. In the area of use of overhead projectors, the participants were further given the skills of preparing their lesson plan with the help of transparencies. Some orientation in the Principles of Photography were also arranged besides providing some practice sessions on photography.

Part-IIIrd of the programme was again divided into two stages. In stage I, the participants were exposed to the technique of planning and designing a training course, techniques of identifying training needs and curriculum formulation. For each of the subject area the participants were involved in the practice sessions. The IIInd stage of the Part-III of the programme from 25th to 31st October formed the Workshop sessions on Curriculum Formulation. At this stage Mr. Lars Gronkvist, Project adviser, P.A.C.C.A Project, Kabul, joined the programme and directed the proceedings of the workshop. The workshop was directed towards preparation of training course and formulation of curricula for the various courses. During the workshop the participants did a commendable job of designing a training programme (Introductory course) for the Managers of the Cooperative Societies. The hard work and dedication towards achieving the goals of the workshop result in the production of detail curriculum for the basic course which

is expected to form the starting point of the training activities in Kabul.

Techniques used

During the entire period of the programme major emphasis was on participative technique aimed at involving the participants in the training process. The following techniques used are worth mentioning:

- a) Lecture-cum-discussion,
- b) Group discussion,
- c) Practical session on discussion method, and
- d) Role Plays on lecture method.

Teaching Aids used

The following teaching aids were used and it evoked considerable interest among the participants:

- a) Overhead projector,
- b) 16mm film projector,
- c) Slide Projector,
- d) Flip over chart, and
- e) Flannel Board.

Study Visits:

The study visit programme during the Course was divided into two parts, i.e. (a) Study visits during class room training, and (b) study visits after class room training. Study visit programme during class room training consisted of a visit to (i) Cooperative Printing Press, Pune; (ii) Cooperative Training College, Pune; and (iii) Poona District Cooperative Milk Federation (Katraj Dairy), Pune.

The second part of the study visit will start from 1st November 1979 and conclude on 10th of November, after which the participants will leave for Kabul. The details of the study visit programme is given in Annexe-III.

Mid-term Course Evaluation:

A mid-term course evaluation for Part-I and II of the programme was conducted on 19th October 1979. A detailed course evaluation report is

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attached as Annexe-IV. The evaluation report from the participants indicated that 9 out of 11 participants felt that the course objectives so far had been fully achieved where as two felt that it has partly been achieved. All the participants felt that in the area of knowledge and skill parts covered under the training, will improve their training performance as a trainer. Regarding handling of the various subject by different faculty members the 4 to 7 participants felt that it was very good and 7 to 4 felt that it was good.

Regarding the techniques used for imparting training 5 felt that it was very good while 6 considered it as good.

In respect of the overall handling of the programme 8 participants were of the opinion that it was excellent and 3 considered it good.

In respect of boarding arrangements 3 considered it excellent, 4 good and 4 satisfactory. Regarding lodging, 6 participants were of the opinion that it was excellent while 5 considered it satisfactory.

The results of the final evaluation is also on the same lines. The report is enclosed as Annexe-V.

Acknowledgements

This Programme materialised due to very close cooperation and coordination between ICA ROEC, New Delhi, PACC Project, Kabul and VMNICM, Pune. Mr. Lars Gronkvist has been instrumental in over coming all the practical problems relating to the final arrival of the participants in India. Mr. J.M. Rana, Director (Education), ICA ROEC, provided all the help and guidance in organising the course and formulating the course design. Prof. D. Jha, Director, VMNICM, readily agreed to make us available all the facilities available at VMNICM for this course. Mr. D.R. Datar, Reader, VMNICM, carried all the burden of the local coordination.

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Mr. Vinay Nagpal of ICA ROEC and Mr. V.G. Datar of VMNICM provided all the necessary secretarial assistance. The following faculty members of the VMNICM helped us in running the Course, namely Prof. S.B. Rao, Prof. D.R. Oza, Prof. R.V. Nadkarni (Retd.), Dr. S.C. Mehta, Mr. M...Deshmukh, Mr. D.R. Datar and Mr. S.P. Gupta.

I as the Programme Director sincerely acknowledge the services rendered by all the persons mentioned above in making the programme a success.

Last but not the least, I acknowledge the admirable enthusiasm, zeal and hard work put by our Afghan Teacher friends who have been instrumental in making the programme a success. Special acknowledgement is made of the services rendered by Mr. Khalaf who not only participated as a participant but also acted as interpreter. It was due to his commandable services that made the communication effective despite some language problems.

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Oct. 12, 1979

COURSE IN TRAINING METHODOLOGY
& TECHNIQUES FOR FEMALE TEACHERS

REVISED PROGRAM

<u>Thurs. Oct. 4, 1979</u>	Arrival of all participants	
	<u>Part - I</u>	
<u>Fri. Oct. 5</u>		
1000 - 1130	Working arrangements about the Course	G. Ojha
1145 - 1245	Inauguration	
1415 - 1545	Communication Process - the game of Mutual Introduction	D.R. Datar
1600 - 1700	Discussion	
<u>Sat. Oct. 6</u>		
0930 - 1100	Psychology of adult learning	G. Ojha
1115 - 1245	How learning takes place - action oriented learning - Tower Building Game	G. Ojha & D.R. Datar
1415 - 1545	Human Communication Process	G. Ojha
1600 - 1700	How to make communication effective - Communication Game	D.R. Datar & G. Ojha
<u>Sun. Oct. 7</u>		
0930 - 1100	Teaching techniques and methods in adult education/training - factors to be considered in the selection of a method & media	G. Ojha
1115 - 1245	Communication Game - win as much as you all can	D. R. Datar & G. Ojha
1415 - 1545	Methods of Teaching - Lecture method - Advantages & disadvantages - Do's and Don'ts in lecture method	D.R. Datar
1600 - 1700	Methods/Techniques of Teaching/ Training lecture method (contd.)	D.R. Datar
1700 - 1730	(Selection of topics & speakers for practice sessions on lecture method)	

Mon. Oct. 8

- 0930 - 1100 Practice Session on Lecture Method
(as per programme attached as annex-1)
- 1115 - 1245 Practice Session on Lecture Method
- Groups to comments on the performance
of Speaker
- 1415 - 1545 Practice Session (contd.)
- 1600 - 1700 Teaching Techniques & Methods R.V. Warkarni
summing up

Tues. Oct. 9

- 0900 - 0930 Practice Session on Lecture Method
- 0930 - 1100 The techniques of group discussion G. Ojha
in teaching/training
- 1115 - 1245 Practice Session on Lecture Method
- 1415 - 1545 Technique of group discussion D.R. Datar
- Force Field Analysis & G. Ojha
- 1600 - 1800 Square making game followed by M... Deshmukh
discussion

Wed. Oct. 10

- 0900 - 0930 Practice Session on Lecture Method
- 0930 - 1100 Practice Session on Group S.C. Mehta
Method (Demonstration)
- 1115 - 1245 Discussion S.C. Mehta
- 1415 - 1545 Practice Session on Group Method R.V. Warkarni
- 1600 - 1700 Discussion R.V. Warkarni

Part - D

Thurs. Oct. 11 &

Fri. Oct. 12

- 0930 - 1700 Operation and maintenance of projected Kale
aids - demonstration (skills in
operation and maintenance of film
projector, slide projector - both types
of projector, overhead projector, etc.)

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Sat. Oct. 13

0930 - 1100	Teaching aids : Their Role in teaching/training	R.D. Bokil
1115 - 1245	Role of Audio-Visual Aids in modern teaching - classification of Audio-Visual Aids	R.D. Bokil
1415 - 1545	Other participative techniques	D. Jha
1600 - 1700	- do -	D. Jha

Sun. Oct. 14

F R E E

Mon. Oct. 15

0930 - 1100	How to teach with a film - demonstration	R.V. Nadkarni
1115 - 1245	How to teach with a film (contd.)	R.V. Nadkarni
1415 - 1545	1. The Use of Slide Projector 2. How to teach with slides and film strips - demonstration	G. Ojha & S.C. Mehta
1600 - 1700	Discussion	- do -

Tues. Oct. 16

0930 - 1100	Principles of Photography - How to take pictures - some guidelines for the slide photography.	R.D. Bokil & his Assistant
1115 - 1245	Principles of Photography (contd.)	- do -
1415 - 1545	Simple writing and sketching - practice sessions	Kambale
1600 - 1700	Simple writing and sketching (contd.)	- do -

Wed. Oct. 17

0930 - 1100	Teaching aids - salient feature of visual aids - non-projected: (a) Black board and its use (b) Flip chart and its use (c) Flannel graph and its use	G. Ojha & D.R. Datar
1115 - 1245	Salient features of non-projected aids	- do -

1415 - 1545	How to make use of non-projected aids - Demonstration of teaching	G. Ojha
1600 - 1700	Role of projected aids in teaching/training - Demonstration	D.R. Datar

Thus. Oct. 18

0930 - 1100	Training Evaluation - The technique of Feed-back	S.B. Rao
1115 - 1245	Training Evaluation (contd.)	S.B. Rao
1415 - 1545	Cooperative Leadership	S.P. Gupta
1600 - 1700	Cooperative Training Structure in India	S.C. Mehta

Fri. Oct. 19

0930 - 1100	Cooperative Leadership and Cooperative Training	R.V. Nadkarni
1115 - 1245	Improving the Training - How to make use of the feed-back	R.V. Nadkarni
1430 - 1700	Evaluation - Part I & Part II	

Sat. Oct. 20 Holiday (Deepavali) F R E E

Sun. Oct. 21 F R E E

PART - III

Mon. Oct. 22

0930 - 1100	How to plan a design of a training programme	R.V. Nadkarni
1115 - 1245	- do -	- do -
1415 - 1545	Group work on planning a training course	
1600 - 1700	- do -	

Tues. Oct. 23

0930 - 1100	Technique of Curriculum formulation - Formulation of training objectives - Identification of needs, etc.	G. Ojha & D.R. Datar
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1115 - 1245	Problems in curriculum formulation	G. Ojha
1415 - 1545	Selection of teaching/training material	D.R. Datar
1600 - 1700	- do -	- do -

Wed. Oct. 24

0930 - 1100	Salient features of Cooperative Movement in India	D.R. Oza
1115 - 1300	Study Visit to Industrial Cooperative Society	
1430 - 1700	Study Visit to Cooperative Training College, Pune	

Thus. Oct. 25 to
Tue. Oct. 30

Workshop on Course Planning & Designing of Curriculum (as per programme attached as annexe-B)	G. Ojha & D.R. Datar
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Wed. Oct. 31

Forenoon	Course Evaluation & Valediction
Afternoon	Departure for Kolhapur on Study Visit by Bus (at 1430 hrs)

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TIME SCHEDULE

SESSION I	:	0930 - 1100 hrs
Tea Break	:	1100 - 1115 "
SESSION II	:	1115 - 1245 "
Lunch Break	:	1245 - 1415 "
SESSION III	:	1415 - 1545 "
Tea Break	:	1545 - 1600 "
SESSION IV	:	1600 - 1700 "

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COURSE IN TRAINING METHODOLOGY
& TECHNIQUES FOR AFGHAN TEACHERS

Practice Sessions on Lecture
Method - Allotment of Subjects

Mon., Oct. 8

(a) Mr. Abdul Razaq Khalaf - Speaker

Subject: Cooperative Movement in Afghanistan

Target

Population: Managers of Cooperative Society

Time: 0930 to 1000 hrs - speak

1000 to 1015 " - Discussion

(b) Mr. Jalaluddin - Speaker

Subject: How to Register a Coop. Society

Target

Population: Agents of Cooperative Leaders

Time: 1015 to 1045 hrs - speak

1045 to 1100 " - discussion

(c) Mr. Sayed Yaqub - Speaker

Subject: Marketing of Agricultural
Produce through Cooperatives

Target

Population: Directors of Training

Time: 1115 - 1145 hrs - speak

1145 - 1200 " - discussion

(d) Mr. Dorshey - Speaker

Subject: System of Book Keeping in
Cooperatives in Afghanistan

Target: Cooperative Agents and the

Population: Government Personnel

Time: 1200 - 1230 hrs - speak

1230 - 1245 " - discussion

(e) Mr. Allah Mohammed - Speaker

Subject: The role of Service Cooperatives
in the Development of Agriculture
in Afghanistan

Target

Population: Cooperative Agents

Time: 1430 - 1500 hrs - speak
1500 - 1515 " - discussion

(f) Mr. Mohammed Attique - Speaker

Subject: The Functions and Responsibility
of Board Members

Target

Population: Board Members

Time: 1530 - 1600 hrs - speak
1600 - 1615 " - discussion

Tue., Oct. 9

(g) Mr. Khan Bahadur - Speaker

Subject: Privileges and Responsibilities
of a Member of Cooperative Society

Target

Population: Potential Members of Cooperatives

Time: 0930 - 1000 hrs - speak
1000 - 1015 " - discussion

(h) Mr. Ziaudin - Speaker

Subject: How to conduct General Body Meeting

Target

Population: Chairmen of Cooperative Societies

Time: 1015 - 1045 hrs - speak
1045 - 1100 " - discussion

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(i) Mr. Abdul Qayoum - Speaker

Subject: The role of Cooperatives in
transforming Socio-Economic
conditions of Afghan people

Target

Population: Members of Cooperatives

Time: 1115 - 1145 hrs - speak
1145 - 1200 " - discussion

(j) Mr. Mahmood - Speaker

Subject: Functions of Cooperative Agents

Target

Population: Cooperative Agents

Time: 1200 - 1230 hrs - speak
1230 - 1245 " - discussion

(k) Mr. Rahmatullah - Speaker

Subject: Cooperative Movement before
and after the revolution

Target

Population: Provincial Directors of Cooperative

Time: 1430 - 1500 hrs - speak
1500 - 1515 " - discussion

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Oct. 30, 1979

COURSE IN TRAINING METHODOLOGY
& TECHNIQUES FOR AFGHAN TEACHERS

Study Visit Programme in Kolhapur

<u>Oct. 31, 1979 Wed.</u>	Leave Pune	by Bus	at 1430 hrs
	Arrive Kolhapur		2030 hrs
	Stay at Hotel Pearl New Sahupuri Kolhapur		
<u>Nov. 1, Thurs.</u>	Visit to Maharashtra Engineering Coop. Society Ltd., Shirol, Kolhapur		
0830 - 1030 hrs			
1100 - 1300 "	Visit to Kolhapur District Central Cooperative Bank		
1300 - 1600 "	Lunch and rest		
1600 - 1800 "	Visit to Shreeram Multi-purpose Coop. Society Ltd., Kasba Bowda, Kolhapur		
<u>Nov. 2, Fri.</u>	Visit to Shetkari Sahakari Sangh, Junnalajawada, Kolhapur		
1030 - 1230 "			
1300 - 1500 "	Lunch and rest		
	Leave Kolhapur	By Bus	at 1500 hrs
	Arrive Pune		2100 "
	Stay at VMNIM Hostel Ganeshkhind Road Pune		
<u>Nov. 3, Sat.</u>	Visit to Maharashtra State Cooperative Union, Pune		
1130 - 1300 hrs			

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Study Visit Programme in Ahmedabad

<u>Nov. 4, 1979, Sun.</u>	Leave Pune	by Deccan Queen	0720 hrs
	Arrive Bombay		1030 "
	Leave Bombay	by IC-103	1820 "
	Arrive Ahmedabad		1950 "
	Stay at Hotel Kingsway J.P.O. Road Near Relief Cinema Ahmedabad		
<u>Nov. 5, Mon.</u>			
0800 hrs	Leave Ahmedabad for Anand		
1000 "	Arrive at National Dairy Development Board, Anand		
	- Visit to NDDB		
	- Lunch at NDDB		
	- Visit to Amul Complex		
	- Visit to a Primary Milk Cooperative		
2030 "	Return to Ahmedabad		
<u>Nov. 6, Tues.</u>			
1130 - 1300 hrs	Visit to Gujarat State Cooperative Marketing Federation Ltd.		
1300 - 1500 "	Lunch		
1500 - 1700 "	Visit to Gujarat State Cooperative Union		
	Departure for Delhi by IC-462	at	2055 hrs

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-: 3 :-

Study Visit Programme in Delhi

Nov. 6, 1979, Tues. Arrival at Delhi from Ahmedabad
by IC-462 at 2210 hrs

Stay at Hotel Ranjit
New Delhi

Nov. 7, Wed.

1030 - 1200 hrs Visit to IC. ROEC, New Delhi

1200 - 1430 " Lunch

1500 - 1700 " Visit to National Agricultural Cooperative
Marketing Federation (NAFED), New Delhi

Nov. 8, Thurs.

0030 - 0400 " Visit to Azad Mandi to see grape marketing
(Back to Hotel Ranjit at 4.00 a.m.)

1530 - 1700 " Visit to National Council for
Cooperative Training (NCCT), New Delhi

Nov. 9, Fri.

1030 - 1200 " Visit to National Cooperative Union
of India (NCUI), New Delhi

1200 - 1800 " Lunch and sight-seeing in Delhi

Nov. 10, Sat.

Departure for Agra at 0600 hrs

Visit to some agricultural cooperatives
(to be fixed in consultation with NCUI)

Sight-seeing in Agra

Leave Agra for Delhi at 1800 hrs

Nov. 11, Sun. Leave Delhi
Arrive Kabul

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LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

- | | |
|---------------------------|---|
| 1. Mr. Abdul Razaq Khalaf | Project in Agricultural Credit & Cooperatives in the Democratic Republic of Afghanistan (PACCA Project)
c/o U.N.D.P.
Post Box No. 5
KABUL, Afghanistan |
| 2. Mr. Syed Yaqub | " |
| 3. Mr. Khan Behadur | " |
| 4. Mr. Jalaluddin Zamani | " |
| 5. Mr. Allah Mohammed | " |
| 6. Mr. Mohammed Atiq | " |
| 7. Mr. Abdul Qayoum | " |
| 8. Mr. Bahanatullah | " |
| 9. Mr. Ziauddin | " |
| 10. Mr. Dorshai | " |
| 11. Mr. Mahmood | " |

Respected Chairman, Members of the Staff,
Ladies and Gentlemen,

I consider this as a matter of great honour to be with you this morning, and I am highly obliged to the Management for inviting me to inaugurate the Study Course in cooperation for Afghan Teachers' Organisation. We are also proud that Afghan Teachers' Organisation's members will be studying at this Institute which follows the teaching of Mahatma Gandhi, great son of the great Indian People.

Dear Friends,

You know that after the victory of April Revolution in our country, our Government is paying maximum attention to raise the living standard of the poorer section of our society, who have been neglected so far. We want to build our national economy, we want to achieve national self-reliance, and for this purpose we must train our own experts. Our Government is paying great attention to this. We are rapidly expanding the opportunities to impart the education to all sections of our society. Prior to the April Revolution only the rich had the privilege to receive the education. But now our Government, under the leadership of People's Democratic party of Afghanistan, is very rapidly expanding the opportunities to receive education not only in our country but we are deputing our students in large numbers to foreign countries also. And as a part of this programme these students have come to your Institute.

Our Government has opened 600 new schools within a year, and the number of University students have increased to 13,000 from 2,000. Many new scientific and technical faculties have been started in our Universities. More than 7000 Afghan students have been sent to foreign countries, including India for further studies. Under the Adult Education Programme, hundreds of Adult Education courses are being opened to fight out the illiteracy, and more than million of Afghan have received education.

We look towards India for mutual co-operation and help. India is the most advanced country amongst Developing countries in the field of education of science and technology and rates third in the world in having largest number of scientific and technological cadres. Relations between our two countries are very friendly and cordial.

In our first war against British in 1838 hundreds of your countrymen fought shoulder to shoulder with us and laid down their lives. Some leaders of your war against British came to our country after 1857. First provisional Government of India was set up in Kabul in 1915 by Raja Mehendra Pratap. India was the third country to recognise our Revolutionary Government. India and Afghanistan have helped each other in their difficult days. Trade between our two countries is also growing.

Our two countries enjoy good friendly and neighbourly relations. Brave Commander of the April Revolution, Comrade Hafizullah Amin, General Secretary of Peoples Democratic Party of Afghanistan, President of Revolutionary Council, and First Minister of Democratic Republic of Afghanistan has expressed the desire to further strengthen relations between our two countries. He has said " Historical and Cultural relations between our two countries constitute the factors behind the friendly relations of Afghanistan and India. We are very close with one another. In the international arena we are both members of non-aligned movement and are desirous of co operation. On the economic front India helps Afghanistan and there are good growing trade relations between the two countries.

Dear Friends,

Our April Revolution has ushered a new period in our country. A period of conferring democratic rights to all the people in our country. Our Government is pledged to take effective and speedy measures in the interests of workers, peasants and the poorer section of our society. First major steps taken by our Government immediately after April Revolution were of LAND REFORMS, cancellation of debts which wiped out the usury and mortgage, and established equal rights between men and women and abolished dowry system. Our Government completed the work of land distribution within short period of Six months. Our Government has made necessary arrangements to help peasants to buy and implements, fertilizers and improved seeds. Irrigation facilities and electricity supply is being expanded. To implement this programme large number of agricultural cooperative are being organised. For the planned development of our economy we have formulated Five Year plan and started implementing even before the completion of One year of our April Revolution. The preliminary work of Census has been completed for the first time in the history of our country. In our Five Year Plan we have provided for the rapid Industrialisation of our country as well as for the growth of agricultural production.

All these measures of our Government are in the interest of the poorer section of our people which have been received with great enthusiasm in our country.

The Feudal elements, affected by these measures in the interest of wide masses have runaway from our country and with the support of foreign reactionaries are spreading lies about our country. Since they cannot criticise our democratic principles and measures taken for the benefit of vast masses of our country, they spread false rumours that there is no freedom of religion in our country. Our Government has repeatedly declared that not only there is no restriction on any individual to perform his sacred duties towards Islam but our Government is helping in repairing and maintainance of Mosques. This assertion

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Remove chairs and tables from the classroom. Ask the participants to go to their notebooks, files and other material in a corner and read in a circle. Ask them to walk slowly, walk fast, do some physical exercises, sing, shout & run for sometime. Then ask them to form groups of two's, three's and four's and tell them to share with the members of the group.

1. Three things they like most. Then again ask them to break the groups and walk in a circle and after sometime form different groups of two's or three's or four's and share with other members of the group.

2. Three things they do not like.

3. Three good qualities ^{they} possess.

4. Three bad qualities ^{they} possess.

Then ask them to tell the group very briefly about:

5. Their ambitions.

6. Their achievements.

7. Their failures.

This kind of exercise makes people forget about their official or social positions and close rapport is established between the different members of the group. They shed their inhibitions and begin to feel free. This creates a proper learning environment and communication can become very effective.

Discuss 'Mutual Introduction' as a technique and its strong points and weaknesses. How it can be adapted for different types of groups.

.....

1. _____

2. Say the name, department and organization in the upper portion of this sheet.

3. Do you like this course?

4. Draw a circle round the title of this paper.

5. Put your initials below your name.

6. Are you happy with your Company? YES or NO

7. Slap your neighbour on the back.

8. Do you like your job? Underline YES or NO

9. Are you satisfied with the motion system in your organization? Circle YES or NO

10. Write the name of your boss _____

11. Write the name of your occupation _____

12. Would you like to have more authority in your Company? Circle YES or NO

13. Are you happy with your friends? Circle YES or NO

14. If you have come so far, speak out loudly your name.

15. Relax your hands.

16. If you have followed the instructions so far, please go to the black-board and say "I have".

17. Say loudly A, B, C, D, E, F, G.

18. Please do not utter a word till the whole group finishes this exercise.

19. Now that you all have read the instructions carefully, do only what the sentences 1 and 2 and 4 told you to do.

20. Please do not give any this exercise by any of you. Let us know by means of a sign if you are not following the instructions carefully.

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A
Note on
Adult Psychology and the Learning Situation

- Dr. G. Ojha
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1. Teaching is a conscious process of passing of knowledge, know-how, skills, information from one person to another. Learning is the process of adaptation and understanding of the knowledge, skills, information, as well as sign, symbols, and actions performed in a person's surroundings by others or by himself.
2. All teaching involves two parties, the teacher/instructor and the students/trainees.
3. All teaching is a matter of communication-preferably two-way communication in which the students/trainees benefit from the teacher's specific knowledge of a certain topic and the teacher benefits from the experience, practice, and general knowledge of the students.
4. The aim of all teaching is to cover the knowledge/information in such a way that it is - as far as possible - understandable and applicable by the students/trainees.
5. The pre-conditions for all teaching are:
 - that the teacher has something to teach, has a message, has a specific knowledge.
 - that the teacher has the knowledge of the techniques, tools, and methods to pass on his knowledge.
 - that the teacher is aware of the group of trainees/students their minds, expectations, level of knowledge, to enable him to direct his message to that specific group.
 - that the teacher is aware of and understands the learning situation and is able to make the students aware of their learning situation.
6. Your teaching is meant for adults, not for children and youngsters.
7. Your teaching is not just for the personal benefit of the students (i.e. for their recreation/entertainment or for their enrichment intellectually) but also for a directly social and economic benefit is so far as the students/

trainees are supposed to improve their work, their performances, to function better as a result of your teaching. Not for your own performance as teachers.

The teacher's know-how, his techniques, tools and methods are not dealt here and the discussion is limited to learning situation in the classroom or course-hall where a teacher is present and where a number of trainees/students-adults will have to learn. Here it will be interesting to know as how do we learn and how learning is retained by the students/trainees.

How We Learn

- 1% through taste
- 1½% through touch
- 3½% through smell
- 11% through hearing
- 83% through sight

Learners Retain

- 10% of what they read
- 20% of what they hear
- 30% of what they see
- 50% of what they see and hear
- 70% of what they say as they talk
- 90% of what they say as they do a thing

The Adult Student

PHYSICALLY DETERMINED FACTORS CHARACTERISING ADULT STUDENTS

1. Most adults have a low level of natural curiosity and for exploration and learning.

It is marked feature among all normal children and youngsters to be curious, keen on exploring, experiencing and learning. All this is a part of the process of growing up to become a full member of the society, able to care for oneself and one's family. Once grown up, the level of "natural" curiosity and feeling for learning decreases. This has to do with the fact that adults have less time for learning, involved as they are in time-consuming responsibilities in their houses, working places and political/social life. Once grown up and qualified for a work adults tend to think that learning is a secondary activity to which they are prepared to pay less attention, except when learning is directly and materially related to improve status or increase income.

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The consequence is that adults will have to be motivated properly, their level of curiosity will have to be stimulated.

2. Adults, do learn slower than children, (more repetitions are therefore needed, especially repetitions posed in different ways).
3. Adults do not so easily see and perceive details as children do. (Concentrate on important details, and avoid too many details).
4. Adults do not so easily remember as children do. (again requires repetition).
5. Adults are mostly not used to sit for longer periods at a table listening to talks. (make use of break when people can move around, change position).
6. Adults have less energy than children, mainly because major part of their time is used on energy consuming activities leaving less energy for learning. (Don't push adults too long, have time for small rests and breaks).

CULTURALLY DETERMINED FACTORS:

7. Adults are not used to systematic reading and learning. Mostly adults receive information through discussions, exchange of experience and ideas, through gossip, through films, and in many cases through reading newspapers/books. (Decrease the time used for one way communication and lecturing - increase the teaching through discussion).
8. Adults think that they cannot learn or that they are less capable to learn. (Proper motivation is needed and assistance to start learning at the proper level of information; not too low).
9. Many adults are not used to read and many are unable to read. (Illiteracy is not correlated with intelligence and experience. Do not underestimate the illiterate persons' ability to learn and gather knowledge and know-how. Do not expect too much to be read during the course).
10. Adults have less time for learning - (See to it that the content of your teaching is relevant for the use of the group or you just waste their time).
11. Adults have many more biases than children. Adults are more influenced by the social surrounding by the opinion of their relatives, friends, colleagues, by the reactions of their surroundings to their

participation in learning activities. - (The landlord may not like to see his tenants participate in adult education, the father may not find education of his daughter worthwhile, etc. The adult may not be willing to learn from a younger person, or from a person of a lower caste, from a person of the opposite party. All such biases are social bindings for a full learning, they are less developed among children, yet adults do all they can, consciously or unconsciously to develop such biases in the children).

12. Because adults are more influenced by cultural norms, by ideas about what the surroundings expect from them, by social status, they are less suited to accept information to learn. - (Try to understand the social and cultural background of your students/trainees and try to bring up for discussion such norms which will diminish the benefits of your teaching).

13. Adults have their practical possibilities for learning. This is due to the fact that emphasis is on education of children and youth. - (The lower the social ranking of your students the fewer are their possibilities for learning. Do not waste the time of your students by being un-prepared by giving information which is irrelevant and unrelated to the needs of your students/trainees).

14. Adults do often have some or out dated basic formal knowledge. - (Make sure that you don't take knowledge for granted which is not achieved by your students).

PSYCHOLOGICALLY DETERMINED FACTORS

15. Adults are often scared of showing that they do not know or that they do not understand. Adults tend to think that it is excusable if children do not know, but that adults should know. - (Be aware of this, observe of the students, look as if they follow your ideas and understand, ask if they understand - but do not ask in such a way that the students will only have to answer yes or no. Put questions which will show as if the students understand the information. You are not teaching just to show off and impress, you are teaching to communicate a message for the sake of the students/trainees).

THE LEARNING SITUATION

For all learning the "climate" of the learning situation is very important. The learning situation is influenced by external factors, as well as by the teacher, and the students. The ideal is to create the best possible learning situation. This necessitates an awareness of the factors promoting or disturbing the situation.

1. External factors influencing the learning situation:

- A) The setting for the teaching that is the size of the room in relation to the number of students, the light, the furniture, the arrangement of the furniture, the temperature, the availability of the teaching aids.
- Example - if it is too cold students/trainees use too much energy to keep warm and if it is too hot students get sleepy or uneasy. A proper temperature or proper facilities promote a good learning situation.
 - If a room is very dark, students cannot see the demonstrated material or read the black board. They will get sleepy and relax and learn less.
 - If a room is too small, students will disturb one another by their closeness. If the room is too big, the sound may be bad so people cannot hear properly.
 - If the furniture is uncomfortable, students will feel tired and pain in the body and will not be able to concentrate on learning.
 - If the furniture is set in lines, authoritarian learning situation is created. Differences in level of knowledge will be demonstrated, as the best and most motivated will sit in front, the poorest and least motivated in the back, trying to hide themselves. The centre for communication will be between the teacher and the first rows. Their learning situation will be improved at the expense of the back rows.
 - If the furniture is in a circle, a non-authoritarian learning situation is promoted in which communication between all involved takes place. The teacher can more easily observe that the students are able to follow his ideas as he can see all faces. He can then more easily repeat when he sees it is necessary; the learning situation is improved.

B) The introduction of the course:

- The way a course is introduced determines to a large extent the expectations of the students/trainees as to what they can gain from participation.
- If there is a discrepancy between the promised aims and content of the course and the actual contents, students will be disappointed or frustrated or upset all influencing the learning situation. So make sure you know the needs of the students for whom you arrange a course and keep to the announced contents.

C) The motivation of the students:

- It is generally known that the more motivated, the more open and responsive are the students and the better is the learning situation.

Motivation can be achieved in several ways:

- The need of the students can be clearly repeated in the content so that students see that the course is an answer to their needs.
- Economic structure can be used as motivation-increase in salary/ stipend etc.
- Social structure can be used as motivation-promotion, eligibility to group membership, honour of having passed a course.
- Expected achievements may be motivation for participation.

2) Internal factors influencing the learning situation

A) The size of the group:

A number of experiments have shown that the smaller the group the more can be given to the students and the better learning situation. Also the smaller the group, the fewer "new faces" one has to become familiarized with, and sooner prepared for learning. The insecurity which human beings feel among "new faces" has a negative effect to one's ability to listen and learn. One has to know enough about one's group. Energy and time is consumed just to cover to know one another in a course. Often 2-3 days are spent on this until learning situation becomes positive.

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Other financial and time-constraints decide the size of a group. The teacher can compensate the negative effects of too big a group on the learning situation by arrangements which speed up the process of knowing each other and by splitting up the big group into smaller groups for purpose of discussions and practical exercises.

B) The composition of the group:

Not all participants have the same level of information, the same degree of motivation, the same background. Some students/trainees turn up very motivated, well prepared, others may be motivated but tired from heavy manual work etc.

The more heterogeneous the group, the more difficult is the teaching. Those who know less may want more detailed explanations, which may irritate those who already know. It may disturb the learning situation, as some students may abstain from putting forward their claims for better explanations; once out from active involvement, their learning situation will be negatively affected.

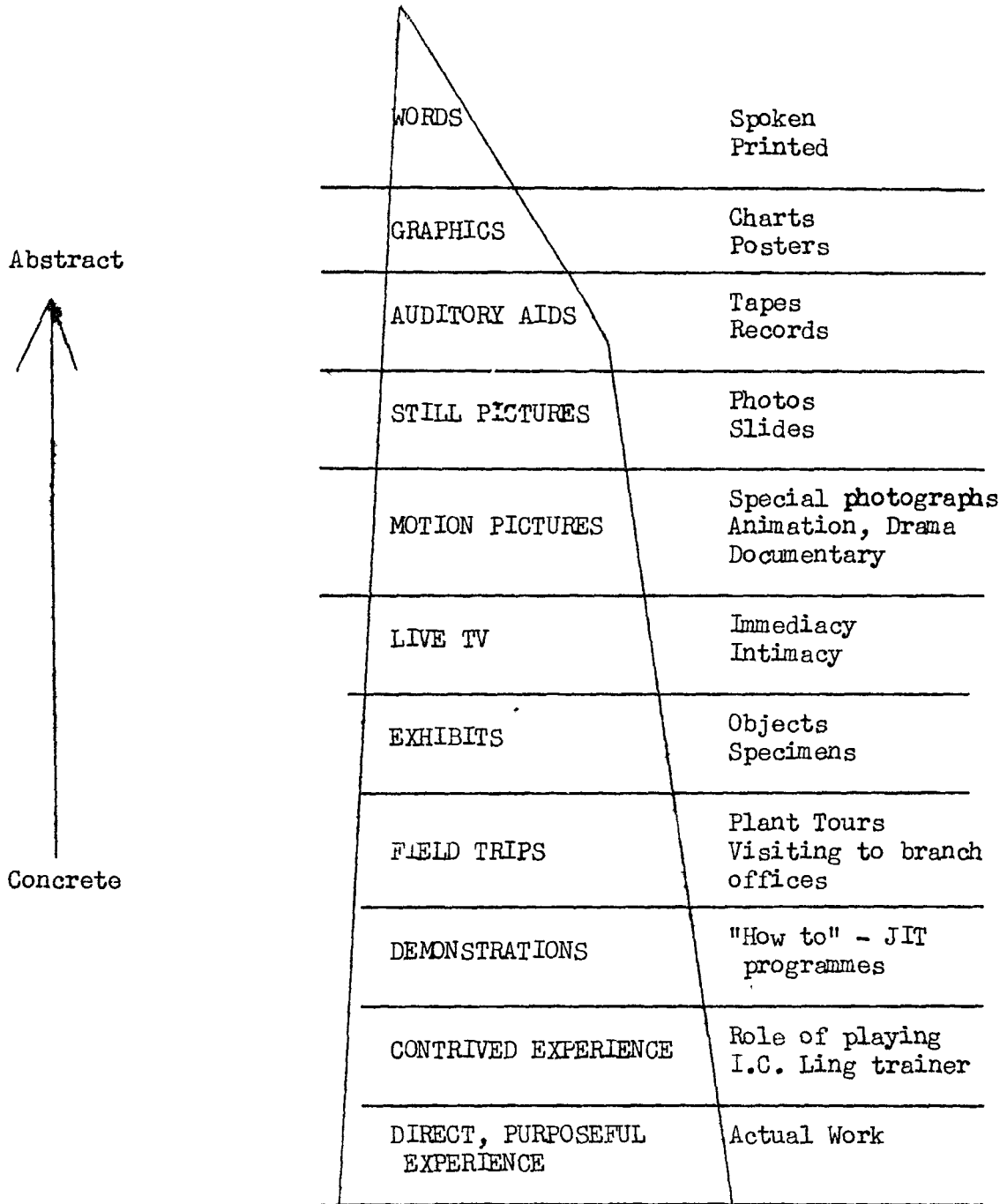
- For the teachers it is important to be aware of such differences, to be careful in selecting teaching method to try to equalize the level of knowledge and to pay attention to the tired part of the group, etc.

C) The teacher's choice of teaching methods:

During the years, series of teaching methods and techniques have been developed and tested with the aim of improving the learning situation for students/trainees. Since this will form a separate topic, only general remarks are given here:-

- The length of lecture: The longer a lecture the less chance that the students will remember and learn. Experiments have shown that the man's brain can only intensely concentrate for 4 seconds at a time on a certain topic/idea. Therefore repetitions and small breaks are needed.

- The reading from a manuscript makes students sleepy and less receptive. The learning is heavily attached negatively.
- The least fruitful for learning is continuous series of lectures. Students just cannot concentrate and remember one from another and learn very little from just passive listening.
- The most fruitful is a mixture of lectures, discussions and exercises where the students/trainees under the guidance of a teacher have a chance to practice and utilise the knowledge passed on to them. It gives the teacher a feed back on his teaching and the students a chance to claim repetition of what they did not fully grasp, and to test their own improvement. Of course, the latter technique demands much more preparation by the teacher. It is much easier to stand up and lecture without opening discussions and preparing meaningful exercises to test students improvements and own teaching methods. Too many teachers choose the "easy way". In selecting a proper teaching technique, 'Learning Pyramid' given at the end of this note will be helpful.



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COMMUNICATION SYSTEM IN TEACHING

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TRAINING AND TEACHING:

The purpose of training is to enable a person to acquire a mental or physical skill in the least possible time. Without guidance or instruction learning can be uneconomical of time and indeed often unsuccessful. Good training, therefore, begins with competent instruction.

A good instructor or teacher must first himself know the skill fully which he is required to teach. This is essential because as a consequence of his work, the trainees will acquire.

COMMUNICATION:

Teaching is a process of Communication for transferring knowledge, ideas and facts from teachers end to students end. The process through which this is achieved is called human communication system and the method and aid through which the system is regulated is called communication technique and communication aid.

The most important factor in good teaching and good instructing is effective communication. But one could ask the question - what is good teaching?

Basically a good teaching is a communication process which evoke in the learners mind similar patterns of ideas to those which exist in the teachers mind.

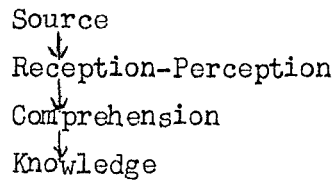
Human Communication to be effective is a two-way sharing process. The process could be divided into three stages:



S = Sender or communicator of message
M = Message
R = Receiver or audience of message

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The sequence of the communication process can be reduced to simple components as follow:



Words spoken by the teacher is the most important communication link between the teacher and the taught. Yet there are many occasions when spoken words just function as aids and a picture becomes the major source of communication.

SELECTION OF COMMUNICATION METHOD:

The effectiveness of communication depends largely on the media of communication.

In the selection of communication method the communicator should take into consideration the composition of the receivers. The receiver may compose of an individual or a group of individuals or a mass of individuals. Thus the communication method could also be classified into individual method, group method and mass method. The content of message decides the suitability for adoption of a particular method of communication.

For example if the purpose of communication is just to provide knowledge or awareness about a particular seed or fertilizer variety, the group or mass method could be suitable. In this case the communicator may not be interested in knowing the result of such message, and his main purpose may be to give publicity only.

The following are the main contents of the three methods:

1. Individual method: The message is direct between the expert and the receiver. But this type is not suitable for programmes involving the community. It is also time taking. However, there is perfect feed-back.

2. Group method: The group approach to communication and feed-back is suitable for such programmes which require group action. It is less time consuming and less costly. Though feed-back is possible but it is not sufficient. It also faces operational problems.

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3. Mass communication method: Here one could transmit message to a large population but can not get a feed-back. This is one of the limitations of Radio programmes. The communicator does not know the reaction of receivers.

In training situation one deals with individuals in groups in a class room situation and therefore, the individual communication method and group communication methods are adopted.

FACTORS INFLUENCING EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION:

For effective communication in training the followings are required:

- i. training situation,
- ii. clarity of message,
- iii. background of the trainees,
- iv. image of the trainer,
- v. relationship between trainer and trainee, etc.

In many learning situation, people learn more efficiently in a happy harmonious social atmosphere.

During a training lesson, a participant learn something by making a deliberate effort to do so. In this way they assimilate, some of the information which is taught and because deliberate learning is acquired with effort, it is tiring. On the other hand some learning appears just to happen and no conscious effort is involved. This unwitting learning has a powerful influence on the learner and is often reflected in his attitudes towards neatness, accuracy, safety, punctuality and behavior as well as in actual subject knowledge, skill and experience.

To exploit this aspect of the learning a trainer is required to make considerable effort. The trainer's own personal approach and appreciation towards learners problems will make his task easier. The involvement of the learner in the process of learning makes communication more effective. For example, when lecture method is combined with discussions it involves the learner in the process of communication and the trainer gets immediate feedback. Similarly, in many cases, the best way of supplementing a lecture is to show a film or a series of picture, or to use a model or to demonstrate with charts and diagrams the points which the trainer wants to communicate.

Once the trainer has identified his target group, the training situation and the background and other relevant factors it would be possible for him to select various medias of training/teaching. There is no hard and

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fast criterion on the basis of which one could judge the suitability of a particular teaching technique as the best communication media. The point to remember is that selection of teaching techniques should be made on the basis of the objectives to be achieved, the size of the group, the level of the group, the type of message to be communicated and the resources and time at the command of the teacher.

Once the students have acquired a general impression of the whole, its details must be taught until they are understood. This is usually easier for the learner if his attention is first directed to the simple aspects of the subject and then guided to increasingly complex ones, from particular examples to general ones and from the concrete to the abstract.

In preparing material to support this kind of learning sequence, a set of visuals may constitute the stimulus steps, each demanding some response on the part of the student with the teacher providing the reinforcement (and a smile is a very powerful source of reinforcement). Finally, because a desire for social approval spurs the will to work among the individuals, learners need to assess their progress and to compare it with that of others. To do this they must give the impression to what they have learned, and to derive a full measure of incentive from this express, their efforts should attract recognition. Thus, when a visual is prepared to supplement the communication, it should be designed as part of a particular process: it may be a clue to a particular perception: it may contribute to a learner's acquisition of the general idea of a whole area of subject matter: it may be component in a stimulus-response-reinforcement sequence or lastly it may provide part or all of the challenge which leads to a learner's involvement in a problem. Remember: what we hear we forget: what we see we remember: and what we do we understand. This make communication highly effective, the best course lies in combining the three with a sense of proportion.

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1. The Game: Request the participants to mention some of the different organisations/departments/persons with whom they are normally required to coordinate their activities and whose cooperation they normally seek. Then the trainer should write these in one corner of the chalk-board.

2. Group formation: Divide the class into 4 groups, G1, G2, G3 and G4. Ask the group members to sit in four corners and choose their own group leader.

3. Explain the rules of the game: If every group plays X everybody gets -1.

If three groups play X and one group plays Y, X's get +1 each and Y gets -1.

If two groups play X and two play Y, X's get +2 and Y's get -2.

If one group plays X and three play Y, X gets +3 and Y's get -1.

If all groups play Y, everybody gets +1.

4 X

X = -1 each

All play X

3 X 1 Y

X = +1 Y = -3

3 play X one plays Y

2 X 2 Y

X = +2 Y = -2

2 play X and 2 play Y

X 3 Y

X = +3 Y = -1

1 plays X and 3 play Y

4. Playing the game: Ask all the 4 groups to sit in four corners and ask every group leader to write his group number and X or Y on a piece of paper, without showing it to others and to hand it over to the teacher. After every three rounds, group leaders may be allowed to meet for a while and work out their own strategy. A bonus may be declared after 5th round and for some subsequent rounds. First bonus could be three times the score. Next time it could be 10 times the score. Then it could be 100 times the score. Then tabulate as shown in the table given in the next page and add. Analyse how this game, which was entitled "win as much as you all can", turns into a "loose loose" game instead of "win win game". After the game, the participants should be asked to explain their strategies and why they played a "loose loose" game instead of a "win win game".

<u>Group No.</u>	G1	G2	G3	G4
1st round				
2nd round				
3rd round				
4th round				
5th x 10				
6th x 10				
7th x 20				
8th 10				
9th 10				
10th 100				

DISCUSSIONS

The moral of the game is that if individuals/organisations want to achieve certain objectives/goals, they must play their cards in such a way that in the process they must help each other to achieve their objective/goals. If they try to be very selfish about caring for others, they will find that they are working against their own interests.

After playing the game, the participants will automatically realise that unless they work with others in a coordinated manner for mutual benefit, they will not be playing a "win-win game". They may then realise that the only way to achieve their objectives/goals is to work with others in a coordinated manner.

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THE LECTURE METHOD

We begin our study of training methods with one of the oldest and most basic - the lecture. Although experience and educational research show that the lecture is a relatively inefficient way to transfer knowledge, many instructors find themselves spending at least 30 to 50 per cent of their time lecturing. Why?

The use of lecturing depends on the subject matter, the teaching philosophy of the instructor or training centre, and the over-all learning situation. Formal lecturing has been used largely to build up basic theoretical knowledge which must be gained before practice or participative training sessions will be of any use. If there are large numbers of people to be trained, scarce teaching resources, or few hours available for instruction, lecturing may be the only alternative. A certain amount of informal lecturing is inherent in the conduct of any course, to set out the course objectives, motivate trainees, provide explanation and analysis relevant to study exercises.

Nevertheless, the lecture method has its limitations. Since it does not demand the active involvement of participants, it is largely unsuited to the teaching of skills, which require practice. It is also of limited value in promoting behavioural or attitudinal changes, which is a large part of management development. It is very difficult to convince anyone by merely talking at them; attitudes are changed best when people convince themselves. Participative methods are better for such purposes.

Apart from the fact that sixty minutes of unrelieved talking is not easily assimilated or remembered, the major disadvantage of the lecture comes from the fact that it is one-way communication. The listeners remain passive, for the most part. Unless the speaker is sensitive to his audience, he has no way of knowing whether or not they are taking in what he is saying. He has little opportunity to clarify meanings, to check on whether or not the trainees really understand what is being presented, or to handle the wide diversity of abilities and attitudes which they represent.

The lecturer, then, is bound to consider his communication problems before starting his lecture. He must study the nature of his audience, adapting his topic to their interests and level of understanding; must organise his material in the manner most likely to teach effectively, using aids where appropriate; must plan for variation in his presentation, including time for questions and discussion which will involve the audience and reveal what learning is taking place. What follows is a review of these basic steps in improving the instructional value of the lecture.

PLANNING THE LECTURE

Before starting to prepare your lecture, you must be able to answer four basic questions:

Who is your audience?	WHO
What is the purpose of your talk?	WHY
What is the time available?	HOW LONG
What is the subject matter?	WHAT

The audience. Who are they? Civil servants, top managers, specialists? Is their attitude likely to be friendly? curious? indifferent? hostile (or sceptical)? Know the characteristics of your audience: their background, likes and dislikes, cultural

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features, level and nature of education. Are they used to listening to lectures? How fast will they be able to take in what you say? This may also involve their knowledge of languages.

What does your audience know about the subject? What can you assume that they know before you start your lecture? It may be helpful to start with a general discussion or ask questions to get opinions. This approach will give you some idea about the knowledge of the group and allow you to make some last minute adjustments if necessary.

Purpose of the talk. What is the end result you wish to achieve? What do you want the audience to do or understand better as a result of your talk? Your approach will certainly vary depending on whether you wish to:

- give general information on, or an appreciation of, a subject;
- gain acceptance for a new point of view;
- change basic attitudes;
- give detailed information;
- teach a particular skill.

With a clearly-defined purpose in mind, it will be easier to select appropriate material and to decide on the most effective way to present it.

Time available. What is the total time available? How much of it will be taken up by formalities? How much time will you leave for questions and discussion?

A good instructor respects the clock by narrowing down or adjusting his lecture to suit the time available. He knows that it is better to have an audience still interested and wanting to know more after a short and fully-used period, than to have them tired and uninterested after a talk that has been unnecessarily

long. He also knows that a "sag-point" in the audience's interest occurs after about twenty minutes, and he plans his talk and his delivery so that interest is reawakened and passive listeners are reactivated from time to time by the use of interesting examples, humour, rhetorical questions, audience participation through discussion or question period, etc.

Subject matter: Poor choice of subject or lack of sufficient knowledge about it may mean death for a lecture. It is important to speak from your own knowledge and experience, but at the same time your topic and approach must be relevant to the needs and interests of the audience.

Having set yourself a general title, which you can make more precise later on, and bearing in mind your objective, mark down a few basic headings under which you can list ideas. Do not worry about order at this point; the first step is simply to gather material together. Get down everything you think you want to cover, consulting reference books and texts or previous lecture notes if necessary. Note down illustrative examples, anecdotes (as long as they are relevant) and quotes. Look up facts and figures. You may also think of ideas for discussion or quiz questions, for student exercises, or for visual aids, and these should be recorded alongside the points they will support.

After you have collected enough raw material, the next step is to sort it into "must say", "should say" and "could say" categories. What do you want the audience to remember at the end of the lecture? Put your emphasis on this and narrow down your subject accordingly, also bearing in mind the time available.

There is plenty of evidence to show that people generally remember a greater percentage of a short talk than of a long one. If you try to cover too much ground you will only confuse your audience. Do a little well, rather than a lot badly. Remember the iceberg. Only about one-seventh of its total mass is visible above the surface of the water. So it is with the lecture. Only a part of the total mass of information at your disposal may "rise above the surface" in the lecture room. But this visible part is just as truly supported by the rest as in the case of the iceberg.

At this point you are ready to reorganise your notes into logical order and work out a more detailed outline, using the following basic structure.

1. The introduction, which should be brief and to the point, presents the theme and objective of the talk in a manner designed to arouse the interest and curiosity of the audience right from the start. Opening remarks need to be planned and rehearsed with some care, as it is very largely that first impression which will motivate the audience to go on listening or to "switch off". Above all, try to avoid beginning with an apology. It is seldom necessary or relevant and it will not really help you to achieve your objective.

2. In the body of the talk, the main theme is developed in logical steps so that the most important points will be remembered. One step should quite naturally stem from the previous one so that the listeners are carried forward. Add illustrative examples, related to the audience's experience where possible, anecdotes, and instructive demonstrations to substantiate the points being made. Use visual aids to help the audience understand and remember what is important. Put these up sequentially, as each new point is raised. You may also want to allow time for questions and

discussion to clarify meanings. Keep an eye on the time so that audience participation does not prevent you from returning to your main points.

3. The type of conclusion you use will depend largely upon your objective, but at least give a brief recapitulation, in different words, of your main points (this is made easier when a visual display has been developed throughout the talk), plus some indication of "where do we go from here?" The quality of your conclusion may determine whether you achieve your over-all objective or not. For this reason, many speakers learn their conclusions off by heart.

PREPARING THE LECTURE

Draft the talk. Prepare the notes from which you will speak. Whatever type you use - cards, paper sheets - they should be easily readable (wide spacing, key words highlighted) and sequentially numbered to avoid possible confusion. Above all, notes should be notes and not a complete text. However, if you do write out sections of your talk in full, make sure that what you write is in the spoken language. You are not writing a book or an article, you are preparing something which is to be said out aloud so make sure that you write what you would say. If in doubt, say it aloud to yourself. Cut out the flowery phrases and long sentences.

Check that you will be able to cover the material you have selected comfortably in the time available. Try it out on a friend or with a tape recorder. Put approximate timings in the margin of your notes as a guide.

Plan and prepare visual aids. Various teaching aids may be employed to make the lecture more interesting and more easily assimilated by the listeners by engaging their sense of sight.

The fact of having to make them often forces the lecturer to clarify and organise his thoughts. Charts and graphs may make quantitative data more meaningful. Photographs, drawings and diagrams may clarify the details of complex objects and structure; real objects or models may serve the same purpose. An outline of main points will help the listeners to remember the material.

The lecturer has many means for presenting these teaching aids. They may be distributed to the audience before, during or after the lecture. They may be displayed on racks or tables in the room. They may be projected as slides, filmstrips, or films.

These training aids are double-edged tools that can cut both ways. They can gain the attention of the audience and help to provide information. But, unless they have been carefully selected and designed to support the lecture, they can actually distract attention from the points that the lecturer is trying to make. It might be better to use no aids than to work with the wrong ones.

Rehearse. Rehearsing the lecture is an essential step, even for most experienced lecturers. If a rehearsal audience can be recruited, the speaker has an opportunity to check his speech and his delivery of it. This may reveal points at which he is unintentionally unclear, transitions that are made too abruptly for his listeners to follow, and other errors that can creep into even the best planned lecture. Since the lecturer knows clearly what he means to say, he may be the worst judge of whether or not he has clearly said it.

Try out your visual aids, finalising plans for their arrangement, ensuring that they are readable and clearly visible in the training room.

The chief value of the rehearsal is in familiarising the speaker with his speech. Even experienced lecturers suffer from stage fright on occasions. One or two dry runs through a lecture can build a speaker's confidence in himself and in his material.

DELIVERING THE LECTURE (Points about Speaking)

The written word can only be of limited help when it comes to advice on speaking technique. What is needed is practice followed by constructive criticism. Some of the essential points to keep in mind are set forth below:

Setting the scene. Make sure that you arrive at the appointed place a few minutes ahead of time so that you can check the physical arrangements which have been made for you, such as layout of the chairs and tables, lectern, teaching aids, provision of chalk and eraser. Try out any unfamiliar pieces of equipment you intend to use. You may also use the time to talk with your chairman and size up your audience if you haven't met them before.

Covering the material. Start punctually. Speak from your notes if necessary but do not put your nose into them; read a phrase, pause and look at the audience. If you get lost, stop, consult your notes without "flapping" and carry on. In any case, do not read all your lecture or you will have no audience left by the time you finish.

Leave time for questions at the end. If you have more than one main point it may help to pause at the end of each one for questions. If you don't know the answer to a question then say so without hesitation and without embarrassment. Ask if anyone in the audience knows the answer; if not, suggest where they may be able to find it, or offer to find out yourself.

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Finish on time. When the scheduled closing time comes, if some people are still asking questions and seem to want to go on doing so, get the chairman to close the meeting formally. Those who wish to go may then leave and the others may stay and continue the discussion.

Posture. If you have a choice, speak from a position that is comfortable for you but appropriate to the situation. The main advantage of standing is that everyone can see you; it is also the convenient position from which to manipulate most visual aids. However, with a small group seated around a conference table, the informality of sitting may be desirable. Some speakers prefer to use a lectern because it holds notes at standing height.

Appearance. Have a look in the mirror. Speakers should make sure that there is nothing about their personal appearance which is out of harmony with the occasion or which is likely to irritate the audience or distract their attention. Clothes should be neat and suitable for the occasion. One should look confident and friendly (even if nervous) as audiences are very susceptible to first impressions.

Manner. Be poised. Any kind of leadership - talking before a group, organising a discussion - requires a certain confidence and dignity to gain and hold the attention of the group.

Be courteous. Careless choice of language or humour or a thoughtless gesture may create barriers to communication which will be difficult to overcome later.

Be sincere. Audiences are quick to judge speakers - they are not misled by cleverness and they don't like insincerity. Say what you mean and say it as if you meant it. Be yourself - don't try to imitate anyone else. Be enthusiastic, let your talk

reveal and convince the audience of your own interest in the subject.

Establish eye contact with your audience. A speaker who is continually looking out of the window or down at his notes or visual aids is not doing his share in the communication process. Speak to all the audience and not just to the front row; if it is a large audience look first at one part and then at another. Don't fix on one particular person or group of persons; you end up ignoring the others.

Gesture. Any actions and gestures must be natural and spontaneous; if they are forced then it is best to do without them. They should also be purposeful and not just a flapping of the hands. Mannerisms - jiggling coins, playing with the chalk, walking about the platform for no apparent reason - should be avoided, as they are distracting and sometimes extremely annoying. Get your weight evenly distributed on both feet and then anchor yourself. Try to avoid leaning on the table or the lectern or putting your hands in your pockets. Consider carefully before smoking during your lecture.

Voice. The tone of the voice can be altered to convey confidence, emotion, emphasis and indignation. Pace and volume should be varied occasionally to avoid monotony. Some people, probably due to nervousness, do lose some of their normal expressiveness when they are in front of a group. With a little conscious effort, this can be corrected. Rehearsal helps; it takes away some of the strangeness and novelty of the actual

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Speech should follow the rate of thought and remarks should be allowed to tell upon the audience. Don't be afraid of pause and silences - they can be very effective if employed to emphasise, to create suspense for what is to follow, to allow an idea to sink in or to mark a question. Don't gabble - it is always better to speak slowly than to speak too quickly.

Remember that you are inviting the audience to listen to you. Speak to them as individuals and throw your voice to the back row so that all can hear. This does not mean that you must shout.

Vocabulary. It is best to use everyday language, avoiding slang, which could be misunderstood, preferring short, familiar words and keeping sentences short. Be very careful with "funny" stories - especially if you are not a born story teller, or if the audience is unknown to you. Choose stories that are relevant to the point you are trying to make.

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Extract from: "In Introductory Course in
Teaching and Training Methods
for Management Development"

ILO Publication, Geneva

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TECHNIQUE OF TEACHING - LECTURE METHOD

Lecturing has been the traditional technique of teaching. This is used for imparting information, expounding principles, analysing data, explaining problems.

For this method to be effective, the lecturer must have adequate preparation, proper plan, clarity of ideas, fluency of expression. The posture and gestures of the lecturer also create an impact on the audience.

Prior study and preparation are so important that the lecturer should rather drop the lecture than lecture without study and preparation. He must plan his lecture properly if the first lecture - its introduction, development of the theme with appropriate illustrations and conclusion. If the lecture is the second and subsequent one in a series through which a topic is planned to be covered, the subsequent lecture should start with a quick recapitulation of important points made in the earlier lecture.

Lecture has to be adjusted to the level of understanding, knowledge and experience of the audience. It is often useful to ask a few short questions - written quizzes - requiring straight brief answers - as they enable the lecturer to find out the extent of knowledge and understanding the participants already have. The lecturer can then build up his lecture on that base and lead the participants to fields of new knowledge and better understanding.

A good and accomplished lecturer can make even a difficult and complicated subject easy of understanding and hold the attention of the audience throughout.

But even a good lecture can be boring if it is a mere flow of words and words. Sometimes it may pass over or through the

audience without the ideas being properly registered. So the lecturer even while lecturing must make imaginative use of appropriate aids such as the chalk board, flip chart, pictures, diagrams and wherever possible epidiastope for projecting printing material from opaque surface or transparencies, slides, film strips and even films.

A lecturer would find it helpful to give to the participants synoptic notes in which main points of the topic are given in brief. If mere information is given in a detailed note, that will obviate the need to give basic information in the lecture as the participants could read it in advance. In such cases, the lecturer could confine himself to drawing the attention of the participants to the important points and explaining points inadequately understood.

Lecture is often regarded as a one-way traffic of ideas and information from the lecturer to the participants. But it need not be so. The lecture can and should provoke the participants to react with questions and comments either to seek clarification or to contest the views presented by the lecturer. Some lecturers do not mind and in fact invite the participants to interrupt with questions whenever they feel unclear or with comments whenever they may not agree with the lecturer. Others prefer not to have their chain of thinking broken by such interruptions or not to have the participants anticipate through questions what is to follow as per the lecture plan. They should in that case plan the lecture in such a way that adequate time is allowed towards the end before the close, when questions could be asked and comments offered.

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GROUP DISCUSSION METHOD

While lecturing is a method of teaching, group discussion is a method of learning. To be more precise it is a process of mutual learning. There is no teacher in the group, but all are learners who learn from each other. Each member of the group brings into the common pool his knowledge and experience and views based on the knowledge and experience. Discussions enable exchange of this knowledge and experience and enrich the members of the group. Such group discussions could be arranged as a follow up of a lecture, some issues raised in the lecture being taken up for discussion or could be arranged independent of a lecture. A lecture is usually followed by questions or comments and answers or explanations. But in such cases the lecturer continues to function as an authority on the subject. That converts the one-way traffic of a lecture into a two-way traffic. But in a group discussion, there is no one authority and there is multi-way traffic i.e. each member of the group can react to every other member and speak out.

When group discussion is not as a follow up of a lecture, it can be extempore or any topic which might raise a variety of views. The discussion could also be preceded by serious study undertaken by the members independently on an agreed subject so that the members would be well informed and have their opinions well founded.

Groups for discussion have to be small enough to allow scope for every member of the group to participate in the discussions which is not possible in the questions and comments in a big gathering following a lecture. A discussion group should have 8 to 10 members. The group should elect its own chairman or discussion leader and a secretary or recorder.

The chairman has a very important role. He has to introduce the topic for discussion or he may invite any member to introduce the topic. The introduction has to be brief, outlining the scope and highlighting the main issues. Thereafter he has to conduct, guide and control the discussion, members straying away from the outlined scope have to be gently yet firmly required to confine to the scope earlier outlined. Some members, over enthusiastic, impatient might start speaking, but have to be requested to take turns one by one. If any member tends to take up unduly long time, he has to be required to be brief and precise so that one or a few may not monopolise all the time available. On the other hand some members of a shy or withdrawing temperament have to be coaxed to come out with their contributions. The chairman can give facts known to him and also express his views, but he has to subject himself to the same restrictions as the other members have been subject to.

When the allotted time for discussion draws to the end, the chairman has to wind up, referring to the main points made.

The secretary or recorder has to note down the different points made by different members of the group and indicate whether different view points could be reconciled and a common view point emerged or whether the differences persisted and the members agreed to differ.

Where such groups have been formed from a bigger group or gathering, the bigger group should have a plenary session when the reports of different groups could be presented. In such cases after presentation of group reports, comments on each report could be invited from members of the other groups. The chairman of the plenary session should do the summing up.

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Such group discussions may consume more time than a lecture on the topic by one lecturer. But group discussion, providing opportunities for participative learning could motivate the participants for more earnest, sincere and intensive study.

In training executives and administrators, group discussions constitute not merely useful technique for learning any topic but also a useful exercise to learn the technique of participating in and conducting conference which the executives and administrators have often to do as a part of their management or administrative function. Therefore in any training programme as many opportunities as possible should be provided for group discussions when, as many members of a group are afforded a chance to be the chairman of the group and conduct the discussions.

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PRINCIPLES FOR SELECTION OF TEACHING/
 TRAINING TECHNIQUES AND METHODS

- Dr. G. Ojha
 Education Officer(CEMAS)
 ICA ROEC, New Delhi -

There is no hard and fast rule on the basis of which a teacher could judge the suitability of a particular teaching technique as the best communication media. A teacher has to consider a number of factors such as the objectives to be achieved, the level of knowledge of the target population, the size of the group, the type of the message to be communicated (subject area) and the resources and time at the command of the teacher.

Broadly speaking, we could classify the various factors that influence the choice of training techniques and methods into four groups:

- (i) Human factor,
- (ii) Environmental factor,
- (iii) Training objectives and the subject area, and
- (iv) Time and material factor.

(i) Human Factor: Teacher and the student are the main persons among whom the communication is supposed to take place during training. The teacher's personal knowledge, experience and his personality are the most important factors. "The teacher has to have a clear and significant message to pass, and his personality has to be acceptable to the students or trainees so that effective communication links can be established quickly and easily". In the selection of teaching method the teacher has to assume personal responsibility for choosing the best method for a particular

subject area. This means that the teacher should himself make a rational appraisal of his own abilities and try to employ such methods which could help the process of learning. As a matter of fact a trainer should not be rigid about any particular method but should try to use a variety of method. It will provide an opportunity to the teacher to assess the suitability of one method over the other to deal with a given subject area.

As has been pointed out the other important person in the training, apart from the teacher is the student.

(ii) Environmental Factor: In deciding upon the teaching technique and method the teacher must respect.

- (a) the intellectual level and educational background of the participants;
- (b) the participants age and practical experience; and
- (c) the social and cultural environment.

For example if a teacher is to organise a training programme for the lower level management in cooperatives (i.e. middle level or junior level managers and supervisory staff or members secretaries), the teacher replace the lecture method by short talks using visual aids, telling them real life stories and experiences rather than lecture. One real life example will be worth hours of lecturing. The choice of such technique is mostly due to the fact that the people at there level, by enlarge, have only basic education and they have long discontinued the regular education. To keep them interested it is essential to involve them.

Again, participants could be under two categories, one with little practical experience the others with long practical experience. In the first case all the information passed by the teacher could be new and here the teacher may find a problem in

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linking the teaching process with past experiences. On the other hand, in training people one has to give only the additional knowledge and relate the participants experience with the past experience. It has been found that in such cases the second group of participants develops a sense of self complacency. Under these circumstances the teacher should choose such techniques and methods which could fully involve the participants in the learning process and could provide them an opportunity to reorienting themselves.

There is no point in talking or lecturing under these situations. The methods best suited are practical assignments, case study, lecture-cum-discussion or simulation exercises, management games, etc.

(iii) Training Objectives and the Subject Area: The third important factor which influences the choice of technique is the objective of the teaching and training.

It is presumed that a well worked out training programmes clearly identifies the training objectives and the changes expected to be effected among the participants in the performance of their jobs on the completion of the training. If the training objectives are clearly stated in terms of the changes to be effected in the existing knowledge skills and attitudes, it is easier to select the training technique and method. Methods which could be selected will have relevance to their ability to achieve these objectives.

However, the subject area to be treated by the teacher plays an important role in making a decision regarding the choice of technique. For example, the teaching of Audit & Accounts (including book-keeping) is a subject which could hardly be effectively taught through lecture without the help of exercises and practical work.

In dealing with such a subject a good teacher will combine the use of Audio-Visual Aids and practical exercises to impart given skill to his students. Similarly, the training in salesmanship to the salesmen of the consumer stores could not be effectively imparted without exposure to the real life situation. In such cases, the technique of Role Play and Case Study could also be used profitably.

Again, a teacher cannot effectively train a Manager of an Agricultural Cooperative Society through his lecture and lesson handouts. He must expose his participants to the real life situation in which a marketing manager functions. This could be achieved by taking the participants to an Agricultural Marketing society on study visits where they could study the problems. Case Studies, Syndicate, Role Play technique could also be used profitably.

In management training and education the problem faced by a teacher is not so much the problem of how to deal with a specific subject areas and its functions. Teachers real problem is how to effectively explain the relationship between the various functions of the enterprise. His another problem is how to help the students in avoiding taking a over-simplified and one sided view to multi-dimensional situations.

And lastly, he has to see how he could promote and management skills among the participants.

As has been pointed out earlier the teacher and the student are the most important factor in training and hence the teacher must choose the technique of training in relation to the subject area and level of knowledge of the students. There is no short-cut method to help the teacher in deciding upon a technique. own

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experience and judgement about the suitability of various methods is the best guide.

(iv) Time and Material Factors. Time and material factors (particularly resources in terms of money) is the other important factor which influences the decision about the choice of technique. Some of the teaching techniques, like case studies, role plays, business games, etc. requires much more effort on the part of the teacher to prepare himself than the other methods like lecture method or group discussion. These methods also cost more in terms of money. Hence the choice for selecting between the one method or the other will be influenced by the time and resource factors available with the teacher.

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TECHNIQUE OF GROUP DISCUSSION

- Dr. G. Ojha
Education Officer(GEMAS)
ICA ROEC, New Delhi

1. Meaning of Group Discussion?

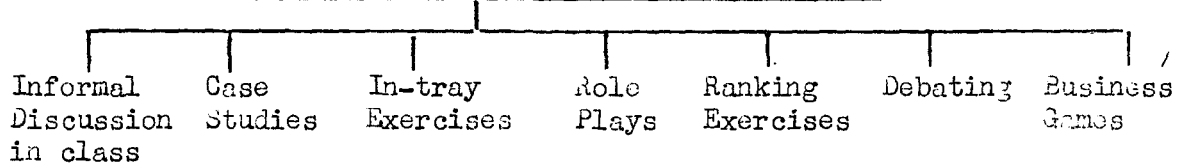
a set of people Exchange of views
 on certain topics/problems

2. Why group discussion?

Because the way people think and act in groups often differ from the way they think and act individually.

3. There are a variety of teaching techniques which involves group discussion.

4. Teaching Techniques involving Group Discussion



5. The basic aim of all types of group discussion technique is to involve the participants in the learning process - in short it is a process which promotes learning by doing.

6. Arrangements for group discussion.

- i. Sitting arrangement be as such that each could see other members of the group.
- ii. The group has to work within a given time schedule.
- iii. Have a black board available and encourage its use.

- iv. The group should not be of more than 5 to 7 persons.
- v. If possible provide separate room for each group to work alternatively provide them separate sitting space.

7. Role of the teacher:

- i. The teacher should make it clear that all the members in group is expected to take part in the discussion but long speeches to be avoided.
- ii. Teacher should be prepared with the question or problem to be discussed by the groups - Distribute prepared background material in advance.
- iii. The questions or issues for discussion should be well-defined and clear.
- iv. Let the groups choose a chairman whose functions will be:
 - (a) to keep the discussions to the point - but he himself should make speeches or try to force the discussion in a particular direction,
 - (b) the chairman should ensure the participation of every member of the group in the discussion, and
 - (c) he should control such members tactfully who become too vocal denying chance for others to speak.
- v. Ask the group to choose a secretary who will report on main points of the discussion at the end of the discussion. This helps the group ^{to} see what has been accomplished.
- vi. At the end the teacher's job is:
 - (a) to summarise the discussion; after all the group reports are presented,
 - (b) to identify points of agreement and conclusion,
 - (c) to point out issues that will require further study, and
 - (d) if necessary, to add his own views and comments.

8. Advantages of group method :

- i. It helps avoid monotony and boredom and stimulates interest.
- ii. It encourages people to talk and express their opinion - and learn from the experience of others.
- iii. The participants try to remember the points they have to talk or defend.
- iv. It is a cooperative exercise through which group seeks solution to problems.
- v. From teacher's angle it is easier to correct a few group solution than many individual ones.
- vi. It is a good method to achieve attitude change among the participants.

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COURSE IN TRAINING METHODOLOGY
& TECHNIQUES FOR AFGHAN TEACHERS

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Force Field Analysis is a systematic way of analysing any given problem situation with the objective of identifying the possible solutions to improve the existing situation. Force Field Analysis is based on the assumption that any given situation at a given point of time can be understood as a resultant of two types of forces acting on it. The first type of forces are called as 'Driving Forces', and the second type are called as Restraining Forces. Every situations or a given problem has an objective or an end-state which is desirable. In order to reach the end-state a number of things may have to be done. At a given point of time the movement towards the goal or the end-state can be assumed as stationery. This equilibrium can be understood as a resultant of the two types of forces mentioned above. Driving Forces are those that push the existing situation towards the ultimate goal that is desired. These forces facilitate the movement towards achieving the goals. The restraining forces are those which hinder the movements towards the goal or act against it. Several examples can be taken from the national scene and can be analysed using this technique both at the macro and micro level. To give an example at macro level the existing situation in India in relation to population control can be analysed as a resultant of several driving and several restraining forces acting on it.

Each of these forces will have different strength. Some forces may contribute highly towards the movement in the forward or backward direction in achieving the goal. Some forces may be very weak. Some forces may be irreversible or unchangeable. Some other forces may be easy to change.

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In using Force Field Analysis as a technique of problem solving the following steps are followed:

1. Define the ultimate goal or objective or the desired end-situation.
2. Locate the existing situation diagrammatically on a straight line where one end of the straight line represents the desired goal state and the other end represents starting point.
3. List the various forces that are blocking the movement towards goal and those that are acting against the movement. Brain-storming in group settings has been found to be very useful in making an exhaustive list of restraining forces. As many forces as possible should be listed without debate. There could be differences of opinion on some but it is useful to list even controversial forces.
4. Make an exhaustive list of driving forces as above using brain-storming techniques. Some of the driving forces may be just opposite of the restraining forces.
5. Using brain-storming techniques add as many new forces as possible to the existing list of driving forces. At this stage do not think of the possibilities. It is useful to suspend rationalistic thinking in brain storming and list them.
6. Quantify the strength of each force (both restraining and driving forces) on a 5 point scale where 5 indicates that the force is very strong and point 1 indicates a weak force in the direction indicated.
7. Remove all the forces one by one through discussion about which the problem solving group has no control or can do nothing about it.
8. Select those driving forces which are very weak. Identify the mechanism of strengthening these forces through discussion.
9. Select new forces which could be added and identify the mechanism of introducing these forces through discussion.
10. Select the strong forces among the restraining forces. Identify the mechanisms of weakening of these forces.
11. Identify the mechanisms of removing some of the restraining forces.

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12. Work out an action plan to introduce change to bring out the desired end-state.

Force Field Analysis does not require any special skills for using it. It is a systematised approach towards problem solving. The use of Force Field Analysis in groups has been found to be an effective way of bringing about change. There have been several experiments conducted in the past which indicate that through a systematic analysis of this kind, change can be brought in easily.

Managers and administrators when faced with problems or when they find that they have not been able to achieve targets they desired, it is useful to have a group meeting of their staff or team members and do a Force Field Analysis of the situation. They should be prepared to spend at least 1/2 day to 1 day on this. Familiarization with brain-storming techniques would help greatly in conducting such sessions effectively.

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Instruction SheetSquare making Game

Management games have proved very useful to introduce certain concepts. Today we will play a square making game. You are requested to observe the following rules carefully.

Each one of you would be given an envelop containing certain pieces of papers. You have not to open till you are advised to do so.

2) On opening an envelop you have to attempt to prepare a square with the help of the peices of papers in the envelop. You will be sitting in group of 5.

You can accept any piece of paper from the group member when it is offered however you have not to ask for.

You have not to take amongst your group member nor you have to show by gesture that you are in need of peices which is with your group member.

You will be given 5 minutes to make a square.

In a group one who forms the wquare first has to raise his hand.

This is a competition. His name should be recorded. He would be eligible for a prize.

The person who has completed the square if he so desires break his square to help his members form their wquares.

When all group members form squares they should raise their hands. The group thus, forming the square earlier would also be entitled to get a prize.

One member from you would be asked to act as an observer who shall comment upon your play during the game. You will also be given a chance to give your observation on the game. Finally all shall kindly list out the lesson that we have learned by playing this game.

SQUARE MAKING EXERCISE

Important Instructions

1. Attached are the five (5) solutions of square making exercise.

2. While using these, please ensure that the envelopes which are to be distributed among the participants should have the following combinations :

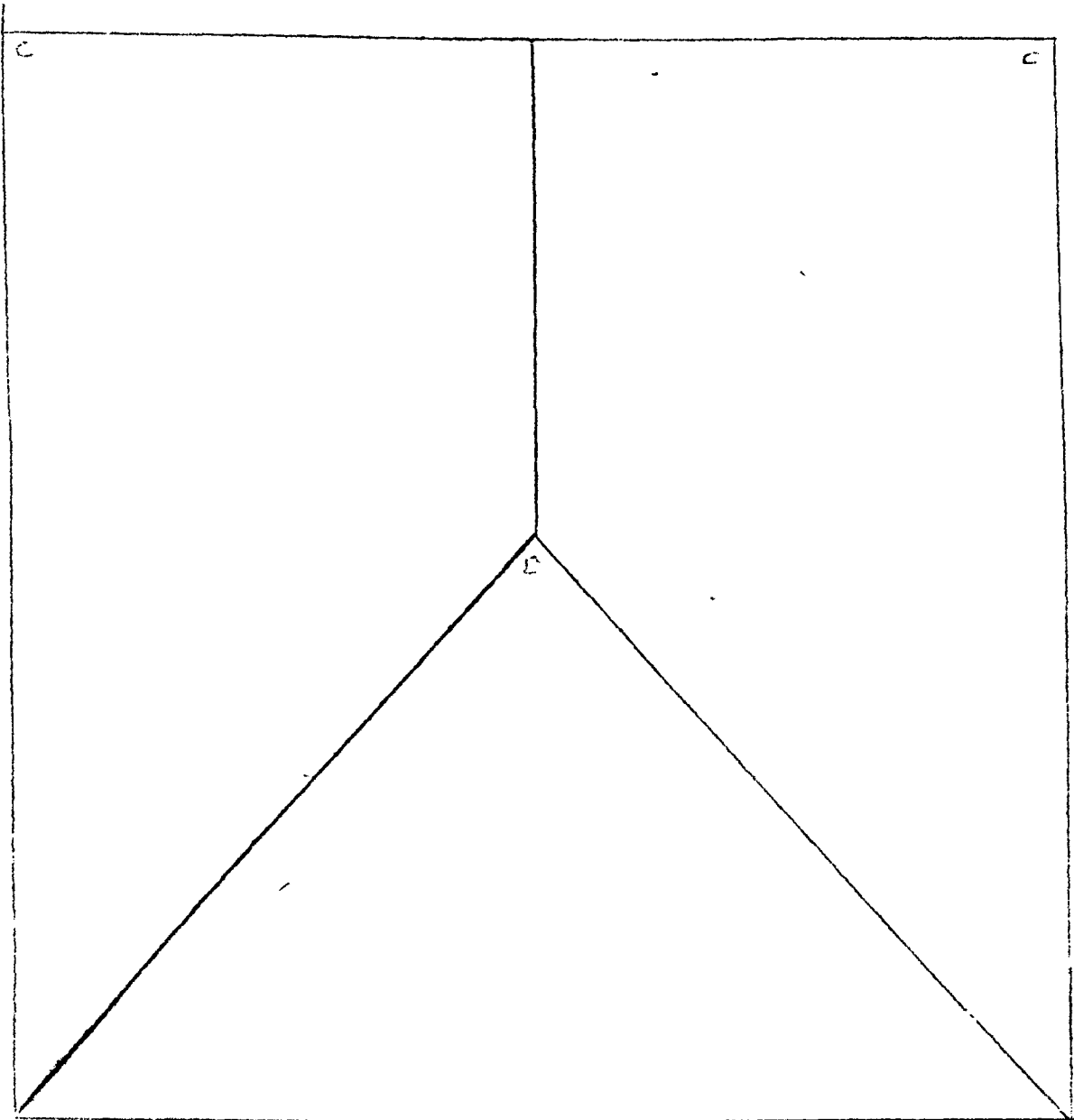
Envelope No. 1	A, I.
Envelope No. 2	J, H, E.
Envelope No. 3	G, B, F, C.
Envelope No. 4	D, F.
Envelope No. 5	A, A, A, C.

3. The exercise will be useful only if the envelopes have the above-mentioned combinations and NOT those which are attached herewith. The enclosed combinations are the final product.

SQUARE-MAKING EXERCISE

Contents of envelope No. 1

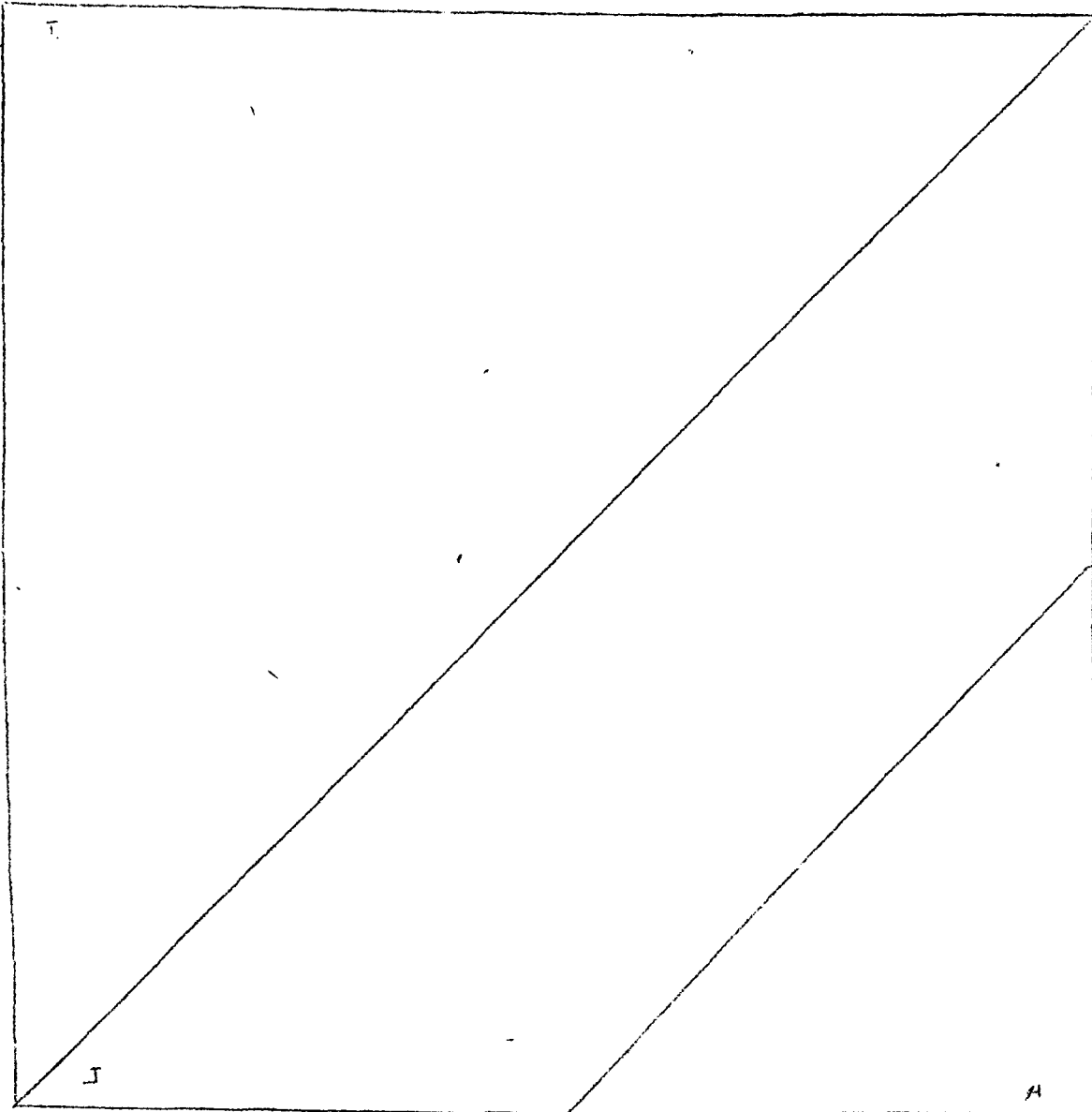
(Please draw these on hard board and cut along the lines.)



SQUARE-MAKING EXERCISE

Contents of envelope No. 2

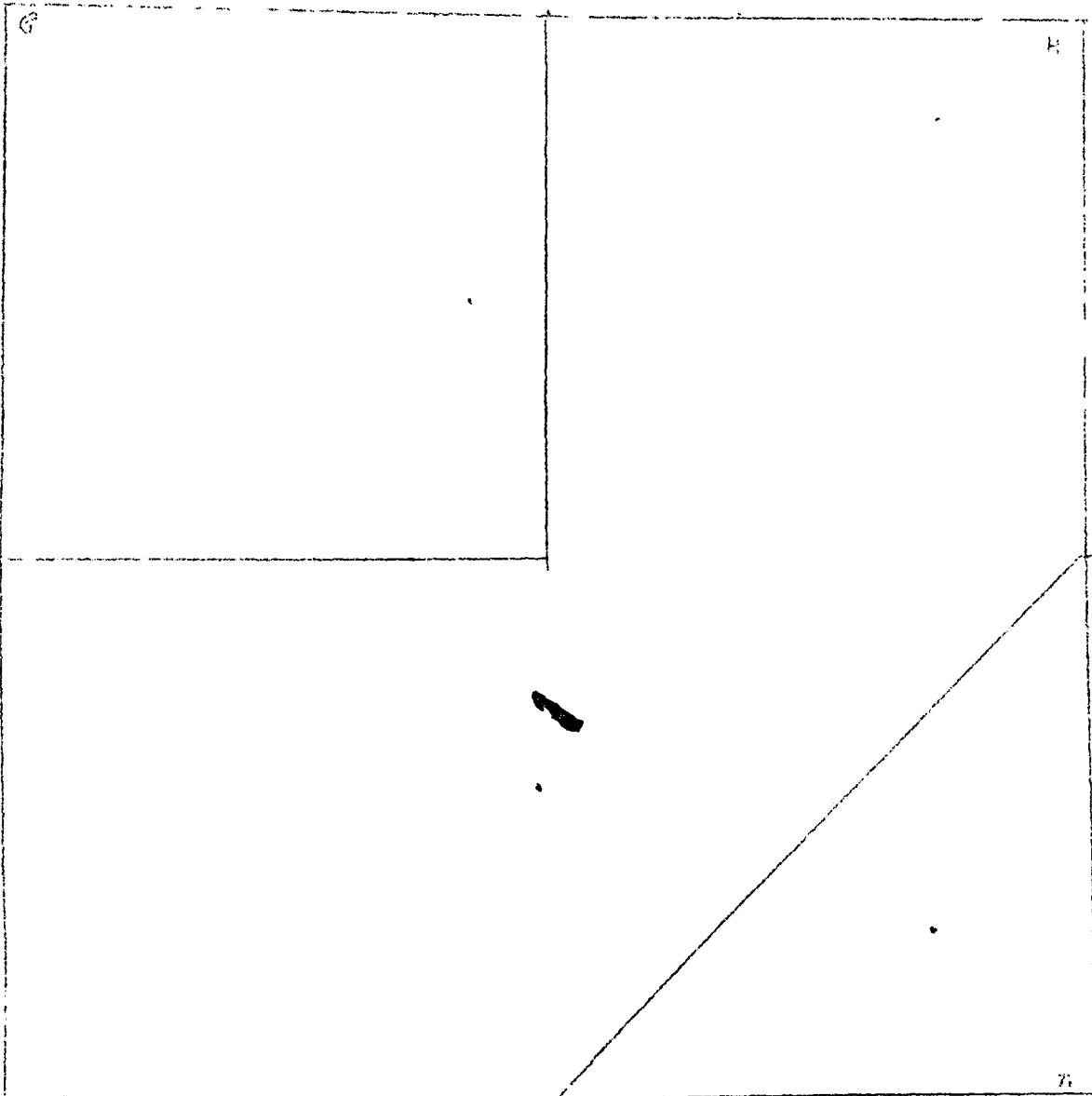
(Please draw these on hard card board and cut along the lines.)



SQUARE-MAKING EXERCISE

Contents of envelope No. 3

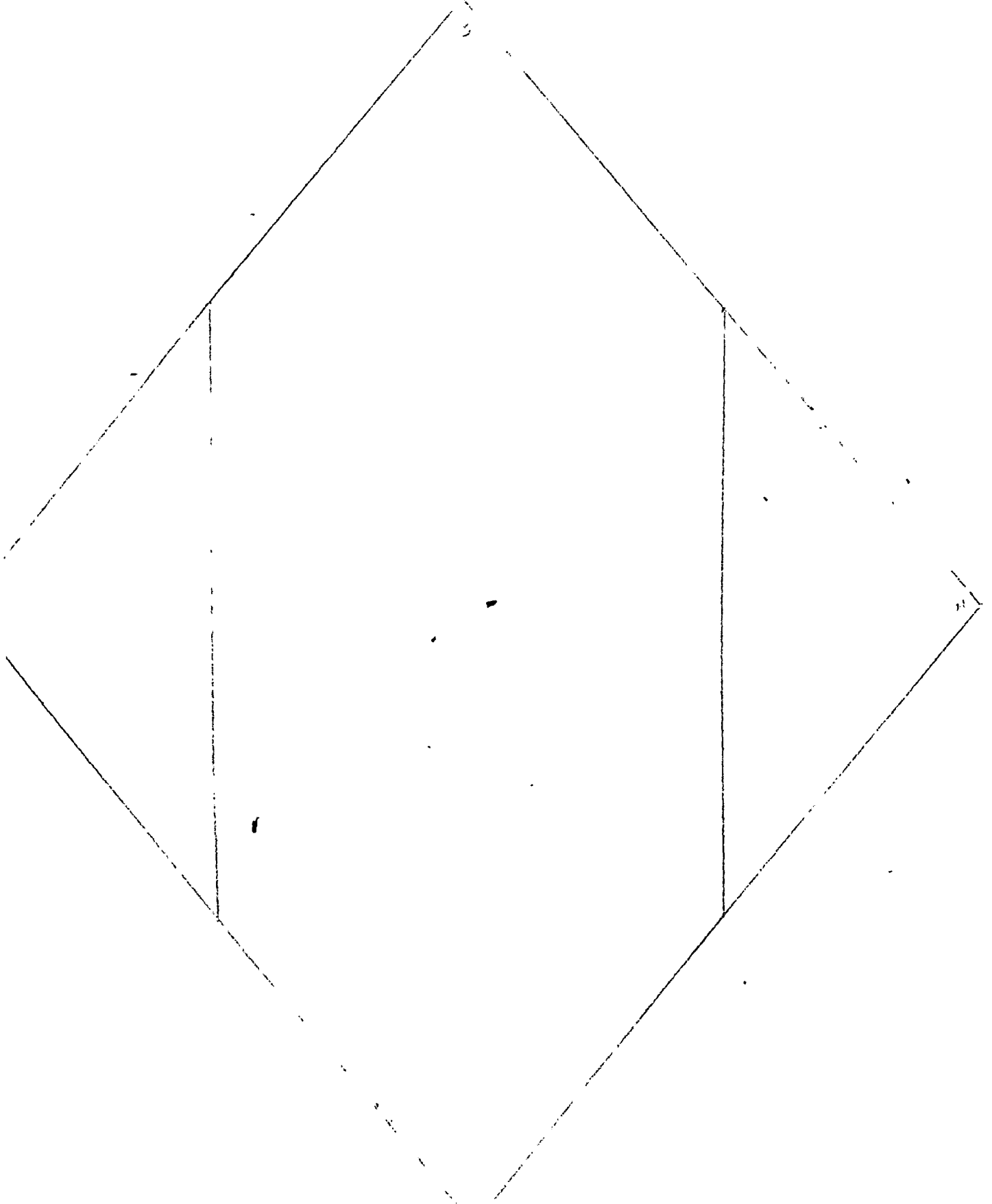
(Please draw these on hard board and cut along the lines.)



SQUARE-MAKING EXERCISE

Contents of envelope No. 4

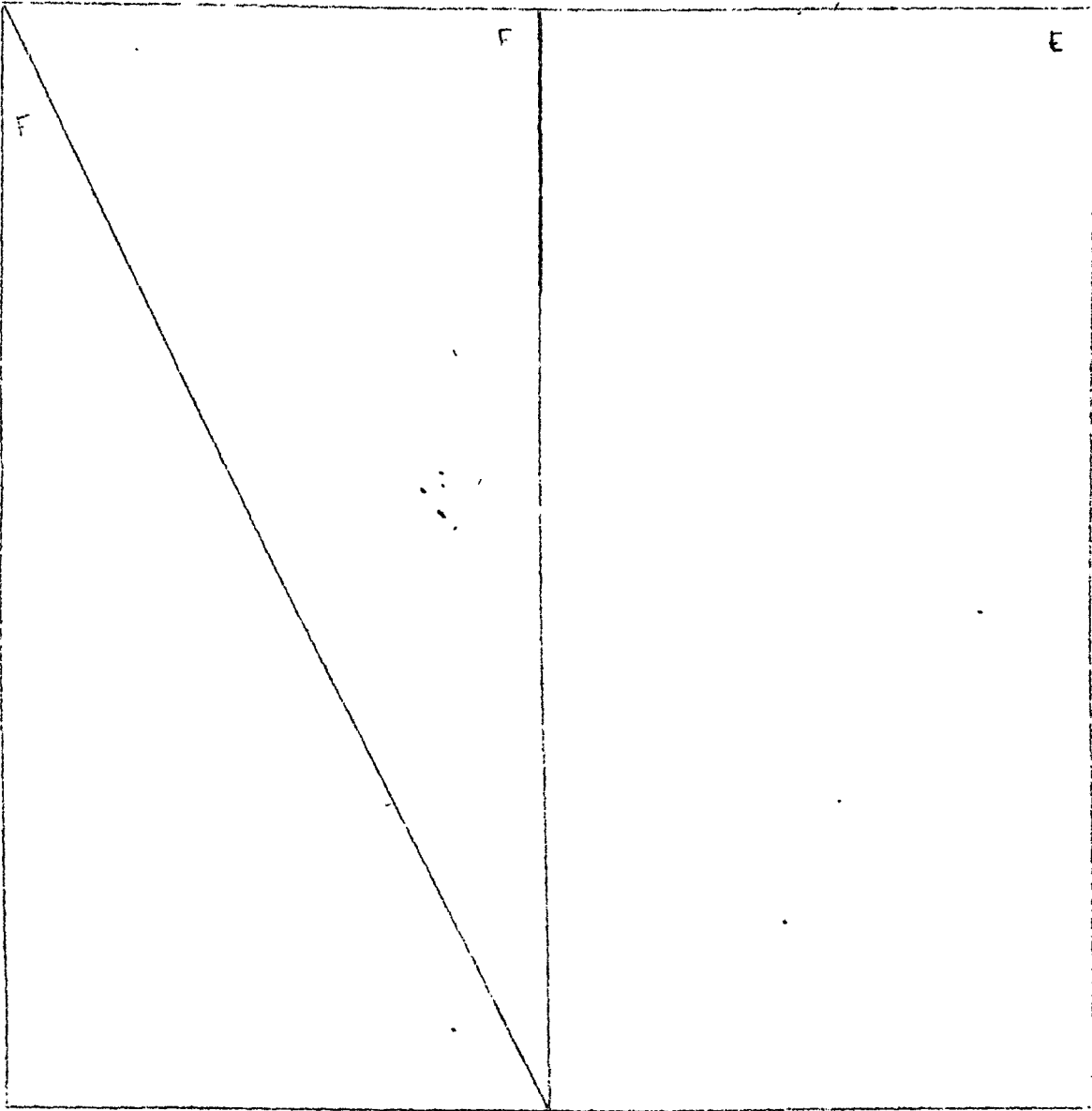
(Please draw these on hard board and cut along the lines.)



SQUARE-MAKING EXERCISE

Contents of envelope No. 5

(Please draw these on hard board and cut along the lines.)



VAIKUNTH MEHTA NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF COOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT
R.B.I. Building, Ganeshkhind Road,
PUNE-411 016.

G R O U P D I S C U S S I O N

Dr. S.C.Mehta
Professor.

Meaning:

Group Discussion is one of the important participative techniques of teaching which has decidedly been found more effective than the conventional lecture method. It is an organised conversation in which members of a group actively participate and exchange ideas with a certain aim in view.

The members analyse an issue or a situation, raise objections, make suggestions, subject the issue to a critical scrutiny and arrive at a consensual synthesis. Group Discussion is a democratic method of education in which the members learn through the interaction of each other's ideas, practise articulation of their views and generally make effective contribution to the solution of the particular problem.

It is a process of joint deliberation in which members are offered opportunities to appraise their viewpoints, absorb ideas of others and grow in understanding and ability in the process. They also shoulder responsibility for decisions taken and also for their implementation.

Number of participants:

The number of members in a group may vary according to the purpose, but to evoke fruitful discussion, the group should be small

in which everyone could have his say. It forges a friendly and informal atmosphere in which acceptance of each other's viewpoints becomes easier. Hence, normally the number should be kept between five and fifteen.

Composition of the group:

A homogenous group would certainly help in mutual give and take, but stretched too far, it may lead to standardisation and confirmity of ideas. For effective discussion and unravelling of a the different facts \angle problem, it is desirable to have members with varying viewpoints. One member may possess a good memory for presenting facts; another, an analytical mind to help the group to scan those facts and still another, the ability to **assimilate** the different facts, to come to a rational solution.

But the diversity of interest and ability should not be so intense so as to cause dissension, due to ego or vanity. There should be a common desire to share, to contribute, to appreciate and to deliberate jointly through the process of cross-germination of ideas. A display of arrogance by any members would inhibit fruitful discussion, shutting off some and defying others to be combative.

Discussion Leader:

The success of group discussion as a teaching technique depends considerably on the capacity of the discussion leader.

He should be able to bring out, plan, organize, direct, control and coordinate the efforts of the members. He should ensure that the discussion is on the right track and is not lost in irrelevant bylanes, so that it steadfastly moves towards the right conclusion.

He should draw out those who are reserved and restrain those who seem to monopolize the discussions. He need not be a very knowledgeable person, but it would be necessary that ^{he} knows a little more than others of the subject, to enable him to enjoy the confidence and respect of the group, so that he could channelise the discussions in proper directions.

Duties of the leader:

(a) To plan the discussion: The topic of discussion, necessary study and reference materials, size and composition of the group, discussion room arrangements and use of other aids and equipments should be decided by him, quite in advance. A working paper, containing basic information on the subject of discussion should be distributed among the members, to stimulate fruitful discussion. The working paper may also present specific questions or issues on which decisions are called for. Group discussions may also be arranged on a situation, a case-study or even a lecture.

(b) To initiate the discussion:

The working paper should be read, problem should be presented in all its aspects and objective should be pinpointed, so that discussion may not digress from the main issues.

(c) To keep the discussion in process:

The leader should draw contribution from all members, provoke new ideas by injecting **pertinent** questions, summarize **occasionally** and direct flow of discussion towards rational **decisions**. The use of chalkboard may be taken, where necessary.

(d) To conclude the discussion:

He should not allow the discussion to stray from the relevant aspects of the subject and guide it towards consensus, cutting off all unnecessary talks, gossips and gibes. If a time schedule is prescribed for the discussion, it should conclude in time. The discussion should be that of the group and not of the leader.

The following hints would assist the leader to achieve effective results:-

- (i) Have a small group ;
- (ii) Choose a topic in which members are interested ;
- (iii) Have the sitting arrangement 'U' shaped or in a circle or in a square or rectangle, so that members may face each other ;
- (iv) Study the problem in advance and collect all relevant data and facts ;
- (v) Manage to keep the discussion on the right track ;
- (vi) Create an informal and relaxed climate ;
- (vii) Avoid offending anybody's sentiments ;

- (viii) Foster group feeling
- (ix) Allow everyone to have his say. Draw out silent ones and do not allow vocal ones to monopolize the discussions. As in a football game, the ball should be continuously be passed on from one player to the other, driving it towards the goal post.

Advantages:

The group discussion method is highly useful in situations where the objective is to understand and absorb the information, exchange experiences, analyse facts, study specific problems, correct misconceptions, formulate attitudes, discuss policies and to decide on a particular action.

This method is decidedly superior to lecture **method** in which generally, there is one-way traffic from the speaker to the audience and no feedback as to how far the latter have been able to assimilate the ideas propounded in the talk. The discussion technique is a self-learning process (through skillful direction of the leader) in which everyone contributes to arrive at a correct decision and to that extent, implementation of the decision becomes easier and effective. The group also develops its analytical skill in the process and also imbibes the attributes of tolerance and adjustments which are indispensable in any cooperative decision and action.



Vaikunth Mehta
 NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF COOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT
P O O N A - 16.

COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLES :

Dr.S.C.Mehta

1. Open & Voluntary Membership :

Membership of a cooperative society shall be voluntary and available without artificial restriction or any social, political, racial or religious discrimination, to all persons who can make use of its services and are willing to accept the responsibilities of membership.

2. Democratic Control :

Cooperative societies are democratic organizations. Their affairs shall be administered by persons elected or appointed in a manner agreed by the members and accountable to them. Members of primary societies should enjoy equal rights of voting (one member, one vote) and participation in decisions affecting their societies. In other than primary societies the administration should be conducted on a democratic basis in a suitable form.

3. Limited Interest on Capital:

Share capital shall only receive a strictly limited rate of interest, if any.

4. Equitable Distribution of Surplus:

The economic results arising out of the operations of the society belong to the members of that society and shall be distributed in such a manner as would avoid one member gaining at the expense of others.

This may be done by decision of the members as follows:-

- (a) By provision for development of the business of the Cooperative;
- (b) By provision of common services; or
- (c) By distribution among the members in proportion to their transactions with the society.

5. Cooperative Education: ..

All cooperative societies shall make provision for the education of their members, officers, and employees and of the general public, in the principles and techniques of Cooperation, both economic and democratic.

6. Inter-Cooperative Relationship:

All cooperative organisations, in order to best serve the interests of their members and communities shall actively cooperate in every practical way with other cooperatives at local, national and international levels.

o o o o

:Points for Discussion:

1. What are the cooperative principles which govern the operation of Cooperative Societies all over the world?
2. Do you wish to add to or ~~subtract~~ ^{from} these principles in the light of your experience?
3. Do you think some modification of these principles is called for, in the light of special conditions obtaining in your country?
4. How far is the Cooperative Movement in your country not able to adhere to these principles?
5. What are your suggestions to improve the situation, for the success of your Movement?

o o o o o

Auido- Visual Aids

WHY?

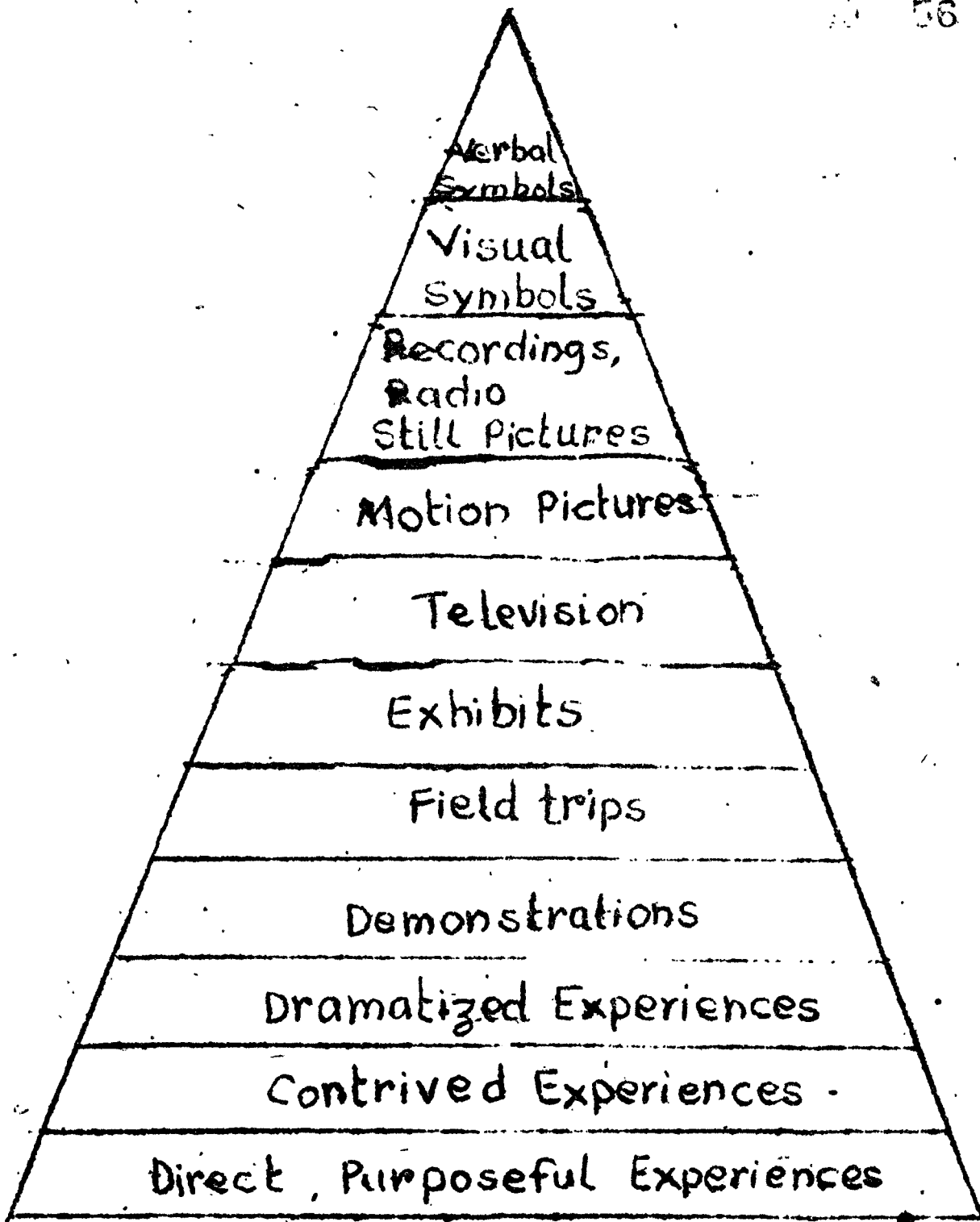
- ★ Because these aids
 - ★ Make communication easier & more realistic
 - ★ Accelerate & vitalize the process of communication
 - ★ Stimulate interest & motivate persons for further communication.
 - r Compel attention
 - r Cover more subject matter in shorter time,
 - r thus save time in communication system.
 - r Enrich communication
 - r Can reach many people one at the same time.
 - ★ Can be used at all levels
 - r Overcome barriers in communication such as distance, time, size, shape, very slow & fast motions, hidden things.
 - r Motivate persons to followup activities and action.

What Research says about 'Audio-Visual Aids'

- ★ They supply a concrete basis for conceptual thinking & hence reduce meaningless words responses of students.
- ★ They have a high degree of interest for students.
- ★ They supply the necessary basis for developmental learning & hence make learning more permanent.
- ★ They offer a reality of experience which stimulates self activity on the part of students.
- ★ They develop a continuity of thought.
- ★ These aids contribute a growth of meaning & hence to vocabulary development.
- ★ They provide experiences not easily secured by other materials and contribute to efficiency, depth, & variety of learning.
- ★ These aids help to retain more for a longer time.

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Cone of Experience
Edgar Dale

Educational Aids

Visual Aids

Projected

- 35 mm slide/ Filmstrip Projector
- Epidiascope
- Overhead Projector
- Micro-slide Projector
- 16mm silent Projector
- 8mm Projector

Non-Projected

- ⊙ Boards: Chalk-board, Magnetic-board, Flannel-board & Bulletin Board.
- ⊙ Two dimensional Aids
Pictures, charts, Maps, folders, Posters, Flash cards, comics, cuttings etc.
- ⊙ Three-D - aids
Models, Diorama, Globe, study kits, Mobile etc.

Audio-Visual Aids

- 16 mm Sound film Projector
- Television

Audio Aids

- Gramophone
- Radio
- Tape Recorder
- Public Address system

Activity aids

- Dramatization
- Demonstrations
- Field trips
- Puppetry

**COURSE IN TRAINING METHODOLOGY
& TECHNIQUES FOR AFGHAN TEACHERS**

**TIPS FOR OPERATION OF
FILM PROJECTOR**

OPERATION

Setting Up

Arrange the equipment as follows:

1. Place the projector on a sturdy table or stand so that the distance from the front edge of the table to the projection screen is about five times the width of the screen. (This ratio holds for a 2-inch projection lens such as is furnished with the equipment.) Place the projector on the table, so that the end of the projector upon which the reels are mounted is flush with the edge of the table.
2. Remove the front cover of the projector, but keep it within reach for reference to the film threading diagram contained therein.
3. Remove the accessories contained in the MI-1312 Speaker Case, or the MI-1314 Projector cover - depending on whether the RCA "400 Senior" or "Juniorette" is to be operated - and lay them on the projector table or nearby the projector. Then carry the speaker to the projection screen and place it on a chair or on any suitable elevated object, preferably about four feet from the floor.
4. Run the speaker cable to the projector in the most convenient manner, preferably around the edge of the room, where it will be out of the way of the audience. (See section on Projection Practice.)

Mounting Reel Arms

Attach the reel arms to the projector and put the spring belts on their pulleys in the following manner:

1. Fasten the reel arms - see figures 1

and 2 - in place with the thumbscrews, pull out the spring belts and put them over the pulley at the end of the reel arms.

Connections

To connect the "Senior" model to its speaker and to the power service: insert the plugs on the power and speaker cables into the receptacles provided for them on the back of the projector, insert the plug on the other end of the speaker cable in the jack on the speaker, and plug the connector the loose end of the power cable into the nearest 105-125-volt 60-cycle ac power receptacle.

Connect the "Juniorette" model to its speaker and to the same type of power service by the respective cables which are permanently attached to the projector-amplifier.

Initial Adjustments

Preliminary focusing and certain other adjustments are best done before the projector has been threaded. Refer to figures 1 and 2 for location of controls.

1. Put the PROJ-OFF switch in the PROJ position, and the LAMP-OFF switch in the LAMP position.
2. Loosen the lens lock. Focus by moving the projection lens back and forth in the picture gate for rough adjustment and by rotating it for fine adjustment until the outline of the lighted area on the screen is well defined. Tighten the lens lock.
3. Adjust the distance between the projector and the screen until the width of the lighted area is slightly greater than the width of the white portion of the screen, and then center the light vertically with the tilting control.

NOTE: When the picture is slightly larger than the white portion of the screen, the edges of the picture will be clean cut.
4. Throw the LAMP-OFF switch to the OFF position. Then throw the PROJ-OFF switch to the OFF position.

Threading

Thread the projector in the following manner:

1. Place an empty reel on the lower reel arm and a reel of film on the upper.

2. Unwind the film until the picture or title frames are reached and examine the film to see whether it is ready for threading. To do this, consider yourself in the position of the projection lamp and look through the film toward a light. With the end of the film downward, the pictures or titles should be upside down and reversed, and the sprocket holes - on sound film - should be toward your right. If these conditions are met, the film is ready for threading.

3. Make sure the REWIND-OPERATE lever is in the OPERATE position.

4. Hold the film about four feet - minimum - from the end, and press down on the upper sprocket shoe with the right-hand thumb.

5. Slide the film under the upper sprocket. Make sure that the sprocket teeth engage the sprocket holes. Release the sprocket shoe.

6. Open the picture gate by pulling the lens lock and place the film on the aperture plate, between the guide rails and the side shoe. Form the upper loop of film above the aperture plate so that the film follows the white guide line on the projector frame. Close the picture gate with your thumbs.

7. Form the lower loop of film below the picture gate as indicated by the white guide line and finger stop, see illustrations.

8. Run the film over the guide roller, under the rubber pressure roller, around and to the right of the sound drum, and over the tension roller.

9. Thread the film to the left of and under the lower sprocket.

10. Next run the film under the snubber roller to the lower reel.

11. Insert the end of the film in the slot in the hub of the lower reel, or, preferably, attach it to the hub with a piece of film tape.

12. Rotate the reel clockwise by hand to take up film slack. Lift the reel slightly to equalize belt tension. This will prevent the reel from rolling backwards when it is released.

Operating

Sound Pictures

When sound pictures are to be projected proceed as follows:

1. Turn the ON-OFF switch - on the amplifier - to the ON position.

NOTE: The sound lamp lights within a few seconds after the ON-OFF switch has been turned ON.

2. Turn the VOLUME control to "0" and the TONE control to "5" on the "Senior" model or to NORMAL on the "Juniorette" model.

3. Turn the SPEED SELECTOR downward - towards SOUND.

4. Turn off the lights in the room.

5. Turn the PROJ-OFF switch to PROJ and the LAMP-OFF switch to LAMP, in that order.

6. Focus by rotating the projection lens until the picture is clear and distinct. Titles or other printed portions of the picture make excellent subjects on which to focus.

7. Turn the VOLUME control clockwise until the desired volume is obtained.

8. Frame the picture, if necessary, by turning the FRAMING knob until one complete picture shows on the screen.

9. Adjust the TONE control for the most pleasing effect.

10. When the last picture has appeared on the screen, and before all the film has passed through the projector, return the LAMP-OFF switch to the OFF position.

11. Turn the VOLUME control "0" as soon as the sound ceases.

12. Finally, return the PROJ-OFF switch to the OFF position.

NOTE: Occasionally, damaged film may prevent the intermittent pulldown

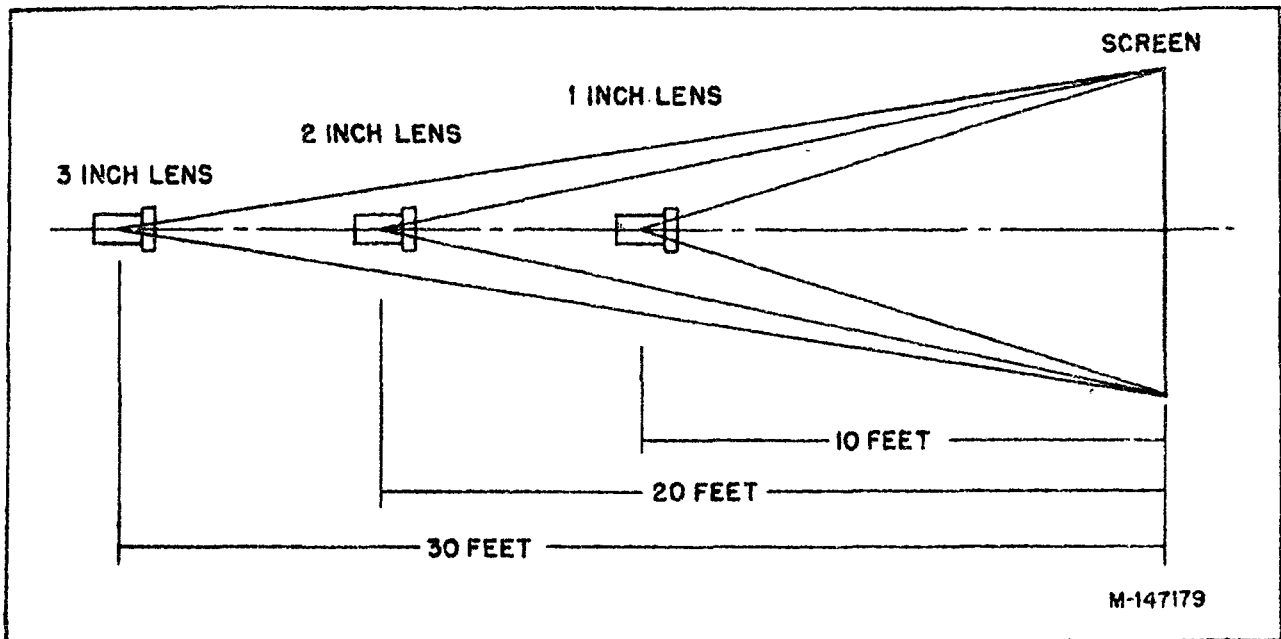


Figure 3 - Relations of Focal Length and Projection Distance

claw from properly engage the sprocket holes in the film. This may result in the loss of the lower loop. When this happens, the picture on the screen is blurred. The difficulty can be remedied immediately, without stopping the machine, by placing a finger above the film as it emerges from the lower end of the picture gate and quickly pulling down on the film until the picture strikes the finger stop.

The **THREADING LAMP**, on the "Senior" model, can be turned on with the **THREADING LAMP** switch when light is needed during a show, thus eliminating the necessity of turning on the room lights. The cover of this lamp can be rotated to direct the light where required.

Silent Pictures

Proceed as for showing a sound picture, with the following exceptions:

1. Turn the speed selector upward towards **SILENT**. This decreases the speed of the projector to that appropriate to silent pictures.

2. Leave the **ON-OFF** switch - on the amplifier - in the **OFF** position. Omit any

adjustment of volume or tone, unless the public address feature is to be used. If it is, consult the section on "Public Address and Record Playing" in this manual.

Rewinding

Film should be rewound immediately after projection. Rewinding is done quickly with the projector as follows:

1. Bring the end of the film from the lower reel directly to the hub of the upper reel, without twisting the film, and attach it. Give the upper reel a few turns counter-clockwise by hand to take up film slack.
2. Turn the **REWIND-OPERATE** lever to **REWIND**.
3. Turn the speed selector downwards towards **SOUND**.
4. Put the **PROJ-OFF** switch in the **PROJ** position and let the projector run until the film is rewound.

When two or more reels are to be shown, it may be desirable to postpone rewinding until all the reels have been shown, since this shortens the delay between successive reels. As a result, the question may arise as to whether or not a reel has been rewound. This

may easily be determined by examining the film as explained in step 2 of the section titled "Threading". If the film is not in the position specified there, it requires rewinding.

Packing Up after the Show

When the show is over, in order to pack up the equipment proceed as follows:

1. Remove the reels and the reel arms from the projector.
2. Push the spring belts into the projector case.
3. Return the tilting control as far as it will go.
4. Place the reel arms and reel in the cover of the "Juniorette" model, in the positions shown in the diagram in the cover. Pack away the cables in the space provided beneath the projector and replace the cover on the projector.

Replace the front cover on the RCA "400" Senior Projector, and pack the reel arms, film reel and cables in the Speaker Case.

Public Address and Record Playing

When it is desired to use either a microphone or a phonograph pickup, a shielded cable and a shielded standard telephone plug will be required for connecting either device. Assemble the cable and plug and connect the

cable to the microphone or phonograph pickup. Insert the telephone plug in the jack marked MIC. Set the ON-OFF switch - on the amplifier - in the ON position. Adjust the TONE and VOLUME controls to obtain the most pleasing tone and suitable volume of sound. Remove the microphone-phonograph plug from the MIC jack when sound films are to be shown.

For suitable microphone, phonograph pickup, cable and telephone plugs consult your dealer. The following types of shielded-two-conductor plugs, or any plug similar to them, may be used: Carter #PG-52, Switchcraft #70 or Mallory #75N.

PROJECTION PRACTICE

Choice of Focal Length of Lens

The focal length of the lens supplied with the RCA Model 400 "Senior" and "Juniorette" projectors is 2 inches. This is a value which meets average projection conditions. However, in some instances, lenses of different focal lengths may be required. For example, it may be required to project a picture of given size from different distances, as shown in figure 3. Table I below gives the relationship between picture size and projection distance for lenses of six different focal lengths.

Placement of Equipment and Spectators

If all the spectators in the room are to have an unobstructed view of the screen, both

TABLE I PROJECTION DATA

Projection Distance Feet	Picture Width					
	1" lens	1½" lens	2" lens	2½" lens	3" lens	4" lens
10	3'9"	2'6"	1'10"	1'6"	1'3"
15	5'8"	3'10"	2'10"	2'3"	1'3"	1'4"
20	7'6"	5'0"	3'9"	3'0"	2'6"	1'10"
25	9'4"	6'3"	4'8"	3'9"	3'1"	2'4"
30	11'6"	7'8"	5'8"	4'6"	3'9"	2'10"
35	13'2"	8'9"	6'6"	5'3"	4'4"	3'3"
40	15'11"	10'0"	7'6"	6'0"	5'0"	3'9"
50	12'6"	9'4"	7'6"	6'3"	4'8"
60	15'0"	11'3"	9'0"	7'6"	5'7"
75	14'1"	11'3"	9'4"	7'0"
100	15'0"	12'6"	9'4"

NOTE: Picture height is ¾ of picture width.

TABLE II
PROJECTION LAMP WATTAGE VS SCREEN
TYPE AND SIZE

(Values are for a reasonably darkened room)

Lamp Watts	Life Hours	Recommended Picture Matte Screen	Width in Beaded Feet Screen
300	25	2-3	3-5
500	25	2½-3½	4-6
750	25	3½-4½	6-8
1000	10	4-6	8-10

the screen and the projector should be raised above the heads of the audience. The top of the table upon which the projector stands should be at least 4½ feet high so that the beam of light will pass above the heads of those who sit directly in front of the projector, and the lower edge of the screen should be at least as high as the heads of those persons who sit nearest to the screen.

When a matte screen is used, no one should sit closer to it than two screen widths, nor farther from it than six screen widths, nor outside an angle of 30 degrees from the center line. The most satisfactory view of the picture is obtained in this area. Beyond an angle of 40 degrees the picture becomes noticeably distorted.

When a beaded screen is used, no one should sit closer to the screen than 2½ screen widths, nor farther from it than six screen widths, nor outside an angle of 20 degrees either side of the center line. Beyond the 20-degree angle the brightness of the screen falls off rapidly.

Choice of Screens

A matte screen should be used whenever a sufficiently bright picture can be obtained, for it presents a more uniform brightness to the entire audience. A beaded screen appears brighter than a matte screen along the line from the center of the screen to the projector, but its brightness falls off rapidly as the observer moves away from this line.

The screen recommendations given in Table II above are based on the use of the RCA 2-inch f/1.6 coated projection lens.

Improvement in Projection Technique

In order to avoid interruptions and disturbances of sound and picture during a show, the observance of the following details is worthwhile.

Securing Cables

The power and speaker cables should be secured so that they cannot become disconnected accidentally by persons stumbling over them. They may, for example, be tied to, or wrapped around, a leg of the projection table. Where they lie on the floor, they should be covered or otherwise protected.

Replacements

Interruptions caused by burn-out of the projection lamp or the sound lamp are occasionally unavoidable, but the resulting delay need not be protracted if the operator always keeps within easy reach a tested set of spares for immediate substitution. For details of replacement, refer to "Maintenance".

Previewing Pictures

An experienced operator will preview films he plans to show in order to acquaint himself with their peculiarities and thus be ready to make changes in volume, tone, and focus whenever they are required.

Care of Film

Film should be handled carefully lest it be scratched or broken. Film is easily scratched by winding it too tightly on the reel so that adjacent turns of film grind against each other. Scratches on film are very noticeable on the screen and they cannot

be removed from the film. Film should be handled by the edges as much as possible, and touching the picture or sound track area should be avoided. Occasionally, film should be inspected for broken sprocket holes and other defects. Necessary repairs should be performed promptly.

When film is dirty it should be cleaned by passing it between folds of lint-free cloth moistened with carbon tetrachloride, or some other cleaner suggested by the dealer. Consult the dealer for a humidifier for storing film when it is not in use.

Running Time

The running time of reels of given length of 16mm film depends on whether the film is sound or silent, for sound film runs 24 frames per second and silent film only 16 frames. Exact knowledge of the running time of various films will help the operator in planning a show. Table III below gives the running time in minutes of 16mm films of various footages.

TABLE III
RUNNING TIME OF 16mm FILM

Footage	Time in Minutes	
	Sound	Silent
400	11	16.5
600	17	25
800	22	33
1000	28	42
1200	33	50
1400	39	58
1600	44	67
1800	50	75
2000	56	83

MAINTENANCE

Lubrication

After each show put two drops of the oil supplied with the equipment in each of the two holes indicated in figures 1 and 2. Carefully wipe off any excess of oil that may be applied. Aside from this oiling, no routine lubrication of the equipment is required.

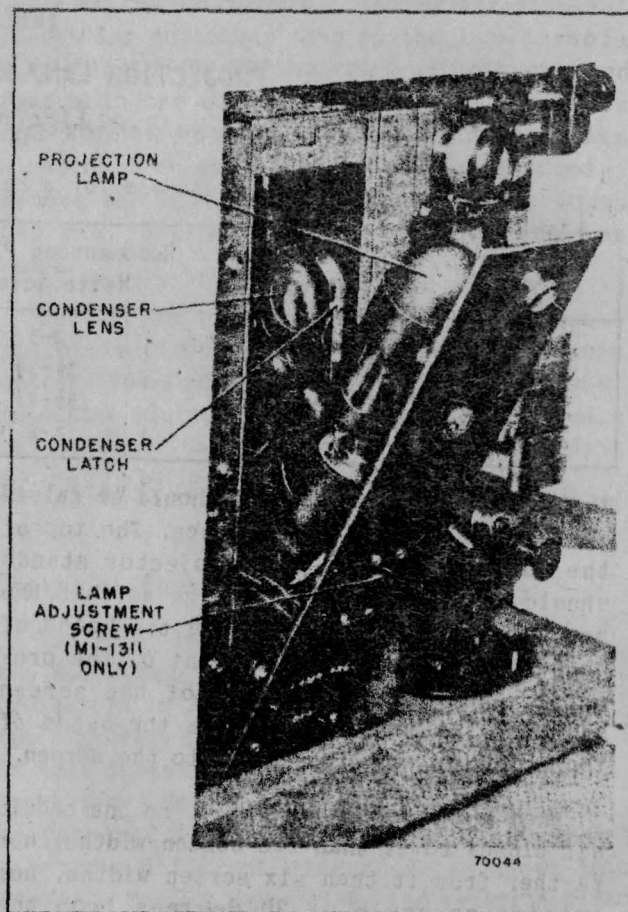


Figure 4 - Lamp House Open for Servicing "Senior" Model

Lamp Adjustment on "Senior" Model

Refer to figure 4 above for location of the LAMP ADJUSTMENT screw on the "Senior" model. Whenever a new lamp is installed the screen illumination should be checked, without film in the picture gate, for uniform distribution of light on the screen. To make the adjustment turn the LAMP ADJUSTMENT screw to the right or left - with a screwdriver - as required, until the screen is lighted uniformly.

Cleaning

If the equipment is to give consistently good performance, it must be kept clean at all times. Dust, oil, particles of emulsion, and all other dirt should be removed.

1. *Cleaning lenses and reflector.* Clean all optical surfaces before use each time the equipment is put into service. This may

be done by gently wiping them with lens tissue. If necessary, breathe on the lens before the tissue is applied. When more thorough cleaning is required, consult your dealer for a good lens cleaner. *Do not use carbon tetrachloride or alcohol on the lenses.* After lens cleaner has been used, gently wipe dry with lens tissue. The following points need attention:

a. *The condenser lens - figure 4.* To remove the condenser lens, pull out on the latch and withdraw the lens assembly from its mounting with the left hand. Clean and replace.

b. *The reflector,* which is opposite the condenser lens in the lamp house, can be cleaned in place.

c. *The projection lens - figure 1.* To remove this lens, loosen the lens lock and pull the lens out of the picture gate. Clean it as required. In replacing it, *take care not to touch the lens surface with the fingers.*

d. *The sound optical unit.* Clean the front and rear elements of the sound optical unit with a lint free cloth, do not use any other means for cleaning this lens.

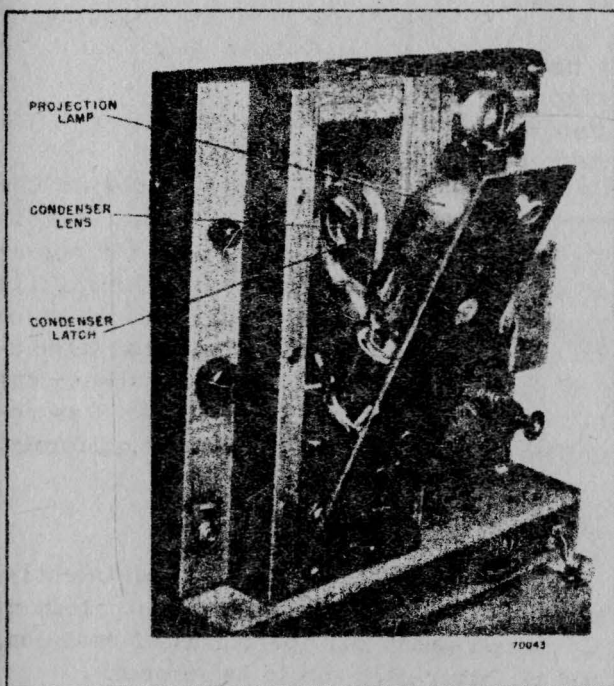


Figure 5 - Lamp House Open for Servicing "Juniorette" Model

2. *Cleaning lamps.* The projection lamp and the sound lamp should be cleaned occasionally. See figures 4, 5 and 6.

a. *The projection lamp - figure 4.* In order to remove this lamp, press down on it firmly and turn it to the left about 90 degrees until it is released from its socket. Wipe it clean with a cloth and return it to its original position. Be very careful not to leave any fingerprints on the clear portion of the lamp, for the prints will burn into the glass and will definitely impair the lamp efficiency.

b. *The sound lamp.* Open the optical bracket as shown in figure 6 and clean the lamp in place.

3. *Cleaning mechanical members.* Dirt will collect on the aperture plate, the film pressure shoe - which bears upon the surface of the film - the sprockets, the pressure roller, and the sound drum. In removing it, *do not use a knife or any other hard, sharp instrument.*

a. *The aperture plate.* Open the picture gate and wipe the aperture plate with a soft cloth to remove dirt. Use a toothpick, if necessary, to remove dirt from corners. Clean the two side pressure shoes with a stiff bristle brush. Clean the film pressure shoe in the same manner as the aperture plate. After all visible dirt has been removed, feel over the surface of both the aperture plate and the film pressure shoe to make sure they are smooth and free from any deposits.

b. *The sprockets.* Clean the sprockets with a stiff bristle brush. Be sure that all dirt is removed from the teeth. Wipe clean.

c. *The pressure roller.* Wipe clean with a soft cloth moistened with carbon tetrachloride. Rotate the roller to clean it all around.

d. *The sound drum.* Clean the sound drum in the same manner as the pressure roller. Be sure to clean the back edge of the drum where the sound track overhangs. Wrap a clean cloth around the left forefinger and insert the finger between the guide roller and the tension roller. Hold the cloth against the back edge of the drum and rotate the drum with the right forefinger. Cleaning the back edge of the sound drum from the left side minimizes the chance of disturbing the optical mirror behind the drum.

Training Material

Lettering Technique

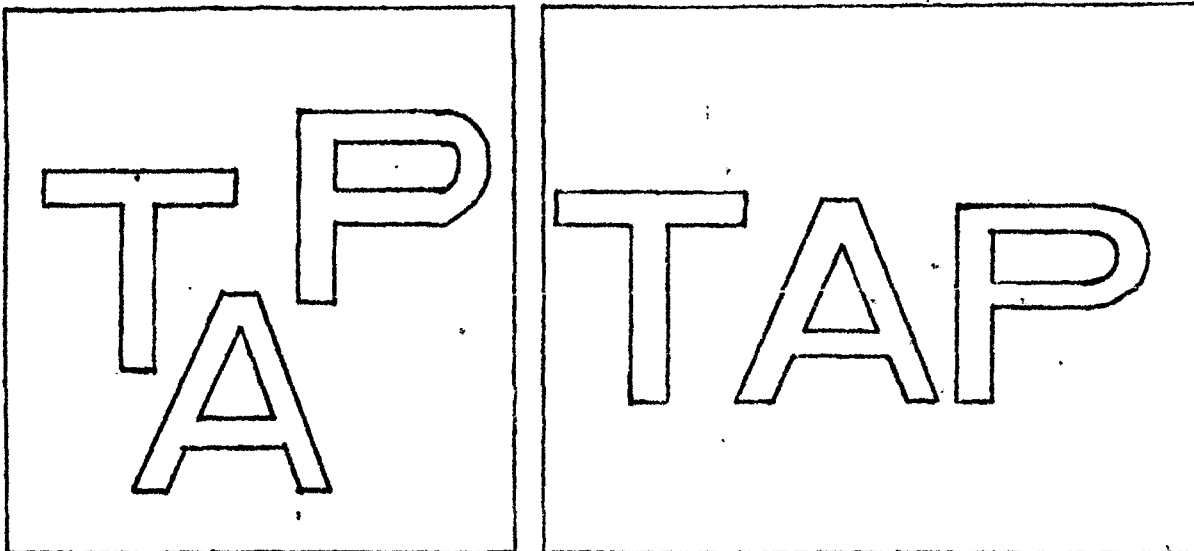
Compiled by

Daman Prakash
Education Officer (Audio-Visual Aids)
Project for Training of Cooperative
Teachers in Sri Lanka
455, Galle Road, Colombo-3 (Sri Lanka)

LETTERING TECHNIQUE

Lettering forms the reading part of visual aids. They should therefore be:

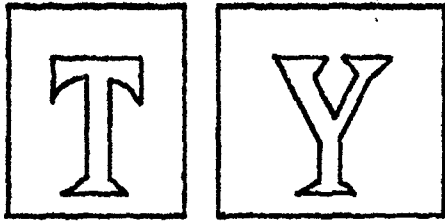
- Legible The lettering should be legible enough to allow even the least bencher to read them clearly without undergoing any optical strain.
- Bold Make them thick, bold, straight and vertical.
- Clear Avoid over-crowding and confusion.



In the first illustration, letters are arranged unevenly and make reading an exercise, while the second illustration allows a clear and quick reading. Therefore, do not confuse your clients by using unevenly arranged letters.

Also avoid fancy letters. If you want to write "A", make it A, not

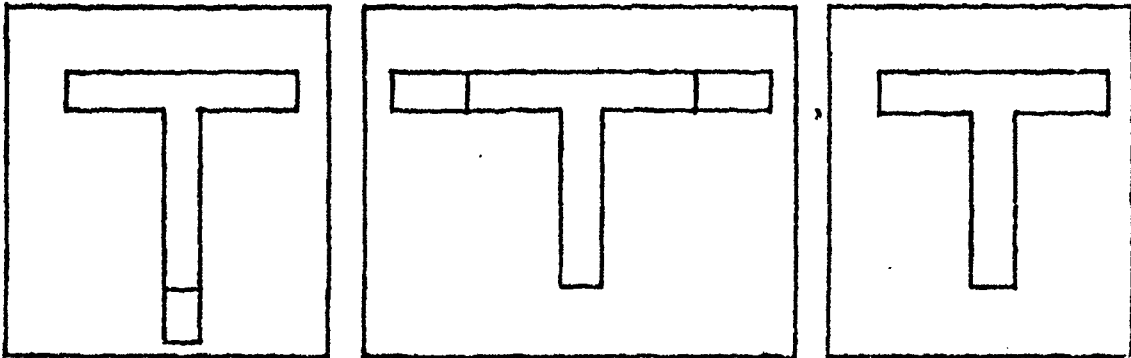




Avoid serif too. They unnecessarily consume space and distract attention.

- Balanced

The height and width of the lettering should be properly balanced.

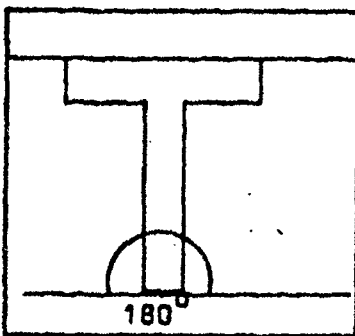


In the three illustrations of "T" above, the last one is balanced. The arm and leg of the first two are longer than the proper size.

Determine the height of the lettering in a given space. If the lettering are 3" high, the balanced thickness shall be $\frac{1}{2}$ " and the total width of certain letters such as B, O, G, R, etc. shall be 2" wide. Certain broad letters like M and W shall be $2\frac{1}{2}$ " wide.

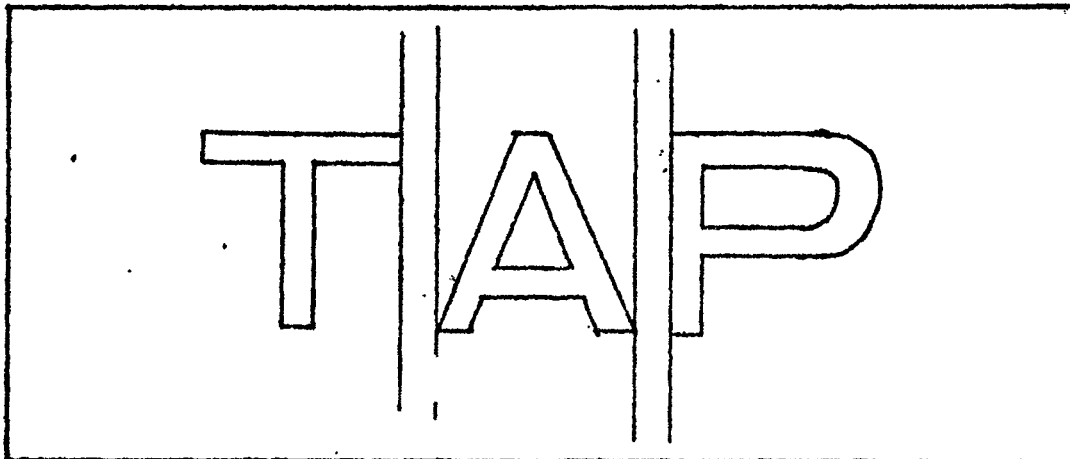
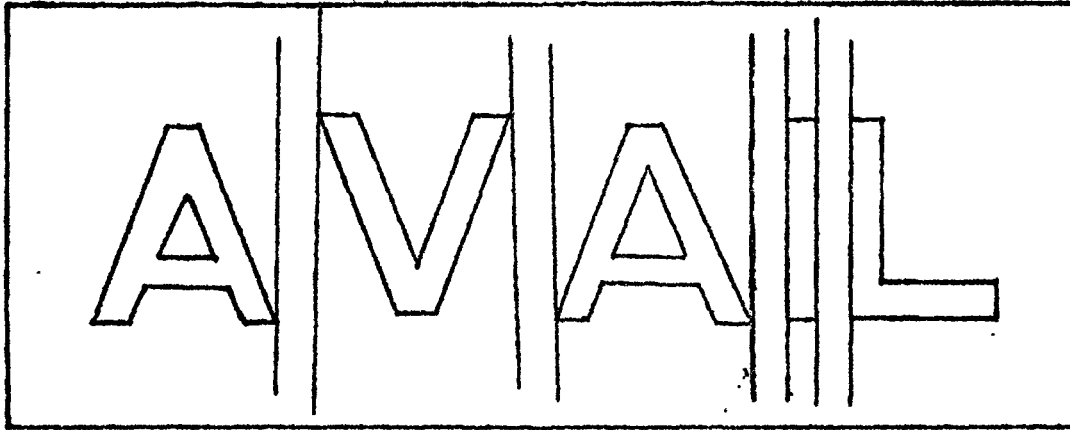
- Properly placed

The vertical capital letters should have a 180° base and the upper boundary



line also should run parallel to the base.

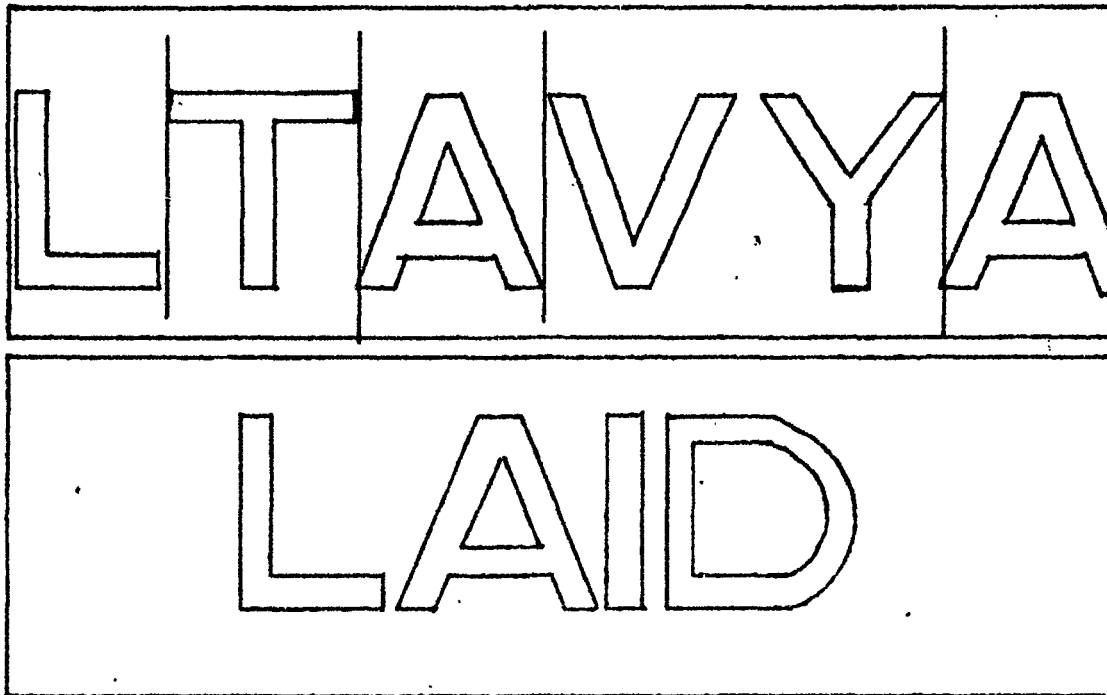
You are also required to leave equal amount of gap between two adjacent letters.



In above illustrations, equal gaps have been left between each adjacent letters. In the first instance, the letters A, V, A, and in the second all of them look quite apart from each other, while 'I', 'L' in the first look closer, though all of them are placed at equal distance from each other.

This mechanical arrangement of leaving equal amount of gap between two adjacent letters does not always work as a rule where odd shaped letters like AV, VA, TA, AT, LT, AY, LY, WA, AW etc. come together. In such cases you have to go by another arrangement, otherwise the adjacent lettering will look too far from one another. If an upward-extended letter like TVY etc. is followed by a downward-extended letter like AL etc. and vice versa, a mechanical arrangement between the two will throw them away from each other. In such cases, arrangement can only be made by starting the next upward-extended

letter touching the 90° perpendicular from the downward-extended lettering and vice versa as shown between LT and YA and TAV. This arrangement is known as 'Optical Arrangement'.



Similarly, if an upward-extended letter is followed by another upward-extended letter and vice-versa, half the gap of the mechanical arrangement should be left between two adjacent letters, as illustrated in the word 'LAID' above.

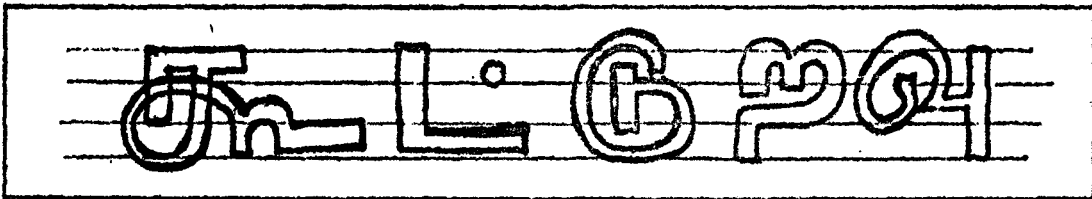
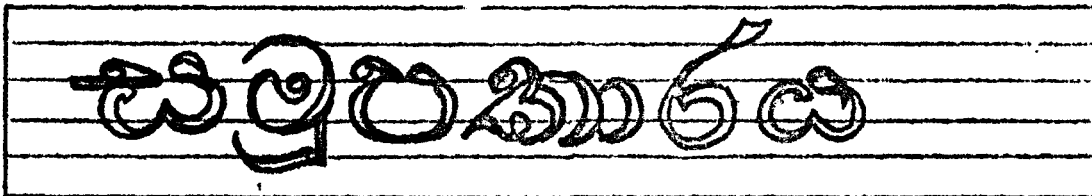
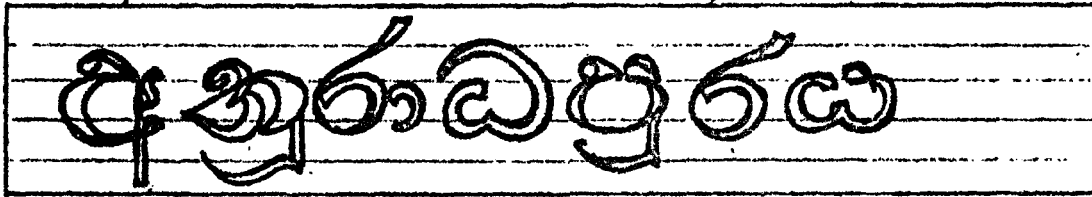
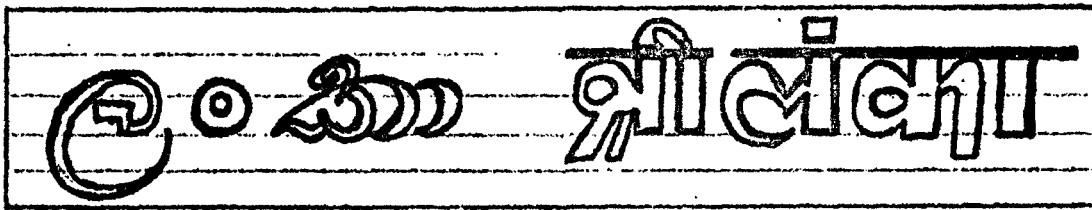
So we notice that the arrangement of letters is important, and to make them more effective and attractive, it is essential that proper and logical distance is maintained between the letters. The arrangement should be such that the eye does not reject the distance and the eye does not split the letters unnecessarily. We therefore have to follow the principle of "Mechanical distance" and "Optical distance" between letters.

- Single Tier Letters

We have no problem in writing English capital letters as they are single tier letters, i.e. they fit within two parallel lines and no portion of them protrudes out.

- Three Tier Letters

But the case is different with English letters and all Sinhala, Tamil and Indian scripts. They are three tier letters, besides their main bodies, they have upward and downward protrusions.



Generally, first and third tiers are just the half of the second tier in height. The second tier forms the main body. While planning Sinhala, Tamil and Indian lettering on visual aids, the allotted space may be suitably divided into proper tiers.

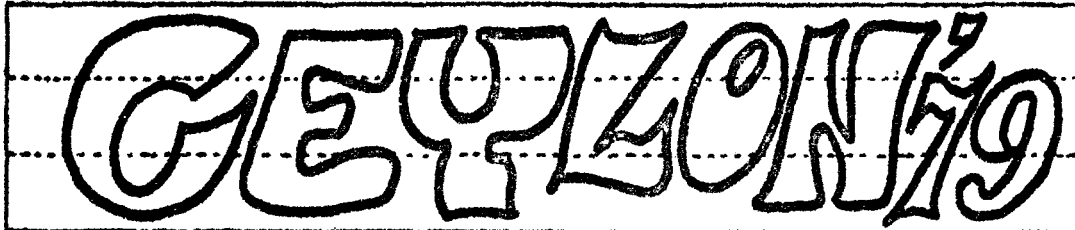
Free Hand Lettering

Free hand lettering is done without the help and use of any mechanical measurement and device. Simple ruler can be used for drawing base lines. The devices are the following:

- ruler
- pair of set squares
- paint
- brush
- crayon
- felt-tip pen
- ink tube.

Free hand lettering does not, however, mean that you are completely free to draw or write anything. There are some restrictions.

First, draw parallel lines with pencil. Determine the placing of the lettering with a soft pencil. Hold hand steady as you practise a felt-tip pen. Do not rotate your fingers. Move your arm only. Start with simple letters and different curves.



Mechanical devices in writing letters

Some simple mechanical aids are available for writing letters. Planograph letters are cut out stencil guide on plastic plates. Draw a horizontal pencil line on paper and set the stencil guide. Fill up the scriber pen with regular Indian ink. Trace each letter, space between letters by eye. Other aids are Econsign, Uno Stencils, Card or Metal cut-outs, Rapidograph, Letreset etc.

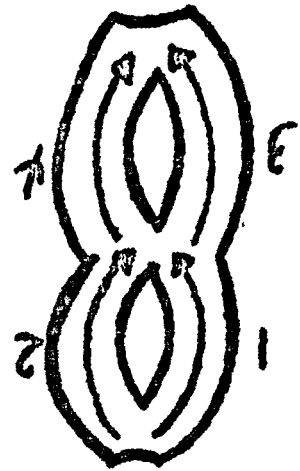
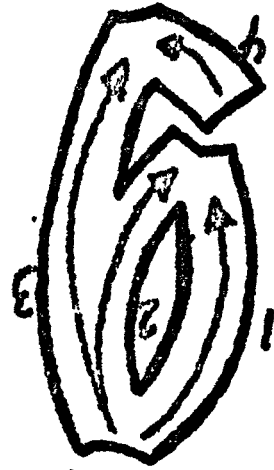
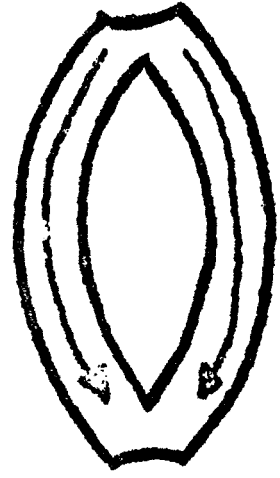
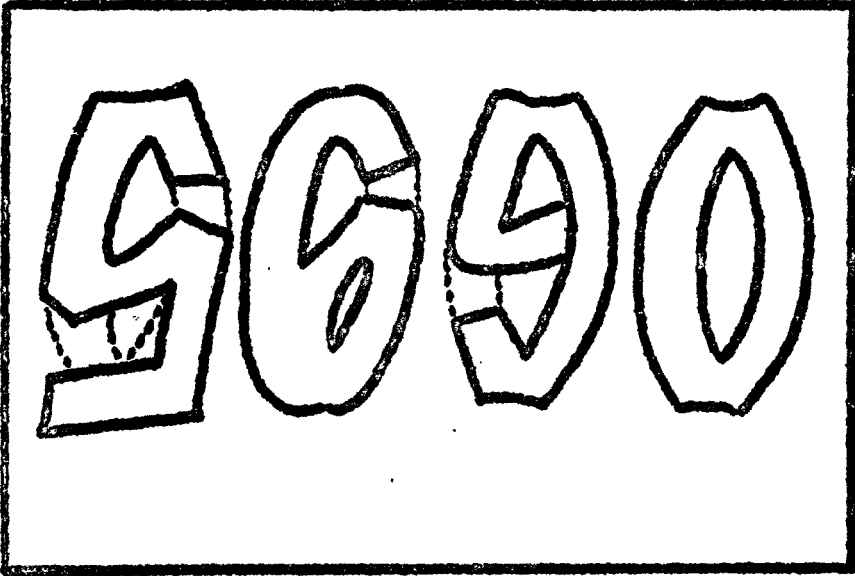
Summary

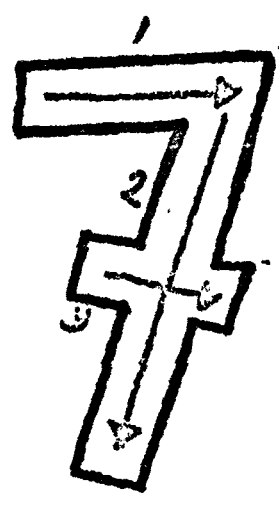
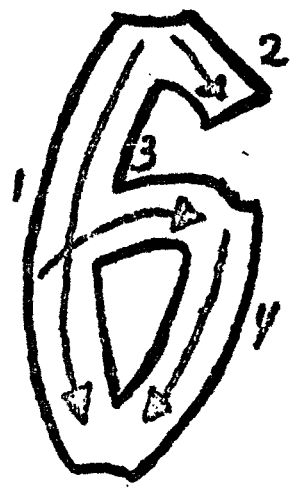
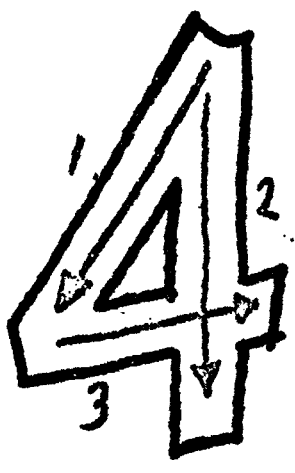
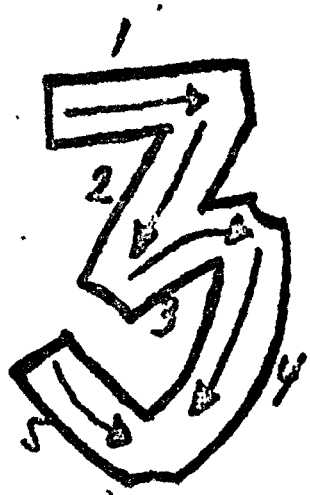
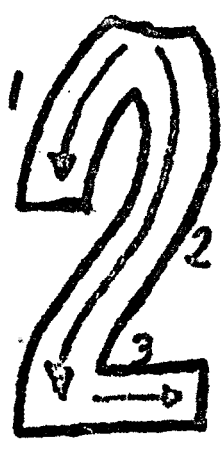
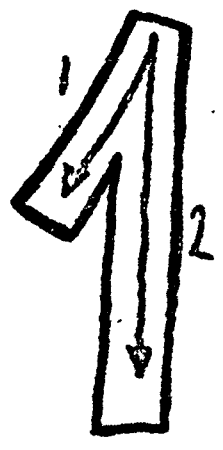
Letters form an important part of any visual aid. Letters to be used in visual aids should, therefore, be: Legible, Bold, Clear, Balanced, Properly placed, properly constructed keeping in view their constitution e.g. single-tier letters, three-tier letters. Distance between letters should be properly maintained. There are two types of distances e.g. Mechanical distance, and the Optical distance. Letters can be written with the help of mechanical devices or can be written free hand.

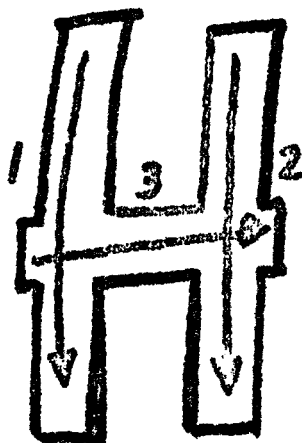
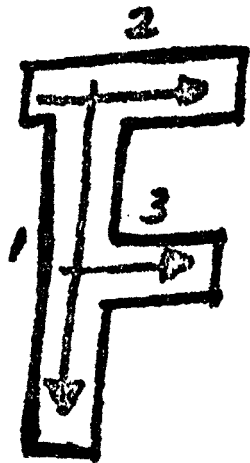
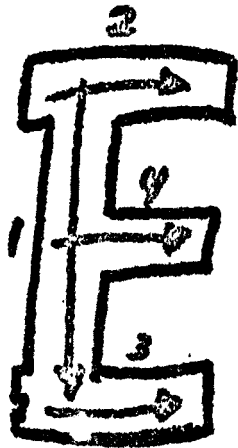
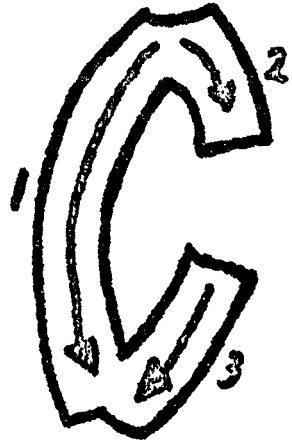
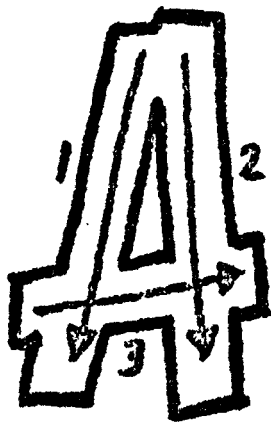
Lettering is "printing" done by hand.

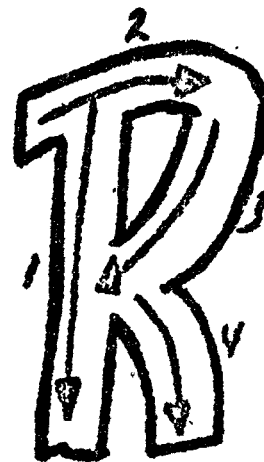
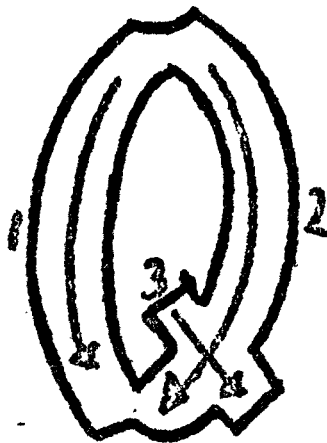
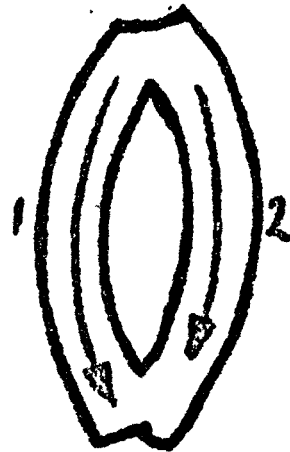
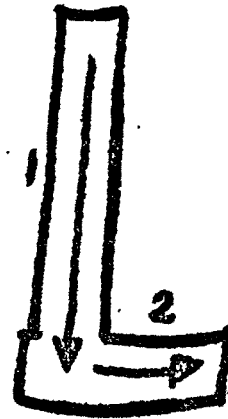
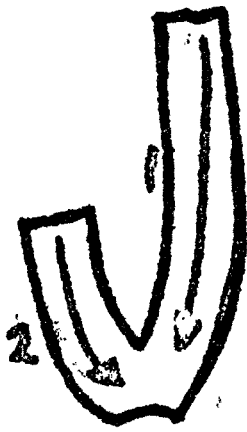
- Do not measure an equal space for each letter. Not all letters are of equal width. The measuring method will leave too much space between some letters and not enough between others.
- Lettering can be made to fit almost any size of space
 - by extending, condensing or spreading.
- Use script for variety or emphasis only.
- Do not run your lettering to the very edge of the paper. Space is very important - make your border wide enough.
- Space between lines of lettering, allow one-third of the height of a capital letter for the space. There should be enough space between words so that they are not crowded.
- Avoid monotony, vary sizes of letters also the width of the lines.
- Lettering that is too uniform won't attract attention. Long phrases in capitals are difficult to read. Use capitals and lower case.
- Words can be slanted - but slant them UP and not DOWN. Words can be arched too.
- Ornate styles of type should be used for emphasis only.
- Not more than three different styles of lettering to be used on posters or charts.











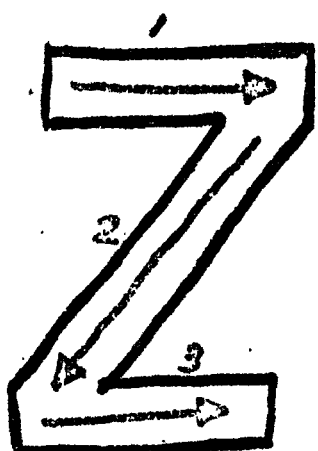
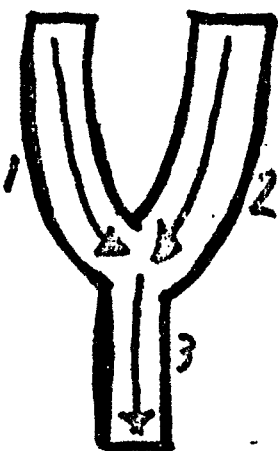
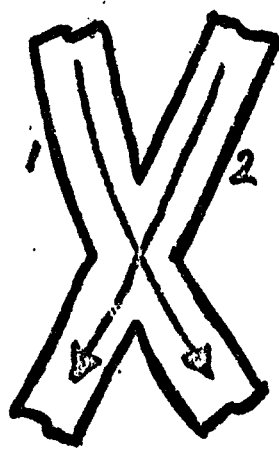
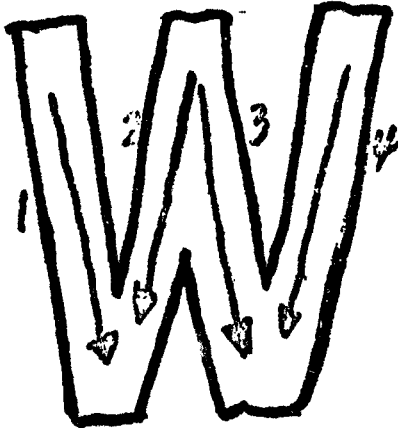
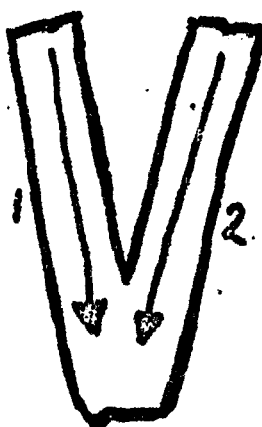
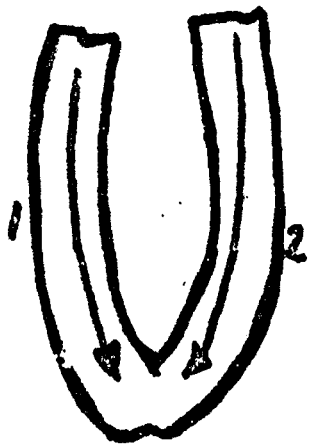
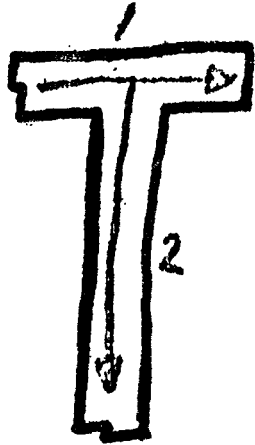
EFG

JOE

JOEY

NUTRI

ABC



Summary

Letters to be used in the layout of any poster, chart or graph or any other educational aid, should be properly planned. Letters should be uniform in boldness, height and width. They should be properly spaced using the mechanical distance and optical distance technique. Use of too many types of letters in one single teaching aid should be avoided. Try to be as simple as possible.

Important notes:

Letters written on the charts etc. displayed in front of you look to be easy to be made. They are no doubt 'easy' - but then try!! First attempt will be hopeless, second will be an improvement over the first and so on. You will have to devote a lot of time on practice. Practice is important and more of practice will mean better letters. Now go on!

...

METHODOLOGY OF TRAINING

Prof D JHA

After the objectives of a training programme are determined the next vital step for the training institution is to make a choice of appropriate training methods. At the moment, large number of techniques have been evolved by the management Institutes all over the country and a trainer has to adopt a suitable combination of techniques as a vehicle of communication between the trainer and the trainees. For this purpose a training Institution must have the knowledge of various types of training technique in use. It must determine the appropriateness and situations in which a particular technique is to be used to discover the status of distinction between various techniques, their suitability in a specific training situation and their overall contribution for making training effective.

The purpose of training is to assist personnel in enhancing their efficiency and effectiveness by improving and updating their knowledge by imbuing certain skills relevant to their work and cultivate proper attitude towards working people. Training could be necessary either for improving the present capabilities of people at work or for preparing persons for assuming higher responsibilities in future.

We are all aware that there has been a virtual explosion of knowledge in science, technology, social sciences and management. Indeed, recently the changes occurring have been so far that some of the old ways of doing things will have to be discarded in order to catch up with the present trend and development of science and

technology and know knowledge has to be acquired for meeting the challenges of future. To keep abreast of these developments it has become essential for managers and administrators to acquire new knowledge and sharpen their skills. The primary focus of training is to further the enhancement of knowledge required for the performance of the job, the development of skills of various types for proper application of knowledge to their work situation as well as cultivation of proper behaviour, attitudes and habits of work in dealing with men and matter.

The most essential step in the development of a training programme is to clearly spell out the objectives of the training programme namely whether it is to improve the knowledge or develop some skills or change one's behaviour and attitudes. Once these objectives are clearly defined, it will be possible and desirable to evolve suitable techniques for fulfilling the performance.

The training process involves the trainer and the trainee. In this process there is inter-action between the trainer and the trainee and in this process the medium through which the contents of the programmes are communicated are very important. This medium or vehicle of communication is the training method which the trainer adopts for communicating the knowledge or develop the skills.

"To plan, to organise, to staff, to budget, to prepare the premises are all necessary to success of a training programme; but all these processes together do not cover the execution of the programme. Sooner or later, all persons sharing responsibility for the offering of instruction have to face upto the problems of techniques & methods. How, specifically, is the instruction to be offered? The best plans may be spoiled in the execution, and in the training of coop. personnel the choice of methods and materials is always crucial to success".*

* Handbook of Training in the Public Service" of the UN
Deptt of Economic and Social Affairs, Public
Administration Branch, New York, 1966 - Ch. IX p. 235

Training Methods and Techniques

The academic institutions are employing a few time-old techniques for imparting knowledge to the younger people. They generally use lecture method, seminar, tutorial, debates, and some other techniques in the learning process. However, over the year, especially the management training Institutes have developed a large number of training techniques for establishing a means of communication between the trainer and the trainee. Among the various training techniques and aids some of the important ones which are usually used by the management institutes in their training programmes are the following:

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1) Lecture Method | 4) Panel Discussion |
| 2) Seminar Method | 5) Workshop |
| 3) Group Discussion | 6) Conference |
| 7) Syndicate Method | 8) Brain Storming |
| 9) Case Method | 10) Programmed Instruction |
| 11) Incident Method | 12) Project Method |
| 13) In-basket Exercise | 13) Debates |
| 15) Role-play | 16) Tutorials |
| 17) Sensitivity Training | 18) Study visits |
| 19) Management Games | 20) Audio-visual aids |

It depends on the competence of the trainer to select appropriate training techniques to meet the requirements of a particular training situation. The techniques to be used should be pertinent to the programme content and also take into consideration the various constraints.

Lecture Method/Lecture cum-discussion

The lecture is one of the oldest and most direct methods of teaching. It is still the most widely used method. Assumption - That the lecturer has expertise in the subject.

Objective of Lecture

A lecture is used for presentation of knowledge, information or attitudes for making the audience understand the message. The objective of delivering a lecture

is to inform or instruct the listener. Its object is to motivate, persuade and influence the attitudes of the audience. In all teaching programmes making clear explanations and conveying clear information is of highest importance.

When to use lecture method

- 1) The greater the gap in knowledge between the teacher/lecturer and students/audience, the greater the need of this method.
- 2) Lecture should be used when the group is large. There is no exact cut off point to determine the size. Lecture should be used when the group consists of more than 20.
- 3) When time for instruction is short other methods take longer time. Much can be informed in shorter time through lecture method.
- 4) It should be used when there is not much reading material available. When large number of texts, cases, films on some subjects are available, other than lecture method could be used.
- 5) When the subject matter consists of principles and concepts which need explanation.
- 6) Lecture method is more effective in following types of subjects
 - i) when historical, organisational and policy matter have to be explained.
 - ii) when a subject requires considerable explanation for clarity.
 - iii) when some principles and concepts are taught.
 - iv) When a system has to be explained.
 - v) when it consists of a lot of information.
- 7) Lecture is mere direct method of instruction than any other method because the lecture has full control in determining the scope, sequence, type and details of development of the subject.

Requirements of a Good Lecturer

- 1 It must motivate the interests of the listeners. At the very outset the lecturer must introduce his subject in a way that

- 2 It must be clear and well-organised. Points should be arranged in orderly sequence and stated clearly.
- 3 It must be developed in such a way that its value is retained throughout the lecture period.
- 4 It must be presented well-using all physical, vocal and attitudinal aids.
- 5 It must be prepared well.
 - a. Preparation should be to meet the need of the group to which it is addressed. Before starting preparation, he should ask the following questions :-
 - (i) What is the age of the group ?
 - (ii) What is their education ?
 - (iii) what is their experience ?
 - (iv) The nature of their present job
 - (v) Are they mixed group or homogeneous ?
 - (vi) One must satisfy himself - what is their present knowledge and information on this subject.
 - b. What is their interest and attitude towards wanting to know about the subject?
 - c. To determine the specific purpose of the lecture.
 - d. Too many main ideas should not form one lecture.
 - e. Organise the lecture chronologically, logically, easy to difficult, minor to major points, cause to effect, problem to solution.
 - f. How to open the lecture to gain attention and motivate interest of the listeners and make them feel that this lecture is of value to them.

- g. Use of supporting devices for making the lecture effective : (i) Examples, (ii) Illustrations; (iii) Comparisons; (iv) Data and diagrams; (v) Quotation; (vi) use of blackboard.
- h. To make the lecture effective material should be more concrete (names, happenings, events) and specific rather than too abstract and general.
- i. Quotations should be used to back up amplify or say in a better language by an expert that you could not say yourself as well. Listeners do not like too much of the same thing regardless of how good it is. Use of visual aids for keeping interest to be integrated with spoken word. "A good lecture is natural, conversational, direct, animated, enthusiastic, with sufficient voice projection and awareness of listeners' interests and understanding".

Test of an effective lecture is the interest and understanding of the listener. A lecture is effective to the extent it establishes rapport and empathy with the listener.

It is a fallacy that a good lecture is oratorical, dramatic, memorised presentation, gestures and emphasis of voice.

A lecturer should stand solidly and look directly into the eyes of the listeners. The voice should be loud enough for the last row.

Encourage the listeners to ask questions, if any; repeat the question for the benefit of others. If you don't have the answer, indicate that you will look up and let them know rather than beat about the bush.

It is better to stop at a point of high interest.

Seminar Method :

This method is useful for training of senior level personnel where each participant is deemed to have sufficient grasp of the problem and the idea is to develop participative requirement for activating their mind to come out with a solution after discussion among the group of advanced persons. Size of the seminar should normally be around 20. Seminar method will have effectiveness only when each participant of the seminar has equal suggestions.

For the seminar method, the topics for discussions are settled well in advance and assigned to different individuals for preparation of a working paper. The participant prepares the paper well in advance and a copy of it is made available to each seminar participant at least a few days before the commencement of the seminar so that each person is aware of the various issues that are going to be discussed in the seminar. The seminar leader is the most conspicuous person on that day. After the main contents of the paper are communicated, it is free for discussion by the members of the seminar. A senior faculty member or the trainer incharge of the programme will preside over the deliberations of the seminar. This method is considered suitable when some basic issues are to be discussed and appropriate solutions found out. Indeed, the seminar method has become very popular these days - where senior level people wish to evolve a strategy or guideline for accomplishing some objectives. Seminar method is exclusively used in all the post-graduate programmes in the Universities and other academic institutions. The VMNICM also uses seminar method to quite a large extent.

Group Discussion :

In this method, the participants in a programme are formed into several groups and each group discusses a particular subject in the presence of the trainer. The participants in a group discussion are expected to express their views freely and frankly and these are then clarified and amplified by the trainer-expert. The smaller the size of the group, the better it is. However, usually the size of the group should not exceed 15. The idea behind using group discussion as a techniques of training is that a group of knowledgable persons by free and frank exchange of ideas will be in a better position to solve a problem than a single individual. "A group discussion is a planned and purposive interchange of ideas and feelings under the supervision of the Discussion Leader".*

The group discussion is a participative method in which each member of the group gets an opportunity to express his views. The participants are not keen in ready-made solutions. In this method they are encouraged to express their ideas freely and to learn through mutual interaction. The trainees are also able to gain confidence and effectiveness in participating in oral exchanges and in promoting respects for other participant's point of view.

This method can be effective when the discussion leader is very skillful in ensuring that the discussion proceeds in meaningful and constructive manner. The domination by a few individuals in the group may have to be avoided.

It is necessary that the participants in this method should be familiar with the topic under discussion either on the basis of their previous knowledge or on the basis of materials supplied to them.

* Cantor N. "Learning through Discussion".

Panel Discussion

This method is used when the idea is to expose the participants with the views of three or more experts in a specified area. The three or four experts are invited to address the participants on a specified subject. The topic is discussed by the panel members with the group. The mutual inter-action between the panel members will draw out more from them than when they are addressing the group as individual experts. After the discussion by the panelists, the participants take up the thread and discuss the subject among themselves in the presence of the panel members. Normally, the chairman of the panel summarises the discussion at the end. The specific advantage of the panel discussion method is that it brings together the points of view of more than one specialist in the subject and the participants are expected to have different views in which the same topic is viewed and analysed by different experts.

Workshop

This method provides the trainees with opportunities for performing practical exercises in order to develop their skill. The idea is to put him to practice to various theories and principles. The workshop is a participative method in which situations are simulated and analytical skills are developed.

Conference :

Conference method is used when there is a large number of audience and there is some information and knowledge to be communicated to the audience. In this method, the theme of the conference is announced before hand and background papers are prepared by the participants and delegates to the conference. The preparation of background papers enables the participants to study the

problem comprehensively in advance. This provides an opportunity to the participants to learn from the views of others in the group.

Syndicate Method :

A syndicate is a Committee or Group of 5/6 persons with a Chairman and Secretary. In the syndicate method, the quality of the participants is assumed and the Chairman and Secretary are rotated so that all the participants have an opportunity to hold these offices. A problem is assigned to the syndicate for study and solution. In this method, the group works with minimum guidance from the training staff. After considerable thought and study the syndicate prepares a report on the subject assigned to it. The report of each syndicate is presented to an assembly of all the syndicates in the training programmes as well as training faculty. The Chairman and the Secretary are responsible for preparing the report of the syndicate. The Course Director briefs the syndicate about the scope and importance of the subject understood and provides a list of reading materials. The function of the trainer in this method is not to instruct the syndicate members to build a close relationship with them to give them advice and guidance in an unobstructive manner. He guides the deliberations of the seminar in an effective and purposive manner.

Syndicate method is a participative method which develops the decision-making skills of the participants. It encourages respect and consideration for the views of others. It enriches experience in writing of the report. The main advantages of the syndicate method are that it enables the participants to have an opportunity for critical reflections on the day-to-day work, revising the updating their knowledge and improving their analytical skills.

It is to be noted that syndicate method could be useful only when there is a group of experienced persons who are in a position to draw from their own experiences in dealing with the subject matter under discussion.

Case Study :

This method is very popular these days and is widely used in various management programmes. In this method, a written case is given to the participants for their study and examination. The participants suggest possible course of action on the basis of the data given in the case study. Some of the characteristics of the case study are :

- a. They are based on a study of official files dealing with the situation, and interviews with the persons who were involved in the particular decision-making process.
- b. They depict "Slices of life" accurately and comprehensively, so that the reader gets a real feel of the actual situation to enable him to appreciate the forces that affected the outcome of the governmental decision.
- c. The cases should exclude statements representing the opinions of the case study writers.

"The emphasis in the case study is on presentation of facts or narrative summaries of situations that have actually occurred in business, government, or institutions. The situation is presented without interpretation, usually from the viewpoint of one observer, and may include statements by principal figures, organisation charts, financial statements, copies of abstracts of reports, or simply verbal description of the situation in as many particulars as the case writer chooses to include".

The advantages of the Case Method are that -

- a. It ensures the active involvement of the participants in the learning process;
- b. It conveys substantive knowledge;
- c. It enhances the capabilities of administrative analysis and decision-making.
- d. It imparts vicarious experience of the pressures and complexities of real administrative life;
- e. It enables a better understanding of the theoretical principles of public administration with the help of material drawn from real life.

As a participative method of learning, the case method is acquiring considerable popularity and importance in the management education programmes. It develops decision-making and problem-solving competence of the manager.

Incident Method :

This is a variant of the case method. In this method, the participant is told of an incident which occurred in a particular organisation. The participant studies the incident and suggests steps to tackle it by placing himself in the role of the executive whose responsibility it is to deal with the situation.

The main distinguishing features of the incident process are that it requires no prior case reading and that information is obtained by questioning and asking for the relevant data. In a nutshell, it involves five phases as follows :

- a. Studying the incident
- b. Gathering information
- c. Formulating the problem and the issue to be decided upon.
- d. Making the decision, and
- e. Trying to learn from the incident as a whole

The Incident-Method of training gives practice not only in decision-making but also in collecting relevant data required for arriving at a suitable decision. It also enables participants to have an insight into different approaches towards solution of the same problem.

In-basket Method

This method is used to simulate the holding of day-today matters which a manager has to face. It puts the trainee in a live situation where he is given a packet of different papers like letters, notes, reports, etc., for his examination and disposal. The participant should deal with these papers within a specified time.

Prior to the training exercise, each participant is given :

- a. A set of directions explaining what the manager whose job he has to simulate is expected to do.
- b. A summary of factual information the manager is assumed to have, which may also include an organisation chart and other related material.

For dealing with each item, the participant has to choose from an array of alternatives and to commit himself to a course of action. The pattern of his response communicates his style of managing and gives an index of his effectiveness. This technique provides an opportunity for the trainee to simulate real life conditions and the high degree of involvement which the participants experience, tend to make the lesson drawn from the exercise enduring. The main importance and value of this method relates (a) to the ability of the participant to arrive at a number of decisions within a specified period of time, (b) to make these decisions by discriminating between the relatively important and

unimportant and (c) to the need for sufficient information to make a sound decision.

Role Playing

Participants in a training programme can be made to relive a particular administrative situation, so that they can get real feel of the roles they are called upon to play. This experience enhances their knowledge of human nature and feelings and enables them to acquire a greater insight into the problems of human relations. This method enables participants to understand better the behaviour of others as well as their own emotions and feelings.

The role play can be "structured" or "spontaneous". In the structured role-playing, the parts to be played by the various participants are prepared and written beforehand and the participants have to play the roles in accordance with the written instructions given to them, by the Course Director. Spontaneous role-playing is initiated without any written or prescribed roles, on the basis of problems identified on the spot as a result of the discussions. The basic idea of structured role-playing is to make individuals more proficient in some area of his work or job-related skills such as problem-solving, job attitudes or inter-personal relations. The objective of spontaneous role-playing is to enable the participants to achieve an insight into their behaviour and the behaviour of others and to develop new ways of dealing with problem-situation.

In a structured role-play session, the various participants are given written documents of the roles they have to play. They are thereafter made to enact their respective roles. A useful technique used in structured role-playing is that of "Role Rotation" in which different participants are asked to play the same role. This gives an opportunity to the participants to understand how the same role could be played in a number of ways involving

different styles and strategies of administrative behaviour. After the role-play is over, the participants discuss how far the performance of the actors and their interactions have conformed to the principles and techniques which may have been earlier discussed by the group before the role-play. During the role-playing, the awareness created in the participants helps to enhance their own understanding of the attitudes and behaviour involved in specific situations and this understanding can be further heightened as a result of the discussion after the role-play sessions.

In the case of spontaneous role-play, the Instructore asks the group about various kinds of problems which/^{they}may like to discuss. Using the information given by the participants, a behavioural situation can be identified which would be of interest to the group as a whole and the instructor then suggests a role play which represents a general problem of common concern to the group. The technique of "Role Reversal can be adopted in spontaneous role-playing in which the participants exchange their roles for brief periods. This helps to develop a greater insight into the feelings and behaviour of other persons. If the roles are then reversed to the original, there may be a distinct change in the behaviour of theplayers. After the role-play is over, the members of the group are encouraged to comment on the extent to which they identified with the role-players and their feelings during the unactment of the role-play. The role-players are also asked about their feelings, emotions and tensions during the session.

Role-playing has the advantage of enlivening the teaching and making the students mentally and emotionally involved. The limitation of the method is that some trainees may conceal their feelings and play to

to the gallery. The reticent participants have also to be drawn out. In order to be successful, it is necessary to have properly trained Instructors.

"Perhaps the form of action training that offers the quickest and surest achievement of behaviour change is that of role-play. Shakespeare said "All the world's a stage" and people respond quickly to the theme that they are acting out roles in this world and on their jobs. Permitting them to play a role in a relatively safe environment, the training session permits the person to receive feed-back during his action and immediately afterwards. It can be controlled by the director or trainer, and research evidence by Norman RF Maier has shown that behaviour change does occur through the 'use of this method'".

Management Games

Management game is a training exercise in a business situation. It is a simulation of a situation in which the constraints and pressures of day-today work are created and the participant is placed in the midst of the situation to find a solution. It creates a real life situation in which the participants apply their knowledge and skills and obtain feed-back on the correctness of their decision.

As a method of training, the management games help to sharpen the skills of analysing and decision-making of the participants and expose them to the immediate consequences of their decision. The advantages of the method are :

1. A participant has to be active throughout the session and the effectiveness of the learning process is high.

2. Participants learn from experience without paying the price of wrong decisions in real life.
3. In a management game, time is actually compressed, that is, a sequence of real life events spreading over months can be simulated in minutes of hours.
4. Discussions are realistic, as the participants have to establish proper priorities, separate the relevant from irrelevant variables, set realistic goals and assign values in order of relative importance.
5. the feed-back is immediate. The participants are enabled to see the consequences of their action at once, and to modify their action accordingly.

Further, in the course of the discussion towards the end of the game, the participants, their peers, their colleagues and the Instructor can share what each one experienced during the day and this provides another type of feed-back.

Brain Storming :

In this techniques, a small group of persons is given a problem and are asked to produce as many solutions as possible within a given period. The participants are encouraged to put forward unconventional and non-conformist solutions. The emphasis is on greater use of imagination and innovation, When a large number of suggestions are made, the group is asked to reflect on the various suggestions and evaluation their merits and demerits. A number of worthwhile solutions can emerge from such a session.

Programmed Instruction

This method involves the imparting of instructions to the trainees on a particular subject through the use of written exercises. At appropriate stages, the trainee indicates his understanding of the subject-matter in response to well designed questionnaires and further learning takes place only at a pace indicated by the participant's response. Thus the trainee progresses with his learning at a suitable rate and not at a fast pace decided upon by the supervisor.

The main elements of the programmed instruction method are (a) careful preparation in advance of the training material, (b) sub-division of the material into small units which can be learnt progressively, and (c) presentation of the material in a manner so that the learner should have digested the preceding material before he turns to a new item.

Programmed instruction has been made use of for imparting knowledge to a large number of persons who are not in a position to take part in any formal institutional programme. The full potential of this method has, however, not yet been realised.

Audio-Visual Aids :

Cooperative training and education to be effective will have to ensure perfect communication media by the trainer and educator. As the situation that exists in our country the main media of communication in our training programmes is lecture method which is by and large a one way communication process. It is our common experience that what we hear we forget, what we see we remember and what we do we understand. Training to be effective, therefore must include in its process the last named two processes.

The greatest weakness in our training system is that we the trainers assume that the main aim of communication is to transmit the meaning of a message from trainer to learner. But this conception is wrong. Meanings are neither transmittable nor transferable. Only messages are transmittable and meanings are determined by the individuals according to his background and needs.

If we look to the problem of making the training effective in this context, the role of Audio Visual Aids becomes very clear.

Unfortunately, the words use of Audio Visual Aids in teaching is interpreted loosely. In many cases it is considered ornamental and suitable at elementary level. This misconception must go. We must accept the fact that the use of audio visual materials and aids are an integrated programme of instruction. It is a highly technical and skilled job. The trainers must know the three fundamentals "why", "where" and "how" while using the audio visual media.

There are four aspects which should be considered in the use of Audio Visual Aids. They are :

- time available with the teacher and selection of proper aid;
- the subject matter
- the equipments that are easily available; and
- the resources in terms of materials required for production.

The following audio visual methods have been found to be very useful in our training situation.

1. over head projector using transparencies
2. Flip over chart
3. Flannel Board and magnetic board.
4. Teaching through training packages based on visual aids.
5. Teaching through films/slides and film strips.

Each method has its own advantage and the teacher must make proper choice of media after taking various aspects into consideration. Though the audio-visual aids help the teachers in making communication effective they are not a substitute for the teacher. They are the tools and the teacher must make careful use of them.

Criteria for Selection of Training Techniques

The training techniques or methods adopted by a trainer will depend on the objectives of the programme. Different methods can be adopted in the same programme. The trainer has to take into account the level and experience of the participants. Constraints of time and resources are also important considerations in the choice of training techniques. It is now generally acknowledged that the technique employed should be participative in character. It is not meant that all the techniques must be used for all the training programmes. The ingenuity of a trainer consists in devising a suitable method that would be appropriate for his training situation. There is no one single technique which can meet all the requirements and often a combination of methods may only fulfil the objectives of the programme.

To summarise, it may be said that the selection of suitable training techniques for a training programme would depend on a number of factors, the most important of which are :

- i) the objective of a training programme, i.e. whether the training programme is intended for imparting knowledge, developing skills or cultivating attitudes.
- ii) the programme content.
- iii) the level and experience of the participants.
- iv) the skill and capacity of the course director
- v) the availability of time and resources.

The emphasis should generally be on a participative kind of technique, so that there is maximum involvement and participation of the trainee's which would enhance the effectiveness of the learning and its continued substance in the working environment.

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USING FILMS IN TRAINING

Why do most of us perk up when we know we're going to see a film? We probably expect to have a chance to "get out" of the classroom, the conference hall or the movie theatre to explore new worlds: foreign countries, past centuries, battlegrounds, science laboratories, or may be the world of nature. And that film will probably take us far closer to the sights and sounds of the action than we could ever get by ourselves. In a darkened room, our ears captured by the voice of the narrator and our eyes focused on technicolour images bigger than life, we easily forget about ourselves and enter into the lives of other people, other places, other problems. No wonder a good film has such spell-binding power.

Such a medium clearly has a great deal to offer the instructor and his students, both by way of impact and range of possibilities. Films provide variety and stimulate interest in a way that the instructor cannot. In thirty minutes of filmed documentary the student may learn more about history than he could in three hours of reading - and he may remember it longer. Film expands the reach of the ordinary classroom. It brings the outdoors inside; it goes places it is either impossible or too dangerous for the ordinary human to go. Compare showing a film of a factory to arranging a visiting tour for a hundred students.

In the industrial training context, we may cite the use of films for the study of human relations (labour disputes, disciplinary incidents, interviews, all brought up close for analysis); similarly, for making case

study problems come alive; for demonstrating selling techniques; for revealing the intricacies of machines and industrial processes. There are films which demonstrate and discuss everything from engineering techniques and leadership skills to management philosophy.

As with any other type of training material, the quality of films varies. Their effectiveness as training aids will depend largely upon the instructor's imagination and skill in selecting the films and integrating them into his training programme. The following sections are a review of the main factors involved in using films in training.

Sources of Films

Outside of the United States and the United Kingdom, films produced especially for management training are scarce. A word about some of the possible sources of films, both local and international, may be helpful in the search for appropriate material.

Specialists in the production of management training films are such firms as Roundtable Films and BNA Films in the United States, and the British Productivity Council, Rank Audio Visual Ltd., and S.B. Modules Ltd., in the United Kingdom. Some of these producers have long experience in the field and their technical material is well organised for training purposes. A few firms have specialised in making films for a particular area, like salesmanship or industrial engineering. More recently, management consultancy groups and industrial training specialists are starting to produce their own films. All of these are of course designed mainly for the "home" audience of managers.

Private manufacturing firms prepare films for public relations, sales or staff training purposes. Despite their product orientation, they contain

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good technical material and are often high quality productions. Films from IBM, oil companies like Shell, and the airlines are good examples. Many of these internationally-based firms prepare multi-lingual versions of their films.

Government agencies, in particular the departments of defence and education, are likely to have large film collections suitable for training. Government information services in foreign countries make films available for public information purposes. Utilities companies - power (British Coal), transport (British railways, SNCF), communications (Bell Telephone), - often make their own films and have large lending libraries.

Educational materials firms sometimes go into the production of films to supplement textbooks. McGraw-Hill is an example.

Education centres, national education offices, universities, and training institutes usually have film libraries and sometimes produce their own films.

Television networks collect documentary film material for their programmes. The British Broadcasting Corporation has recorded several of its programmes on management subjects on film for public distribution.

International or bilateral aid agencies prepare their own public information films and collect training films suitable to their fields of work for distribution on loan.

When searching for an appropriate film, it is best to have a fairly open mind as to subject and source. Church organisations, for example, might have access to films in the human relations area. Private companies as mentioned above, may have useful films on industrial processes and products.

Despite the promotional nature of such films, they are usually good quality productions and contain up-to-date technical demonstrations. As to the choice of subject, films prepared for use in one context can often be adapted to use in another - especially in the field of human relations and communications. "How to Make an Effective Sales Presentation" or "Visual Aids" can be used for salesman training, instructor training, or even for executive development (public speaking). "The Engineering of Agreement" and "Styles of Leadership" would be useful to discussion leaders, supervisors, personnel managers and administrators.

Selection of Films

Considerations of length, content and over-all quality will figure in the selection of any film for a particular training purpose. When using foreign-made films, instructors should be especially sensitive to those features which might be culturally unacceptable or simply misunderstood by the audience. A few of the points to consider:

Length

Is it appropriate to the subject treated, and to the time available in the programme? Can it be used in parts?

Condition

Is the film copy in good condition (not scratched or broken)? How old is it? Will old-fashioned styles (clothing, hair-dos, automobiles) or outdated machinery create the impression that the message is old-fashioned too? Can something be done to counteract this impression?

Content

Is the objective of the film in line with the objective of the training session? If not, can it be adapted to the teaching purpose? Is the technical information up to date? Appropriate to the audience level?

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Applicable to the local situation or sufficiently similar to it? Is the subject dealt with at an appropriate level? Are there any attitudes or concepts which will be confusing or objectionable to the audience? Is the narration clear and unaccented? Choice of vocabulary understandable and appropriate to the audience?

Style

Will humour (if any) be understood and appreciated by the audience? Is it appropriate to the subject? Will cartoons, drawings and charts be understood? If animated drawings of people are used, will they be taken seriously? Is the acting convincing? Will the attitudes portrayed be accepted as realistic by the audience?

If you are going to make a habit of using films, it is advisable to keep some sort of record, such as a card index, of the films you have viewed and used. Each film notation should contain information on the source and subject of the film, as well as comments on its use and effectiveness. An example of an evaluation sheet for this purpose is known as Handout I.

Techniques for teaching with film

There is much incorrect use of films, for by their very nature they offer the trainer a tool which may, at first sight, seem so efficient that it needs no support. However, no film can introduce itself, and in most cases a follow-up discussion will prove valuable.

To decide how best to use a particular film, it is clearly necessary to preview it, noting the main points and any special features you wish to emphasise or explain, and to prepare a list of study questions for a follow-up discussion. It may be useful, as well, to prepare supplementary handouts or visual aids, such as charts and diagrams, to help recapitulate and to eliminate the need for note-taking by trainees.

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The **introduction** to a film should make clear the purpose for which the film is being shown and suggest points to look for or questions to be answered after the film showing. For a case study film or documentary, it may be helpful to introduce the characters in advance. Some background to the film - why it was produced and for what original purpose, special terms which are used, any unusual cultural features or technical faults - is likely to help the audience understand the film better at the first showing.

Research experiments have shown that stopping the film at an appropriate point and asking participants to analyse or summarise events up to that point, is effective in increasing learning. Some films have this type of pause for review built into the scenario. A film may be stopped after a question has been posed to allow participants to discuss the problems so far, work out an appropriate solution and anticipate the next set of events. This approach is particularly valuable in the study of human relations. In films where a management expert comments on a case study, stop the film before his remarks and require the audience to carry out their own analysis and discussion first.

A follow-up discussion or question-and-answer period is essential to obtain full value from a film. If the group is large, or the film poses a case study type problem, it may be useful to break up into small syndicates for this purpose. In the case of a technical exposition, a question period may be necessary first. A blackboard or flip chart should be available for review notes. When the film is being used to teach a skill, then a practice exercise may be the most appropriate follow-up.

There are many good training and documentary films which are complete in themselves, so that the film by itself may be the focus of attention for

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the entire class period. Some of the newer films series dealing with management psychology (the Gellerman "Motivation and Productivity" series) or with the expertise of management consultants ("Management by Objectives", "The Effective Executive") are of this type. Producers of these films generally supply study guides and background material to support a film-centered programme. Such films are usually full of much more information than can be readily absorbed during one period. An instructor should consider showing the film twice, once as an introduction and later on for review. This type of film could also be used to refresh peoples' memory on a subject prior to going on to new material. The film "Visual Aids", for example, covers the theory and use of the traditional aids, leaving the class instructor free to move on to the demonstration of more sophisticated equipment.

A film which, because of length or level of the technical material, may be inappropriate for showing to trainees, may nevertheless be used by the instructor as a reference in preparing his own lesson. Lecture films on general management subjects issued by the American Management Association will provide useful guidelines. The same is true for "Pattern for Instruction" (where the analogy to American football might be inappropriate for some audiences) and for "Successful Instruction" (which is very long).

Of the films which can be used as case study material, some are open-ended ("The Personal Problem", "How's it going?") and others must be stopped before the analysis is given on the film ("Avoiding Communication Breakdown"). Study and discussion of these films is conducted just as any other case discussion, the only drawback being that participants may find they wish to re-examine the facts of the case, which will involve

reshowing the film. Wherever possible the instructor should make provision for this. Follow-up to such a film could ultimately include a role play, re-enacting events and incorporating changes which have been suggested by the participants.

Projecting a Film

If a film is to teach properly, it should be shown to its best advantage. Breakdowns, poor sound reproduction, bad film focus, a stuffy atmosphere and unnecessary background noises will all limit the impact of even an excellent film, and may well damage it for future use by others. The following is a review of the essential steps to good projection:

Arrange the room for good viewing comfort. Seats should be staggered, with a good distance between the front row and the screen (about two widths of the screen).

Check to see that the room is sufficiently darkened, that there is ample ventilation and a supply of asatrays if necessary.

Position the loudspeaker in front of and slightly above the audience, pointing toward the centre. Place extension cords out of the way of the audience or fasten them down.

Set the projector on a stand at a suitable height in line with the centre of the screen. Ensure that it is set up firmly so that it does not shake or produce undue noise.

Check to see that all necessary equipment is on hand: extension cords, film spools of the right size, and an emergency kit containing spare projector and exciter lamps, fuses, and repair tools. Ensure that the voltage is suitable for the projector.

Check the film to see that it is correctly wound and in condition for showing.

Clean the lenses and the film path of the projector thoroughly. Particular attention should be paid to the gate, where dust and celluloid particles may be removed with a fine brush.

After threading the projector, test run to adjust the focus, volume and framing.

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S L I D E P R O J E C T I O N

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Professor.

Still pictures are more abstract than motion pictures. The latter shows life in action whereas the still picture can only suggest motion. But for teaching purposes, it may be necessary that we arrest motion and action so that we may study specific elements in the lesson. The still picture can do this effectively.

Still pictures can bring us close to the point of visual contact with reality itself. They can also reduce or expand the size of an object that is too small or too large to be understood visually in its actual dimensions. The picture may be of the earth as seen from a satellite; it may be of a cell as seen through an electron microscope. The range is so great, that we have countless applications for them in our teaching.

But we must not assume that just because slides are so "real" they can be easily understood by everyone without effort and critical observation. Pictures contain "cues" which have to be interpreted by the viewer who has to be imaginatively involved. For this, he has to learn to read pictures as he learns to read words. This is done by studying a picture on three levels- enumeration, description and interpretation. The reading of pictures can be most rewarding when the viewer knows what to observe and how to observe. Our students have to be prepared

in this twofold approach.

Pictures must sometimes be read as printed material with the aid of discussions. Teaching students may involve pointed questions covering a wide range of content and interpretation both in slide reading and in book reading. But both have real deficiencies which can be remedied by combining their use. The verbal statement can give the date, the place, and the time of action, and may further explain the picture.

Objectives of Slide Projection:

1. A large group can study the same picture at the same time.
2. Magnification often helps to get across an idea by presenting more details which can be indicated in a manner that all can see.
3. Concentrated attention can be expected when visual distractions in the room are removed.
4. Easy storage and handling of filmstrips and slides are advantageous when a large number of pictures is used.

There are, however some cautions to be observed in the use of projected pictures. When the room is made dark for projection, note-taking becomes difficult. Further, projection is usually a groups techniques and may not allow enough time for careful individual study. One remedy for these drawbacks is to project fewer pictures during a period and intensify the

observations by individual participants, allotting more time for questions and discussion. To allow for note-taking, some rooms are equipped with small overhead spotlights focused on the individual desks.

Purposes of Slide Projection:

a) To introduce and to motivate:- Pictures arouse curiosity and prepare students for the new subject matter.

b) To translate word symbols: What might otherwise remain verbal abstractions can be translated into sharply defined visual images.

c) To correct mistaken impressions.

d) To enrich reading. The participants can understand written material far better when he can see many supplementing pictures.

e) To stir the emotions: Even the least intense slides evoke some emotional response.

f) To recapitulate a unit: No writer can hope to match a photograph in picturing the reality of a specific scene or building.

Thus pictures both complement and supplement words as instruments in communicating subject matter. We do not use pictures without talking about them and around them. Words are usually a part of the pictorial representation. Wilson Hicks points out that " the camera can go just so far, words go the

rest of the way " and concludes that pictures and words together perform a more effective function than either can perform alone. Each reinforces the other.

When you project a motion picture the device itself does most of the performing but in using still picture projection you may provide the audio accompaniment, unless you are using a sound slide-set or sound filmstrips. Every student must see and hear clearly; the materials to be projected must be readily at hand and properly arranged; mechanics must be under control. Besides finalising your talk you must be well prepared with questions, comments and explanations. Previewing the picture is not enough. You should rehearse every stage of the procedure in your mind; anticipate possible distractions, interruptions, and other problems. The projected lesson, in short, calls for thorough preparation as opposed to improvisation during the showing.

How to make slides:

You can make a slide or filmstrip of anything that is drawn, written, typewritten, printed, or photographed. You can also do this in color. Slides may be made with (1) Cellophane; (2) Etched glass; (3) Plain glass; (4) Lumarith; (5) Silhouettes and (6) Photographic prints. The last is expensive, but also impressive. Others can be even handmade for which a person need not be an artist, but a little practice is required to get best results.

The degree of room darkness required for the satisfactory viewing of slides and filmstrips depends on the wattage and the type of the projection bulb, the type of screen used, the photographic quality of the transparency, and the distance of the projector from the screen. By placing the projector close to the screen to give the greatest intensity of light, you can show some kinds of slides without darkening the room at all. The opaque projector requires a darker room than either slides or filmstrips.

Preparations for using slides:

- 1) Check each side of the slides.
- 2) Arrange slides in proper showing order
- 3) Set up projector and screen
- 4) Check seating arrangements in room
- 5) Check lighting
- 6) Check ventilation.
- 7) Test projector

Screens:

Many type of screen surfaces are available for meeting different projection needs. Screens may be made of fabric, plastic, glass, paper or wood. They may be coated with glass beads or special paints to provide especially brilliant images (glass beads) or meet special needs of darkened room or lighted room conditions including viewing from beside the screen as well as at a 90-degree angle (white matte and metallic surfaces). Some screens includes

a ribbed contour for more brilliant daylight projection (lenticular surface). Other screens for rear projection are translucent.

Standards for judging pictures:

The instructor should ask himself the following questions.

1. Will it help achieve my teaching purpose?
Does the picture convey a generally true impression?
3. Does the picture give an accurate impression of relative size?
4. Will the picture add to or reinforce the student's present fund of knowledge?
5. Will the picture stimulate the imagination?
6. Is this a good picture technically and artistically?
7. Does the picture focus attention upon one main idea?
8. Does the picture have the proper amount of detail?

Presenting the Slides:

- a) Prepare the class. Briefly state the problem or the topic. Arouse the interest of the participants, telling them how the presentation would benefit them and what they should look during the show.
- b) The slides should be presented in a logical and orderly fashion. Each slide should be projected long enough to permit study and comprehension. Use a points to focus attention on specific items. Explain the slides as they are projected.

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- c) After the presentation, questions should be invited from the viewers, leading to a fruitful discussion.
- d) The lesson may, then, be summed up by the teacher.

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PRINCIPLES OF PHOTOGRAPHY

A Photographic Camera basically consists of a light tight box, a lens, mechanism for transport of film and a shutter.

The lens used in a Camera is a convex lens; if there is no lens to focus the rays of light coming from the subject, no image will be produced. The convex lens bends the rays from each single point so that they converge on the "focus plane". The image formed is reversed right to left and top to bottom.

The distance measured from the lens plane to the focal plane when the object is at a great distance is known as the focal length of the lens. Lenses used in modern cameras (with the exception of the simplest box cameras) consist of several elements designed to allow maximum amount of light with the least amount of distortion. These lenses also have adjustments for varying the focus and the amount of light.

The amount of light reaching the film can be controlled either by varying the shutter speed or timing or by varying the aperture or diaphragm. The diaphragm (aperture) is similar to the iris of the human eye. The iris adjusts itself to the varying amounts of light; but in the case of the camera lens it has to be adjusted to the sensitivity of the film and the shutter speed, there are, of course, cameras which do this automatically once the lens is set to the sensitivity of the particular film used. The size of the aperture is measured in 'f' stops; these numbers are derived by dividing the focal length of a particular lens by its "effective aperture".

The result is a series of numbers whose relationship at first seems arbitrary:

f 1, f 1.4, f 2, f 2.8, f 4, f 5.6, f 8, f 11, f 16 etc.

These numbers are chosen in such a way that each successive 'f' number in the series will admit only half the amount of light of its predecessor, i.e. an f 4 aperture will admit only half as much light as on f 2.8 aperture or you might say f 2.8 aperture will admit twice as much as an f 4 aperture.

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Changing the size of the diaphragm (aperture) or 'f' number has another consequence. It changes the "depth of field".

The phrase "depth of field" is used to indicate the range of distances in front of the lens that will appear in satisfactory focus; the depth of field for any particular lens increases as the lens is "stepped-down" (when the aperture is reduced or in other words the f number is increased).

The other means used to control the light is the 'Shutter'. This shutter mechanism can be either between the lens elements or behind the lens, in front of the film plane. The shutter in front of the film plane is called the 'focal plane shutter'; most of the cameras which have interchangeable lens facilities are equipped with focal plane shutters. Shutter speed is invariably linked with 'aperture' size. If you want to freeze the action of a fast moving subject you will choose a fast shutter speed and will compensate for the short exposure time by opening the aperture to a lower f stop. Shutter speeds are calibrated thus: (in seconds)

$$\frac{1}{1000} \text{ Sec.} \quad \frac{1}{500} \text{ Sec.} \quad \frac{1}{250} \text{ Sec.} \quad \frac{1}{125} \text{ Sec.}$$

$$\frac{1}{60} \text{ Sec.} \quad \frac{1}{30} \text{ Sec.} \quad \frac{1}{15} \text{ Sec., etc.}$$

Each successive shutter speed doubles the exposure time.

The fundamental chemical principle on which photography is based is that some chemical substances are "photo-sensitive" i.e. they react to light and change chemically. The photo-sensitive chemicals used in to-day's films are known as Silver Halides; when light strikes the film there is a chemical action produced to convert the 'Silver halides' to silver; the colourless silver halide is converted to black silver; however this action of light can be seen only when the film is 'developed' in a chemical bath known as 'developer' and the chemical action is called 'development'. The development action converts the silver halide into silver, but only those silver halide particles which have been exposed to light; the amount of darkening caused in the process of development is proportional to the amount of light received by the film. Thus, the film exposed and developed is called a 'negative' because more light causes more darkening - and where there is no light that area is transparent or white; in other words the tones represented in the subject are reversed. The developed image is not permanent, in that,

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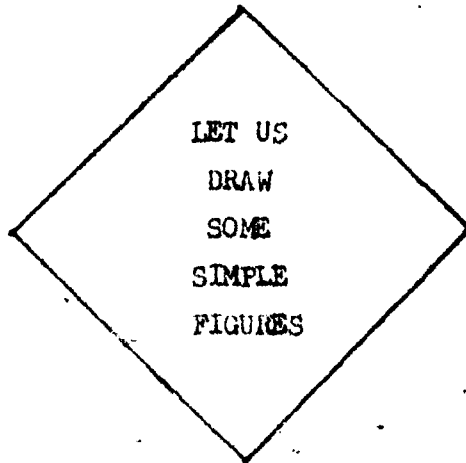
if it is exposed to light the entire film will get darkened unless the process of development is stopped and the image is fixed. The process of fixing the image consists of removing the unexposed silver halide from the film so that light cannot have any action and the process of development is stopped. 'Fixing' is done in a bath known as 'fixer' or hypo. The negative image thus obtained is printed/exposed either by contact or by an enlargement on another paper emulsion or film and this developed image is called a 'positive' because the tones represented in the positive image will be corresponding to the original subject. There are films which will produce directly positive images without an intermediate negative images. Those are known as direct positives or positive transparencies.

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DRAWING SIMPLE FIGURES

Simple drawing or stick figures to represent people are another means of illustrating ideas. There are three major factors to consider in drawing stick/simple figures:

- proportions
- distinguishing features such as face and dress
- body movement

In order to combine these factors properly it is always recommended that some basic principles should be followed. With the understanding of the principles, it is also essential that some practice-work is also done. A more frequent practice will make you perfect.

Now let us do some practical work. Even though you are not an artist, after some practice, you will be able to convert yourself into an artist, who will be able to communicate the point of view in a proper fashion.

Material that you need: To begin with you need the following materials:

1. a plain paper
2. a 50 cent coin
3. a pencil (or a crayon, a pen or a felt-tip pen)

Proportions in a figure (human figure, to begin with) are very important. Follow the following process and you will understand the importance of proportions in a human figure. Mind you, the human body is divided proportionately, and in drawing human figures, these proportions have to be maintained.

1. With the help of the 50 cents coin draw seven circles, one underneath the other - just as in the illustration. Draw light pencil dotted lines at points 1-6 on the coin outlines. Now number the coins as is done in the illustrations. These are the basic proportions of a human figure.
2. To the side, use the same coin to make a circle for the head. Draw the rest of the figure in line with the proportions given. Please notice that:
 - the shoulders come at point 2
 - the bend in the elbow at point 3,
 - the hands and hips at point 4,
 - the knees at point 5, and
 - the feet at point 6.

3. Now repeat this same process to make a female stick figure. Notice that the females have narrower shoulders and wider hips so you will make some adjustments.
4. Now try drawing a female figure next to the one you have just drawn, only this time do not use any coins. Try to judge with your eye the correct body proportions.
5. Once you feel you can draw these figures in the correct proportion, work to pick up speed. You may want to eliminate the middle line extending from the head to the hips. You also will develop your own style for hands and feet. Make these as simple as possible. Do not try to show the details in fingers, nails, and thumbs. Try to keep the figure details-free.
6. Now go back and add the finishing touches to make your figures more realistic such as:
 - hair, ears, headcovering
 - pants and shirt (for males)
 - dress or skirt and blouse (for females)
 - erase centre lines and fill in with colours appropriate to your area.

What do you get now - a properly proportioned human figure - one male figure and the other a female figure. Please try this exercise five times. You will notice that you will be able to work without the use of circles. If you keep it up, you will pick up speed as well. Then try one female figure on a piece of paper and a male figure on another piece of paper.

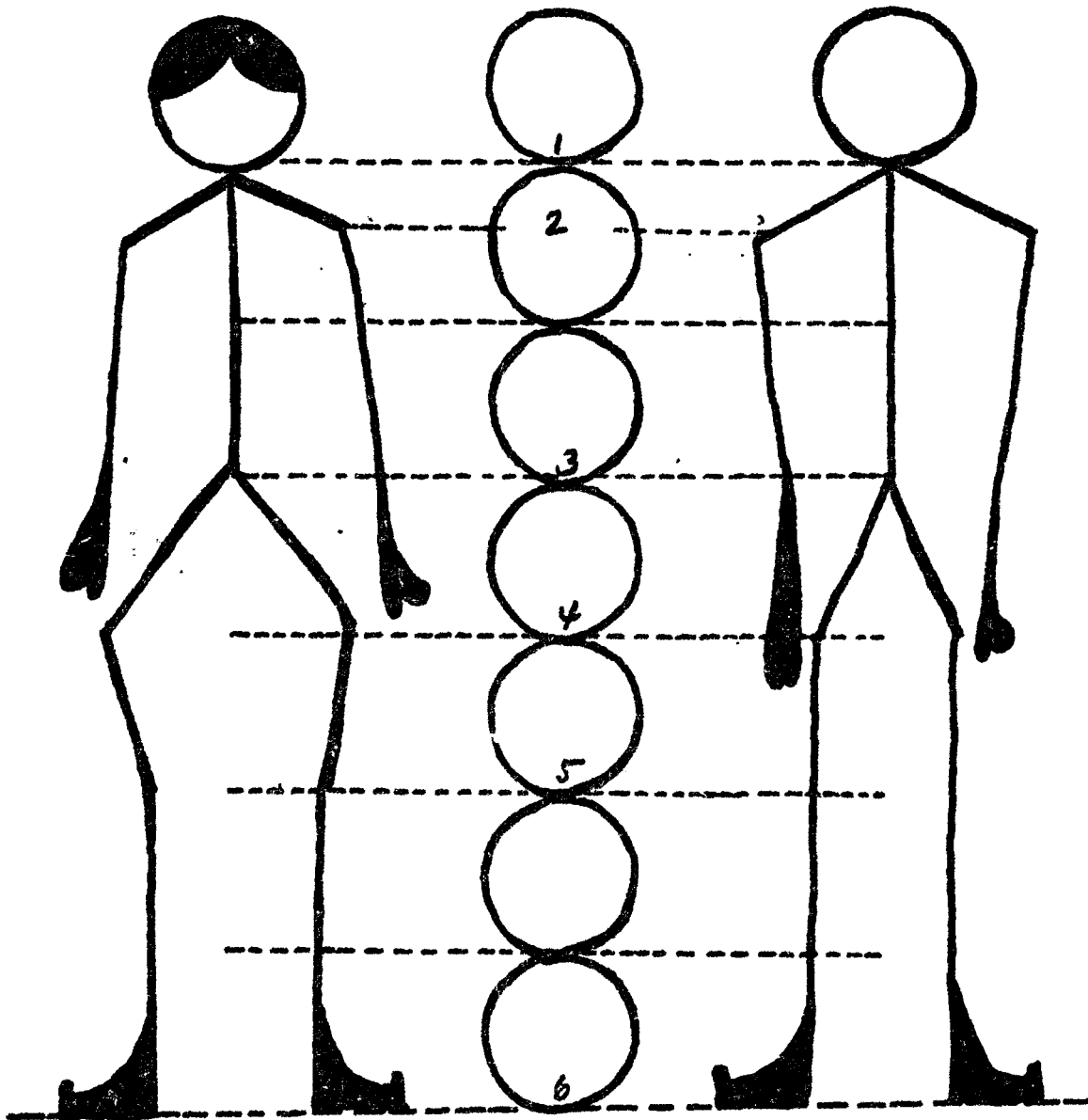
Another effort - but this time you enlarge the figure, say twice the size. And also add some major details in hands, feet, face, hair-style, eyes, ears and so on. After some efforts you will be able to draw a complete figure without any extra effort.

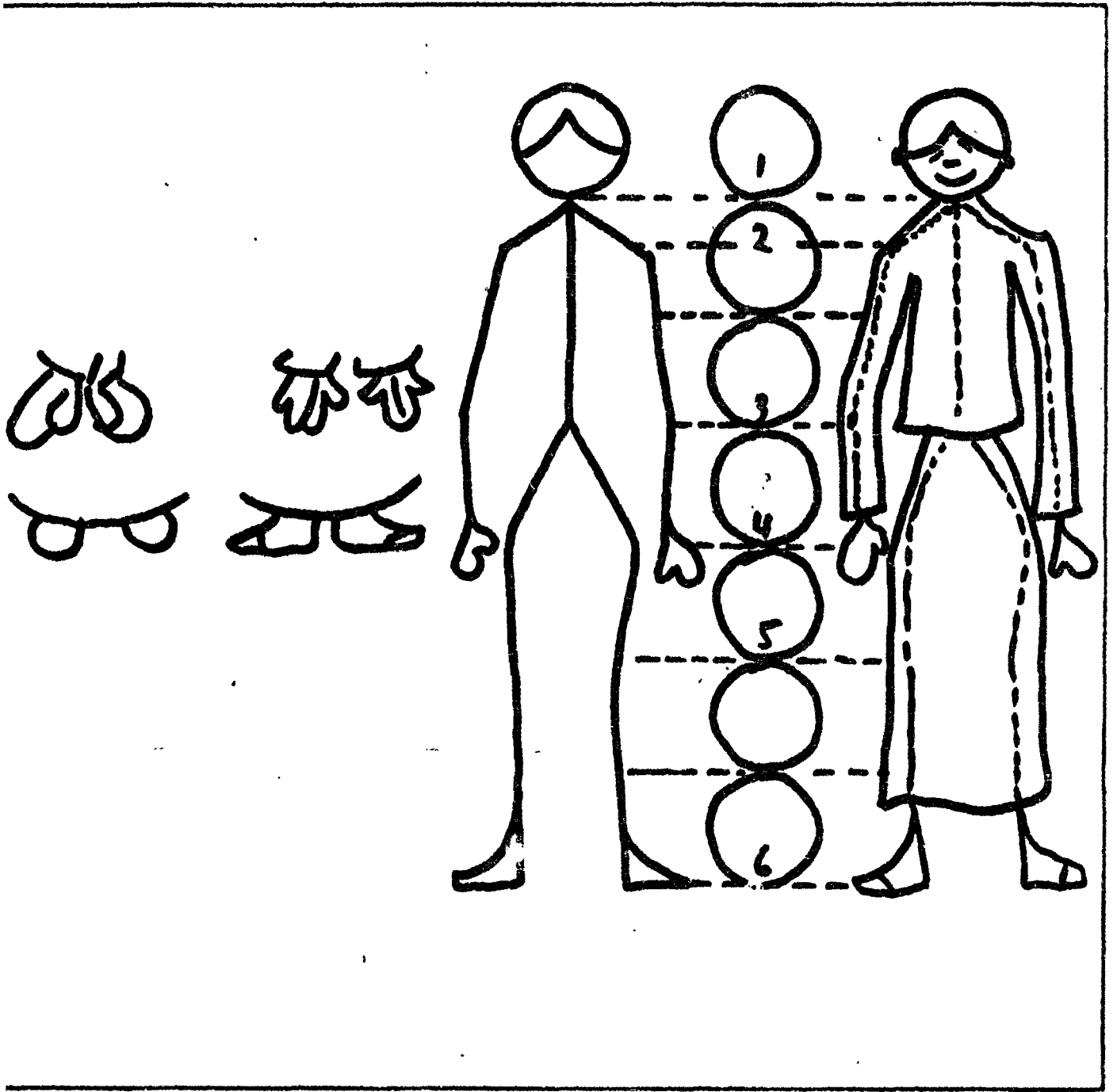
One point of caution: Do not keep your hand and fingers in a tense situation. Allow them to move freely. If you are stiff, the lines would be distorted and you are likely to smudge the paper. No tension please!

PROPORTIONS IN HUMAN FIGURES - MALE & FEMALE

FEMALE

MALE





Facial Expressions in Simple Human Figures

What we have studied so far was the proportionate break-up of a human figure - male and female. Besides the main proportions of the body, there are proportions in each part of the body of a human being. Are the eyes bigger than the nose, or the ears? Do the hair cover the entire head or only some part of it? Is the nose positioned above the eye-line? So when we are trying to fill up the face of a simple human figures, we should take note of the location of various parts and their proportions.

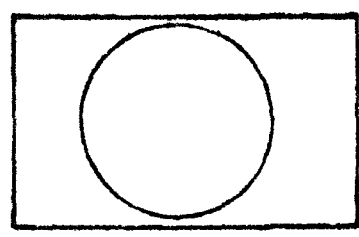
Material that you need:

- plain paper
- pencil
- eraser
- coloured felt-tip markers
- one 50 cents coin (optional)

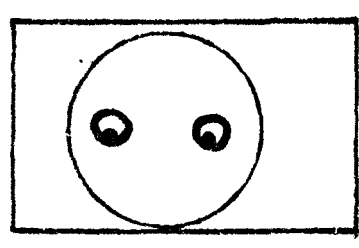
Expressions in human figures are very important. If a human figure does not have the appropriate facial expression, the message sought to be communicated can be distorted. It is therefore essential that you should learn to practice these expressions - and once again - please note practice makes a man perfect. Another point which should be kept in mind is - keep your figures detail-free. These are simple figures and therefore no details would be extremely essential. The figure must be able to convey the message - as simply and effectively as possible.

Now, let us do some practical work on developing these facial expressions!

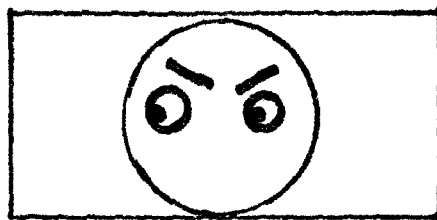
1. At the top of your paper, quickly draw a series of ovals or circles. You may use the 50 cents coin, if you feel like. But it is advisable not to use it. Do not worry about being precise. Draw them big and bold. About four or five circles would be enough to begin with.



2. Expressions of the face change with the shape of the eyes and the positioning of the pupils. Draw eyes in the circle and make pupils in different positions in the eyes. Of course, you know whereabouts would be the eyes and the possible place for the pupils!



3. Draw another series of circles in the next line. Expressions can also be changed by the position of the eyebrows and eyelids. Draw eyelids, eyebrows, and pupils in the faces in this next line. Experiment with trying to show different emotions.

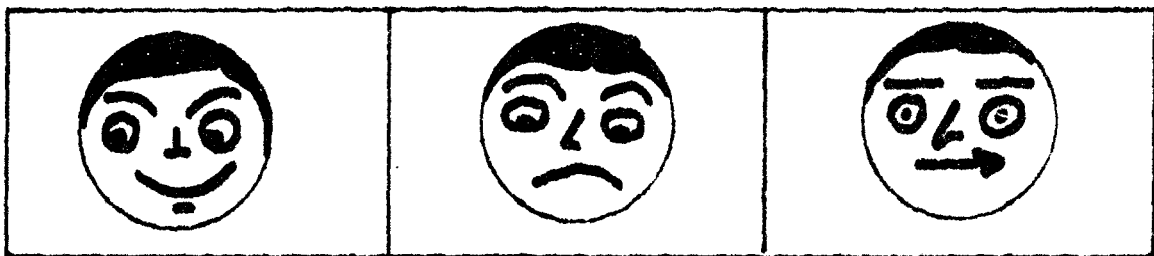


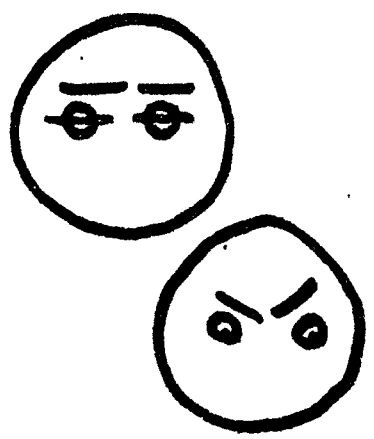
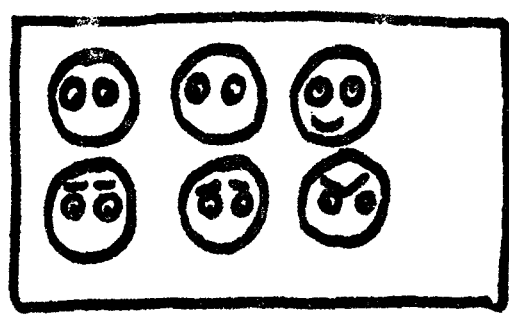
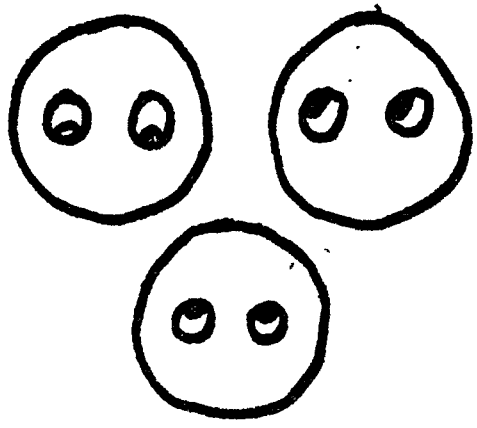
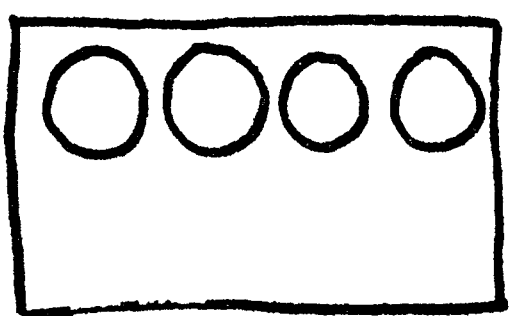
4. Now draw the third line of circles. The mouth is another facial feature which gives us an idea of a person's feelings. Draw different mouths in these faces. When you have done this, add the eyes, pupils, eyelids and eyebrows. What do you find now? Are they not communicating something? Surely, they are in communication with you.

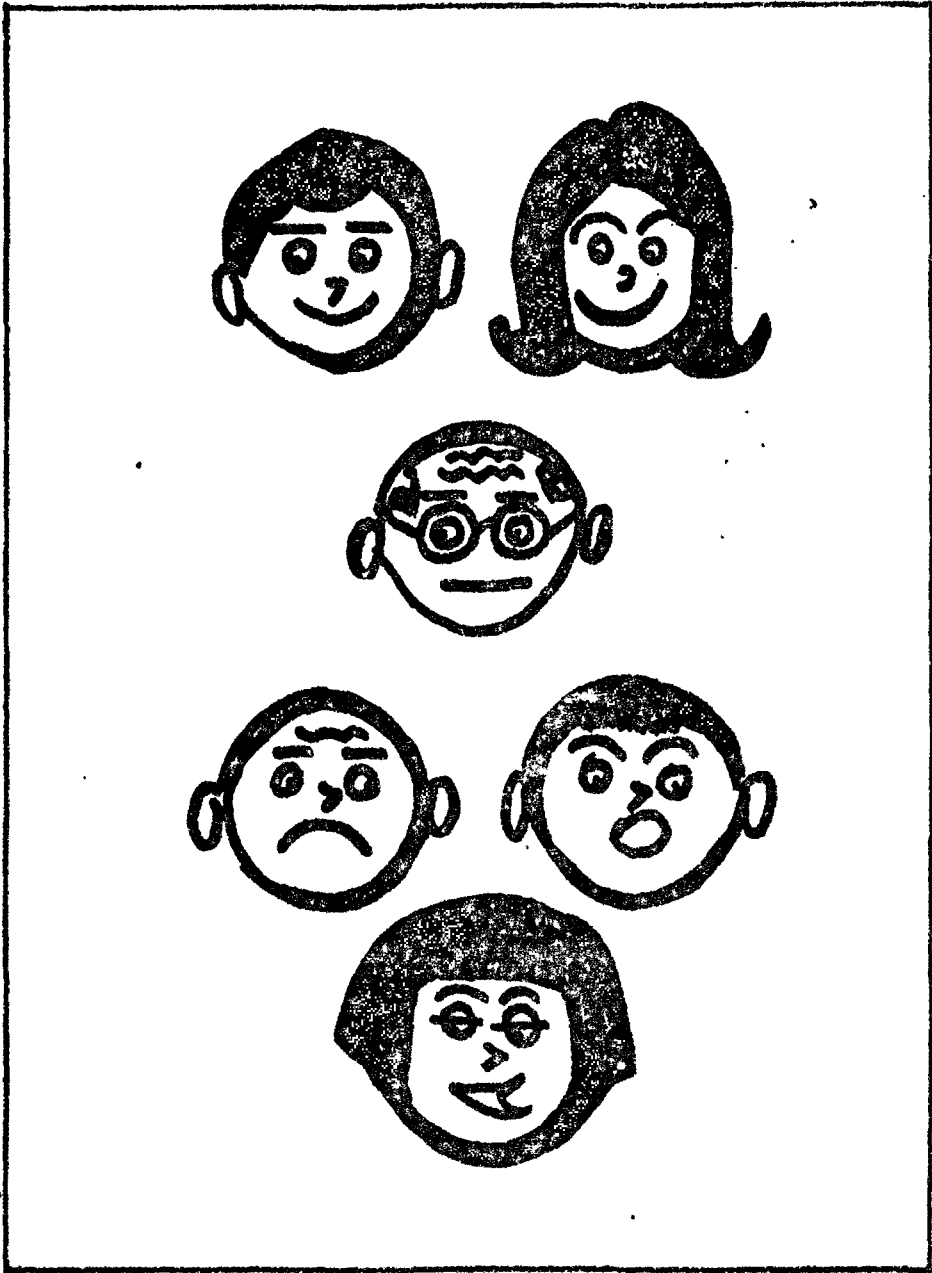


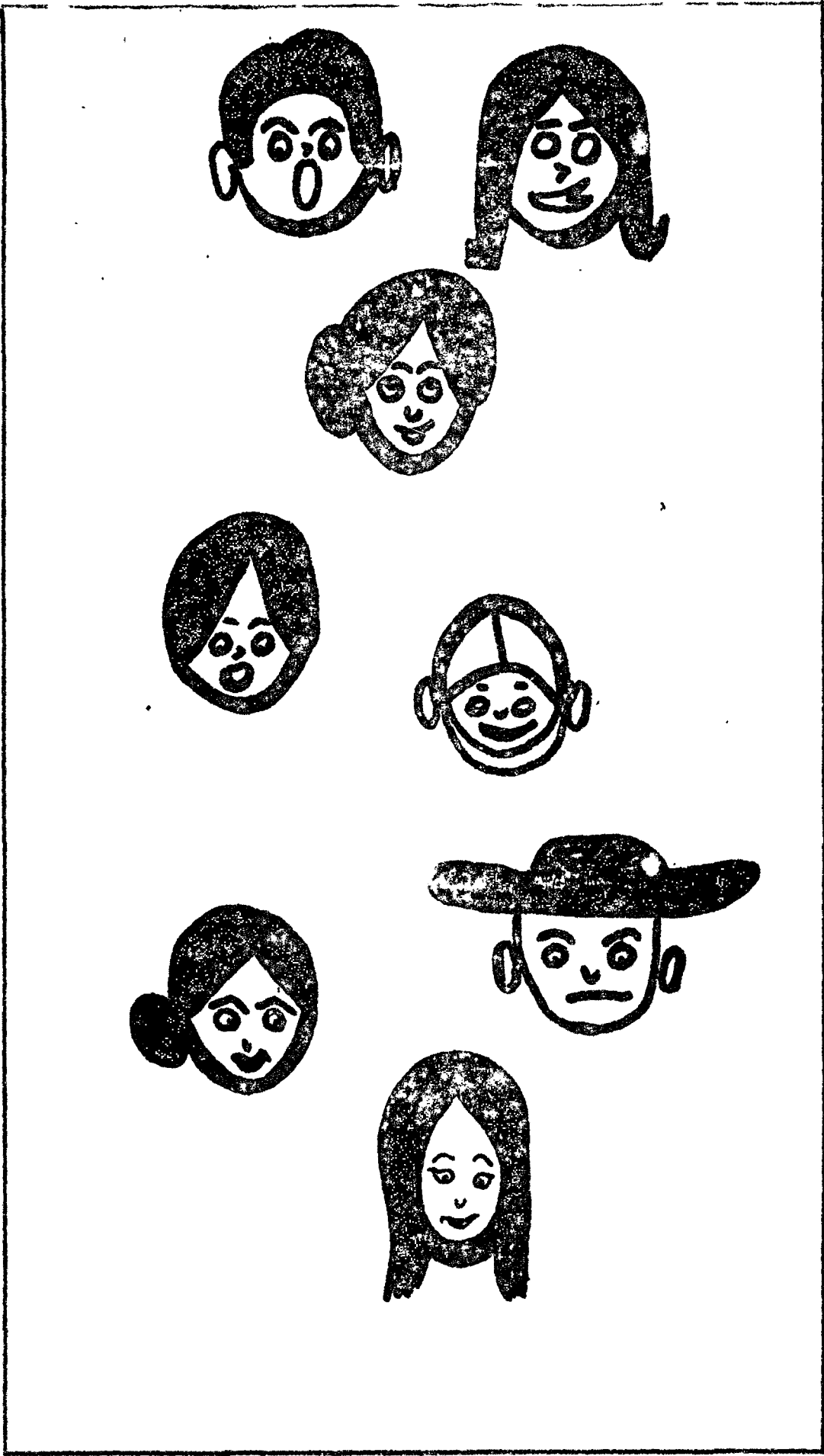
5. You have now mastered the basic steps in drawing simplified faces. You will now wish to begin adding your own touches. Select a few of the faces you have just completed and go back and add a few other characteristics - hair, perhaps a hat, or some other feature which is common or would be easily identified by the people you work with. Add colour now, for hair, eyes, mouth, headcoverings, other.

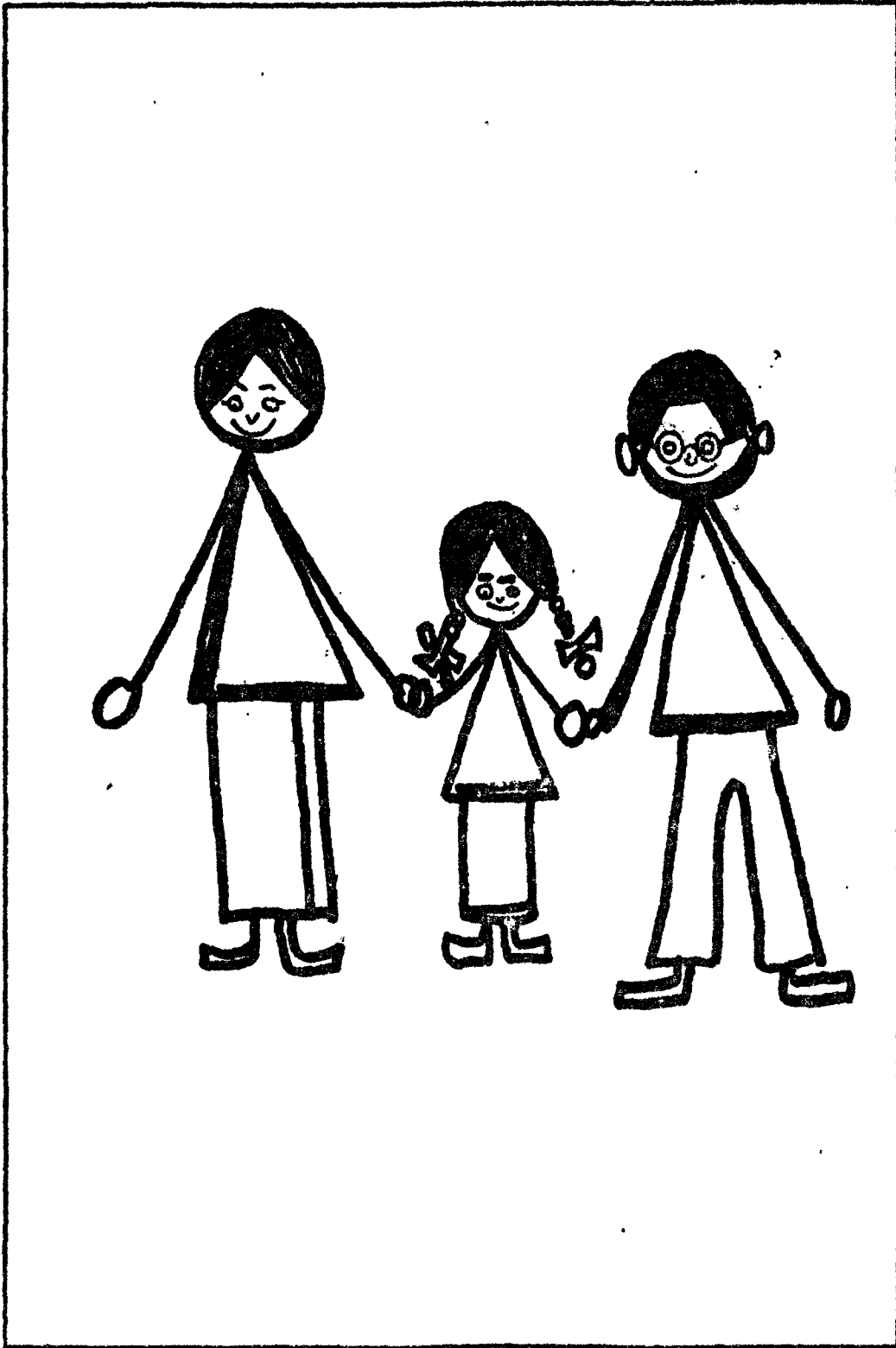
What is your impression of these exercises? You have drawn a human figure according to the proportions, you have drawn the figure of a male and that of a female, you have drawn the face, you have filled the face with eyes, mouth and others. You have, in other words, with the help of these simple methods been able to draw a complete figure of a human being. Keep it up, practice a little more and see the results that you obtain!

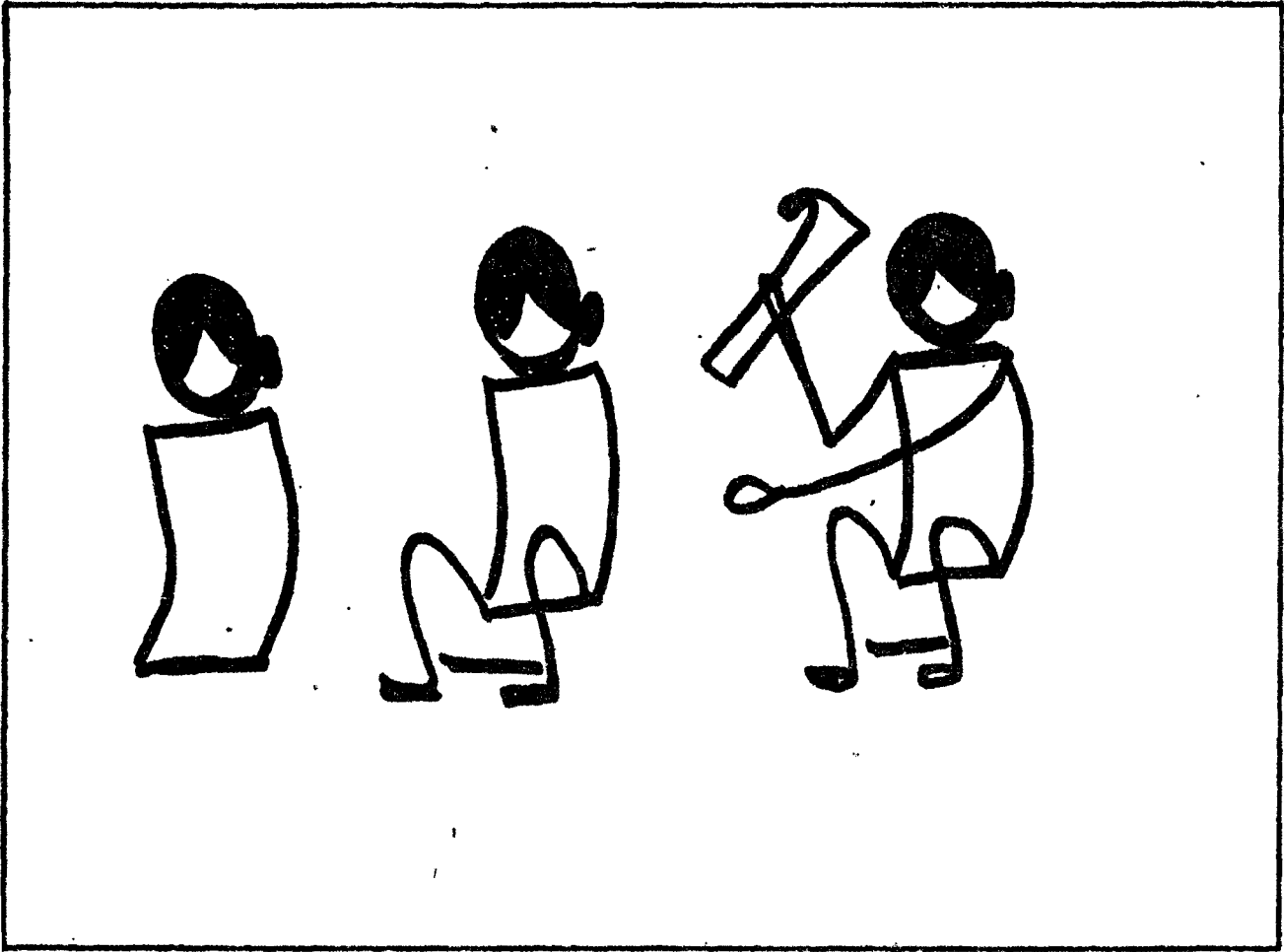


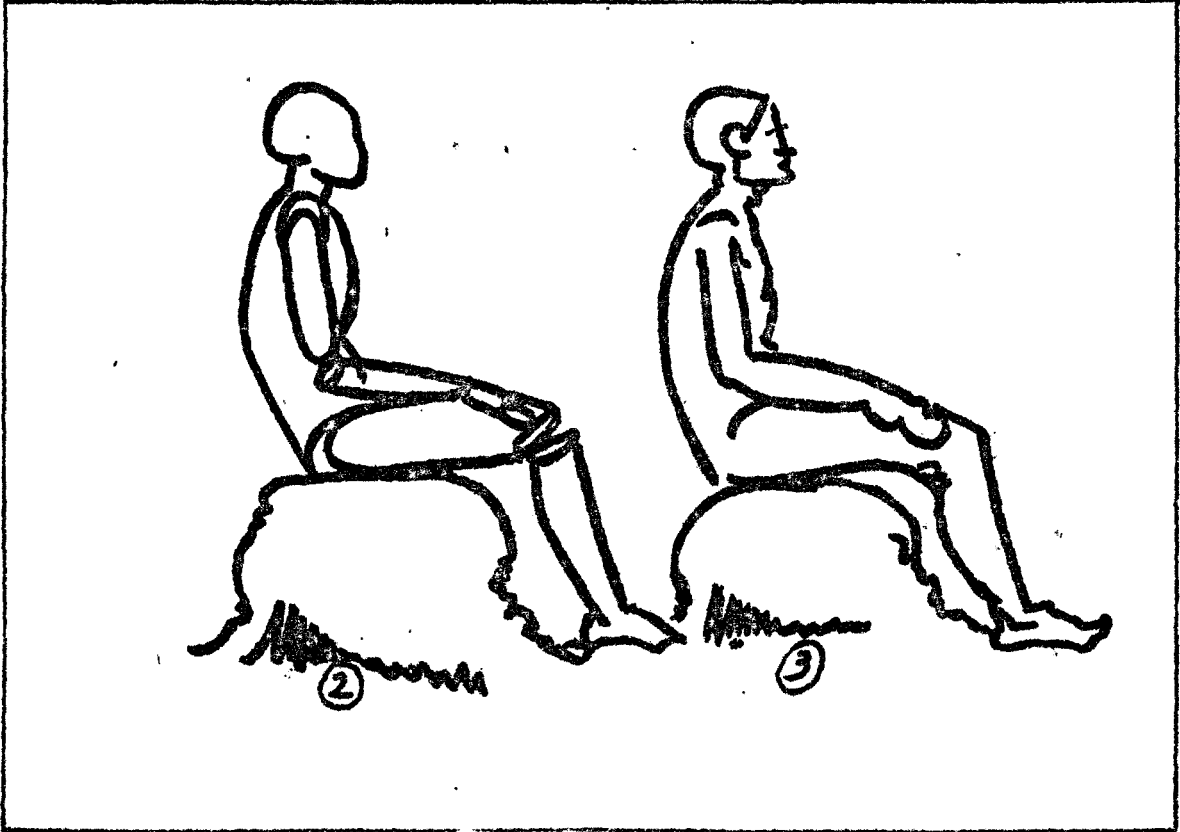
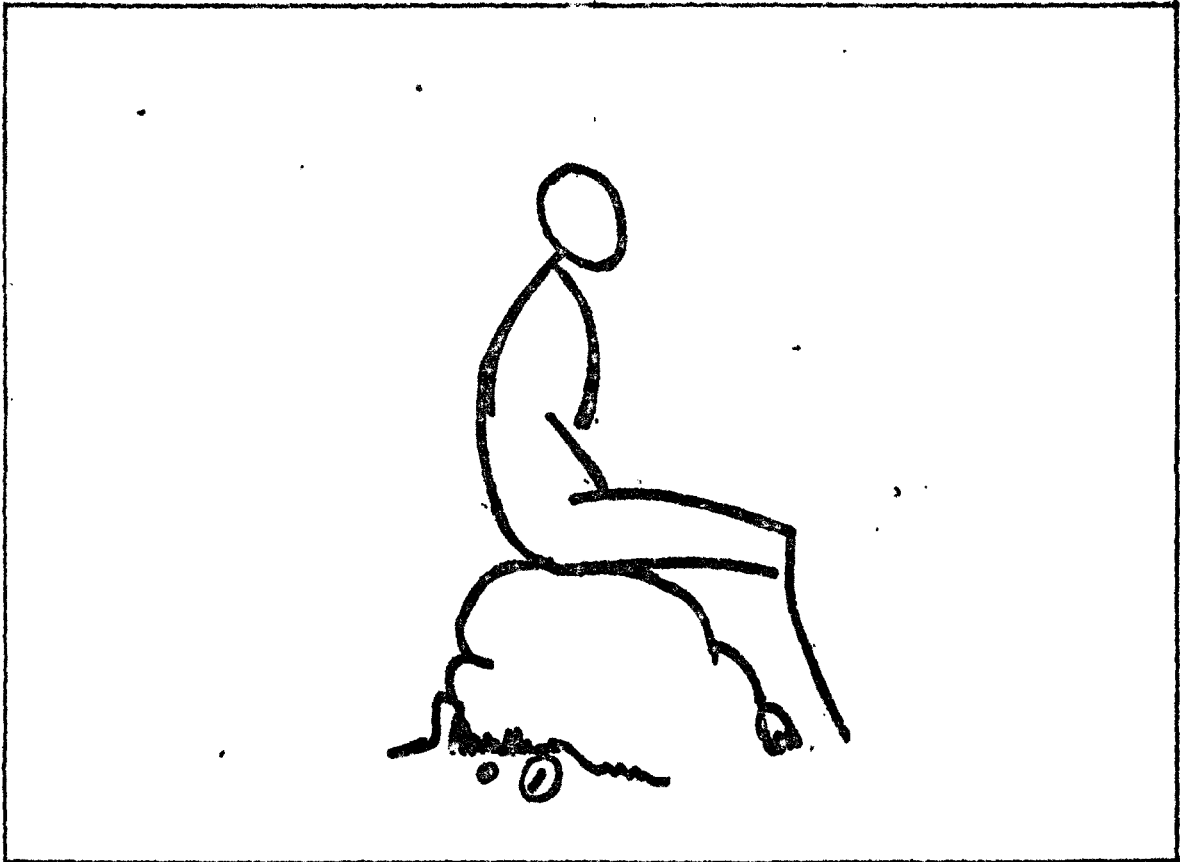


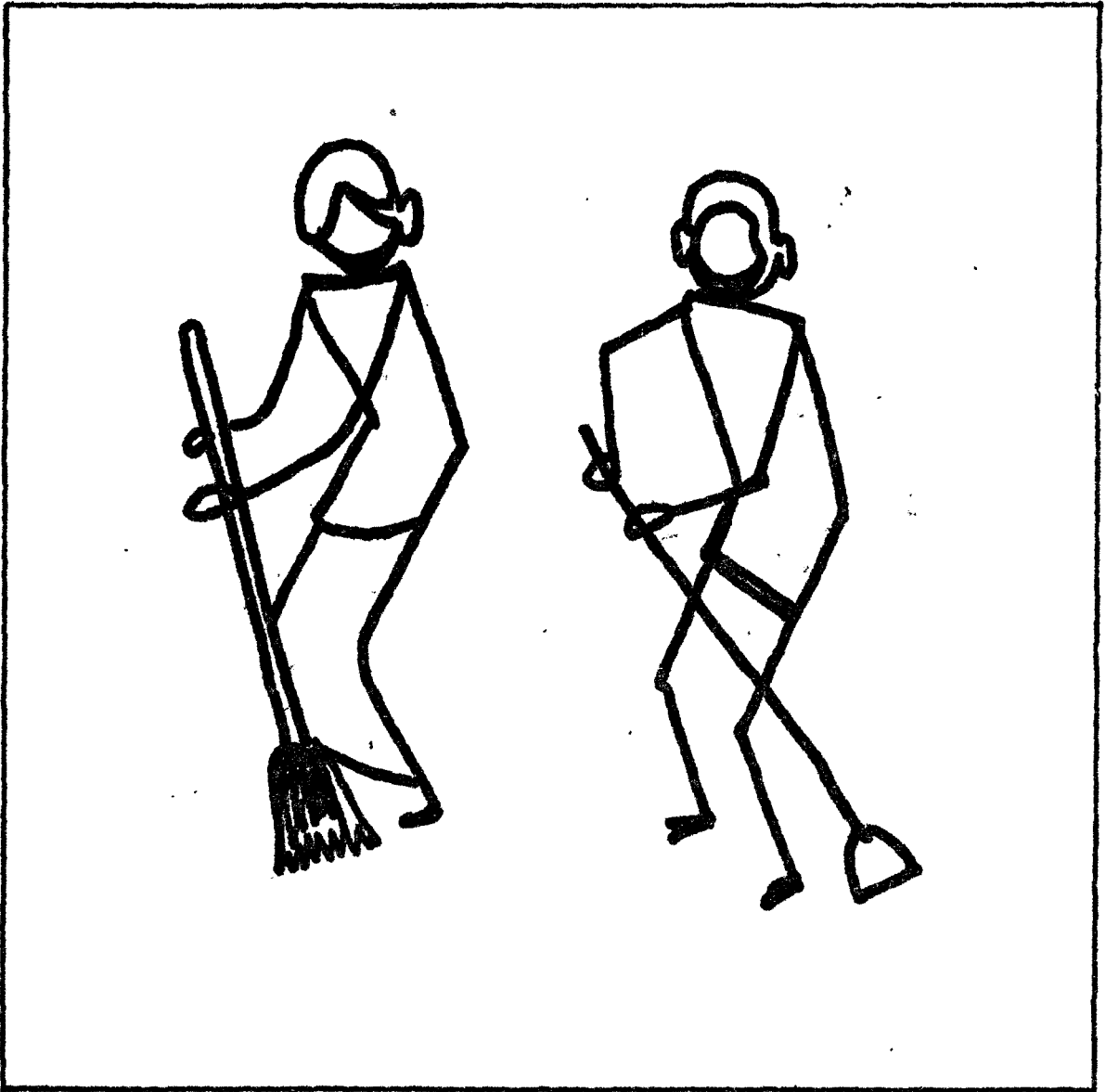


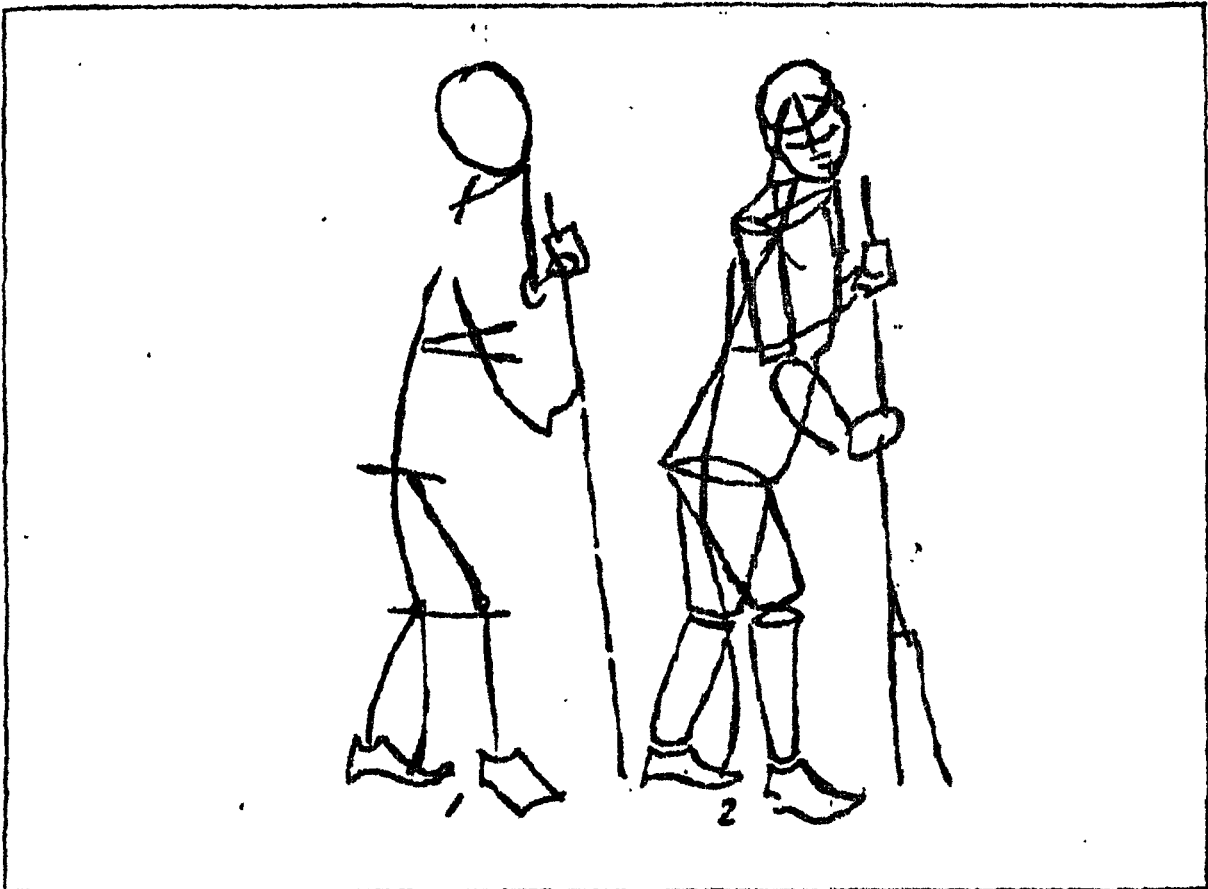


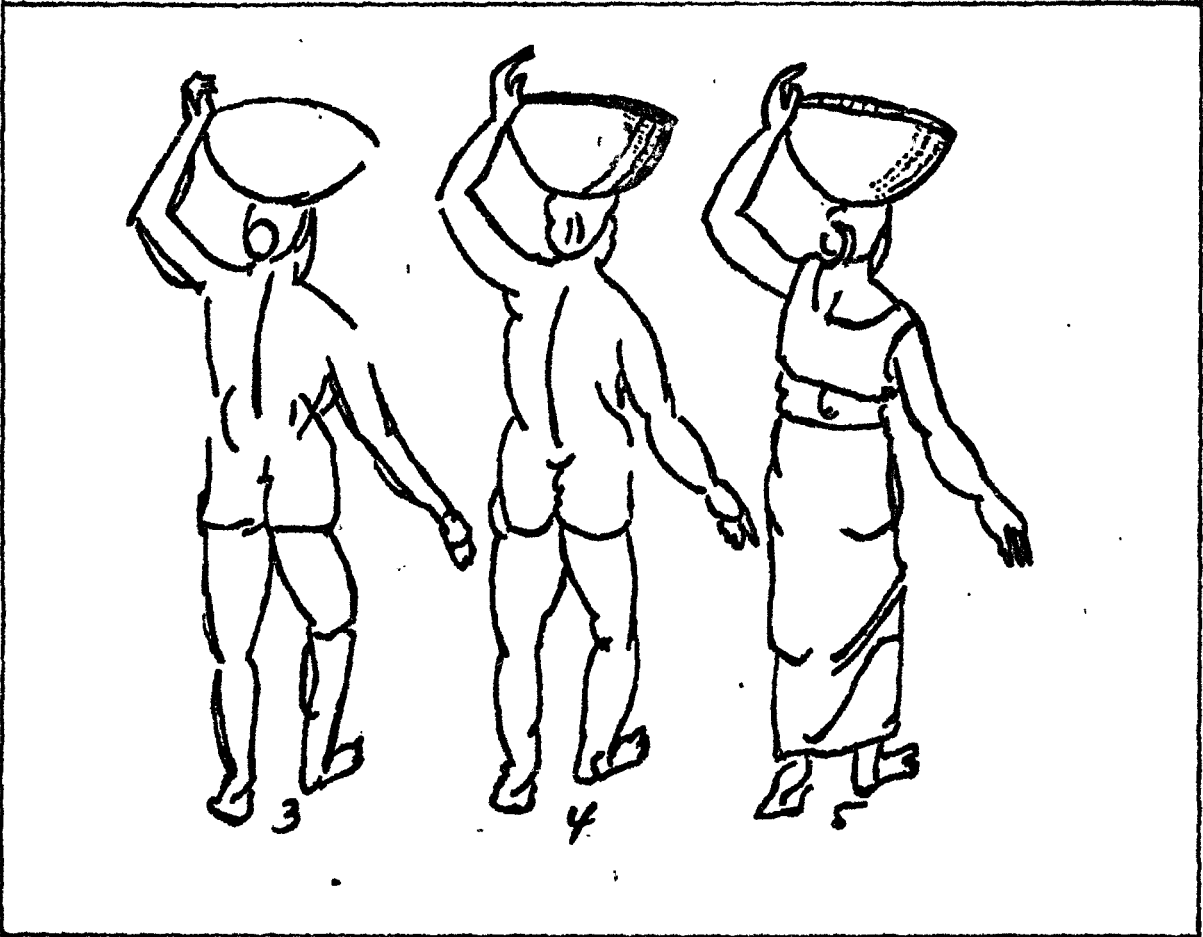
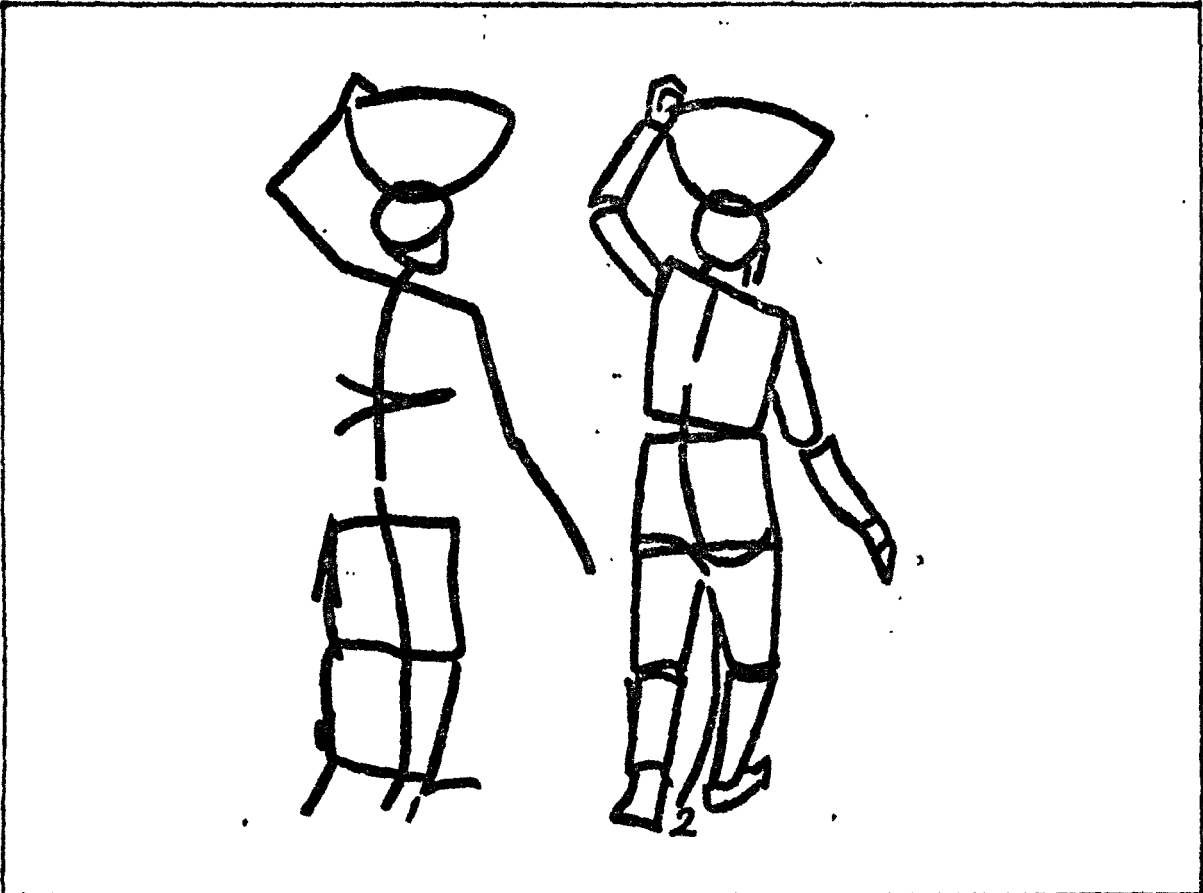


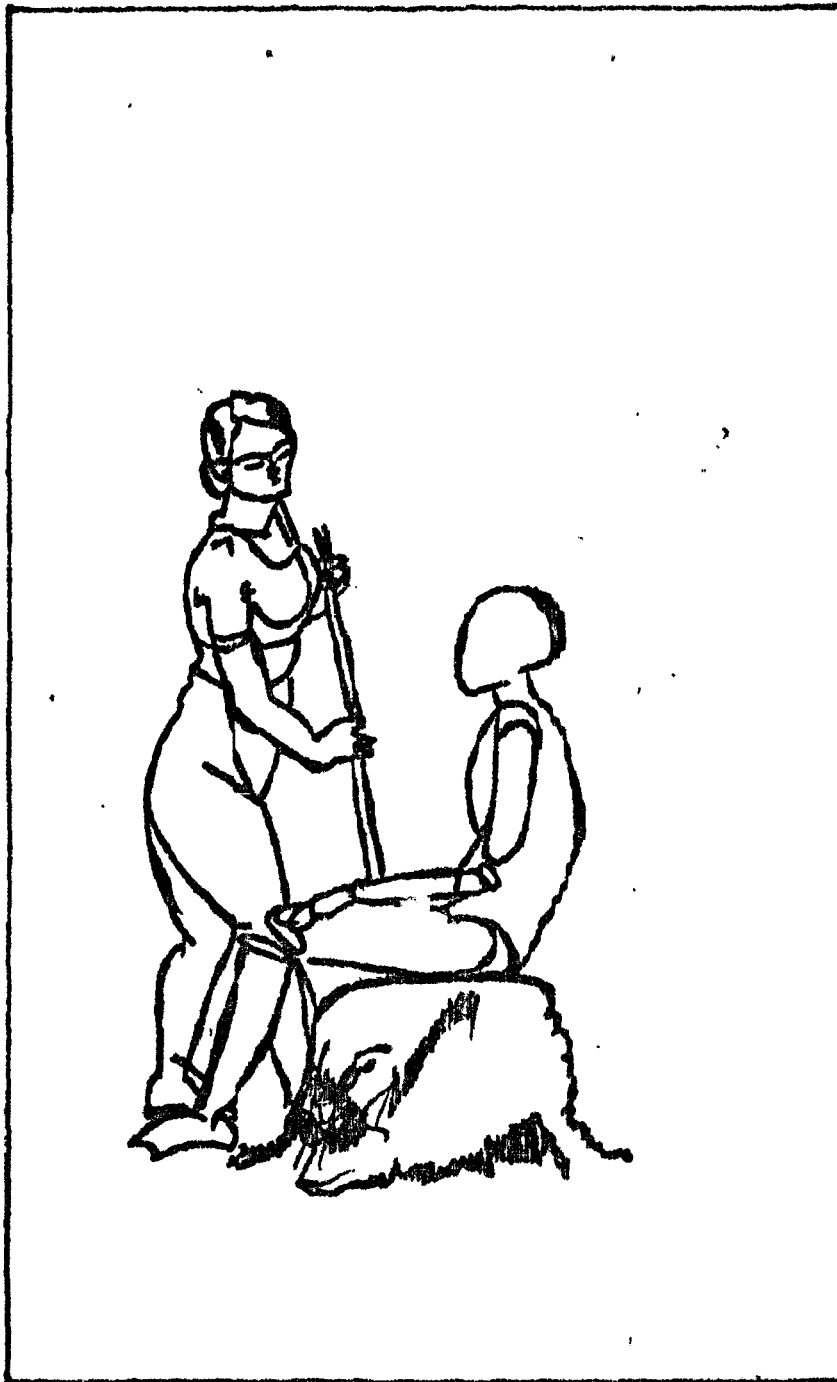






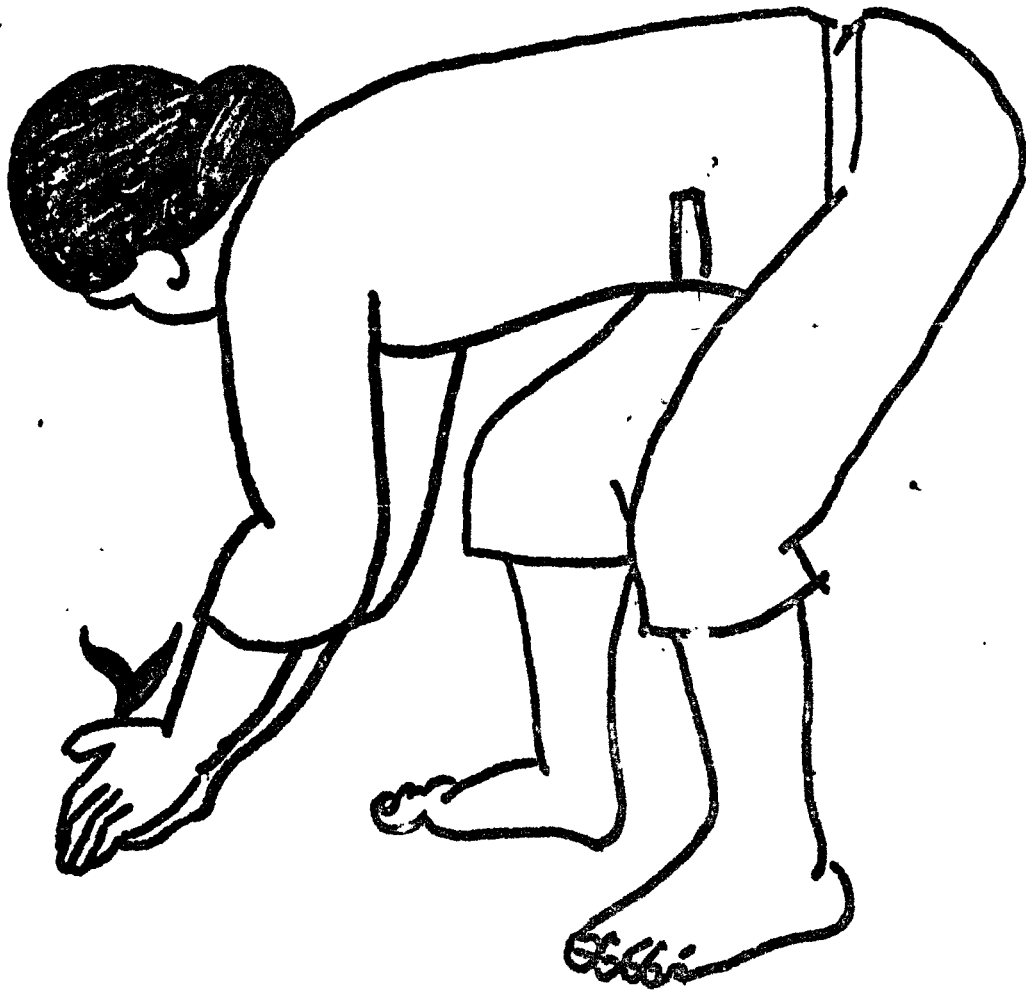


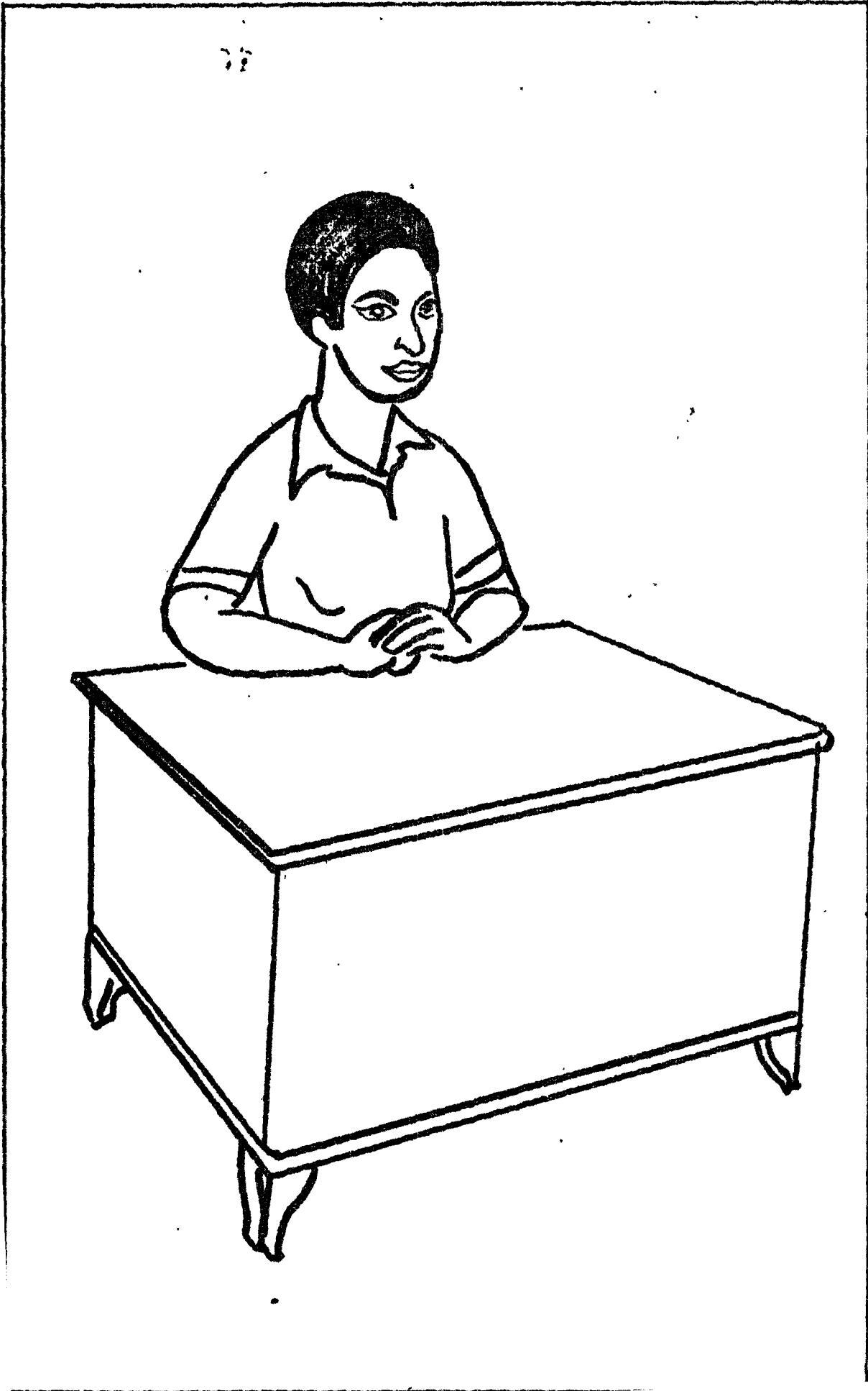


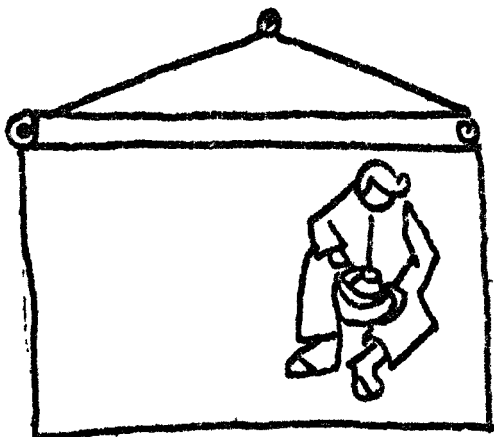


Combining Technique of simple stick-figures

These figures appear elsewhere in this handout. With the help of the tracing paper or with the help of the light-table you can combine pictures to suit your requirements. It is only a question of imagination. The figure seated on the stone has been reversed while the standing figure has been drawn very close to the seated figure. It is a fun mixing up pictures...







Summary

In the preparation of simple visual aids, it is necessary that some simple illustrations and figures are also included. Please note the emphasis on the use of word 'SIMPLE'. Illustrations have to be simple. They have to be meaningful and they should be able to communicate with the people. In drawing simple human figures take note of the proportions of the human body, distinguishing features such as face and dress and the movements of the body. In order to draw these simple figures you have to follow some simple rules. These rules have been mentioned and illustrated in these pages. You have to practice these rules if you would like to make use of simple figures in your simple visual aids. When it comes to the use of audio-visual aids at a somewhat higher level, then, of course, you can employ camera and other projection equipment in showing actual human beings, but that stage is still too far...better be realistic and try to develop the simple visual aids by using simple material, simple methods and simple figures.

Study this training material carefully. Mere reading is not enough. Practice a little! You will enjoy this simple art. Practice, practice and practice....

Now, go on with the pencil and plain paper...







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SOME GUIDELINES FOR THE CONSTRUCTION OF CHALK BOARD

Size of a chalk board (to be fixed to the wall)

- | | | |
|----------------|---|---|
| 1. Actual Size | : | 7' 9" x 4' 3" |
| 2. Description | : | Made out of First Class Kiln seasoned Teakwood with 7/32" thick ground glass - with green cloth fixed to the back of the glass - 12 mm thick cellotack soft wood fixed on 6 mm Commercial ply with sliding arrangement for fixing charts and diary. |

Size of chalk board (mobile)

- | | | |
|----------------|---|--|
| 1. Actual Size | : | 3' x 2.5" |
| 2. Description | : | Made out of First Class seasoned Teakwood with stand in the holes for adjustments; and Painted black |

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CHALKBOARD

Advantages

Generally available and inexpensive - nothing to carry.

Requires no advance preparation of visuals (advisable, however, to carry your own chalk and eraser).

Especially helpful for such matters as demonstrations of the construction and use of mathematical and chemical equations, where much erasing occurs.

Disadvantages

Requires speaker to turn away from audience.

Encourages speaker to talk to board and forget his audience.

Can be seen only a limited distance.

Dusty and messy to hands and clothing.

Dramatic, unusual effects not possible.

Handling tips

Write for the audience, not for yourself. Use print or block capitals for extra clarity.

Keep the work neat and tidy; cut down to essentials; don't overcrowd.

Clean the board when the work is no longer relevant.

Use coloured chalk for emphasis.

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FLIP CHART OR NEWSPRINT FAD

Advantages

Can be used as blackboard, or as previously prepared sheets.

Especially suitable for one-time briefings which do not justify much time and money in preparation of more elaborate visuals.

Good for telling consecutive story with a number of points which need to be emphasised in outline fashion.

Quick. Avoids mess and the time required to erase.

If sheets are just flipped over and not torn off, material is available for recapitulation and review.

Easily portable models are available commercially.

Disadvantages

Pages have limited space.

Presents a transportation problem, though not a great one, to speakers who are travelling to place of talk.

Dramatic effects greatly limited.

Prepared drawings must be stored flat to avoid paper curling.

Handling tips

Conceal the top of the chart with one or more blank sheets until you are ready for it.

Roll sheets smoothly over the top so as to avoid a crinkle which will become increasingly annoying as more and more sheets are turned over. Stand to one side when displaying and turning the chart.

When the chart is merely a summary of the main points the lecturer is to make, it is a good idea to reveal them one at a time. The "strip-tease" chart permits this.

Each heading is covered by a strip of white paper which is attached by paper clips or drawing pins and removed at the appropriate moment. The process creates a certain amount of suspense and added attention. It can also be applied to diagrams and drawings whenever it seems desirable to concentrate attention on one stage at a time.

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When finished with the talk, roll up the pages "topside out" so that, when you next give the talk, the bottoms of the sheets will not curl out toward the audience and possibly conceal the bottom line of your chart or words.

If it is necessary to refer to special pages, mark them in some way such as folded corners, paper clips, etc.

Keep extra felt pens on hand as they tend to dry out.

Drawings can be prepared "invisibly" in light yellow pencil.

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MAGNETIC BOARD

Advantages

Permits combination use of prepared visuals and as a blackboard.

Good for shaped props (often used by courts trying traffic offences to show location of streets, automobiles or pedestrians, lights).

Can also be used as a pin-up board, with magnets serving as drawing pins.

Disadvantages

Board is very heavy, a factor if portability is essential.

Board is expensive, and unless it is needed to display heavy items or to be used as blackboard, it has nothing to offer that cannot be offered by a flannel board.

Suitable, cheap magnets sometimes hard to find.

Handling tips

A dramatic effect can be achieved by lightly "throwing" the display items onto the board, making a sharp clicking sound. Such a gesture needs to be rehearsed. Permanent outlines for recurring talks can be painted on the board.

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FLANNEL BOARD

The essential parts of any flannel board visual are a paper surface seen by the audience and flocked material on the side away from the audience. It is this flocked material which enables the visual to stay in place when it is placed on a piece of flannel. Sandpaper, blotting paper, felt or flannel can be used in place of flock; foam rubber sponge, light balsa wood and nylon hook-and-loop material (Velcro, Teazlegraph) will also adhere.

This combination of qualities (paper surface plus locked back) can be obtained in three ways: (1) by purchasing paper commercially prepared which has a flocked back; (2) by using ordinary paper and purchasing commercially prepared flock with an adhesive back can be placed on the back of the other paper, or (3) by gluing on sandpaper or flannel as backing to ordinary paper. Photographs, posters, illustrations from magazines, may all be mounted in the manner described in (3).

Advantages

Can be prepared beforehand and reused.

Permits quick back and forth adjustment of bits of the talk in preparation of revised talk for different audiences, and in answering questions during a talk.

Permits build-up of logical sequence.

Colourful.

Can use variety of kinds of visuals: words and phrases, lines, mathematical/chemical symbols; outlines, photographs or drawings of physical objects.

Permits dramatic effects (several-level visuals), thus adding the attention-generating factor of movement.

Do-it-yourself models easy to construct.

Disadvantages

Unlike other boards, cannot be used as chalkboard for writing in front of class.

Visuals must all be prepared ahead of time.

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Handling Tips

Plan in advance the exact appearance of the board at any one time, so as to determine where to place each visual on the board. Positions can be marked in light chalk.

Arrange the cut-outs in order before you begin.

Place the visuals exactly where you want them. Most visuals should be set on a horizontal plane. This takes some rehearsing.

Place the pieces on the board with a gentle downward movement so that the fibres engage. Brush the flannel occasionally to clean and roughen it.

Keep cut-outs flat in storage.

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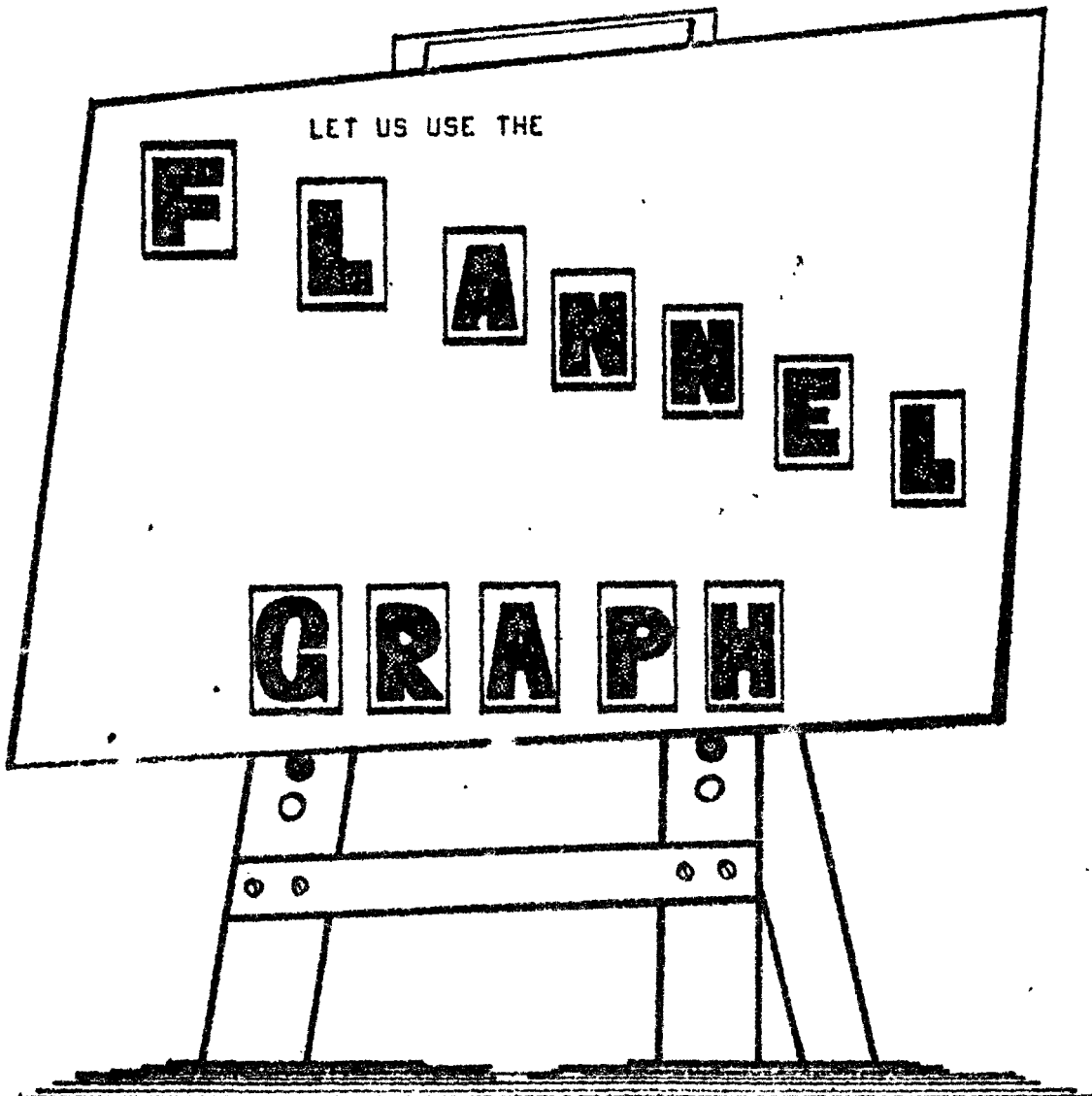
Extract from: "In Introductory Course in
Teaching and Training Methods
for Management Development"

ILO Publication, Geneva

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TRAINING
MATERIAL

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New Delhi - 110065 (India)



Daman Prakash, Education Officer (AVA)
Project for Training of Coop. Teachers in Sri Lanka

LET US USE THE

FLANNELGRAPH !

THE flannelgraph is a most adaptable and flexible teaching aid. The user is able to present material to his students at the right moment, and is thus able to build up a composite picture step by step. Drawings, titles, illustrations and headings may be added at will, and associations clearly demonstrated. Material can be rearranged, developed and simplified at will. The principle is so closely allied to the learning process that its effectiveness depends solely on the careful choice of material, and the care and skill of the user.

Pictures, illustrations, captions and other symbols prepared on light card or stiff paper backed with a light fluffy material. When these items are placed on a board covered with a similar material, the fibers of the two interlock on contact, and a light temporary adhesion takes place. If the flannel board is lightly brushed before use, this adhesion is improved.

This aid has also some other names e.g. khadigraph (because khadi cloth is used as a backing material on the board), plastigraph (because plastic sheet is used as a backing material on the board and the cutouts are also made of plastic sheet), Hook and Loop teaching aid (because the hook-and-loop material is used as a backing material on the board as well as it is used for the cut-outs) etc. Whatever be the name, the principle remains the same. It is a very simple and effective teaching aid.

In this paper we will restrict ourselves only to the "Flannelgraph" because the flannel cloth is easily available in many of the developing countries.

Types of Material Used

1. Supporting Board. You need a reasonably large board covered with flannel cloth. As mentioned earlier you can use other material also e.g. khadi, towelling cloth, blanket, flock paper.

The size of the board could be 24" x 26" or 30" x 40". You can even make use of the existing chalk board (portable one) by covering it with flannel cloth. Size is not very important, but it should be kept in view that all members of your audience are able to see the board clearly from all corners of the classroom.

The cloth should be tightly and firmly fixed against the supporting board. For temporary use, clips or tapes can be used to hold the material. Permanent flannel boards have their advantages but are not so easy to transport. All board should preferably be used with a slight backward tilt at the top.

2. The cloth could be of dark green, blue or black. Deep colours are preferable because this colour will provide a contrast to the cut-outs.

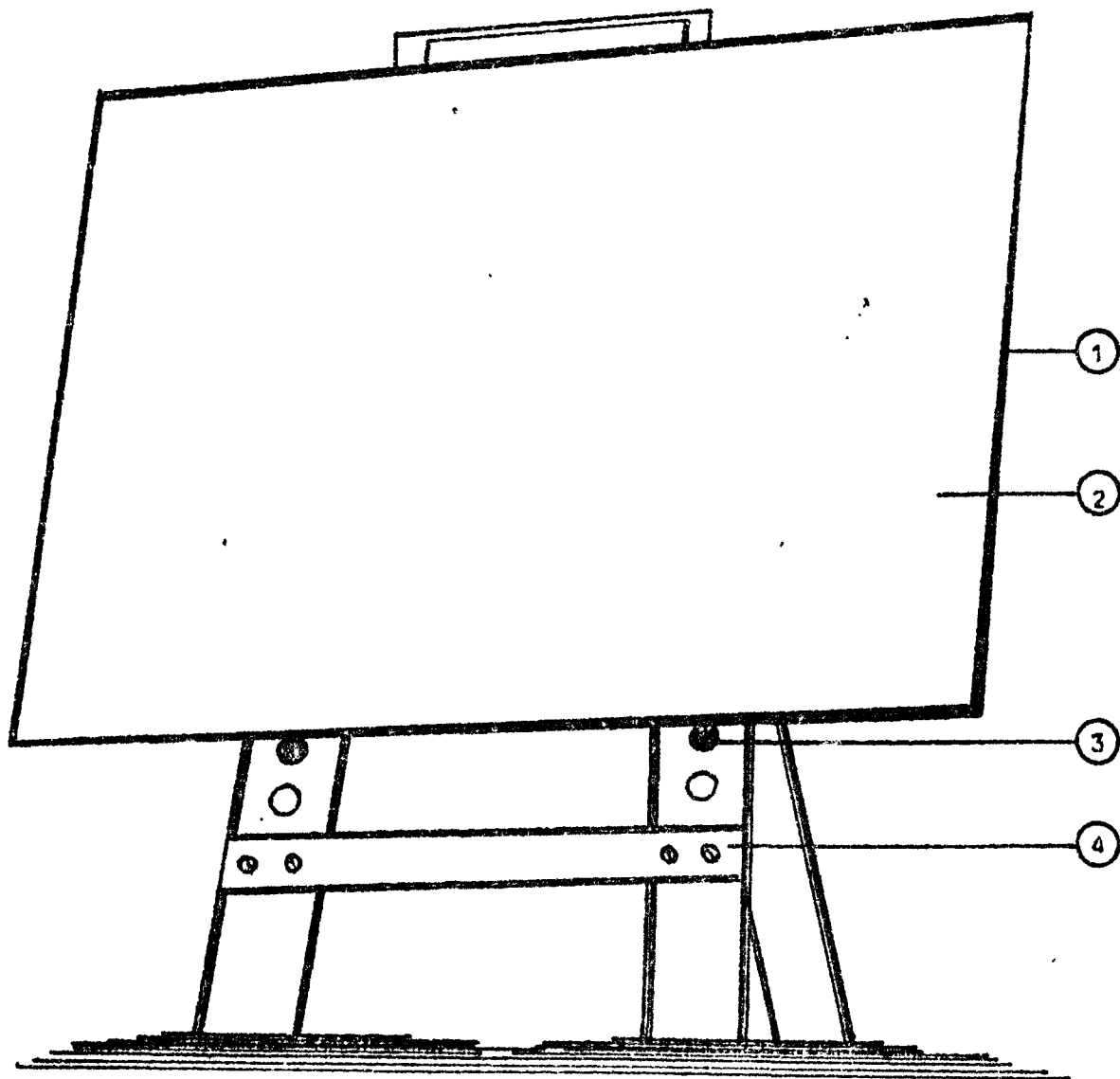
3. Symbols and Lettering. These can be drawn directly on the flannel cloth pieces and then used as cut-outs, or they can be drawn on thick card and then backed with sandpaper. Sandpaper sticks better on to a flannel cloth.

Material Used in Making Flannelgraph

You will need the following material to construct a full flannelgraph:

1. Supporting board (plyboard or any other)
2. Flannel cloth to cover one surface of the board
3. Board stand or tripod stand
4. Hard board or thick card board for cut-outs
5. Colour poster papers
6. Gun, adhesive or glue
7. Pencils, magic ink pens
8. Scissors
9. Sand paper or flock paper
10. Writing paper for making the Scheme or Layout

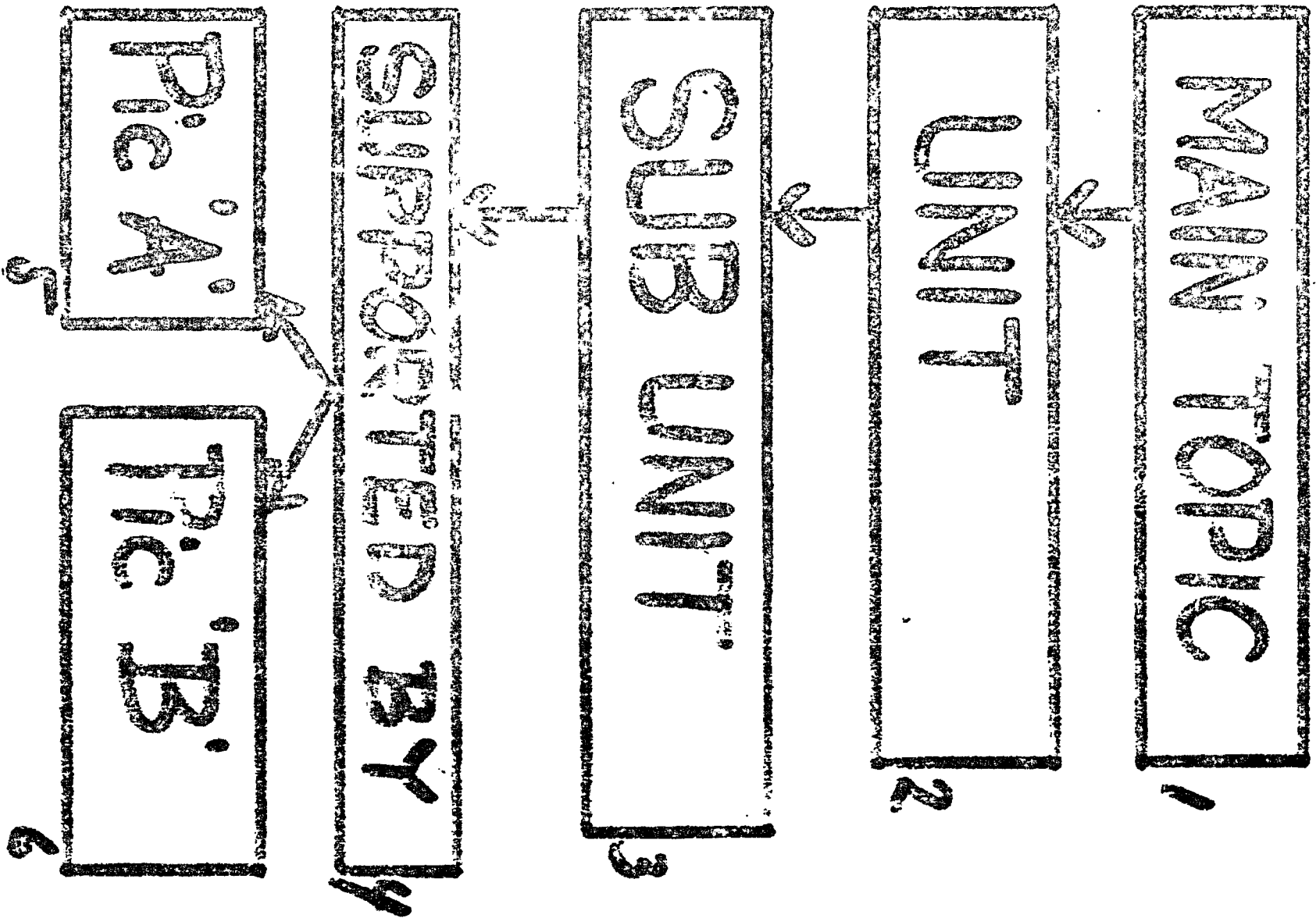
Have a look at the following illustration and the description. If you are able to gather the above resources you can venture in the construction of one set for your use. This is the simplest that could be suggested. Some more detailed versions are also available.



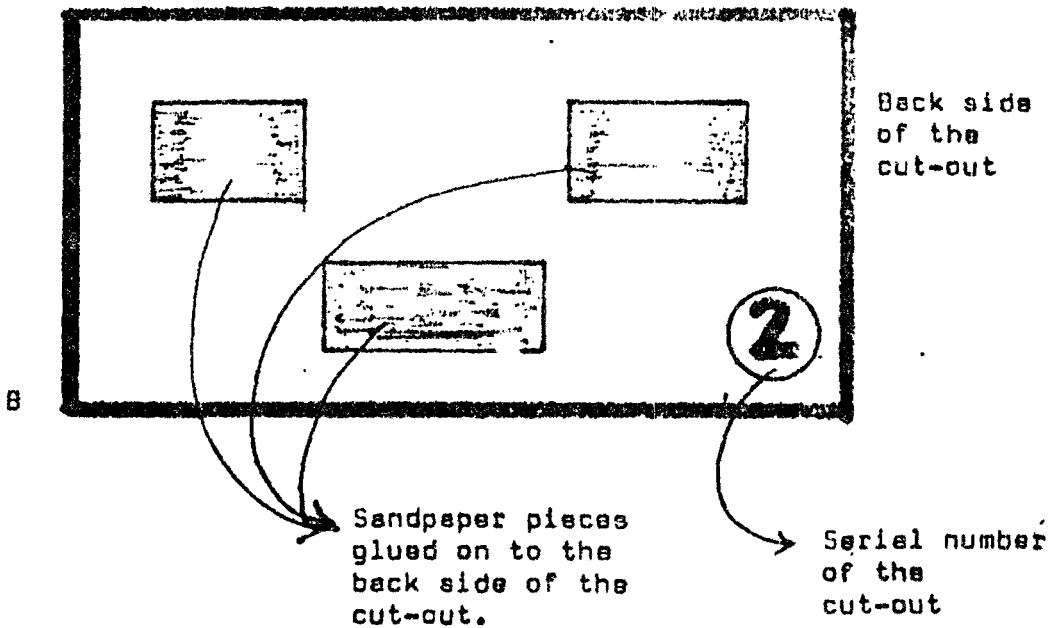
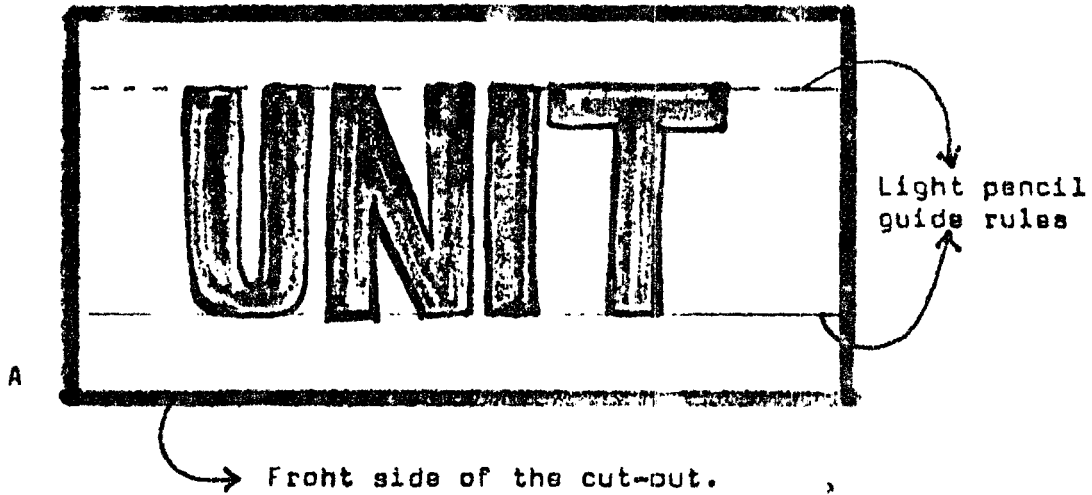
Description

1. Supporting board. A plain, even-surfaced piece of wood. Size generally used is 4ft x 3ft.
2. Front surface of the flannel board. The supporting board is covered with flannel cloth on one surface. The cloth is either pasted up with some strong adhesive glue or held in position by the use of nails. The cloth should be about two to three inches more than the size of the supporting board. The additional cloth is bent over in the back of the supporting board and then nailed tightly. The cloth should be a good quality flannel. It could as well be felt cloth, khadi (home spun cotton cloth - thick variety), towel cloth having fibres, or even a piece of rough blanket. The colour of the cloth should be dark e.g. deep green, deep red, deep orange or even black or dark grey. The deep colours are used mainly to provide contrast to the cut-outs.
3. These two pegs will hold the supporting board in position. These pegs can be lowered depending upon the height of the teacher using the board.
4. A sturdy three-leg stand. The stand is needed because the supporting board has to be kept at a slant to put the flannel board to its best use. The stand is also used so that the board can be moved from one room to another. In case the slant or the tilt is not provided, the board might fall and also the cut-outs might not stay in position.

A rough layout of the flannelgraph - Scheme.

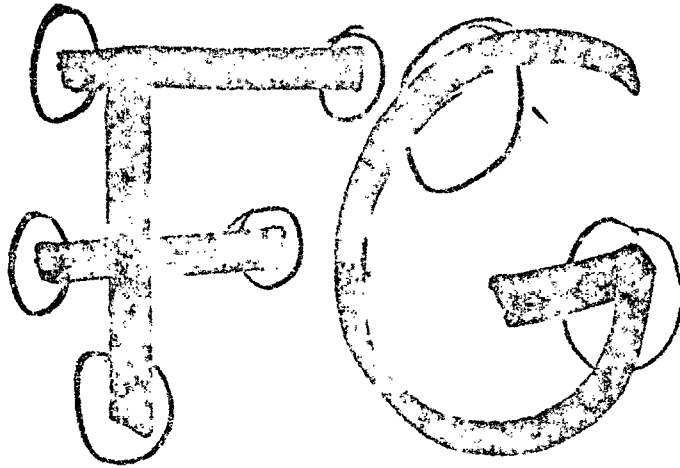


This layout of the Scheme should remain in front of the teacher. Along side should lay the cutouts, their backside up, so that the teacher can look at the serial numbers and take them in an order to the flannel board for presentation. This Scheme will help the teacher to remain on track.



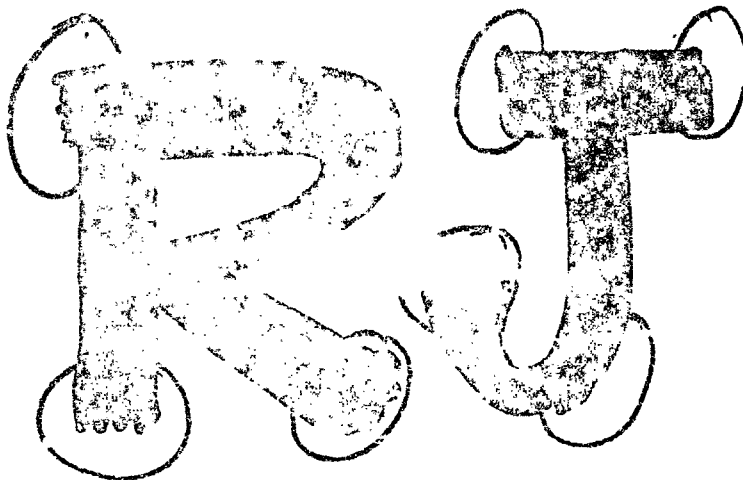
The lettering on the front side of the cut-out can be further improved by giving a darker shade outline to the letters. The dark outlines will also remove the unwanted distortions in colouring etc.

The light pencil guide rules should be erased before the use of the cut-out.

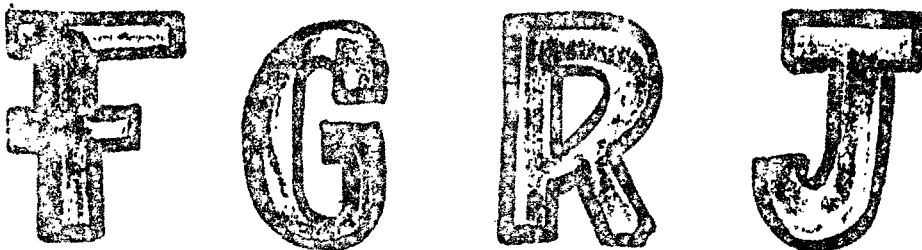


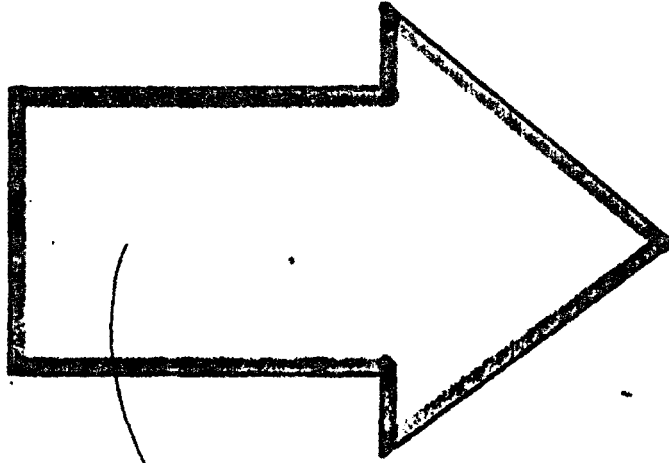
While writing on the cut-outs, the edges and curves do not get a sharp finish (see the encircled areas).

Such letters do not present a good picture. They appear to be shabby.

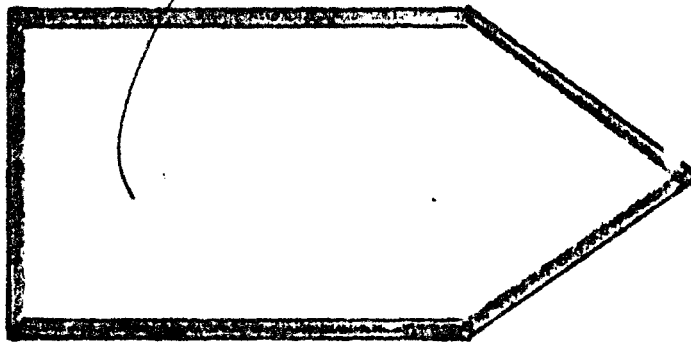


By giving a lining with a thick pencil or with a dark pen, you can smoothen the letters and bind them. Letters thus get a smart appearance.





Give some sharp colour to the outer surface.



Arrows can be cut in various forms. The above two forms are most commonly used. In order to cut several of the arrows, cut one, and then trace the arrows on one sheet of thick paper, and then cut them. Use different colours if the arrows are to be used at different places.

Do not keep the edges very sharp. Trim them a bit otherwise they will present a sad appearance after some use.

Flannelgraph

9

How to Use the Flannelgraph?

In using the flannelgraph, you have to:

- i) decide on the story to be presented;
- ii) prepare cut-outs (or appliques); and
- iii) present the material

We can now discuss these steps one by one.

i) Decide on the story to be presented.

It is always good to discuss the subject in stages. You have therefore to break the subject down into some small steps and take up each step for discussion at one time. If you try to discuss several points together, you may not be effective and also the students get confused. They may not be able to follow you. In order to break the subject into small steps, you better write down the sequence of your subject. Do not write the whole detail of the topic, but only the main points which, of course, can be elaborated by you at the time of presentation.

Also at the same time you should make a scheme of your presentation. When will cut-out (no.1) appear and what points will you make then. Plot out on a piece of paper how your cut-outs will appear on the flannel board. Give them serial numbers. This piece of paper will be your guide or the scheme or the layout. This paper will stay in front of you during the presentation of the lesson. This will keep you on track.

ii) Prepare cut-outs (or appliques). As mentioned earlier you have to write out the theme of the story. That theme has to be supported by some visuals - these visuals are called the Cut-outs or appliques. Cut-outs are made from hard card board. The back of these card board cut-outs is supported by sand paper and also is given the serial number according to the sequence. These cut-outs can be either textual or pictorial. Simple illustrations can be made by the teacher himself. The illustrations or the texts should be bold enough, so that these could be seen from a distance clearly. Each cut-out should have a backing of good quality sandpaper or of flocked paper. Cut-outs pertaining to a lesson should be kept in one large envelope together with the theme of the story. On the theme sheet serial numbers of the sequence should appear. This will help the teacher in placing the cut-outs in the correct manner and at the right time.

iii) Presentation of the material. When you are ready with the theme sheet and the cut-outs, you should not hurry up with the presentation of the cut-outs as soon as you commence your talk or discussion. You can build up your lesson gradually and when it needs emphasis then only you bring in the cut-outs. Do not present the cut-out merely for the sake of demonstrating them to the audience, but use them as main-topics and discuss the topic thoroughly before you bring in the next cut-out. Do not be in a hurry. Presentation of the lesson demands a lot of tact and seriousness. You should be steady and firm in your approach to the subject. Do not get confused with the cut-outs, and also do not play with them.

The most appropriate manner of presentation is that on your table you should place the theme-sheet on one side and on the other side you should keep the cut-outs, facing downward. The highest number of the cut-out should be the lowest and the first serial number should be on the top of the heap. Remember, the back of each cut-out must have a serial number corresponding to the serial number appearing on your sequence sheet or scheme.

During the course of presentation, do you know what you will actually be doing. You will be (i) Informing; (ii) Arguing, and (iii) Stimulating action.

i. Informing

- (a) with explanation of ideas and facts, without stating your own point of view;
- (b) describing the method to be followed, how to manage equipment, tools or instruments, etc.
- (c) by means of a narrative or story

ii. Arguing

- (a) about own points of view
- (b) backing your own thesis.

iii. Stimulating action by means of:

- (a) the presentation of problems;
- (b) the comparison and analysis of facts, processes, etc.

Flannelgraph

11

What is to be Achieved in the Construction of the Aid?

In order to make your flannelgraph to be effective, meaningful and useful, you should devote great attention to the proper techniques of its construction. While thinking of using the flannelgraph as a teaching aid you should try to achieve:

- i. Graphic Unity. Express the central idea in a short, clear and telling phrase;
- ii. Simplicity. Avoid unnecessary details, letters or images or illustrations that are too crammed and crowded;
- iii. Visibility. Use adequate illustrations, that are visible to all from all corners of the classroom;
- iv. Proportions. Keep in mind the principles of proportion and perspective;
- v. Adequate use of Colour. Combine agreeable and harmonious elements. Try to achieve contrast as much as possible;
- vi. Balance and Harmony. Plan the display of the elements so that in presenting them they are well-balanced around an imaginary axis.

Advantages of Flannelgraph

- * Turns teaching stimulating and dynamic.
- * Increases participation in the class.
- * Describes facts and operations in a progressive way.
- * Centres the presentation on main aspects of the theme.
- * Transforms abstract into objective ideas.
- * Stimulates planning and makes teacher stick to a plan.
- * It is adaptable for any type of learners.
- * It is economical to construct.
- * It can be prepared beforehand and permits re-use.
- * Attracts and holds attention due to its characteristic and colours.
- * Illustrations can be altered, replaced easily.

- * It is hardwearing.
- * Can be used in conjunction with tape-recorder.

Some Limitations

- ** Difficult to use outside the classroom in windy conditions.
- ** Cannot be used as a chalkboard for writing.
- ** Visuals have to be prepared in advance.

Cautions to be Observed

- *** Number the visuals (cut-outs) carefully.
- *** Rehearse before use.
- *** Keep the visuals and theme in one envelope.
- *** Keep the flannel cloth clean and brushed up for better hold of illustrations by the flock or sandpaper.

Evaluation

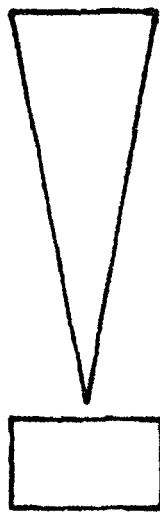
When finished with the presentation and use of the flannelgraph as an aid, it would be interesting to ask YOURSELF whether the material shown:

- has been attractive?
- maintained students' interest?
- interpreted the ideas clearly?
- was adequate and relevant for the group? etc.

It would be still more interesting if you associate your audience also in the task of evaluating the usefulness of flannelgraph as an effective teaching aid. To obtain the reaction, comments and suggestions of your audience it would be advisable if you developed some sort of an evaluation sheet.

Flannelgraph

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CHECK LIST

FLANNELGRAPH - ON TRIPOD OR WALL, WITH PREPARED APPLIQUES (CUT-OUTS) ,

- Is the board slanted and positioned for easy writing?
- Is the stand stable?
- Does the flannel surface need to be brushed up?
- Have you planned the arrangements of your cut-outs?
- Are the appliques arranged in the order they are needed?
- Have the Scheme ready.
- Do all pieces stick on?
- Are letters and figures clearly readable?

Conclusion

We have in this Training Material discussed FLANNELGRAPH as an effective teaching aid, its construction, its application, advantages and limitations and the cautions which we, as teachers, should take while using this very useful aid. We have also discussed the material needed in the construction of this aid. Some illustrations have also been provided to enable you to understand the in-side of this aid. We are now SURE that you will be able to construct this aid and apply it in your next teaching assignment. Try and you will find the difference between the traditional one-way talk and the talk supported by some teaching aid - this time, the FLANNELGRAPH.

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PRODUCTION STEPS FOR NON-PROJECTED VISUAL AIDS

A. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Visual Aids are to increase and intensify the communication process.

1.2 Visual Aids are to facilitate the communication process.

1.3 Visual Aids are to promote the capability to abstract and systematise.

1.4 Conclusion :

The sender saves energy input achieving similar results.

The sender achieves higher results with a similar input in energy.

The receiver is perceiving the message reinforcement intensified.

Reinforcement through success in learning is without delay.

If Visual Aids are applied properly.

2.1 The communication loop is as follows :

Message - Visual coding - Visual stimuli -

Decoding Visual message - Response -

Feed back stimuli - Feed back response.

2.2 The most crucial bottle necks of this loop are

Analysis of the message - Visual coding - Visual stimuli.

2.3 The solution can be found in

knowing the target population widely

Detailed and clear definition of the quality and quantity of response to be achieved.

Creativity in developing stimuli within the code system of the receiver.

2.4 Conclusion :

Visual communication requires :

A wide and deep knowledge of the message to be conveyed.

the knowledge of the existing codes,

creativity and sensitivity.

1.0 The aid to be produced.

1.1.0 Target population

1.1 Sex : Number of males Number of females

1.2 Age groupings indefinite number of persons.

Below	15
	15-25
	25-45
	45-65
Above	65

-: 3 :-

1.1.3 Education :

Number of illiterates

Semi-literates

Primary

Secondary

University

Graduates

1.1.4 Professions :

1.1.5 Social status :

Number of

Low-Class

Middle-Class

Upper-Class

1.2.0 Objectives :

At the end of the communication process the receiver should understand/know the skill/be able to perform the following process :

1.3.0 Synopsis :

The key ideas of the message are in the following sequence :
(please write key words only)

2.1 Analysis of the Synopsis

- What ideas have to be reinforced by the use of visuals.

2.2 How and by what means are the ideas transferred into images.

- Style, character, approach.

Give a brief description:

2.3 Use the attached papers to sketch a rough draft of your visuals by using simple symbols.

2.4 Draft the aid by using pencil (errors).

- Apply copying methods if required
- Use colour properly.

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HAND OUTS

- A) Hand-outs, are to reinforce and support the learning.
 Process, they are intended :
- 1) To foster retention by enabling the learner to review the lecture individually.
 - 2) To provide the learner with a summary of the essential information.
 - 3) To give the individual learner visual help in understanding a process, a sequence of actions, a technical problem.
- B) The hand-out is not a substitute for literature, books and other instructional material. It is one of the media besides others intended to reinforce the learning process.
- N.B. The hand-out is not a substitute for lack of cooperation and attention during organised learning activities.
- C) There are four kinds of hand-outs :
- 1) Hand outs distributed before the session starts.
 - 2) Hand outs distributed after finishing subject.
 - 3) Learner's notes.
 - 4) Tests.
- C.1 Gives the learner the chance to recognise the sequence of the learning steps and to be able to make notes accordingly.
- C.2 Gives the learner a brief summary of the learning process dealt with during the training.
 Any additional information like reference literature, related fields of knowledge, forms for individual assignments whether practical work or research, should be given after the lesson.
- C.3 Besides the handouts prepared material for learner notes can be issued before the class starts. The prepared material is to facilitate writing down notes, to guarantee the proper sequence of notes and to save time.
- C.4 Tests. Should be arranged in such a way that the learner has to solve a problem of perform a task not to demonstrate his ability to merely memorise the text.

TEST

1) Please prepare :

Hand outs to be distributed before the less starts.

Hand outs after the lesson finished.

. Learners notes.

Test.

For the following subject :

.....

2) What objectives do you intend to achieve with your hand-out.

.....
.....

c) (continuation)

Reasons for :

C.1

C.2

C.3

C.4

--: 3 :-

STUDENTS NOTES

HAND OUTS

A) Why :

B) Hand out is no substitute for :

C) What hand outs are given to learners?

1.

2.

3.

4.

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USE OF VISUAL AIDS
CHECK LIST FOR TRAINER

CHECK LIST - I

While handling visual aids

1. Ensure that the equipment is in proper working order. Check -

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Plugs & Socket points (ii) Leads (iii) Curtains if they can drape the room properly to keep out light (iv) if empty spool available (v) if light films are already with you, and (vi) if it is in running order. 	}	In case of Projection equipment.
---	---	-------------------------------------
2. Familiarise yourself with the actual working (even if an operator is available) of the equipment.
3. Tell the audience about the aid and the objective of the visual lesson.
4. In case of unforeseen breakdown (viz. power failure, etc.) if any alternative(s) is/are available to keep the session going.
5. Seating arrangements don't hamper the running of the visual aids.
6. There is supporting staff to switch on and off the light under instructions.
7. Ensure that the visual aid supplement the lecture and not compete with it.

CHECK LIST II - CHALK BOARD

A few simple hints

1. Is there enough chalk (white and coloured) readily available?
2. Is there a Duster or wiper for wiping the board?
3. Use the board without 'showing your back' to the audience.
4. Start writing from the top and don't use the extreme lower portions which are not directly visible to the audience.
5. Do not scribble on the board. Develop your lecture as you go along and use the board accordingly.

6. Let the writing on the board help you to recapitulate the main points at the end of the lecture.
7. Definitions etc. should be written properly and not just a part of it.
8. Write in capital letters if a point has to be emphasised otherwise write neatly but in small letters.
9. If a chart or a diagram has to be explained to the class, do not start drawing it in the class itself.
10. Use a pre-prepared chart but display it only at the appropriate time except in cases where the chart has to be developed along with the lecture (viz. Network or PERT or other flow charts).

CHECK LIST III - Lecture Method

In a class room situation to ensure low degree of distraction

Internal

1. Avoid too many action gestures.
2. Keep walking up and down the class room to the minimum.
3. Use the chalk board to develop the lecture and to scribble on occasionally.
4. Avoid reading out your lecture from prepared notes all the time.
5. Emphasise main points and definitions by examples and stories.
6. Recapitulate the main points at the end of the session, but don't spend too much time on it.
7. Punctuate the talk with some interesting anecdotes from real life/office situations to keep the interest alive.

External

1. Avoid glares through windows by proper draping of curtains etc.
2. Avoid direct glares on the chalk board or on your face,
3. Keep the lecture door(s) closed.
4. Avoid outside noise by proper acousting.
5. The lecture hall should not open into a thorough-fare as far as possible.
6. Choose a classroom according to the size of the audience.
7. Don't repeat yourself except for recapitulation, i.e. prepare a lesson plan and rehearse before hand.

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THE ROLE OF A TRAINER

(a) As an Instructor - he is concerned with translating the training schemes into action at the specific or defined level of instruction.

He is also concerned with the drawing up of new courses, preparing instruction plans and complete familiarisation with any training equipment that may be used.

(b) As a training officer - here his principal responsibility will be to advise on the formulation of training and development policy at various levels. In addition he will have to analyse the skills and knowledge required in jobs for which formal training is to be given.

Also evaluate the instructional methods and techniques necessary for the training programmes.

(c) As a development officer, the trainer will assume the role of an adviser on the formulation of training and development policy in the department. He will also be called upon to analyse the training needs, to carry out consultancy work, and to disseminate training information and arrive at an overall development and administration of training programmes at various levels. In addition he will also be responsible for the production of training manuals, bulletins and other training material for the purposeful accomplishment of the training functions.

Training & Training function

Since training is no longer a casual affair but an integral part of any organisation and is becoming more and more recognised as one of the significant means of achieving the goals of the organisation, it can no longer be ignored or neglected or relegated to the back room.

Neither can be ignored the Training Manager or the Trainer who acts as a 'change Agent' to create a climate for change and a desire to learn new methods of work and improvement.

No longer a training department is an unwanted adjunct of an organisation or it is there because it is fashionable to have one. It is true that in many organisations the training unit or Training Manager is considered a veritable nuisance or something to be 'suffered'. Managers are too busy with their own problems and have little or no time to pay attention to what the Training Man has to say. The Chief Executive is so hard pressed that training problems hardly find a place in his priority list.

Until recently a transfer to a training department or institution was considered as a 'blind alley' in the organisational hierarchy. But this position no longer holds good now.

A Training department or institution has not only to be properly equipped with training aids etc. but also with the right calibre of training personnel and well produced training material.

In fact training now is inherent in the management process itself and while it is for the training department and the Training man to evolve better training methods and run training courses, it cannot be successful without the active support and cooperation of supervisors and managers on the job.

One principal training function is therefore, to enlist the support of the Managers and Top Management. This is not an easy job. It requires great tact, diplomacy and missionary zeal.

"The consumer (Learner) is no longer the dormant patient listener and training no longer a 'bag of tricks' sold aggressively as a cure of all management ills".

The whole pattern has changed.

The modern Training Manager has to approach his task with a sense of humility - he cannot make (and should not make) tall claims which cannot be achieved. His role is not that of a magician who can move his magic wand to solve all problems. Experience has taught him that such miracles do not happen in actual life.

Training also is no longer parochial. It has to be an integrated approach. It is essentially inter-disciplinary in character and draws sustenance from different fields of knowledge and disciplines.

The Lecture Method

Lecture continues to be the most popular method of imparting instruction despite the introduction of modern teaching aids and mass media instruction through the media of radio, television, etc. Besides its distinct advantage of personal contact it brings in immediate feedback which enables the instructor to 'tailor' his lecture suitably from time to time.

However, the success of this method depends to a large extent on the competence of the person delivering the lecture. He must be thoroughly familiar with the subject and must have rehearsed it to himself from the aspect of both timing and mode of delivery.

In recent times, a number of variations have been introduced. No longer trainers follow the conventional method of lecturing which consisted of straight forward speaking out to an audience, communicating by words and gestures the lesson to be conveyed.

These variants take the form of :

Lecture-Discussions.

Lecture-Demonstration.

Lecture with visual aids, etc.

In lecture discussion, the lecturer begins by raising points for discussion without necessarily having to defend a thesis. His function is largely to guide the discussion on certain lines; he may aim at consensus of view or dissent, but he will be seriously concerned with the participation of the individual.

Brain storming may come under this heading. It is a quick way of opening up a subject on the basis of replies by the participants to leading questions put to them.

In the lecture demonstration method, the lecturer puts forth a hypothesis and then follows it up with a practical exercise or demonstration in the class itself.

To conclude therefore, for a lecture method to be successful, it is necessary that the lecture is well prepared with a lesson plan and like a short story has an introduction, main body and a conclusion with possibly points for recapitulation or summary.

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Supplementary Aids

In a training situation, besides aids (visual and others) which supplement the lecture method and make teaching/training effective, it would be useful to mention about other features of a conventional class room namely:

- (a) size of a class room
- (b) design of furniture
- (c) layout
- (d) lighting, ventilation & temperature
- (e) room decor
- (f) accoustics & noise level.

It cannot be over emphasised that these aspects of a training environment also needs proper attention as it contributes meaningfully to the success or failure of a good session. For example, the class room should have good accoustics, plenty of natural light, no glares especially on the chalk board and the room furniture (tables & chairs) so arranged as to provide maximum opportunity to trainees to be as close to the trainer as possible for optimum participation. A semi-circular arrangement is generally found ideally suitable if the training group is small[§]. Even the design of furniture - an oval table with participants sitting round it or hexagonal tables for more compactness could be suggested.

Likewise room decor, room temperature and noise level need special attention for simulating proper training environment. It has been found that persons can concentrate better between certain ranges of temperature, where the colour conditioning of the room is made of pastel shades and there are the least amount of distractions or noise. Similarly care should be taken to ensure that the sound effects in the room are evenly distributed.

Some instructors have a habit of walking up and down across the room while lecturing. This is not good practice as it tends to distract the audience from the main lecture. Experience has shown that lecturers who walk about the least are able to keep the audience attention in the lecture rather than distract it on himself. Similarly, those who make use of the lectern which again is a useful supplementary aid can hold the attention of the audience much better. The lectern also helps the speaker to keep his notes or lesson plan away from the sight of his audience. In any case he should avoid reading out from prepared notes except referring to it now and then in an unobstrusive manner - quoting some passage or para to drive a point or argument.

§ 18 to 20 persons.

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A GUIDELINE FOR THE TRAINER

HOW TO PREPARE

Main points to consider - WHAT, WHO, WHY, HOW and WHERE am I going to teach?

SUBJECT

- Consider place in training programme
- (What)
- (Who) - Consider extent of knowledge that students already possess

OBJECTIVE

- (Why) - Consider reason for this session
- Consider your AIM - and keep it in mind throughout

COLLECT THE FACTS

- (What) - Assemble facts (own knowledge and experience - and official sources, etc.)
- Decide which facts to use bearing in mind OBJECTIVE and TIME available. Segregate facts - some facts MUST be taught as they are VITAL - some facts may be taught - they are useful and interesting.

SEQUENCE

- Break down material into STAGES
- Arrange in paragraphs Sub-headings
- Relate facts under each
- Teach from simple to difficult - familiar to unfamiliar

DECIDE METHOD

- (How) - Decide which is suitable for subject and class (Usually a combination)
- TELLING - use simple language adjusted to level of group
- SHOWING - consider use of Visual Aids
 - plan WHEN and HOW to use them
- QUESTIONS- frame your questions to get correct answers
 - plan main questions - check on VITAL facts
 - allow time for dealing with questions from group

-: 2 :-

- ACTIVITY - plan practical work - exercises etc.
- plan "checks" and tests

DECIDE ON INTRODUCTION

- Aim to arouse INTEREST
- Make OBJECTIVE clear
- Be as brief as possible

DECIDE ON CONCLUSION

- Sum-up
- Make sure Group has understood by asking questions or having practical work
- Allow time for dealing with questions from Group

PERSONAL NOTES

- Readable at a distance
- Brief as possible
- Show TIME allocated for each 'stage'

The Check questions

Why do Instructors ask questions?

- ∅ - to get the Group thinking.
- ∅ - to gather information.
- ∅ - to check on students acquisition of knowledge.
 - to create a "break".
 - to receive and/or stimulate interest.
 - to restore attention.
 - to get an individual participating in a session.
 - to create confidence.
- ∅ - to get opinions.
- ∅ - to open (and develop) discussions.

Types of Questions -

- DIRECT - addressed to an individual.
- OVERHEAD (or General) - addressed to a Group.
- REDIRECTED - addressed to the Instructor and "redirected" to member of Group.

.....:3/-

AVOID -

- RHETORICAL - requires no answer.
- LEADING - question suggests answer.

How to ask questions -

- start with WHAT, WHY, WHEN, HOW, WHERE, WHO, WHICH when wanting more than a YES/NO answer.
- phrase clearly.
- spread around the Group.
- in DIRECT questions - pose question, pause, name spokesman, (reverse order if necessary to regain attention of an individual).

Planning questions when preparing session -

- those marked Ø can be planned as part of session.
- others will generally need to be spontaneous.

If wrong answers received -

Consider :-

- was it due to a badly phrased question?
- does it show muddled thinking?
- is the answer seriously wrong?
- could it be passed to another member of the Group?

Conclusion

- don't ask questions for the sake of asking ! the Lesson Method is the best way of teaching a subject in detail.

"I kept my six good serving men,
Who taught me all I knew.
Their names were WHY, and WHAT, and WHEN,
And How, and WHICH, and WHO".

(Kipling)

It is not merely the responsibility of the teacher to transmit information but also to ensure that it is received and understood.

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12'

Vaikunth Mehta
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF COOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT
P O O N A - 16.

o o o o

: Developing Cooperative Leadership :

S.P.Gupta
Sr.Lecturer.

Requirement of Cooperative Leadership:

As a people's movement the Cooperatives must be initiated, organised and managed by the people themselves. The way to self-reliance and self-regulation of the movement is to generate within the Cooperative Movement the necessary strength to guide, supervise and manage itself.

If Cooperation is to succeed as a people's Movement, the real management of business has got to be entrusted to democratically elected leaders. Because it is these leaders who lay down policies relating to day-to-day work.

It is these leaders who must take initiative, make proposals, assume responsibility for carrying them out, give directions, inspire others with the will to achieve the results and be prepared for facing the problems and difficulties that the institution may come across.

The chief instrument with the leaders is persuasion and their object must be to obtain the maximum of consent, which is the essence of democratic government. In certain instances, the most convincing thing they can do is to set up an example, more especially in subordinating their individual interests and wishes to the good of the whole society or movement.

What is meant by Leadership:

Leadership has been defined as the "behaviour" that affects the behaviour of other people more than the behaviour of the people affects that of the leader.

(R.T.Lapier & P.R.Fransworth).

Leadership is based on relationship between individual and a group which is built round some common interest and which behaves in a manner directed or determined by him.

(R.A. Edwin Seligman).

- Behaviour ^{signify} the distinct conducts and manners which attracts and influences the group. (of followers).

Genesis of Leadership:

The following are the indispensable conditions for the Leadership:

- a) Leadership is associated with the requirements of the followers. Hence the nature of leader-follower interactions is the basis of emerging leadership;
- b) Whenever there is hindrance or blockade against group goals the importance of leadership increases;
- c) Leader is motivated to satisfy certain personal needs. Hence, there is a casual relationship between motivation and emergence of Leadership.

Methods of Leadership:

- i) Autocratic Leadership - The leader mainly seeks obedience from his group. He determines policy and consider decision making as an one-man operation;
- ii) Democratic Leadership : The leader draws ideas and suggestions from the group by discussion and consultation. The group members are encouraged to take part in setting policy and implementing group decisions. The leaders' job is largely that of moderator.
- iii) Free-reign Leadership: The leader is more or less an ~~information-beeth~~. He plays down his role in the group's activity. He has a hand mainly to provide materials and information. He exercises a minimum of control.

Basis of Leadership:

During earlier periods the basis of Leadership was:

(a) Heredity" and / or (b) "traits". They were called "Traditional or Conventional" leaders.

- In modern time, there is a change in favour of "Situational-cum-personality" theory. Leaders of this origin are called "Emerging Leaders".

This concept does not visualise a direct relation of leadership with heritence or convention. It envisage that in different situations when hindrance(problems) arise in the attainment of group objective, some one emerge as the leader because of his distinct character.

The basis of "Emerging Leadership" has varied over years. In this regard history tells us of three phases:

- a) basis of Strength : Physical, financial legal power etc., (it is fast decaying).
- b) basis of Technical Skill(in many cases its still predominates).
- c) basis of Managerial Skill: Like other Skill this can be learnt.

The Characteristic & Qualities of a Good Leader:

The best leader is that :

- a) Who is in a position to satisfy the traditional as well as the emergent needs of his followers;
- b) whom individual follows not in response to blind drives but on positive and, more or less rational grounds and from free choice and not under command and coercion;
- c) who aims at activity for influencing people to cooperate towards some goal which is considered desirable.

Qualities & Qualifications of Cooperative Leaders:

Qualities: Inborn qualities of character, temperament and intelligence count more in Leadership than qualifications which can be acquired by training:

- 1) Courage : the most fundamental of all the virtues. If one is convinced about a certain thing he must have the courage to declare and act upon his conviction;
 - Courage has to be distinguished from rashness.
 - Courage without judgement is rashness;
- ii) The display of courage has to be guided by the second quality judgement;
 - Judgement has to be distinguished from intelligence or knowledge.
 - Judgement implies the instinct, which tells one how far to go, when to press on, when to bide one's time, when to speak out, when to hold one's tongue etc,
 - Judgement without courage leads to inaction;

- iii) Sympathy: this implies constant awareness of other people, their thoughts and feelings even if they do not express them;
-without sympathy and a respect of other peoples feelings the Leader is liable to be tactless(impatient and unfair to those who oppose him);

-Even if the above qualities may be inborn, they can be developed by exercise. (Fluent Speech, a ready wit, clear exposition, a mind quick to absorb new ideas);

Qualifications:-

Persons with above qualities would be no better than "potentially good leader" for Cooperative Organisations until they have undergone certain training and acquired the minimum of knowledge, for the efficient discharge of their functions, particularly the following:-

- i) understanding of the true nature of Cooperation and its principles;

- Elementary idea of Cooperation may be easy to grasp;
- It is difficult to master the business and administrative techniques through which the coop. principles work because they demand literacy;

This, however, not to confuse Leadership with Management or administration. Leader with decisive influence may not be an office-holder;

- ii) The qualification needs to be raised to a higher degree for leaders of Secondary or higher Coop. Organisations;

- The Local mind in an organisation whose operations are regional or national make the leadership ridiculous;

- iii) Besides general Cooperative knowledge, the leader must be equipped with special knowledge of the branch of the movement, the types of cooperative undertaking in which he is engaged and its commercial and industrial background;

- iv) Equally necessary is an understanding of the economic and social environment in which the organisation works and an appreciation of the influences which are continually changing that milieu and consequently demand changing strategy and tactics on the part of the movement;

- In particular, the leader must understand its relations with government action in fields allied to the movement;

- v) Other techniques are also required for the business-like handling of affairs, such as conduct of meetings, guidance of discussion, working constitute procedures in various types of organisations can be acquired by training;

Functions of a Cooperative Leader :

- The Primary function of a Cooperative Leader, at all levels is to show his fellow co-operator the way ahead;

- The leadership of the Cooperatives should essentially ^{be} in the hands of democratically elected non-official leaders. The official leaders' role may be of sustaining the non-official leadership.

- In the pioneering stage the official leaders task is :

- a) of patient teaching and repeated correction of misconceptions;

b) developing non-official leaders

a) In the "Pioneering Stage" these functions may include:

i) convincing the potential members by creating a sense of dissatisfaction with the existing conditions (felt-need);

ii) When the idea has been understood, to give practical lessons in Cooperation for the practical Solution of a common economic problem;

iii) Guiding the Cooperatives through the process of getting it established and to that end get its policies so formulated that the confidence and loyalty of the members are adequately cemented;

iv) When people adopt cooperative methods and procedures, everything does not turn out the way it was expected. Here the leader's determination and his deep faith in the ultimate success is called forth.

- The leader must not think of the immediate results, as much as the lasting effects of an action;

- In Cooperation, it is dangerous ^{to} force the pace of development. Here one deals with human material and human beings take long to be convinced of something new;

- Cooperative Society should solve all economic problems but it should not attempt to do so all at once. It should enlarge its activities gradually, gathering experience as it goes on.

- It can reasonably take up activities complementary to each other;

- It can, however, profit from other's experiences.

b) In the "Established Stage" the functions of Cooperative Leaders may include:-

i) The development of Society by determining the "Policy of development", otherwise the growth of the Society would be haphazard;

- ii) "Planning", closely connected with the policy.
The Plan works out the details of how the policy is to be implemented;
- iii) When the Society becomes an economic force, there will arise the need of 'defensive action';
(vested interest, out-side enemies;
- iv) " Training" of the rank and file for imparting improved skill;
- v) Research;
- vi) Deofficialisation;
- vii) Re-appraisal - to invite criticism and suggestions of the rank and file and to be willing to be criticised.

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EFFECTIVENESS OF COOPERATIVE TRAINING

- Dr. S.C. Mehta
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1. Objectives of Training:

The training involves imparting of knowledge skill and attitude among participants so that they are able to perform their functions in the cooperative organisation more effectively, more competently and more imaginatively. Training is therefore, very intimately connected with organisation development programme which postulate :

- a) Manpower Planning,
- b) Survey of Training requirements, and
- c) Planning the training programmes.

It naturally follows that the organisation must acutely feel the need for training, be prepared to spend for the same and involve itself in the design of the programmes in collaboration with the training organisation. Connected with this is the question - What makes the Manager a success. Our training programme should be tailored so as to enable him to achieve the organisation goals. Further, the quality of a good manager is that he is able to make best use of others. The training should be able to inculcate this quality.

2. Indian Experience:

We talk loudly about participative management and our training programmes are also conditioned by this line of thinking. In actual practice the picture may turn out to be entirely different, with the result that the trainee, returning to his institution finds himself stranded or lost. Though participative management should find still more acceptance in the cooperative sector by virtue of its being a democratic movement, there is a wide gap

between profession and practice. It is often alleged that there is too much interference from government, from directors and from others like financing agencies in the management of cooperatives.

When we are considering the effectiveness of our training programme, we must be sure that the manager is a free agent who could think and act for the interests of the institution without fear or favour. Only in such an atmosphere, the training could show results. It is, therefore, absolutely essential to lay down pragmatic and businesslike objectives which the training programmes are able to achieve.

3. Selection and type of trainee:

The selection and type of trainees will also depend on the manpower planning that is undertaken by cooperative organisations. In cooperatives, recruitment of personnel leaves much to be desired in terms of their merits or qualifications. Many secure their career berths on extraneous considerations. It is necessary that the trainees selected for particular course are competent enough to offer a fertile ground for implanting the new ideas that emanate from training. In cooperative institutions so often, the picture is not so comforting. Many a time the institutions are not able to spare the services of their employees in the absence of any training reserve which also they cannot afford. Though in case of some backward states in the North & East of India, the government has offered a scheme to pay half the salary of employees in most of the cases, still the facility has not made such impact, because the cooperatives can ill-afford even the additional expenditure equal to half of his salary in case of his substitute. Moreover, a substitute for a short period is hard to get.

It is pertinent to ensure that in relation to the course-content the trainee group is quite homogenous and the trainees deputed are selected

on the basis of -

- A usefulness of their services
- B their inclination and keenness to receive training
- C their ability to absorb the teaching

Often the trainees are sent just because there is a strong letter from the registrar of Cooperatives or because the trainee himself is interested in having a nice holiday or because there is some pressure, political or otherwise for deputing a particular trainee.

Still more important issue is that the college should be allowed to screen the trainees and select only the **best**. Often the fear that the capacity of the college would remain utilized prompts it to accept even unsuitable persons. The Sponsors should also have a clear understanding that only deserving candidates can be accepted for training.

Trainees are also not keen to come for training as there is no incentive for them in the form of increments, promotion or other rewards if he successfully completes the training. If such incentives are offered, they will be able to attract best people for training. Training must, therefore, be linked to career planning.

4. Types of Courses:

Nominations to the various courses should relate to what type of training is required for the employees. This may include Diploma Courses of the duration of 2½ months to 9 months, shorter courses of the duration of one week to 4 weeks or 2-3 days seminars for exchange and crystallization of views on particular problems. If there exists a Correspondence Course system, this will go a long way in meeting the needs of employees who may participate in a training programme without their cooperative losing the benefit of their services.

Short courses are preferred because the institution or Department is not able to spare their employees for a longer period. If the course contents demand a larger course, the whole course could be staggered and the trainee may complete it in 2-3 instalments.

5. Quality of Syllabi and Programmes:

A) Theoretical content.

In most cases our syllabus is examination-oriented and rigid which gives little latitudes to the trainers for adapting it to the needs of the participants. The syllabus should be flexible and related to the actual field conditions. For instance, the history and philosophy of the Movement could be allotted only limited hours and the college should be empowered to add current topics to the syllabus.

6. Practical Training:

When the trainees go for observation tours, persons from all parts of the country are visiting almost the same institutions which are also fed up by the visits and can spare little time for them. It is necessary that such institutions may recruit training officers for the purpose or whatever officer is made responsible for giving them information or imparting them training should be paid some honorarium for the job. This incentive will make him take pains for the work that he does. This also applies to the field attachment programmes. The practical training programmes should be formulated with the consent of the institutions. In case of a visit to the cooperative department, honorarium should be paid also to the Dy. Registrar or the officer who imparts training to them. Similarly, is the case with the work of trainees in the adopted societies where also the executive officer of the society should get some honorarium. Wherever possible, the

institutions should involve the trainees in actual operations of the adopted society. But it should not tantamount to cheap exploitation of trainees. As regards consumer stores of the Training College, trainees should receive some honorarium for working there so that they may take some interest in its work. Often it will be useful to devise sandwich courses which would involve interspersal of campus training with actual working in the field, with campus training carried out in 2-3 instalments.

7. Teaching Techniques:

There cannot be two opinions that all modern teaching techniques should be employed to impart training which may include case studies, role play, management games, practical exercises, use of slide projector, the film projector or overhead projector. Presently because of the burden of courses on the lecturers, they have little time to prepare case studies or role play or business games which also require money and time for outside tours and at the campus. The paucity of staff also limits much work in this direction. No good films and slides on cooperation are available which could show the trainees actual working of the cooperatives except some films and film slides produced by the Reserve Bank of India more than a decade ago. The colleges carry only with the films borrowed from the various embassies and the Govt. of India Departments. It is necessary that there should be a good film department at the National Council for Cooperative Training or National Cooperative Union of India, which could produce good films on cooperative subjects.

8. Physical facilities:

The physical facilities available with a college are not of required minimum standard; most of the training institutions are located in hired

buildings which are unsuitable, inadequate and illequipped as regards classroom, hostel, playground, equipment and other facilities. Money should be available for all these purposes, either from the Government or Cooperative institutions to provide an ideal environmental setting for a training campus.

9. Quality of teachers:

Often complaints are voiced that the teachers are more academicians and not practitioners with the result that their teaching has no relevance with the actual conditions in the field. To take care of this incongruity, it is essential that whenever teachers are recruited from the market or from the universities, they should be given an orientation in the operation of cooperatives and be offered opportunities to undertake field studies so that they may equip themselves with their practical problems in course of time.

Suitable faculty Development Programmes would also help to fill in the gaps in their knowledge. Guest lectures should be invited from Cooperative Department, Cooperative Institutions and also from the private and public sectors to allow proper inbreeding, who may impart to the trainees firsthand information about the problems in the field. If the people are taken on deputation from the Cooperative Department or Cooperative Institutions, it should be ensured that they have flair for academic work and have a good power of delivery for effective communication with the trainees.

10. Evaluation:

- A) By trainers : This is accomplished through evaluation in day-to-day class debates, seminars, case study sessions, etc. and also

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through periodical tests and final examinations. The tests/final examination should involve more objective questions and the performance of trainees in practical tours, field placement, extra-curricular activities, viva-voce tests etc. If possible, semester system should be adopted for study and tests.

- B) By trainees : At the end of each course, trainee should be asked to evaluate the course contents, effectiveness and utility of the training programme whether same would be useful to them in their work and where they could suggest any measures to improve the same.
- C) By sponsoring organisations : This is a very effective feed-back and would determine as to what extent we have been able to make an impact on the Movement through our training performance. This evaluation could be obtained through questionnaires, through personal visits to the institutions and through involving sponsors in topical seminars.
- D) Follow-up Programmes : Follow-up Programmes are, in a way, Refresher Courses which may be organised to find out from the trainees how far their training has been useful to them and to their organisation. This will also enable to keep a tab on the effectiveness of our training programmes and also enable us to improve them further in the light of the observations made or suggestions received from the various parties.

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COURSE IN TRAINING METHODOLOGY & TECHNIQUES FOR
AFGHAN TEACHERS

DEVELOPMENT OF COOPERATIVE LEADERSHIP IN INDIA

- Prof R.V. Nadkarni

Cooperative form of organisation for providing the commonly needed economic services, organised and worked on the basis of self-help and mutual aid, had been initiated and developed in Europe. Consumers Cooperatives had their origin in England while credit cooperatives had their beginnings in Germany, Dairy Cooperatives in Denmark and so on. But from the country of their origin the ideas spread out to other countries. In most of these countries education for both the children and the adults had been taken up on a very extensive scale about the same time as the cooperatives were being first started. Spread of education facilitated communication of ideas, and the follow up action on the model of the successful cooperatives. Those who first got the idea of organising cooperatives put in considerable effort in educating themselves and others whose cooperation they needed. Through this process emerged earnest and knowledgeable leadership in those countries

By contrast, in India the situation was very unfavourable. Mass of people were uneducated and even illiterate. It was only a microscopic minority who had the benefit of general education. In a large country with great distances and people speaking different languages, there were so many barriers to communication that the spread of ideas was an extremely tardy process.

The British officers and a few English educated Indians were the channels of information about developments in Europe. It is through the initiative and leadership of these officers and the English educated

Indians that a few stray experiments were made in the organisation of cooperatives towards the end of the last century.

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Cooperatives began to be organised on a more systematic basis and on a much wider scale only after the enactment of the Cooperative Credit Societies Act of 1904. The Act had provided for the appointment of an officer of the Government designated as the Registrar of Cooperative Societies. Apart from a number of statutory functions he was required to perform, such as registration of cooperatives, their inspection, audit and enquiry, settlement of disputes through arbitration and liquidation, he was also expected to function as a leader (in the matter of motivating the people to form cooperatives, guide them in organising and in tackling any difficulties and problems cropping in the course of their working.

In the early days the Registrar did not have any assistants to attend to his multifarious functions so the Government had instructed officers of other departments, particularly of the Revenue Department, to help the Registrar in the organisation of cooperatives. While some officers evinced keen interest in cooperation and worked for organisation and development of cooperatives with almost missionary zeal, a number of officers looked upon the same as just an administrative measure. But mere legislation and administrative action could not build up a healthy and strong cooperative movement.

This official sponsorship and official leadership was both inappropriate and inadequate for a movement which was expected to be developed as a popular movement. Therefore, on the recommendation of the Registrar of Cooperative Societies, some reputed individuals who were showing some interest in the new movement were appointed as honorary district organisers. They had a closer acquaintance with the local situation and better appreciation of the local problems, and could speak to the local

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people in their own language with an accent that could be understood by the local people. They were less suspect in the eyes of the local people as against officers of the Government who were strangers.

The movement also attracted a number of intellectuals - school, college and university teachers, journalists, lawyers and even some socially motivated businessmen and industrialists. Political developments in the country had been rapidly converting the politically active people from the stage of praying and petitioning to the British Government for concessions to the stage of agitation and civil disobedience to secure independence. Those who were shy of indulging in agitational politics, considered cooperative movement as a potential field for "social service" to help the comparatively weaker sections of the society by organising them into cooperatives. Some saw in the movement a potential for socio-economic reform and even for a moral transformation and were attracted to it.

This leadership was provided mainly by the urban elite. Fairly **early** did these leaders realise the importance of cooperative education and training and they set up institutions specially to attend to education, training, publicity and propaganda. These institutes issued cooperative journals, organised periodic conferences and also conducted classes to train the secretaries of the societies. But little was done by way of more systematic education of members and training of leaders from below.

In the rural areas with the traditional caste divisions and higher socio-economic status enjoyed by some, persons of the groups having traditional superiority came to occupy positions of importance as office-bearers in the societies. No special education and training were considered by them or by others to be necessary.

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Cooperatives at that stage of development were small with membership confined to a village or a small group of villages. Their activities were confined mostly to the supply of agricultural credit and as such their operations were comparatively simple. Cooperatives for marketing and processing were very few and even from those fewer still had any impressive record of performance. The artisans cooperatives in the rural and the urban areas were even less developed than the agricultural credit cooperative. In the urban areas also the credit cooperatives were more common, many being confined to employees of certain commercial or industrial establishments and Government Departments, local bodies etc. Barring a few which were developed into Cooperative Banks to provide a variety of banking services to the members, the rest were simple organisations. In a few areas consumers cooperatives and housing cooperatives were organised. The only cooperatives which were fairly large were the Central Cooperative Banks and the Apex Cooperative Banks. Though these banks were expected to perform the functions of federal organisations, they were not necessarily structured as federal organisations with representatives of affiliated cooperatives having to bear the responsibility of direction and control of management. Better educated influential individuals in the urban areas provided leadership to these institutions which were, however, required to provide services and leadership to the cooperatives majority of which were in the rural areas.

After independence the situation changed considerably. With political freedom came the freedom to shape the economic policies according to the national interests. Planned economic development was undertaken. In the plans of economic development cooperatives were assigned an important place. To enable the cooperatives to play the role expected of them, Government

assistance was extended to them in a variety of ways and on much more massive a scale than ever before. The state decided to assist the cooperatives not merely from outside by way of loan, subsidies and other concessions, but also internally by contributing to their share capital. Transactions in the traditional types of cooperatives increased manifold. New types of cooperatives like sugar factories, spinning mills, dairy cooperatives etc. came to be organised under the plans in the rural areas. Persons with local influence and organising abilities found new opportunities as well as challenges in these developments. The Central Cooperative Banks and the Apex Cooperative Banks began to be reorganised as federal institutions with the entire or major representation in management to the affiliated cooperatives, other rural cooperatives like marketing and processing cooperatives also developed their own federal structures. With these developments the leaders rising from the rural primaries to the higher level organisations gradually replaced the leaders drawn earlier from the urban elite.

This was accompanied and influenced by another change. After independence a new constitution was adopted which provided for a parliamentary system. Agitational politics with sacrifice and suffering yielded place to party politics for power. Every aspirant for positions in political institutions - party, local bodies, legislatures and parliament had to build up a strong local base for himself and exploit every opportunity to climb higher up. Those at the higher levels had to constantly guard against being toppled by their rivals and therefore, to constantly consolidate and strengthen their political base. In this struggle for political power cooperatives were seen by the newly emerging leaders in the cooperatives as stepping stones for their advancement not only to the higher federal

organisations but also to the positions in political parties. Higher political leaders took considerable interest in the cooperatives to see that their supporters occupied important positions in the cooperatives. Thus the politicians who were indifferent to and even despised cooperatives as institutions outside the main stream of struggle for independence, now looked upon the cooperatives as instruments of gaining and consolidating political power. To the earlier traditional leaders of dominant castes enjoying higher socio-economic status, political aspirations and influence gave a new dimension.

Since the national policy under the plans was to promote and assist cooperatives in every possible field of economic activities as instruments of socio-economic transformation it suited the party in power to sanction new cooperative projects particularly in the areas it wanted to gain a foothold or to strengthen its position. Under the scheme of state partnership there was a provision of nominees of the Government on the Boards of Management of Cooperatives. The power of nomination was used by the party in power to plant its supporters in all important Cooperative institutions. The statutory powers to supersede the Board of managements were used on the flimsiest grounds to remove from positions of power in the cooperatives persons inconvenient to those in political power. Thus came about interpenetration of cooperation and politics. In a few cases cooperatives benefited from the development as political and administrative support to cooperation created a very favourable environment for organisation of new types of cooperatives and in new areas and also for strengthening the cooperatives at different levels. On the other hand intrusion of politicians in the cooperative field vitiated the management. In addition to the usual nepotism, and casteism manoeuvring for political gain has become an

important factor adversely affecting managerial and operational efficiency of the cooperatives.

Cooperatives as per their principles are expected to be neutral in politics as in religion. But this principle is being violated due to the attitudes and activities of the politicians among the cooperators to the detriment of the cooperatives. The solution to this is not debarring the politicians from cooperative membership or even office-bearership, since the politicians also might and in fact do need cooperative services and therefore such debarring would violate the other principles of cooperation viz. open membership and democratic management. If any punitive measures were to be introduced, they would hardly be taken against politician cooperators belonging to the ruling party or ruling faction in a party owing to their influence over the administrators, but might be used with great promptitude against those belonging to the other rival parties or factions.

The only solution would be education and enlightenment of the members and developing an understanding in them that while their support to the politicians among the cooperators might bring them some immediate gains would harm the long term interests of the cooperatives. Members with such cooperative understanding would be able to develop into cooperative leaders who would be concerned with developing their cooperatives. Education is a slow and difficult process which may not give immediate results but it will give sound results.

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USE OF LESSON NOTES

Used correctly, duplicated lesson notes are a valuable support to participative teaching. They provide basic study and discussion material which can be developed in participative teaching sessions. If there is a hard core of material in writing, you lessen the possibility of participative teaching sessions drifting away from the point and losing their purpose.

More important, they save time, otherwise taken up by lectures, which can be used for other teaching exercises. If the students study lesson notes in their own time, the teacher has more class time available. Of course, many experienced teachers say that all students do not read written material. One answer to that is that they do not all listen to lectures either, and at least lesson notes, unlike lectures, can be looked at again for review purposes.

Most students will use lesson and discussion notes if they are well written, and if their purpose is explained.

What Should Go Into Lesson Notes

It is sometimes difficult to decide what should go into lesson notes. There are, perhaps, two measures to apply in deciding this:

- (1) Do not bother to reproduce material which is already available to students in text-books or other readily available sources. Providing potted versions of passages from text-books is not teaching. The notes should be a summary or outline of the teacher's own comments on the topic, emphasising the particular points he wishes to make, and raising the questions to which he wishes to direct the students' attention. It is a good idea to raise these questions for answer and discussion at later sessions.
- (2) Look carefully and critically at the material you normally communicate through lectures and ask yourself these questions: Why is it necessary to present it verbally? How much of it could be better communicated in written form?

Lesson notes in outline form should allow space for the student to add his own notes.

When to Give Out Notes

This depends on the use to be made of the lesson notes. For example, if the subject is (a) complicated, or (b) technical, or (c) includes definitions to be learned, or (d) many references, the teacher may give out the notes at the beginning of the class, so students can follow the presentation more easily, without having to write so many notes of their own.

Some teachers prefer to give out class notes for review only at the end of the class session, because (a) the student pays better attention, and (b) notes down items of particular value to his own situation, and (c) usually remembers more.

If the notes are used in a discussion in class, again, ask yourself what use they have:

- (1) Do the students have to read serious material, and think about it to discuss it intelligently? Then give notes out ahead of time for advance reading.
- (2) If the discussion notes call for an on-the-spot reaction of the students, give them out at the beginning of the discussion session.

Generally, it is advisable to give students notes relating to a particular session either at the session or if they are to be used for discussion purposes at the session, only a short time before. This encourages them to read the notes at the time the content fits into the programme. Never give out lesson notes for the entire course at the beginning of the course.

Of course, lesson notes can be badly or incorrectly used, and often are. Students will often rely upon them more than they should. At worst, some people will simply file them away until close to examination time, when they make a desperate effort to memorise the contents to be repeated parrot-fashion in answer to the tests set.

Many teachers profess to dislike lesson notes for these reasons. It should be remembered, however, that the efficiency of any teaching method is determined by the teacher, not by the students. If notes are not being used correctly, it may be the teacher who is at fault. For example, if the students can pass the examination merely by repeating memorised material, it is usually not a good examination.

INFORMAL GROUP DISCUSSION

Most teachers will be familiar with the techniques of organising group discussions but it would be useful to summarise them here under two main headings: arrangements, and the role of the teacher.

Arrangements

- (1) Seat the group informally preferably around tables, in such a way that each person can see every other.
- (2) Work to a known time schedule - start and finish at times set.
- (3) Have a blackboard available and encourage its use.
- (4) If the group is large, divide into smaller groups for discussion. For most purposes, it is appropriate to have 5 - 7 participants in each group. Ideally, each group needs a separate room, but several groups can operate successfully in the same room at the same time if the room is big enough.
- (5) Make sure participants know one another, by name. You may want participants to wear labels with their names on, or you may put name labels where they sit.

Role of the Teacher

- (1) Emphasise that all members of the group are to take part, but there should be no long speeches.
- (2) Prepare yourself. Think through questions in advance. Distribute any prepared discussion or background material well in advance.
- (3) Try to put well-defined questions or issues before the group.
- (4) Get the group to choose a chairman for the discussion.
The chairman should:
 - (a) Keep the discussion to the point, but not make speeches, or force the discussion in a direction he favours;
 - (b) Ensure that all members participate, by drawing out comments from quiet members, and tactfully interrupting people inclined to make speeches.
- (5) Ask the group also to choose a secretary, who will write down and report the main ideas, conclusions, or suggestions of the group, and report them orally at the end of the discussion. This helps the group see what has been accomplished. Also, if there are misunderstandings, or disagreements on what has been said or agreed on, the report by the secretary gives the group an opportunity to clarify its thinking.
- (6) At the end the teacher should:
 - (1) Summarise the discussion;
 - (2) Identify points of agreement and conclusion;
 - (3) Point out issues that will require further study; and
 - (4) If it is appropriate, add his own views and comments.

Exercise

Think over the following questions. No answers are offered to them, but you will find it useful to measure your own response to what we have discussed in this section by reference to them. If you could discuss them with your colleagues, it would be especially useful.

1. Why is it good for the group to choose a chairman, instead of the teacher?
2. List some possible benefits of having a separate secretary to report the main points of discussion.
3. It is recommended that people in a class rotate in the position of chairman and secretary for informal discussions. Why?
4. Why is it recommended that large groups be divided into smaller ones for discussions?

Abstract from "Participative Teaching Methods"
IGA GEMAS, London.

GROUP DISCUSSION TECHNIQUES

A variety of participative techniques will be described in this manual. Most of them involve group discussion in some form.

The following methods will be described:

- Informal Discussion in Class,
- Case Studies,
- In-Tray Exercises,
- Role Plays, or Socio-Dramas,
- Ranking Exercises,
- Debating, and
- Business Games.

Before describing each, we will make some comments that apply to participative techniques in general.

The way people think and act in groups often differs from the way they think and behave individually. Group dynamics is the name given to this fact. You may wish to read more on this subject.

Advantages

It is important to be clear about the advantages of this process. We can list these as follows:

- (1) It helps to avoid monotony and boredom, and so to stimulate interest.
- (2) It encourages people to talk and to express their opinions. Often this brings hidden conflicts within the group out into the open. Skilled teachers can use this productively and helpfully.
- (3) Participants tend to remember things that they have had to defend or explain to others.
- (4) Group discussion is a co-operative exercise through which the group seeks solutions to problems. It thus uses the experience and wisdom of group members. Note that only those teachers who genuinely respect the opinions of their students can use group discussion for this purpose.
- (5) From the teacher's point of view, it is easier to correct a few group solutions than many individual ones.
- (6) Finally, and perhaps most important, group discussion can influence attitudes and beliefs, and so open the way to the use of newly acquired skills or information.

Attitude Changes

It is worth discussing this last, but most significant, advantage further, to consider how this process of attitude change works.

There are many ways of causing people to learn facts and to understand concepts. The trouble is that they will not generally act on what they have learnt if it conflicts with deeply held attitudes, habits or prejudices. Most of us are usually willing to learn facts from anyone we think to be knowledgeable, but we are much less willing to unlearn old habits or to change attitudes. Subconsciously at least, most people are reluctant to change their attitudes, especially if this will put them out of step with friends or workmates. The possible risk involved becomes more acceptable if we hear others discussing the advantages of change. Indeed, in a group situation, fear can work the other way. A person may not wish to find himself alone in defence of an attitude abandoned by others.

The importance of this in Co-operative education and training will be readily seen. If the objective of a training course is to teach certain procedures, in the anticipation that these will be put into practice when the student returns to his Co-operative, then it is essential for the student not only to understand how they operate, but also to accept that they are preferable to those he used previously. The saying "old habits die hard" is very true. If an "old habit" is a "bad habit", it has to be unlearnt before it can be replaced by a "good habit".

Some Basic Rules

To secure this process of attitude change, or unlearning, through group discussion techniques, it is necessary to follow some basic rules. If these are ignored, such techniques can easily reinforce existing unwanted prejudices or even introduce new ones. These rules might be summarised as follows:

- (1) First the teacher has to foster in the group an element of doubt about the attitudes he wishes to change. He does this by questioning the assumptions on which they are based and suggesting alternatives. (It is even better to get the students to question the assumptions, and suggest alternatives).
- (2) Next he has to make the participants feel safe enough to voice to each other the doubts they may suspect or feel. If they have this feeling of security, some will not mind expressing their ideas before they are sure they are correct and acceptable to the rest of the group.
- (3) Once this process begins, other members will be encouraged to try out their ideas, and a free interchange of opinion based on experience can take place.
- (4) The results of this group effort is then subjected to assessment and evaluation by the teacher.

Exercise

1. Test your recall of what we have discussed in this section by completing the following summary statement from the text:

"Thus, beginning with an element of _____, supported by a feeling of _____, _____ by the relationship within the group and _____ by the teacher, the group members help to encourage and push each other through the process of _____ and learning".

Check your answers by reference to the preceding pages

2. Think over the following questions. No answers are offered to them, but you will find it useful to measure your own response to what we have discussed in this section by reference to them. If you could discuss them with your colleagues, it would be, especially useful
- (a) How would you foster healthy doubt at the beginning of a group discussion?
 - (b) What is an "assumption"?
 - (c) Tell one way you could build a feeling of security in a group
 - (d) What could you do to help people develop relationships in a group?
 - (e) Give an example of how a teacher can guide a group in discussion without dominating.
 - (f) In addition to learning, what else do you want to result from discussion?
 - (g) What group discussion techniques would be useful in teaching of your own subjects? If you could not use discussion in your classes, say why not
 - (h) Apart from the advantages of group discussion which we have listed, can you think of others?
 - (i) In terms of your understanding about the need for sense of security on the part of students, should a teacher always be present during group discussion?
 - (j) Many teachers are sceptical about the value of group discussion techniques. Is it likely that this is because they are afraid of new ideas, and reluctant to change?

Summary

Thus:

- (1) beginning with an element of doubt,
- (2) supported by a feeling of security,
- (3) encouraged by the relationship within the group, and
- (4) guided by the teacher;

the group members help to encourage and push each other through the process of change and learning.

As noted earlier, it is not argued that group discussion techniques are appropriate to the teaching of all subjects, or to all the teaching requirements in any one subject, but they do have a very wide and significant relevance to any learning process involving adult students.

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PRINCIPLES AND STEPS IN CURRICULUM FORMULATION

- Dr. G. Ojha
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What is Curriculum?

The dictionary meaning of curriculum is "the course of study". Naturally, in a training situation also the curriculum refers to the course of study of a given training or education programme. However, the basic question with which persons concerned with the provision of such training and formulating the curriculum faced with is "who are to be educated and why? What they are to be educated about? When, where and how this education or training is to be imparted?"

Identification of Target Population

The first question concerning 'who' and 'why' is related with the objectives of training and the target population to be covered through such training. It means that the trainers who are supposed to do the exercise in curriculum planning must have clear idea about the aims and objectives of the proposed training. The broad aims and goals have to be spelt out into specific objectives of every programme. Therefore, the trainer, before working out or planning to work out a curriculum has to identify the people who are to be trained and also to identify their training needs which may be necessary to perform a given task at a given level. In the curriculum formulation the trainer has to strike a balance between the needs of the individual and the group. The individuals or the group of individuals identified are technically termed as "Target Population". So the first step in the curriculum formulation is identification of the target population.

Identification of Training Needs

The next step in the process is identification of the training needs on the basis of which the training objectives have to be formulated. In order to identify training needs, the trainer has to make a study of the structural and functional aspect of the organisation and also to make

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performance appraisal of the personnel working at a given level. He is also expected to identify the problems facing the organisation which could be solved by the improved performance of human resources. If the group is "known group" it is not difficult to specify the training needs. But considerable problems in curriculum formulation arise when the group is 'unknown'. In such cases it becomes extremely difficult to work out a curriculum which could exactly meet the needs of the personnel with varying background and experience and working in different organisations. Even when the jobs are similar and the types of organisations in which the persons are engaged are also identical, there could be considerable variation in the training needs of the personnel working in 'A' organisation to the training needs of the personnel working in 'B' organisation. This may be due to various socio-economic and organisational factors in which a given institution might be functioning. However, in such cases, for the purpose of drawing a useful curriculum it is essential for the trainer to be in close consultations with the top-management, and/or personnel and training executives to identify the specific needs of training for a given target group. The more homogenous the target group the more easier will be the task of curriculum formulation.

Learning Aims & Behavioural Objectives:

Once the target population and its training needs are identified the next step in curriculum formulation is determining the "Learning Aims/Goals" and "Behavioural Objectives" in terms of what a trainee should be able to perform after undergoing the training process. It means that there is a relationship between learning experience and behaviour. In this process the trainer is required to select the learning experiences to which the participants in the programme must be exposed. This is an essential part in the process of curriculum formulation because it is through the exposure to these experiences that the existing behavioural patterns can be changed. Therefore, with reference to the goals of the programme in terms of attitudes and behaviour desired to be produced among the participants, a range of experiences has to be selected. However, the accumulation of such experiences should not be aimed at mere accumulation of knowledge of facts but must help the participants in relating specific facts to general principles. It is in this context that a specific distinction is made between training objectives (aims & goals) and behavioural objectives. The behavioural

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objectives of a training programme should specifically aimed at developing the ability of comprehension application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation among the participants in relation to their job performance after training. And therefore, the curriculum should clearly indicate what the teacher should teach and what the trainee should learn. This will avoid vagueness in the teaching/learning process.

Selection of the Subject and Formulation of Syllabi

Selection of the subject and formulation of the syllabi is the next step in curriculum formulation. The identification of the subjects must be done in relation to the goals determined and behavioural objectives selected. The failure of a training programme in many cases is primarily due to neglect in this area.

Breaking the Subjects into Specific Topics

The fourth step in the process of curriculum formulation is breaking the subject into specific topics. The subject area and subject matter specialist may like or suggest to cover everything but it is the prime responsibility of the trainer to select only such topics within the subject matter which is likely to help directly in achieving the behavioural objectives of the programme. In other words while determining what should be taught and how much of it should be taught, the trainer must carefully consider its relevance to the experiences necessary for attaining the learning goal and learning experiences.

Lesson Planning - Organisation and integration of various topics in sequence

Once the subject area and topics within the subject is identified in relation to the overall objectives of the programme the next step in curriculum formulation is organising and integrating various topics in properly coordinated sequences designed to produce the desired behavioural pattern. It means that the sequences of lessons and teaching activities are to be worked out in such a manner that each topic would be in with reference to preceding topic and will lead to the one which is to follow. Thus, a trainer is supposed to maintain inter-relationship and continuity in the treatment of the subject and the topics. This will ensure the entire process of training an integrated one.

Selection of Possible Learning Methods and Aids for Achieving Training Objectives

Once the lesson plan is ready, the next step is to identify the possible training methods for various subjects and topics and the selection of teaching aids.

Curriculum formulation in its traditional way did not give much emphasis on this aspect. Curriculum formulation used to be considered as complete after working out the lesson plan. The trainers used to leave the question of training methods, aids and also that of material to be used to the whims of the teacher. However, with the development of modern teaching technique, identification of the most suitable training technique and method has become an essential part of a perfect curriculum to be identified by the trainer responsible to formulate the curriculum. Not only this it is further expected that the trainer should identify suitable teaching/training technique in respect of each topic and also indicate the suitable aids to be used in making the communication more effective to bring insignificant results.

Preparation of Training Material

Once the subject area, topics, teaching techniques and aids suitable to deal with the topics are identified the next step in the curriculum formulation is production and collection of teaching/training material. Here again the trainer has to be careful and keep in his mind the specific behavioural objectives to be achieved through the training. This applies both to the production of material and collection of material. However, in the matter of selecting teaching/training material, the following additional points should be taken into consideration:

- (a) Suitability of material; to target population.
- (b) Simplicity of material; to target population.
- (c) Time required to teach with the material.
- (d) Cost involved in production/procurement of material
- (e) Language of the material.

A curriculum is incomplete without adequate and suitable material in the language which could be understood by the participants.

Pre-testing - Evaluation and Refinement

No curriculum and the materials contained in it is complete unless suitability of the materials pre-tested in the field situation. Curriculum formulation is not an end itself but it is a means to achieve certain objectives. It is, therefore, a continuous process. The trainer must pre-test the curriculum in real field situation before it is used. This will provide an initial feed back and will be extremely useful to find out whether the actual operation will result in actual attainment of the training objectives or not. In the light of such feed back the trainer would be able to make necessary changes in the curriculum.

Even when a given curriculum is pre-tested it is desirable to obtain feed back on the curriculum when it is thrown open to actual use. Such feed back are of considerable value for the trainer in developing and perfecting the curriculum.

Other Important Points in Curriculum Formulation

Apart from the various steps indicated above the following factors should also be taken into account in the process of curriculum formulation:

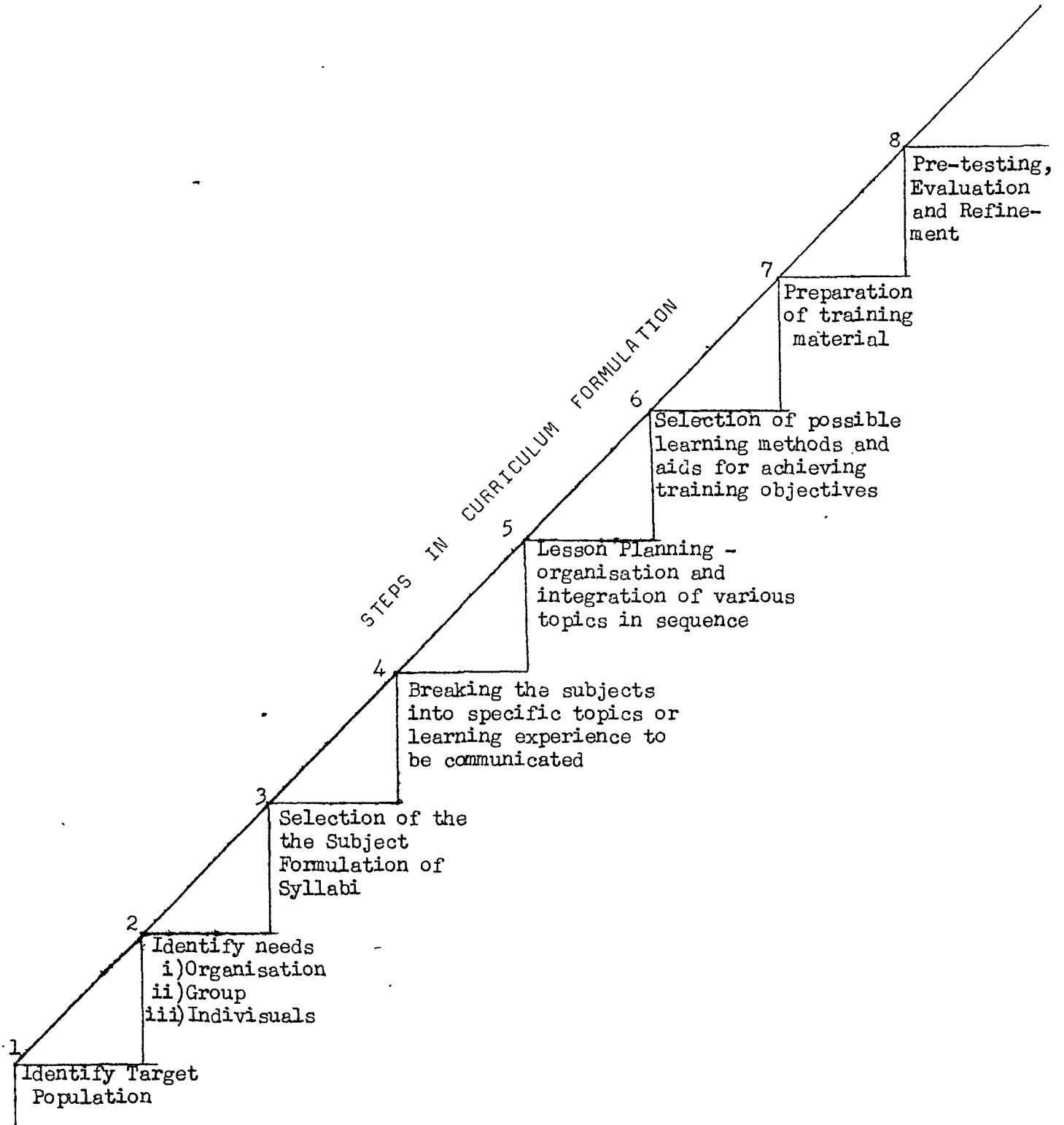
a) Duration of the programme: Duration of the programme has to be considered in the light of the coverage of the subject/^{area} and weightage given to various topics and also in consideration of the behavioural objectives to be achieved. However, the duration of the programme must also take into consideration the availability of the participants for the full duration of the course. Sometimes situation may demand to strike a balance between the without sacrificing the training objective.

b) The second aspect is the availability of suitable personnel and the physical and administrative support available to carry out the programme. This also includes the cost factor in training.

A summary of the whole process involved in the formulation of curriculum is provided in the chart as Annexe-A.

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STEPS IN CURRICULUM FORMULATION



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IDENTIFICATION OF TRAINING NEEDS

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The success of any Training strategy for cooperatives depends on the identification of training needs of various categories of personnel working at different levels in a cooperative system.

Training programmes are organised in relation to needs and are therefore not merely a reaction to solve a given set of problems.

Definition

A training need may be defined as desired change in present human knowledge, skills or attitude so as to bring in improved performance of the human resources. Training needs of an organisation is different from the development needs. The development needs of the organisation aim at the total growth and effectiveness of the individuals working within it towards realising their full potentialities to the advantage of the organisation.

How to identify Training Needs?

1. The trainer should make the job analysis of a particular group of employees and make an assessment of their job performance. Such performance appraisal could also be provided by the management or the supervisors. Once the performance problem at a given level has been identified the next step would be to make a survey of such group for whom training may be needed.

Analysis of bio-data: In order to identify the training needs of the identified group, detailed information and bio-data of the prospective participants should be obtained particularly regarding their job requirements.

A careful scrutiny of the job requirements and the existing performance will indicate the areas of training needs.

2. The second method of identifying the training needs within the organisation is through the Review of Production, Financial, Personnel and other operational data from records and annual reports of the organisation.

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This requires careful and deep study of the various functional aspects of the organisation in order to identify problem areas which could be corrected through training. In this method the main thrust "is on 'results' of activities, and one has to work backward to the causes to identify training needs".

3. The third method aims at evaluating an individual's performance level, and identifying his training requirements. This means that a trainer should try to assess the existing level of knowledge, skills and behaviour and also the potentials for further development of these elements in the light of his requirements and future development. In this method the focus is on individuals but the techniques could also be profitably used to evolve a training programme for a group of individuals.

Thus to sum up "Training needs of an individual in an organisation are related to the tasks that he is expected to perform and is a mixture of knowledge, skills and attitudes that he must possess to perform the task". In other words, training must ensure improved performance of the job in order to accomplish organisational objectives at the least cost

Classification of training needs:

Training need could be classified in two broad categories; i.e.

- (a) Essential training requirements, and
- (b) Desirable training requirements.

(a) Essential training requirements could be identified as those training needs which are absolutely important for the performance of a given job or task. Absence of such training has immediate bearing on the functioning of the organisation at a given level.

(b) Desirable training requirements could be defined as such training needs which could be generally useful in providing broad perspective to the trainee. The fulfilment of desirable training needs develop among the participants an appreciation of skills and attitude for performing the job.

The real problem in identifying the training needs is in relation to the unknown group of personnel. The problem before the trainer often is that he is not aware about the individual requirements and hence he faces practical problems in formulating need based curriculum for such groups. However, the trainers have evolved some working method on the basis of which the curriculum could be formulated for such group. However, this is based on certain assumptions.

The trainer has to identify the actual task as well as the other related aspects of the task which a member of a particular group is performing at a particular level. For example, take the case of the newly recruited Managers of the Primary Agricultural Cooperative Marketing Society. A manager of the agricultural marketing society is supposed to know not only the techniques of agricultural marketing but also about warehousing, grading, storage, transportation, and also purchasing technique. Besides this, probably he must also have some elementary knowledge of accounting. It is true that a particular marketing officer may not be performing all these functions but since he is the controlling and supervising officer ^{and} also since all these activities are inter-related, he cannot effectively function if he is not sufficiently oriented in these activities. Thus in such cases of unidentified group (about whom sufficient knowledge is not available) the training needs could be identified on the basis of the job-description and on the identification of the inter-related activities of such job with other activities.

The next principle in identifying the training needs of the unspecified group is the principle of certain basic assumptions of knowledge or skills that the individual members of the group may be possessing. For example, in identifying the training needs of the newly recruited accounts clerks, a trainer may make an assumption that the candidates do not have the skills of maintaining double entry book-keeping and hence this may be an area of training. Similarly, while identifying the training needs of the newly recruited accounts officer, the trainer may assume that the candidates have all the skills in ^{maintaining} and following the double entry system of book keeping and hence may exclude such topics from the curriculum.

In identifying training needs of both the types of personnel, either known or unknown, the trainer must have very close links with the users (organisations) who are going to be profited by such training. But the fallacy of the present cooperative training system is that though the user organisations do realise the need of training, they do not involve ^{themselves} fully with the training organisation and trainers in precisely identifying the training needs. This results in training being subsequently branded as eye wash, 'useless', 'unpractical', 'theoretical' so on and so forth.

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Without going into the question of who is at fault, the most practical approach from trainer's angle require greater efforts on his part in identifying real needs, particularly the practical aspect or the skill part of the needs. This will require practical experience on the part of trainers in the working of the cooperative organisations at various level.

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COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN INDIA

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VMNICM, Pune.

Socio-Economic transformation

In no other country in the world is the cooperative movement as large and diversified as in India. It leaves almost no sector of the economy untouched. Over the years, cooperative activity has progressively increased in terms of membership, resources and transactions. To-day, the economic value of cooperative activity exceeds Rs.15,000 crores per annum - about one-fourth of the total national income. The movement involves about eight crore people and is perhaps one form of economic organisation which involves the largest number of people.

Beginnings

The passing of the Cooperative Societies Act in 1904 marks the beginning of the Indian cooperative movement. It started with the establishment of primary credit cooperatives whose task was to liberate the farmers from the clutches of the lenders. The cooperative departments were established in most of the states under the Registrar of Cooperative Societies. However, the growth of the cooperative movement till the attainment of independence was somewhat feeble and limited. It is only after the attainment of independence that started a process of rapid expansion and diversification of the cooperative

movement. In the successive Five Year Plans, the cooperative sector was looked upon as a balancing sector of the economy balancing the private sector and the public sector.

Credit Cooperatives

The recommendations of the historic Rural Credit Survey Committee Report (1954) provided the basic ingredients for cooperative policy aimed at developing cooperation as the principal instrument of rural and agricultural development. The report recommended massive State assistance and participation in the cooperative movement. As a result of this policy a wide-spread network of primary agricultural cooperatives has been established at the village level. They are affiliated to the District Cooperative Banks which in turn are affiliated to State Cooperative Banks. The latter get concessional finance from the agricultural credit department of the Reserve Bank of India. In 76-77, there were 26 State Cooperative Banks, 344 Central Cooperative Banks and 1.23 lakh primary cooperatives, embracing 450 lakh members in 5.24 lakh villages. Already primary cooperative credit societies have covered 50% of rural families.

Long Term-credit.

There is a different institutional set up for supply of long-term credit for construction of wells, installation of pumps, land reclamation and development of under-developed area, etc. Long-term loans are disbursed to the primary land

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development banks which are affiliated to the State Apex Land Development Banks which derive loanable funds from the Agricultural Refinance Corporation established in the year 1963. There is a tremendous advance in agricultural investment through these land development banks and during the last year more than Rs.200 crores were lent to farmers through the land development banks. In 1976-77, there were Central Land Development Banks and 892 primary land banks.

Supplies

The network of cooperatives also provide comprehensive programme for the distribution of agricultural inputs. Cooperatives are expected to provide by 1978-79, 65,000 retail outlets distributing 65% of fertilisers, worth Rs.1,000 crores. Already by 1975-76 they have distributed fertilisers worth Rs.700 crores, in addition to Rs.50 crores worth of pesticides and Rs.20 crores worth of seeds. The cooperatives have undertaken a programme for construction of village godowns and mandi godowns in rural areas. The capacity of cooperative storage by March, 1977 was nearly 40 lakh tonnes and is expected to go up to 68 lakh tonnes by 1978-79.

Marketing

Cooperative have also started handling, in a large way, marketing of agricultural produce. In 1975-76 cooperatives handled marketing of agriculture produce worth more than Rs.1500

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crores of which foodgrains were of the value of Rs.522 crores, sugar-cane for Rs.421 crores and others including cotton worth Rs.625 crores. The total number of marketing societies handling agricultural produce at the mandi level is more than 3000. They are affiliated to the apex marketing federations which in turn are affiliated to the national cooperative marketing federation.

Processing

The achievements of agricultural processing through cooperatives have also been intensified. The total number of cooperative processing units is 1738 of which 330 are cooperative agricultural processing units, 326 are oilseed processing units and 33 food and vegetable processing units. There are 138 cooperative cold storages. The cooperatives have made a mark in the manufacture of sugar. There are 120 cooperative sugar factories, whose total production is nearly 25 lakh tonnes, or half of the total sugar production in the country. There are 55 cooperative spinning mills which have total spindleage of 10 lakhs. It is intended to double this in the near future. This massive development in agro business by cooperatives has been greatly assisted financially and organisationally by the National Cooperative Development Corporation which is the executive arm of the Ministry of Civil Supplies and Cooperation.

Consumer Stores

The consumer cooperatives have also been given a very great important place as the backbone of the public distribution

system in the country. There are repeated periods of scarcity and inflation during which the consumers have been held to ransom by the traders. The cooperative public distribution system is intended to provide and maintain supply of essential commodities at fair prices to the common man. In addition to 55,000 villages societies, 1862 primary marketing societies are also engaged in distribution. In the urban areas 456 consumer wholesale stores and their 3500 branches and 170 department stores are engaged in the distribution of essential commodities.

Dairy

In the field of cooperative dairy, the achievement of Amul in Gujrat has been most outstanding. This has become the biggest dairy in Asia which supplies not only liquid milk to the consumers but also produces milk powder and baby food. The achievements of Amul are being replicated in Gujrat and rest of the country.

IFFCO

One of the most spectacular achievements in recent years has been the establishment of Indian Farmers Fertiliser Cooperative which has erected a urea plant in Kalol and NPK plant at Kandla in Gujrat. This has been a successful venture. More than 26,000 cooperatives are its members. An efficient network of marketing has been established by IFFCO in several States of the country. IFFCO is now poised to complete shortly

its fertiliser plant in Phulpur and is likely to erect another plant to make use of the gas available from Bombay High.

There are hundreds of other types of societies which are not mentioned here, but which are doing good work in several areas of our country and our economy. All the sector of our cooperative economy are headed by National Level Federations, prominent among those are NAFED (for marketing cooperatives), NCCF (for consumers), All-India State Cooperative Banks' Federation All India State Land Development Banks' Federation and many others. At the apex is the National Cooperative Union of India which is the spokesman of Indian Cooperative Movement.

Cooperative Training

The main objective of the cooperative training policy is to strengthen the management structure of the cooperative movement and help cooperative institutions in building up professional management by improving the knowledge, experience and skills of the staff employed in cooperatives.

The three-tier structure of cooperative training institutes comprises the Vaikunth Mehta National Institute of Cooperative Management at Pune (VNICM) for senior personnel, 16 cooperative training colleges for intermediate category personnel and 73 cooperative training centres for junior cooperative personnel. Since the inception of Diploma Course in Business Management, a total of more than 330 officers, mostly young executives and administrators have undergone this course. In the 22 short term

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sectoral specialised and functional programmes and three national level seminars and conferences, 658 officers were trained during 1977-78.

The 16 Cooperative Training Colleges conducted 244 programmes during 1977-78 in which 5,511 intermediate category of officers were trained. These colleges have trained in all 53,378 intermediate category of personnel so far.

Cooperative Congress

Eighth Cooperative Congress was held from 9th March to 11 th March, 1979 at New Delhi. Convened by the National Cooperative Union of India, the Congress was inaugurated by the Prime Minister. It had the theme "Economic Democracy through Cooperation". The Congress coincided with the platinum jubilee celebrations of the cooperative movement in the country.

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Oct. 30, 1979

COURSE IN TRAINING METHODOLOGY &
TECHNIQUES FOR AFGHAN TEACHERS

Summary of Discussions and Group
work during the workshop.
Planning and Designing of Curriculum
October 25-30, 1979

1. Establishment of Training Needs
- 1.1 Group-I - Group Members: Abdul Razaq Khalaf, Mohd. Atiq,
Allah Mohd., and Khan Bahadur
- 1.1.1 Job Description for Cooperative Managers.
- 1.1.1.1 Education of members
- 1.1.1.2 Book-keeping,
- 1.1.1.3 Credits, Marketing, Supply
- 1.1.1.4 Development of the Cooperatives.
- 1.1.2 Need for Training (cooperative agent; cooperative manager)
- 1.1.2.1 Introductory cooperative course content.
 - book-keeping, accounting,
 - bye-laws and laws,
 - administrative matters (including arr. of meetings)
 - cooperative principles,,
 - credit, supply,
 - marketing, storing,
 - establishment of cooperatives (only agents)
 - general agriculture practice,
 - rural sociology,
 - member education.
- 1.1.3 Duration

It was desired to have at least three months introductory courses. It was felt impossible, however, to conduct so long courses during the first years. In chapter 1.4.3 below, six weeks courses are suggested.

1.2 Group-II - Group Members: Jalaludin Zamani, Abdul Jayuom,
Mahmood, Ziauddin

1.2.1 Job Description - Board Members

1.2.1.1 General body duties delegated to the board

1.2.1.2 Take decisions about cooperative work scope

1.2.1.3 Decisions regarding prospective new members (attract new members)

1.2.1.4 Financial Decisions

1.2.1.5 Education for the members

1.2.1.6 Duty distribution between the members of the board

1.2.1.7 Management/Administration of cooperatives

1.2.1.8 Recruitment of staff

1.2.1.9 Preparation of the balance-sheet.

1.2.2 Training needs

1.2.2.1 Cooperative laws, bye-laws, meetings

1.2.2.2 How to find financial resources

1.2.2.3 How to implement marketings

1.2.2.4 Good information about agricultural practices

1.2.2.5 How to strengthen the own financial resources, etc.

1.2.2.6 Health, home economics

1.2.2.7 Functional literacy

1.2.2.8 Knowledge in book-keeping, balance-sheets, etc.

1.2.3 Duration

Duration of board members' course should be one week.

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- 1.3 Group-III - Group Members: Sayed Yaqub, Dorshey, Rahmatullah
- 1.3.1 Job Description - Member Education
 - Rights of members
 - 1.3.1.1. Election of board
 - 1.3.1.2 Obtain services
 - 1.3.1.3 one man → one vote
 - 1.3.2 Duties of the members
 - 1.3.2.1 Participate in General Body meetings, etc.
 - 1.3.2.2 Entrance fee, Membership fee (share capital)
 - 1.3.2.3 Encourage other people to become members
 - 1.3.2.4 Care for the cooperatives belongings and activities
 - 1.3.2.5 Use the cooperative services
 - 1.3.2.6 Active membership
 - 1.3.2.7 Loans repayments
 - 1.3.2.8 Any other functions
 - 1.3.2.9 Liability 20 times the share capital
 - 1.3.2.10 Take part in various training
- 1.3.3 Training needs
 - 1.3.3.1 Literacy Courses for the cooperative members
 - 1.3.3.2 Member education through tape-recorder, etc.
 - 1.3.3.3 Cooperative principles
 - 1.3.3.4 Marketing (economics of marketing)
 - 1.3.3.5 Credit/supply
 - 1.3.3.6 Cooperative legislation/bye-laws
 - 1.3.3.7 Orientation Course - audio-visual (through radios)
 - 1.3.3.8 Improved farming practices.

1.3.4 Duration

We agreed on short information courses/meetings to farmers at convenient times. PL etc. programmes should be carried out by the special agencies.

1.4 Organisation of the Cooperative In-service Training Institute(CITI) at Badam Bagh. The recommendations of the Groups:

1.4.1 Policy Management

A Steering Committee should be formed. The Chairman of the Steering Committee should report on the Institutes' activities to the Minister/Deputy Minister of Agriculture.

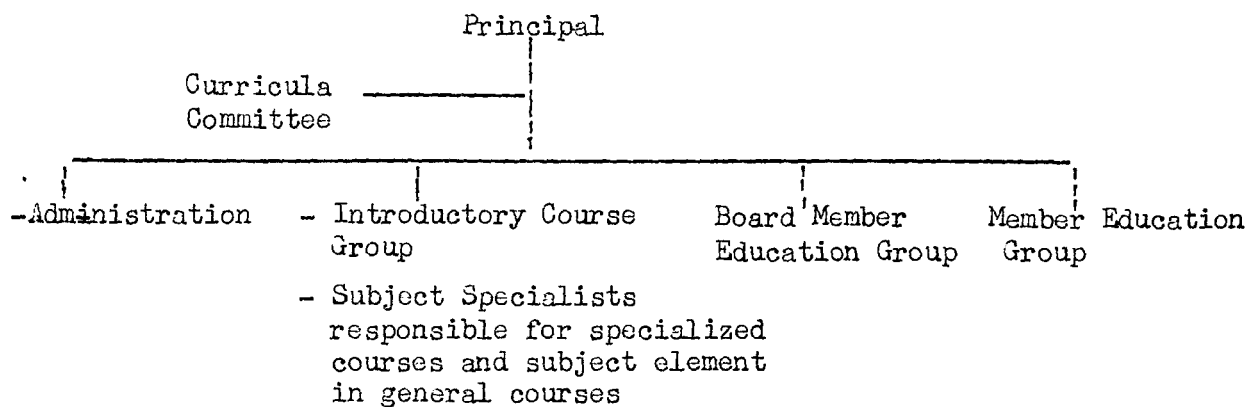
Committee Members:

- President General of Extension, Chairman
- President, Cooperative Department, Vice-Chairman
- President, Extension Department, Member
- President, State Farm Department, Member
- President, Agricultural Bank, Member
- Principal, Agricultural Institute, Member
- General Director Training, Secretary
- Principal, CITI, Co-Secretary
- (Project Adviser, PACCA Project, Kabul)

1.4.2 Institute Management

The Principal of the Institute should be a technical man (training specialist). He would be responsible for the implementation of decisions taken by the Steering Committee. The Principal's contacts with the Ministry in the current work would be through the Director General, Training at DCD.

1.4.3 Institute Organisation



1.5 Quantity of introductory training for cooperative assistant managers and cooperative agents

1.5.1 Estimate of No. of Cooperative managers to be trained
(from Primary Cooperatives)

Year	1357	1358	1359	1360	1361	1362
No. of Coops.(new)	136	1500	1000	800	600	600
<u>Year of Training</u>						
1357	-	70	70	-	-	-
1358	-	230	600	600	70	-
1359	-	-	300	400	300	-
1360	-	-	-	240	320	240
1361	-	-	-	-	180	240
1362	-	-	-	-	-	180
Net. Nos.	-	300	970	1240	870	660
Dropouts during course	-	15	50	60	40	35
Terminates service	-	-	15	75	125	165
Second senior employees	-	-	-	15	75	125
Gross Nos. to be trained	-	315	1035	1390	1110	985

1.5.2 Estimate of total number to be trained

	<u>1358</u>	<u>1359</u>	<u>1360</u>	<u>1361</u>	<u>1362</u>
Cooperative Managers	315	1035	1390	1110	985
Cooperative Union Staff	-	29	29	29	29
DGD Field Staff	120	140	120	120	120
DGD Central Staff	37	45	8	8	8
Total trainees	472	1249	1547	1267	1142

1.5.3 Estimated training capacity

1.5.3.1 With 6 weeks courses for introductory training of cooperative managers/senior staff and DGD staff and with one week free between the courses the needs for No. of classes are as follows. Each course can take 25 participants.

Year 1359

Year 1360

$$\frac{1249}{25} \times \frac{7 \text{ weeks}}{52} = 7$$

$$\frac{1547}{25} \times \frac{7 \text{ weeks}}{52} = 9$$

Needed 7 classes parallel.

Needed 9 classes parallel.

1.5.3.2 If other necessary central courses are added the need for 1359 may be 9 classes and for 1360 may be 10 classes. This need will remain for following years as refresher courses and additional courses are added.

1.5.3.3 For each class the capacity of trainers/teachers would be three, considering also sick leaves, annual leaves, other assignments. About 14-15 full time trainers would be assisted by about 35-45 part-time trainers/lecturers. All these, plus field trainers, need special training.

1.6 Curriculum for Introductory Course for Cooperative and DGD_staff.

Course duration, six weeks. Total number of 75 minutes (1 hour 15 minutes) sessions during the course is 168. Each day has 5 sessions (Saturday to Wednesday) with 3 sessions on Thursday.

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Sessions</u>	<u>Planners</u>
1. Cooperatives, Cooperative Management	20	Atiq, Yaqub, Allah Mohd.
2. Laws, bye-laws	20	- do -
3. Credit and Supply	24	Khalaf, Khan Bahadur
4. Marketing, storing	18	- do -
5. Book-keeping	54	Dorshai, Ziauddin, Mahmood
6. Rural Sociology	6	Jayoum, Rahmatullah
7. General Agriculture	10	- do -
8. Member education techniques/ systems, public relation	12	Jalaluddin Zamani
9. Course start and termination	3	
10. Reserve	<u>1</u>	
	<u>168 sessions</u>	

1.7 Subject Specification

1.7.1 Cooperatives, Cooperative Management

<u>No. of Sessions</u>	<u>Sub-subject</u>
3	1. What is a cooperative? Cooperative Principles.
2	2. History of Cooperatives.
2	3. The cooperative movement in Afghanistan.
1	4. Cooperative Classification.
2	5. The role of Agricultural Service Cooperatives in the Agricultural Development.

<u>No. of sessions</u>	<u>Sub-subject</u>
3	6. Coóperative Management (Principles, characteristics)
2	7. The function of cooperative managers.
3	8. How to conduct a General Body Meeting and a Board Meeting.
2	9. Evaluation and spare time
<hr/>	
20 sessions	

1.7.2 Cooperative Laws, Bye-laws

<u>No. of sessions</u>	<u>Sub-Subject</u>
2	1. What is law and what is a rule? Afghan Laws.
2	2. What is bye-laws and how are they prepared?
2	3. Cooperative aims.
2	4. The bye-law's definition of a service cooperative, function, name, address, area of operation, etc.
2	5. Establishment and registration of coop- erative Organisational structure. Registrar's function.
2	6. Rights and duties of members.
4	7. Financing of a service cooperative.
3	8. Miscellaneous rules
1	9. Evaluation
<hr/>	
20 sessions	

-: 9 :-

1.7.3 Credit and SupplyCredit

<u>No. of Sessions</u>	<u>Sub-Subject</u>
2	1. Introduction of credit.
3	2. Various loans and their terms (cash/kind, interest, time terms/ conditions).
2	3. Sources of loan.
3	4. Procedures to get loan.
2	5. Applications, forms for application for loans.
2	6. Distribution, utilisation.
2	7. Loan repayment/recovery.
1	8. Evaluation.

Supply

2	1. Introduction to supply.
4	2. How to supply, sources, agencies, distribution,
1	3. Storage, maintenance of stock, transports.

24 sessions1.7.4 Marketing Storing

<u>No. of sessions</u>	<u>Sub-subject</u>
2	1. Introduction
2	2. Marketable commodities, domestic/ foreign markets, qualities.
2	3. Financing of marketing
2	4. Storage
3	5. Marketing practices.
1	6. Processing.
3	7. Packing, grading, sorting, qualities. (norms, standards, insurance)
2	8. Transportation
1	9. Evaluation

18 sessions

1.7.5 Book-keeping

<u>No. of Sessions</u>	<u>Sub-subject</u>
1	1. What is book-keeping, goals and functions of book-keeping.
2	2. Definition. Which books shall we use in the cooperatives. Filling of the forms.
11	3. Recording of share capitals, entrance fees, payments done by the cooperative, received money from the Banks etc. in the journal.
5	4. Recording of fertilizer invoices, of corresponding loan and of fertilizer distribution vouchers and other member transactions in the books.
3	5. Recording of cash loans, oxen and other investment loans, weeds control loans, etc. and of distribution of loan to the members in the journal. Practical exercise with documents and books.
11	6. Explanation and transferring of transactions from the journal to the relevant books,
4	7. Estimate of loan interest and recording of the repayment of loan and interest.
2	8. Marketing, advance loans.
6	9. Raisin, cotton and other marketing transactions.
4	10. Purchase of water pumps, tractors, other equipment.
5	11. Method of account balance and method of closing trial balance, Evaluation.

54 sessions

1.7.6 Rural Sociology

<u>No. of Sessions</u>	<u>Sub-Subject</u>
1	1. Introduction. Present importance of Rural Sociology related to economic development through cooperatives. (comparance of situation before and after the revolution)
2	2. Religion, language, social customs (behaviours) etc.
3	3. Problems. Practical solutions: - women's enrolment - child care - water supply, roads, etc. - health improvements.
<hr/> <u>6 sessions</u>	

1.7.7 General Agriculture

<u>No. of Sessions</u>	<u>Sub-Subjects</u>
1	1. Introduction
2	2. Economical and social importance of agriculture. Land Reform in Afghanistan.
1	3. Importance of extension.
2	4. What are improved methods of cultivation? (Existing and possible practices, coops.)
1	5. System of irrigation.
1	6. Disease and pesticide control.
1	7. Importance of rotation, weed control, good harvesting.
1	8. Evaluation
<hr/> <u>10 sessions</u>	

1.7.8 Member Education, Public Relations

<u>No. of Sessions</u>	<u>Sub-Subject</u>
5	1. Needs of and approach to cooperative member education. Other socio-economic education. Adult education and Functional Literacy, Cultural village development. Farming problems and accounting. Women (AWS). RDD, etc.
2	2. Arrangement for member education within the society. Who is responsible for member education and education evaluation.
3	3. Techniques of member education.
2	4. Public Relation. With members, non-members, government agencies, etc.

12 sessions

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- 1.8 Lesson notes prepared by the groups
- 1.8.1 Marketing
Marketable commodities in Afghanistan (2) Khalaf
- 1.8.2 Rural sociology
The importance of rural sociology in economic affairs (1) Qayoum
- 1.8.3 Member Education
Technique of member education J. Zamani
- 1.8.4 Cooperatives, Cooperative Management
Function of Manager (1) Allah Mohd.
- 1.8.5 Cooperatives, Cooperative Management
General Body Meeting Atiq
- 1.8.6 General Agriculture
Economical and social importance of agriculture, Land Reform (2) Rahmatullah
- 1.8.7 Book-keeping
Recording of share capital and entrance fee in the journal (2) Dorshey
Ziauddin
- 1.8.8 Credit
Kind of loans (cash/kind) and duration (2) Khan Bahadur
- 1.8.9 Law and Bye-laws
Financial resources and duties relevant to the bye-laws of an Agricultural Service Cooperatives (4) Yaqub

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Note on the working of Kolhapur District
Central Cooperative Bank Ltd., Kolhapur.

(Maharashtra State)

The Bank was registered on 1-10-1938 when Kolhapur was State ruled by the Chhatrapati Maharaja. During the Maharaja's regime, the Bank was working as a financing agency for the whole of the Kolhapur State. The year 1949 saw the merger of the Kolhapur State into the Bombay State, and as such, Kolhapur became a District. Thereafter, two financing agencies began to work here, viz. this Bank, and, the then Bombay Provincial Cooperative Bank Ltd., Bombay for parts of the District. During the year 1958, the Registrar appointed a nominated Board, and by 1960 the whole of the District was entrusted to this Bank for finance except the cooperative sugar factories in the district. After the term of the office of the nominated Board, an elected Board came in existence in 1961 for the first time. The present Board took office from 15-12-73.

The credit structure as is obtained in Maharashtra today is a 3-tier structure, consisting of the primary, rural and urban societies at the base, the district central bank at the intermediate level, and the State Cooperative Bank at the Apex. Deposits under this system, are mostly received by the district central cooperative banks from rural areas, and advances to individual agriculturists, and artisans, etc. are made entirely by the primary societies. External funds made available to the system, mainly by the Reserve Bank of India, are routed through the Apex and the district central bank to the primaries.

Thus, the district central bank functions as a balancing centre, and has a notable part to play in the economic development of the district.

To achieve this objective, this Bank, as on 30-6-1977 is having 69 branches scattered over the whole of the district. It is also proposed to increase their number according to a planned programme mainly with a view to make available timely finance to agriculturists and artisans, as also to have better supervision over the working of affiliated societies and to inculcate banking habits in rural areas.

MEMBERSHIP :

As on 30-6-77 the Bank has an affiliated membership of 2905 members, of which 2100 were cooperative societies, the rest being individual members. Membership of the Bank is open to any registered cooperative society district. The policy of entrusting individuals as members has been abandoned since long. However those had been members earlier have continued to be so.

SHARE CAPITAL & OWNED FUNDS :

Authorized share capital of the Bank is Rs. 40 million. Face value of each share is Rs. 50/-. The following table would give an idea about the growth of share capital over last few years. This includes share capital contributed by three categories of members viz. (a) State Government (b) registered cooperative societies (c) Individuals. Out of the share capital on 30-6-77 Rs. 2.2 million is from the State Government and Rs. .066 million is from the individuals while the rest is from cooperative societies.

The following comparative figures give a clear and

concise idea as to the Bank's position regarding owned funds and its working capital.

	Figures in lakhs)			
	: 73-74	: 74-75	: 75-76	: 76-77
Paid up Share Capital	192.14	216.84	241.26	256.52
Reserve Funds	30.33	33.23	38.53	43.84
Other Funds	73.90	100.80	135.81	175.81
Total owned Funds	296.37	350.87	415.60	476.17
Working Capital	2647.23	2650.09	2815.00	3429.03

The above figures clearly indicate the stupendous progress made by the Bank in consolidating its owned funds.

DEPOSITS :

Special attention is paid to find ways and means to increase deposits with the Bank every year. Measure of success in this drive for deposits depends on the ability of the Bank to inspire confidence amongst the public at large. The following figures would reveal that the Bank has been successful in tapping deposits and thus inspiring a sense of confidence amongst the investing public.

(Figures in lakhs)

Particulars	73-74	74-75	75-76	76-77
A) Societies :				
Fixed deposits	342.04	502.68	600.78	810.83
Savings Bank deposits	71.92	59.30	67.98	72.20
Others	504.45	562.14	560.04	607.57
Total A :	918.41	1124.12	1228.75	1490.60
B) Individuals :				
Fixed deposits	218.95	275.71	270.87	322.02
Savings Bank deposits	298.58	290.74	298.86	327.36
Others	72.79	104.46	120.56	121.73
Total B :	590.32	670.91	690.29	771.11
Total deposits (A + B)	1508.73	1795.03	1919.04	2261.71

Bank pays interest on various kinds of deposits at rate $1/2$ percent more than the Commercial Bank-as is allowed by the Reserve Bank of India.

The above table is indicative of the strenuous efforts made by the Bank in its search for deposits, particularly from the rural areas. The deposits rose from a figure of Rs. 506.04 lakhs in the year 1966-67 to the magnificent figure of Rs. 2261.71 lakhs in the year 1977.

LOANS :A) Borrowings :

The following chart gives a comparative view in respect of the borrowings from different sources in order to meet the demands on an ever increasing scale made by the primaries over the last 5 years.

(Figures in lakhs)

Particulars	: 73-74	: 74-75	: 75-76	: 76-77
<u>From R.B.I. :</u>				
For Agril. purposes under Sec.17 (4) (c)	-	-	-	-
M.T. loan under Sec. 17 (4AA)	-	-	-	-
For weavers' Socs. under Sec. 17(4) (bb)	-	-	-	-
<u>From State Govt. :</u>				
For investment in shares participation	-	10.53	-	-
For industrial and weavers' societies	-	-	-	-
For others(Consumers)	-	0.13	0.13	-
Cash Credits (Repledge)	-	-	-	-
<u>From Apex Bank :</u>				
Short term loan	710.00	321.40	328.84	485.00
Medium term loan for agril. purpose	41.91	16.00 (Con.)	-	-
Medium term loan for shares of sugar factories.	-	-	-	-

It may be pointed out that in the years to come to meet increased demands from primaries, whether agricultural or industrial, the Bank may have to borrow more from the Apex Bank and the Reserve Bank of India.

B) Lendings :

Comparative figures of lendings for the following years are as under :

(Figures in lakhs)

Particulars	: 73-74	: 74-75	: 75-76	: 76-77
Short term loan for agril. purpose, including finance for intensive cultivation.	1123.16	1226.58	1390.06	1601.71

The major portion of the total lendings of the Bank is confined to Short term agricultural finance to primary societies. This district has a nation-wide reputation for its best product, i.e. Jaggery. Jaggery from this district finds ready market in State outside Maharashtra like Gujarat and Mysore for its superior quality and durability in all seasons. Hence, sugar-cane crop finds the pride place in the crop pattern of the district.

Sugar cane crop is of 11 to 14 months' duration and the agriculturist needs money for seeds, manures, oils and in cash, throughout this period. The Bank makes every endeavour to meet the demands of every agriculturist taking care to see that the cane-grower utilises 60 percent (this proportion varying on availability of irrigation facilities) of the loan sanctioned to him in kind, i.e. manures and oils and seeds which he needs, and 40 percent in cash.

The scale per acre varies between Rs. 1200 to Rs. 3000.

But the Bank does not measure all the cane growing members with the same yard-stick. The loan to an individual member is related to the total production, to the percentage of loan utilised in kind and to the recoveries effected through cooperative sales.

Impetus given to the sugar cane growing as a major crop, has been mainly due to the establishment of sugar factories in the cooperative sector during last 15 years. In this district, the prices are pre-determined by the Government, and price offered per ton of sugar cane crushed at these factories generally compares favourable with the prices offered for Jaggery in the regulated market of Kolhapur.

POSITION OF RECOVERIES :

Particulars	<u>SHORT TERM</u> (Figures in lakhs)			
	: 73-74	: 74-75	: 75-76	: 76-77
1. Recoverable dues	702.53	1222.34	1504.81	1691.87
2. Recoveries	675.03	1165.85	1407.57	1559.99
3. Unauthorised overdues (total)	27.50	56.49	97.24	131.88
4. Authorised overdues	-	-	-	-
5. Percentage of recoveries to recoverable dues.	96.0%	95.4%	93.5%	92.2%
6. Percentage of of overdues to recoverable dues	4.0%	5.6%	6.5%	7.8%

The Bank has advanced loan to the small farmers (below five acres) to the extent of Rs. 637.07 lakhs

as at the end of 30-6-1977.

(Figures in lakhs)

Year	Total credit	Recoveries	
		Through S&P Unions	Through Sugar Factories
1973-74	675.03	133.85	339.51
1974-75	1165.85	182.99	761.76
1975-76	1407.57	188.91	861.86
1976-77	1543.55	262.42	982.81

As can be seen from the above charts, the Bank can take pride in stating that more than 81 percent of the recoverable dues have been effected through the media of cooperative sugar factory, and through the sale proceeds of produce sold through a cooperative marketing agency, every year.

To study the problems of agriculturists in every detail, a "Statistical Survey" is being undertaken by the Bank shortly, of under-developed tracts of the district. The Bank proposes to utilise such "data" so collected to undertake the novel experiment of "Full finance" of one or two villages in every taluka. We feel that this experiment would give us a better in-sight into the problems of under-developed tracts of the district. For this purpose our Bank has constituted a special wing styled as "Agro-Industrial Planning, Research and Development Commission". It will have technical experts to give necessary technical guidance for agro-based industrial development in the district.

DAIRY :

It has been our experience that though the average earnings of the land-holder has increased due to substantial increase in the prices fetched by marketable commodities, whether sugar cane or other cash crops, it is felt necessary that the bank should make available to such petty land holders an added source of income by providing them adequate finance in respect of industries allied to agriculture, like dairy, poultry or piggery.

Our experience in respect of piggery and poultry is not happy, but we felt that topographically this district of Kolhapur is ideally situated to go in for dairy enterprises in a big way. For purpose of adequate and timely supervision on the beneficiaries to whom M.T. loans for purchase of milch cattle are advanced, the ideal agency according to us is the primary agricultural credit society of which such beneficiary is a member. This policy has been adopted on an extensive scale though the bank has made available necessary financial accommodation also to the dairy societies, registered, as such, the accompanying chart gives comparative picture of the financial involvement of this bank.

IRRIGATION :

This district has been rightly called the Punjab of Maharashtra, in that there are 9 rivers flowing through the length and breadth of the district. At the present moment of time, for want of statistical data regarding the potential availability of water for irrigation purposes and specific locations regarding minor as well as major irrigation schemes which could be implemented in near future, this bank has

not been able to do full justice to this aspect of the problem as it deserves. A beginning has been made, as can be seen from the accompanying chart, by meeting the financial needs of the irrigation societies. But we feel that much more remains to be done, in ultimately raising the irrigation potential, which is definitely there by adopting a more scientific approach to this problem.

The following will give the idea of the Bank's loaning policy in this respect.

(Rs. in thousands)

Particulars	73-74	74-75	75-76	76-77
1. Engine Pipes, electric motors.	1165	49	102	232
2. Drought animals	2	-	154	293
3. Milch animals	993	1571	3514	4702
4. Improvement of land and repairs to wells	23	3	5	7
5. Trucks and tractors	60	30	2	54
6. Irrigation schemes	80	50	75	67
7. For purchase of sugar factory shares	93	851	542	2232
8. For other reasons	20	69	169	449
Total	2336	2623	4561	8036

The Bank at present meets such demands for M.T. loans from out of the Reserve Bank of India funds and from its own funds.

MARKETING :

This district is fortunate in having a strong

cooperative marketing structure. There are 15 sale and purchase unions and 22 seva societies doing marketing business.

These marketing organisations can be looked upon as the connecting link between the producer and the ultimate buyer.

These cooperative organisations, provide the agriculturists with manures and oils and other necessities related to agricultural production on the one hand, and, help the agriculturists to sell their produce at best rate through this medium, on the other. The sale proceeds thus realised are directly credited to the bank by these organisation.

The Bank provides these marketing institutions with the following types of finance. Comparative figures over the last few years are given below for ready reference.

(Figures in lakhs)

Particulars	: 73-74	: 74-75	: 75-76	: 76-77
Clean cash Credit.	59.35	71.35	68.25	65.47
Hypothecation credit	89.35	113.75	140.70	154.15
pledge credit	4.93	42.25	45.75	30.50

Supply of Agricultural inputs and other requisites by marketing cooperatives from the district.

Particulars	: 73-74	: 74-75	: 75-76	: 76-77
Fertilizers	1608.43	3238.60	1143.50	1843.00

It must be realised that to achieve this goal of maximum linking of credit with marketing, these units must be viable and efficient. To that end all help is accorded to these institutions by the Bank.

INDUSTRIAL & OTHER TYPES OF SOCIETIES :

The number of industrial societies in the district is fast increasing. The Board is conscious of the fact that to achieve our avowed goal of Agro-Industrial economy, the District Bank has to now divert its attention to Agro-industries and pure industries on a small scale. Much neglected artisans like, the tanner, the leather worker, the rope-maker, the carpenter have to be induced into the cooperative fold. He has to be offered financial help at every stage of operation of his product. It is an admitted fact that the meagre income of the agriculturists must be supplemented by additional income from agro-industries like Dairy, Poultry, Piggery, etc.

The following chart gives a concise picture of the efforts we have put in this respect.

Type of societies	No. of stys.	(Rs. in lakhs)		
		30-6-76	No. of stys.	30.6.77
1. Urban Banks	9	34.65	5	6.42
2. Urban credit societies	14	6.40	11	3.82
3. Salary earners	22	94.65	25	48.95
4. Consumers	18	74.65	15	55.95
		8.36MT		3.41MT
5. Weavers	6	9.99	5	6.99
6. Fisheries	2	0.21	2	0.17
7. Poultry	6	0.41	-	-
8. Processing	15	384.99	4	8.39
		51.80MT		1.92MT
9. Labour Contract	20	2.57	18	2.78
10. Forest	-	-	-	-
11. Carpentry	6	0.68	5	0.37
12. Charkar	3	0.17	3	0.15

1	2	3	4	5
13. Piggery	-	0.95	6	1.52
14. Pottery	4	0.41	4	0.25
15. Metal	5	1.02	3	0.36
16. Printing	4	2.37	3	5.42
17. Industrial Estate	-	-	-	-
18. Other Industrial	15	26.93 4.32MT	11	37.62 5.77MT
19. Sugar factories	1	12.67	-	-

It is to be admitted that the Bank has just made a beginning with a view that it should make an all-round progress in this field also. With this view it has already appointed adequate field staff. This, it is felt, would ensure in the near future, able guidance and stricter control over these societies, leading to progress in this sector also.

MANAGEMENT :

The Management of the Bank vests the general body of members consisting of representatives of member societies and delegates elected from amongst individual members under the rules. The attendance at the general body over last five years is given in the table below:

Sl. No.:	Year	Society representative:	Delegates	Total
1.	1971	250	14	264
2.	January 1973	166	8	174
3.	December 1973	146	10	156
4.	1975	241	9	250
5.	1976	208	16	224
6.	1977	164	10	174

The reasons for low attendance is that representatives of societies from outside the city of Kolhapur avoid to attend the general meeting.

THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS :

The general body elects Board of Directors as per the provisions in its by-laws. It consists of 27 directors of whom 12 represent primary societies from 12 talukas 7 represent other types of cooperative societies in the district on the basis of their classification, the individual members are represented by one director while there are two nominees of the two Apex Cooperative Banks namely the State Cooperative Bank and the State Cooperative Land Development Bank. The by-laws provide for ex-officio directorship to the president of the Jilla Parishad and the District Deputy Registrar of the Cooperative Societies while two seats are available for the representatives of employees.

The by-laws provide for the constitution of an executive committee consisting of 9 members taken from amongst the members of the board of directors. The term of office of the board is 5 years while that of the

executive committee is one year.

ADMINISTRATION :

The Administration of the Bank is headed by a Manager assisted by an Assistant Manager and 5 Chief Executive officers looking after different sections of the Bank. The chart below would indicate the administrative set up of the Bank.

The total number of employees of the Bank as on 31st December is 634 of which 124 have received training under various cooperative training programmes appointed by the training centre, training college and the Vaikunth Mehta Institute. The total number of untrained staff excluding the peons and the drivers is 342.

All employees are permanent and they have two trade unions registered under the Bombay industrial relations act. Presently there are no representatives of employees on the board even though the by-laws provided for the same.

The employees are entitled for provident fund, gratuity, medical aid and loan facilities. The loans give for purchase of vehicle and for construction of houses are charged nominal rate of interest.

CONCLUSION :

It can be seen from the above narration that the Bank is making steady and alround progress. The Bank is always making new experiments with due caution to widen its horizon of cooperative venture.

It is admitted that our main responsibility even

today is to make available short-term finance for .
Agricultural productive purposes, timely and adequately
in preference to any other type of finance.

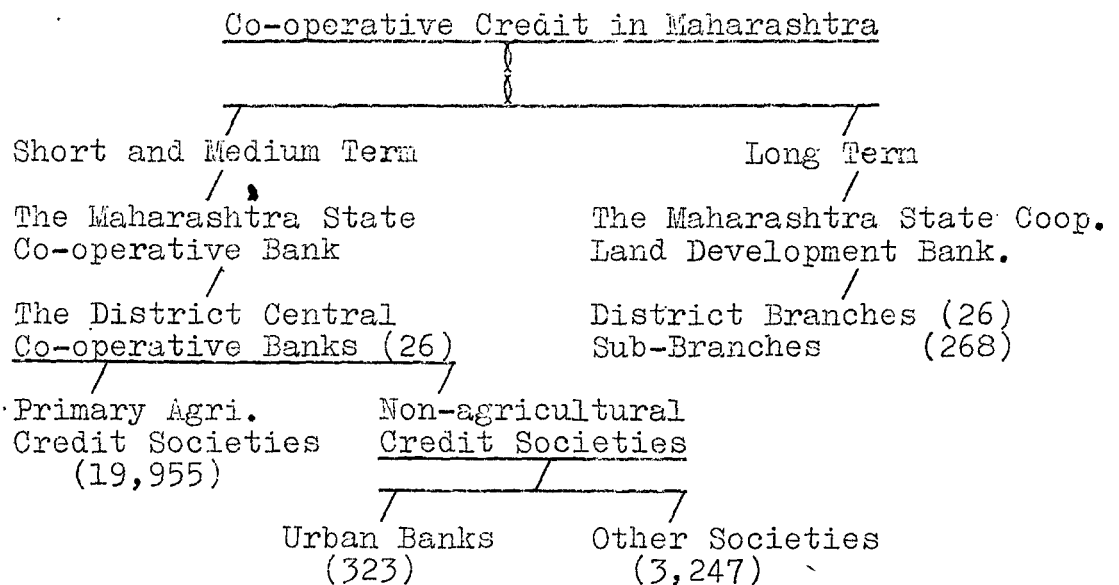
The Board has formulated an ambitious programme
of meeting increased financial needs of the agriculturists
and industries in the district. Thus, the Bank would
become the premier cooperative agency in the district
trying to ameliorate the economic conditions of the
people from rural areas and thus playing an important
role in the economic development of the district.

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THE MAHARASHTRA STATE CO-OPERATIVE BANK LTD/
BOMBAY - INDIA

BACKGROUND :

Co-operative Credit Organisation in India follows the distinct lines; one for short and medium term credit and the other for long term credit. While the latter is a unitary organisation the State Land Development Bank having its branch offices in all the districts, the farmer has three tiers-the Primary Agricultural Credit Societies at the base in the villages federate at the intermediate level, into District Central Co-operative Banks, which in turn are affiliated, at the apex level, to the State Co-operative Bank. Non-agricultural Credit Societies and Urban Co-operative Banks are also organised as primary societies, particularly in the towns and cities, for catering to the credit requirements of non-agricultural classes. These too are affiliated to the District Central Co-operative Banks. The Co-operative Credit Organisation in the State of Maharashtra is graphically indicated in the chart below :



THE DEVELOPMENT OF CO-OPERATIVE ACTIVITIES :

Maharashtra is considered to be a co-operatively well-developed state in the country. Beginning with credit, both for agricultural and non-agricultural purposes, the co-operative endeavour has gradually fanned out to more and more activities and included in its fold different segments of the rural and urban population. There is hardly any village in the state which is not served by a co-operative and hardly any important economic activity which is not undertaken on co-operative basis.

The co-operative kaleidoscope of the state presents an astonishing galaxy of about 48,000 societies banks and credit societies for agriculture and other pursuits, the farming and lift irrigation societies securing for the small cultivators the economies of joint operation on a large scale, the marketing societies ensuring for the farmers timely and adequate supplies of their requirements and a due price for their produce; processing co-operatives like rice mills and solvent extraction plants, cotton ginning and pressing societies and spinning mills and notably the sugar factories, which have emerged as neil of decentralised agro-economic development and act as catalytic agents in the socio-economic transformation in rural areas; the highly sophisticated gigantic projects for the production of agricultural inputs like fertilisers and machinery and imple-ments like oil engines and pumpsets, tractor and tillers, with fruitful foreign collaboration where necessary; and a host of other co-operatives like artisans' and consumers' societies, dairy, poultry, pigery, fishery, labour contract, forest labour etc. which primarily aim at providing assistance and relief to the weaker and vulnerable elements in the society.

GENESIS :

The Maharashtra State Co-operative Bank has played a significant role in initiating and ensuring such an

enviable growth and development of co-operative effort in the state.

Established on October 11, 1911 by a special resolution of the then Government of Bombay the Bank started business by taking over from Government the provision of finance to agriculturists at cheaper rate of interest under the Government Scheme of taccavi loans. After a period of about two decades of smooth sailing, it had to face serious difficulties in the thirties when it was confronted by a panicky demand for withdrawal of deposits. The Bank could, however, successfully weather the storm more or less from its own resources and emerged even stronger than before. Then came World War II which brought stability to agricultural prices and enabled the Bank further to consolidate its position. The emphasis, encouragement and state assistance earned by co-operatives in the post-independence years, and the bold approach and progressive policies followed by the Bank resulted in its continued progress and prosperity.

BUSINESS EXPANSION :

The dimensions of the financial progress of the bank over sixty years of its existence can be gauged from the following figures :

(In million Rs)

Year ended 30th June	Capital and Reserves	Total Deposits	Total Resources	Loans Outstanding
1912	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.5
1922	0.9	4.6	6.7	5.1
1932	2.0	12.9	17.3	9.9
1942	3.3	23.5	28.9	9.6
1952	9.8	74.6	121.8	64.9
1962	49.3	254.8	616.6	453.8
1967	119.5	509.6	1062.5	765.1
1970	162.5	810.7	1709.1	1295.1
1971	188.5	933.2	1957.5	1419.0
1972	206.8	1042.3	2046.8	1485.0
1975	330.5	1625.2	3227.7	2336.9
1976	373.0	2249.2	3631.1	2244.6

NON-OFFICIAL LEADERSHIP

But more important than this quantitative progress is the basic approach inherent in the activities and aspirations of the Bank over all these years.

The singular factor which differentiates co-operative developments in the state from that in others is the fact that, from the very beginning, the Bank was fortunate in having at the helm of affairs **leading** personalities in different walks of life.

This concept of peoples participation was nursed by the Bank in its early history when it operated branches in the districts by constituting Branch Committees and giving them some of the powers of the Board. This provided the nucleus of trained leadership for the district central co-operative banks which were formed subsequently and the Bank withdrew from the districts by handing over the business to the newly formed banks.

INTEGRATED WORKING :

The integrated character of the co-operative organisation was continuously emphasised by their well-knit leadership. The Apex Bank established an Industrial Commission which has been a pioneer in undertaking such large new experiments as the Sangli Ground-nut Complex or the Kolhapur Co-operative Engineering Society. It also helped the Federal Marketing Society in the very large venture which it undertook in recent years. The successful carrying out of monopoly procurement over the whole state by Maharashtra State Marketing Federation has been a notable achievement of Maharashtra Co-operators. One of the principles established in this experiment was the wholly integrated character of the co-operative sector. The integration was both vertical and horizontal. Vertically, at the top it was the State Marketing Federation Society

that took the entire responsibility of all procurement operations throughout the State. But the actual work was carried through the agencies of the local co-operatives at the Taluka* and primary levels. The horizontal integration was seen in the part played by the Apex Co-operative Bank and the District Banks in the financing of these vast operations.

ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT

The evolution of the crop loan system of financing agriculture, acceptance of the principle of State participation in the share capital of co-operatives, the successful organisation of Co-operative Sugar Factories, which became the fore-runners of producers' co-operatives, the successful implementation of the scheme of monopoly procurement of foodgrains as the sole agent of Government, the starting of an industrial consultancy cell (Co-operative Industries Commission), the system of annual plan formulation (Central Financing Agencies Conference) - these are some of the more important instances of the pioneering spirit.

The Bank had been providing adequate finance, appropriate guidance and necessary leadership to the co-operative institutions in the State. In its capacity as the apex bank, it advanced short-term and medium term loans, generally through the district central co-operative banks in the State. The Bank financed the co-operative processing, industrial and other societies in the districts, directly, where the central co-operative banks were unable to meet their requirements on account of limitations of their resources. It also continued to give direct loans to the urban co-operative banks in the State. However, consequent on the willingness expressed by some of the district central co-operative banks to take to financing of primary (urban) co-operative banks it was decided during the year 1976 to allow the desirous banks to do so.

* A Taluka is a small administrative unit of a district.

CROP LOAN SYSTEM :

The agricultural production loans were traditionally linked with tangible security. This precluded quite a large number of small agriculturists from securing adequate loans and the tenant cultivators from securing any loans from the co-operatives. With a view to make the system broad-based and production-oriented, the Bank, in 1950, undertook the responsibility to finance all creditworthy agriculturists with reference to their production requirements on the security of the prospective crops to be grown with the help of the loan.

CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING :

The crop loan system recognises co-operative marketing as an essential concomitant of co-operative credit. The crop loan is expected to be recovered through the marketing co-operative from out of the sales proceeds of the crop. With a view to forging a link between credit and marketing, in its early years, the Bank attached a shop to its branch; but subsequently, helped organise separate co-operative societies for the purpose.

It was a colossal task involving the opening of a large number of purchase centres, provision of funds at these centres and evolving a detailed accounting procedure. The Bank not only shouldered the responsibility of providing the required finance for the monopoly procurement scheme for foodgrain and cotton, approximating about 50 crores of rupees, but it associated itself with these schemes right from the formulation stage.

AGRO INDUSTRIES :

It was through the efforts of the Bank that the first co-operative sugar factory was established in the State in 1950. The successful operation of this factory gave an impetus to the organisation of growers'

co-operatives for the processing of the products. The Bank is required to assist these societies not only for working capital, but also for block capital. It also helps them by granting letter of credit and bank guarantee arrangements in favour of machinery suppliers, inland as well as foreign.

Plans are also a foot for undertaking, in the co-operative fold, secondary and tertiary processing activities by utilising the bi-products of primary processing activities.

Along with finance, the Bank also provides, promotional services, technical guidance and managerial assistance to the Co-operative Industries through a special cell, viz. the Co-operative Industries Commission.

WEAKER SECTIONS :

Co-operation is basically meant for the economically weak who come together to satisfy their common economic needs through associative action. Co-operative banks in the State have always recognised their responsibility towards the weaker sections. Under the guidance and inspiration of the apex bank, they have been showing increasing initiative in undertaking schemes specially meant to benefit small farmers, agricultural and other labourers, artisans, small traders and the like.

The Bank sponsored an experiment, with the help of district central co-operative banks, in providing full finance, in a systematic and supervised manner, for all requirements of the small farmers for production as well as consumption. It has also constituted a special credit stabilisation fund and organized provision of funds to the fishery societies on the same lines as those of crop loans, on easy terms. It is also rendering special assistance to labourers' and Hawkers' co-operative in Greater Bombay district.

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The Board of Directors meets at least once in two months or as often as necessary as stipulated in Bye-law No. 56,

SUB-COMMITTEE :

The Board is empowered under bye-law No. 66 to appoint a Sub-Committee being an executive body taking important decisions about the day-to-day working of the Bank. This consists of not less than 7 and not more than 15 Directors. In order to provide an opportunity to every director to participate in the policy making process by a system of rotation, the sub-committee is appointed every three months from among the directors. The following, however, are the permanent members of the Sub-Committee.

1. Chairman
2. Vice-Chairman
3. Chairman, Regional Board, Nagpur
4. Chairman, Regional Board, Marathwada
5. One of the nominees of the State Government on the Board.
6. The Managing Director or if the Managing Director is not appointed or is on leave, General Manager.

All the powers of the Board as specified in Bye-law are delegated to the Sub-Committee as per provision in Bye-law. The Sub-Committee meets as often as necessary but at least once in a fortnight.

STAFF COMMITTEE :

The Board constitutes every year a staff committee to look after all matters relating to personnel. The composition of the staff committee is as follows :

1. The Chairman and Vice Chairman	2
2. The Chairman of the Regional Boards of Marathwada and Nagpur	2
3. Two Directors from Eastern Maharashtra (excluding the three Konkan districts)	2
4. One Director each from Konkan, Marathawada and Vidarbha Regions	3
5. The Managing Director	1
	10

DEPOSIT MOBILISATION :

With the ever-increasing demands for finance from the fast-growing co-operative sector, the Bank is making strenuous efforts to increase the deposit resources. It has a network of 36 banking offices, 30 in the Greater Bombay district and six in Nagpur City.

The Bank has also been inspiring the district central co-operative banks to augment their deposits by creating wide network of branches and offering variety of services. The district banks to-day operate at about 1200 places in the State.

BANKING SERVICES :

The Bank has also been a pioneer in introducing several banking facilities and services for its customers. It has been providing remittance and clearing house facilities by becoming a member of the Bombay Bankers' Clearing House in 1930 and by devising the Mutual Arrangement Scheme, in 1931. It was the first apex co-operative bank to be admitted to a clearing house and today it is regarded as one of the important members of the Bombay Bankers' Clearing House.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS :

The Board of Directors consisted of the representatives of the District Central Co-operative Banks, some Apex Co-operative Institutions, processing societies, urban banks, individual shareholders, as provided in Bye-law No. 52. All representatives from the constituencies from 52(A) to 52(G) are elected by the collectors of the concerned districts as per provisions contained in Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act 1960 the Government of Maharashtra also nominates three representatives as per by-law.

The Board also includes three co-opted representatives of the employees as provided in Section 73 B of the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act 1960.

The Managing Director acts as the secretary of the Staff-Committee.

REGIONAL BOARDS :

The Bank had constituted Regional Boards for paying special attention to the developmental needs of the co-operative institutions in Marathawada and Vidarbha regions, which were considered relatively backward in economic and co-operative development. The Marathawada Regional Board consisted of 5 directors, while the Regional Board for Vidarbha was composed of nine directors.

ORGANISATIONAL SET-UP :

The Managing Director is the Chief Executive of the institution and he is assisted by the General Manager and six other Managers as under, for day-to-day administration of the Bank.

1. Manager (C.F. As)
2. Manager (C.F.As.)(F.W.)
3. Manager (Agro-Industrial Co-operatives)
4. Manager (Administratio)
5. Manager (Banking)
6. Manager (Regional Office)

The entire working of the bank is controlled through various departments of the bank working under the control of the managers concerned as under :

- (1) MANAGER - Central Financing Agencies Department
 - (A) Central Financing Agencies Department
- (2) MANAGER - Central Financing Agencies Department (Field Work)
 - (A) Central Financing Agencies Department
 - Inspection of all District Central Co-operative Banks
 - (B) Divisional Offices
 - (C) Urban Co-operatives Department.

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- (3) MANAGER - Agro-Industrial Co-operatives Department
 - (A) Agro-Industrial Co-operatives Department
 - (B) Co-operative Industries Commission Department
- (4) MANAGER - Administration
 - (A) Personnel Department
 - (B) Estate and Maintenance Department
 - (C) Publicity, Publication, Public Relations Department
 - (D) Board Department
- (5) MANAGER - Banking
 - (A) Accounts Department
 - (B) Development Department
 - (C) Planning, Research Statistics and Evaluation Department
 - (D) Law Department
- (6) MANAGER - Regional Office, Nagpur
 - (A) Regional Office, Nagpur
 - (B) Local Branches at Nagpur.

The Central Financing Agencies Department looks after the financial requirements of, as well as developmental matters pertaining to, the Central Financing Agencies in the State. The Agro-Industrial Co-operative Department deals with financial needs of sugar factories, spinning mills and other processing and industrial societies directly financed by the Bank in other district. The Urban Co-operatives Department looks after the inspectorial work of the urban banks of the Reserve Bank of India as well as provision of direct finance to them. The accounts department deals with the usual day-to-day work of the banking business including opening of new branches.

The Co-operative Industries Commission constituted by the Bank in 1961 rendered valuable services to the co-operative industrial ventures coming up in the State by providing them guidance on technical and other matters. The Planning Research, Statistics and Evaluation Department is concerned with the compilation and submission of

of various statistical returns to the Reserve Bank of India and the Co-operative Department and with matters relating to staff training. It also was engaged in the compilation of fortnightly bulletin, conducting survey on various issues related to co-operatives, maintenance of a well equipped Library and preparation of the bank's manual. It also examines problems in which the management was interested.

The Personnel Department deals with all day-to-day administrative matters relating to staff. The Estate Maintenance and Printing and Stationery Department looked after the maintenance of buildings, requirement of stationery and printing material etc.

The Managing Director's Secretarial Department and Internal Audit Department are directly under the control of General Manager/Managing Director. Board Department is concerned with arranging for the meetings of the Board and Sub-Committee, recording the proceedings etc. Internal Audit Department carries out the internal audit of the head office, branches in Greater Bombay and Offices in Nagpur.

PERSONNEL :

There was not much change in the total staff of the Bank over the year. The total strength of the staff was 1690 on 30.6.1976 as against 1664 on 30.6.1975. The number of employees recruited from outside in all categories was 52 while those who left the service of the Bank due to retirement or other reasons numbered 26 during the year.

The Bank continued to lend its personnel on deputation to district banks and other co-operative institutions whenever required. The total number of staff on deputation decreased from 51 on 30.6.1975 to 39 on 30.6.1976.

The categorywise position of the staff of the Bank at the end of the years 1974-75 and 1975-76 is given in Annexure I.

STAFF OF THE BANK

Position as on 30th June

Category	Staff at Head Office and Local Branches		Staff at Regional Office and Branches in Nagpur		Staff at Divisional Offices		Staff on Deputa- tion		Total	
	1975	1976	1975	1976	1975	1976	1975	1976	1975	1976
1. Managing Director	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1
2. General Manager	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1
3. Managers	4	5		1	-	-	-	-	4	6
4. Chief Officers	5	5*	1	-	-	-	1	1	7	6*
5. Deputy Chief Officers	10	10	2	2	-	-	2	2	14	14
6. Officer Gr.I	39	42£	1	2	7	6	18	15	65	65£
7. Officer Gr. II	55	54	6	6	14	11	14	13	89	84
8. Junior Officers	274	274	26	32	24	31	12	6	336	343
9. Clerks	733	749	87	89	23	30	4	2	847	870
10. Subordinates **	246	246	40	40	14	14	-	-	300	300
Total	1368	1387	163	172	82	92	51	39	1664	1690

* Including one on contract basis

£ Including two on contract basis

** Daftary + other Subordinates.

During the year under review, the inspectorial staff of the Bank increased from 124 on 30.6.1975 to 136 on 30.6.1976.

STAFF TRAINING

In view of the expanding field of co-operative activities in the State, it had been the constant endeavour of the Bank to employ well qualified staff and to provide training to the new entrants in the clerical and officers' cadre so as to improve their knowledge and efficiency. In the Bank's training centre at Nagpur, 41 candidates had undergone necessary training during the year under report. The Bank also availed of the training facilities offered by the Reserve Bank of India, the Vaikunth Mehta National Institute of Co-operative Management, Poona and Co-operative Training Colleges at Poona and Nagpur.

From October 1977 the Bank has secured the services of Shri V.D. Deshpande on deputation from the National Council for Co-operative Training of the National Co-operative Union of India to work as Principal of the Staff Training Centre. He is being helped by two officers from the Nagpur Regional Office whose services have been spared for the Staff Training Centre. The Staff Training Centre also receives academic support from senior officers of the Bank in Nagpur and in Bombay.

The development of the Staff Training Centre has been conceived of as one aspect of the overall problem of man power planning and man power development. As such the idea is to organise short duration courses, both basic and functional type, for different categories of the staff from the clerical level upwards to the Chief Officer. For the basic courses, possibly one for the clerical staff and one for the officers, there would be end of the course examination while the emphasis in the courses for the senior staff would be more on two-way exchange of views, experiences and information.

POSITION OF INCOME AND EXPENDITURE

(Rs. in lakh)

Particulars	For the year		Increase during the year		Increase during the previous year	
	1974-75	1975-76	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent
	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	
1. Interest received	1971.08	2430.82	459.74	23.3	602.10	44.00
2. Commission Exchange Brokerage earned	30.50	40.38	9.88	32.49	18.74	159.3
3. Other Income	0.70	0.69	(-)0.01	(-)1.4	(-)0.23	(-)28.6
4. Total Income (1+2+3)	2002.28	2471.89	469.61	23.5	620.56	44.9
5. Interest Paid	1618.21	2040.59	422.38	26.1	542.14	50.4
6. Cost of Management	244.80	289.98	45.18	18.5	64.57	35.8
7. Other Expenses	-	-	-	-	-	-
8. Total Expenses (5+6+7)	1863.01	2330.57	467.56	25.1	606.71	48.3
9. Net Profit (4-8)	139.27	141.32	2.05	1.5	13.85	11.0
10. Percentage of profit to						
(a) Working Capital	0.45	0.40				
(b) Total Income	6.96	5.72				

(-) Denotes decrease.

The emphasis in the training would be not so much on imparting basic knowledge of subjects like co-operation, banking, etc. but more on equipping the personnel for applying their knowledge or to be more exact applying their mind to the situations they would be encountered with in the course of their day-to-day operations. As such efforts are under way, with the help of discussions among the senior members of the staff, to devise courses on specific important aspects of the business of the Bank like say -

- i) development of the clerical skills
- ii) analysis of financial statements from the point of view of loan sanction, disbursement, inspection and follow-up;
- iii) an inspection oriented programme;
- iv) management oriented programme for branch agents and other supervisory staff

The courses are to be conducted as residential courses. The Bank provides fully furnished residential accommodation at its Regional Office building while the expenditure on boarding etc. is to be met by the participants from out of the allowances they are entitled for as per the service rules.

INCOME, EXPENDITURE AND PROFIT

The details about the income, expenditure and profit of the Bank is provided in annexure II, III and IV. Similarly informations regarding the sources and uses of funds of the Bank is given in Annexure V.

COST OF MANAGEMENT

(Rs in lakhs)

Particulars	1974-75	1975-76
1	2	3
	Rs	Rs
i) Salaries, Allowances and Provident Fund	183.98	240.18
ii) Director's Fees and Allowances	1.75	2.60
iii) Others	59.07	47.20
iv) Total Cost of Management	244.80	289.98
Percentage of Cost of Management to	%	%
i) Deposits	1.51	1.29
ii) Deposits and Borrowings	0.94	0.99
iii) Advances	1.00	1.29
iv) Working Funds	0.79	0.82

ANNEXURE IV

APPROPRIATION OF PROFITS

(Rs. in lakhs)

Particulars	Amount		Percentage to Total	
	1974-75	1975-76	1974-75	1975-76
1	2	3	4	5
	Rs	Rs		
1. Payment of dividend to shareholders	78.08	81.20	55.9	57.3
2. Contribution to Statutory Reserve Fund	34.90	35.33	25.0	25.0
3. Contribution to M.S.C. Bank Agricultural Credit (Stabilisation) Fund	20.99	21.20	15.0	15.0
4. Other Provisions	5.34	3.59	3.9	2.5
5. Carry Over	0.23	0.23	0.2	0.2
Total available for distribution	139.54	141.55	100.0	100.0

SOURCES AND USES OF FUNDS

The total resources of the Bank can be broadly grouped into two main classes viz. owned funds and borrowings. The total borrowings can further be sub-divided into three groups, viz deposits, loans and other liabilities.

(Rs in lakhs)

Particulars	AS ON		Increase during the year		Increase during the previous year	
	30.6.1975	30.6.70	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<u>Sources</u>						
	Rs	Rs	Rs		Rs	
1. Owned Funds	3305.42 (10.2)	3730.41 (10.3)	424.99	12.9	438.55	15.3
2. Deposits	16251.51 (50.4)	22491.86 (61.9)	6240.35	38.4	1105.74	7.3
3. Borrowings	9300.17 (30.4)	6742.67 (18.5)	(-)3057.50	(-)31.2	5718.02	140.1
4. Miscellaneous	2919.54 (9.0)	3346.50 (9.3)	426.96	14.6	765.79	35.6
Total	32276.64 (100.0)	36311.44 (100.0)	4034.80	12.5	8028.10	33.1
<u>Uses :</u>						
1. Cash and Bank Balance	2424.22 (7.5)	6555.24 (18.1)	4131.02	170.4	762.61	45.9
2. Investments	5020.79 (15.6)	5959.26 (16.4)	938.47	18.7	628.65	14.3
3. Advances	23368.82 (72.4)	22446.46 (61.8)	(-)922.36	(-) 4.0	6449.04	38.1
4. Sundry Assets	1462.81 (4.5)	1350.48 (3.7)	(-)112.33	(-) 7.7	187.80	14.7
Total	32276.64 (100.0)	36311.44 (100.0)	4034.80	12.5	8028.10	33.1

Figures in bracket are percentage to total. (-) denotes decrease

A note on the working of the Maharashtra
Cooperative Engineering Society Ltd.,
Kolhapur

Introduction :

Kolhapur is known for its production of jaggery, Cooperative sugar factories and also for small industrial units. In Udyan Nagar of Kolhapur, there are many small entrepreneurs who manufacture spare parts of various machineries. Large number of workers are engaged in this industry. However, this industry faces a problem of non-availability of continuous work; which lead to partial unemployment to these workers. Kolhapur has started cooperatives in various sectors. Perhaps there could very few fields of economic activity of human life for which the cooperative society has not been formed in this area. The cooperators of Kolhapur with the guidance from late Dr. D.R.Gadgil and Dr. W.C. Shrishimal, Managing Director of the Maharashtra State Cooperative Bank thought of organising an engineering cooperative society. The purpose was both to provide employment to workers working in this industry and also to provide a centre for assembling various spare parts manufactured by small entrepreneurs from Kolhapur. The society was registered on 5th September, 1976.

Area of operation :

The area of operation of the society extends to whole of Maharashtra State with its main factory established at Kolhapur .

The objectives of the society as stated in its byelaws include; manufacturing of oil engines, pumping sets, electric motors, other agricultural implements, such as , power tillers, tractors, bull-dozer, thrashers etc. It also provides for manufacturing of spare parts of large machineries required for various processing industries. All these activities are proposed to be undertaken for the benefit of members and customers .

Membership :

The membership of the society is open to workshop owners and skilled self - employed artisans. It is also open to cooperative societies, such as, cooperative sugar factories, cooperative marketing societies working at various levels, cooperative banks, industrial cooperative societies and other processing societies. A firm, company or any body corporate, constituted under the law engaged in the manufacturing or assembling of engineering goods could also be the members of the society. It also provides for state government becoming its members . The byc-laws provide for certain conditions before the persons from the above category are enrolled as members. These conditions include payment of entrance fee of Rs 5/- and contribution to atleast one share and approval of membership by the Board of Directors .

The membership of the society is mainly concentrated in the city of Kolhapur even though its area of operation is whole of the state because the society has established

Reserves :

The society provides for creating various reserves under its bye-laws and the position of various reserves as on 30th June 1976 is as under :

<u>Sr.No.</u>	<u>Name of the Fund</u>	<u>Amount (Rs)</u>
1.	Reserve Fund	1,25,098.00
2.	Bad Debt Fund	45,800.00
3.	Share capital redemption fund	3,66,900.00
4.	Depreciation Fund	14,56,015.00
5.	Development Rebate	3,65,345.00
6.	Price Fluctuation Fund	23,851.00
7.	Development Fund	35,000.00
8.	Dividend equilisation Fund	20,000.00
9.	Building Fund	10,000.00

The society has borrowed funds from the State Cooperative Bank for various purposes. It includes a medium term loan of Rs 4 lacs and other loans worth of 16 lacs .

Investments :

The society has made investments in share capital of various types of cooperative societies to the extent of Rs 1,52,150/- and has also invested in government securities and fixed deposits of cooperative banks, an amount of Rs 2,35,700/-

Business :

The society manufactures oil engines with 5 and 6.5 horse powers capacity . The society is trying to secure the I.S.I. mark, however, it has not yet succeeded . The Maharashtra Government has given a quality mark to their

its factory at Kolhapur and has not yet opened any manufacturing branches outside Kolhapur. The growth of membership of the society depends upon the demand for its products and its capacity to provide work to its members throughout the year.

Capital :

The society is entitled to raise funds by issue of shares, by accepting deposits from members and non-members and by raising loans from outside organisations. It is also entitled to receive share capital and subsidy from the State Government. The authorised share capital of the society is Rs 10 million divided into 20,000 shares of Rs 500/- each. The share money is accepted in two instalments, Rs 250/- at the time of application for membership and Rs 250/- within three months from the date of the allotment of the share. The growth of the paid up share capital of the society during the last 5 years along with membership is indicated in the table given below :

<u>Sr. No.</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Membership</u>	<u>Paid up share capital</u>
1.	1972-73	708	19,54,250.00
2.	1973-74	755	20,30,000.00
3.	1974-75	805	20,67,250.00
4.	1975-76	825	0,93,250.00

This would indicate a slow growth both in the membership and paid-up share capital of the society. The liability of members is limited to the face value of the societies shares, held by him. Under the provisions of law no member can hold shares exceeding Rs 5000/- . The society pays dividend on the share capital as per provisions under the Maharashtra Cooperative Societies Act .

product . The society proposes to manufacture power tillers, water field riding apparatus, riding saddle, leveller and a two - wheeler trolley . The society has to face a tough competition in the market while selling its produce . It had appointed a private limited company as its sole distributor. However, this contract has been discontinued and society is trying to establish its own selling unit .

Management :

The management of the society vest in the general body which elects the Board of Directors for its day-to-day working. The composition of the Board of Directors consist of 23 persons including 6 persons as nominees representing the state cooperative bank, the state cooperative land development bank, the state cooperative marketing federation, the district central cooperative bank and the Registrar, cooperative societies of the state (one each). Besides, the general manager of the society . is its ex-officio member, The bye-laws also provide for constitution of a Executive Committee consisting of 11 persons including Chairman, Vice Chairman, and the General Manager .

In the administrative wing there are three sections consisting of general administration, factory and accounts. In all 100 persons are working in the factory .

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A note on the working of :

SHRIRAM MULTIPURPOSE COOPERATIVE SERVICE SOCIETY LTD, Kolhapur.

Introduction :

The cooperative movement in India started as a credit movement about 75 years ago. Primary agricultural credit societies in rural area and the credit societies in urban area were registered under the act of 1904. During last 75 years the primary agricultural credit societies at the village level have undergone considerable change in respect of their objectives, form and working. Initially these societies supplied only agricultural credit to their members. Later on they started supplying inputs such as seeds, fertilisers, manure mixture, pesticides etc. for agricultural operations and also provision of other consumers services to the farmers. It was about 20 years ago that these societies were converted into service cooperatives and they were asked to enrol artisans from the villages as their members and provide them credit on the basis of personal sureties. Besides their operations, the accepted form of area of operation of these societies has also undergone change. There has been no uniform policy in this respect. Initially the societies were organised for more than one village depending upon the size of the population and the quantum of business that the society would undertake. One-village-one society was later on regarded as an ideal form and the society was expected to bring

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about a socio-economic change in the village also with other institutions viz a primary school and a village panchayat. It was later on observed that these village societies are not economically viable and as such large size multipurpose societies be formed by amalgamating primary cooperatives. This process is under progress in the country.

On this background it would be interesting to know the progress made by one such society over last 50 years. This society is operating in (located in) Kasba Bhavada, a suburb of Kolhapur City. Kolhapur district is well known for different types of successful cooperatives, particularly in the field of agricultural marketing and processing. The district marketing society of Kolhapur popularly known as Shetkari Sangh is one of the best marketing cooperative societies from Kolhapur district have made their impact on the cooperative movement by bringing about a socio-economic development in their area of operation.

The name of the society is Shriram Multi-Purpose Service Cooperative Society, Kasba Bavada, Kolhapur. It was registered in 1929 as a primary agricultural credit society with unlimited liability. Its liability was changed to limited in the year 1960. Till 1942 the society could not make substantial progress. During the second world war period it started a ration shop and a control cloth shop.

Area of Operation

The area of operation of the society extends to the village of Kasba Bavada. About of 3140 acres of the total land of the village 1948 is irrigated and 1192 is non-irrigated. The population of the village is over 20,000.

Membership

The membership of the society is open to all those who own tangible assets in the village. All those who own land have been enrolled as members.

The society which started with only 61 members in 1929 has at present 3,053 members. The growth of the membership during last 6 years is given in a table below.

The special feature of the membership composition of this society is that there is no single agriculturist from the village who is not a single agriculturist from the village who is left out. Besides a number of small artisans and other undertaking different occupations have been enrolled as members of the society.

T A B L E - I

Membership.

Year	1971- 72	1972- 73	1973- 74	1974- 75	1975- 76	1976- 77
Total Members	2,642	2,688	2,860	2,910	3,030	3,053

Share Capital :

The authorised share capital of the society is Rs. 10 lakhs and face value of each share is Rs. 5/-. Crop loan system has been introduced in Maharashtra since 1949. Under this scheme a borrower has to contribute at least 10% of the loan sanctioned to him towards share capital of the society. This has helped to improve the share capital base of all primary agricultural credit societies in the state. This proportion is reduced to 5% when individual's share capital contribution reaches a certain stage. This society, presently deducts 5 percent of the loan sanctioned to members and credits to their non-refundable deposit account. Paid up share capital of the society as on 30.6.77 is Rs. 8,83,480. On non-refundable deposit society pays interest at the rate of 10 percent. The growth of the share capital during the last 6 years is as under.

T A B L E - II

Paid up share Capital :

Year	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77
Rs.	494,680	491,720	549,135	648,190	761,135	883,480

Reserves and other funds :

The bye-laws of the society provide for appropriation of its net profits and constitution of various funds. The position of the society on this fronts is quite sound. As per the provisions in the cooperative societies Act. 25 per cent of the net profit is carried to the reserve fund, The reserve fund is Rs. 3,92,187 as on 30.6.77. Besides the reserve fund, there are number of other funds created by the society which include special Reserve Fund, Special guarantee fund, building fund, charity fund, Grain shop Reserve Fund, Grain Shop Development Fund, Bad-debt fund, dividend equilisation fund, bonus equilisation fund, investment fluctuation fund, Golden Jubilee Fund, Irrigation Fund, Manure Mixture Fund, Commission shop protection function, price fluctuation fund. The growth of these funds over last 6 years is given in table III.

TABLE - III

<u>Funds.</u>						
Year	1971/ 72	1972/ 73	1973/ 74	1974/ 75	1975/ 76	1976/ 77
Reserve Fund	Rs. 235,726	262,258	292,816	319,955	349,474	393,187
Others Fund	Rs. 163,340	214,293	314,757	442,350	523,104	596,897
Total Rs.	399,066	476,551	607,573	762,305	872,578	989,084

The total funds amount Rs. 9,89,084/- which are more than the paid up share capital of the society. As per the provisions in the law, reserve fund has been invested outside the business of the society. while rest of the funds are invested in the business.

DEPOSITS.

Except Kerala and Punjab, there are very few states in the country where the primary agricultural credit societies have succeeded in mobilising deposits from its members and non-members. In Maharashtra

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emphasis is primary cooperatives had been more on collection of share capital by resorting to deductions the loan granted. The Shriram Multi-Purpose Cooperative Society has been successful in collecting deposits from members as well non-members. However the society cannot accept current deposits because of the banking regulation act restrictions. It collects savings deposits, withdrawable twice in a week by the member depositors. Recently the society has started collecting small deposits from members and non-members by approaching them periodically through its agents. The total amount of deposits collected from members and non-members during the last 5 years is given in a table below. The rate of interest paid by the society is quite attractive.

T A B L E - IV

DEPOSITS :

Year	1971- 72	1972- 73	1973- 74	1974- 75	1975- 76	1976- 77
Fixed Rs.	11,56,381	16,22,005	18,62,985	18,48,110	16,02,970	22,37,400
Sav- ings Rs.	4,16,306	4,43,969	4,92,476	4,02,626	3,24,384	5,81,184
Total	15,72,688	20,65,974	23,55,461	22,05,736	19,27,354	28,18,584

Government Loan :

The Society has received Rs. 30,000/- as subsidy from the State Government for construction of godown. It has constructed its godown out of the fund borrowed. It has so far has repaid a loan of Rs. 16,000 to the Government. Society had never been a defaulter on this account.

1. Agricultural Finance.

For advancing short-term and medium term loans to its members, the society receives finance from the Kolhapur District Central

Cooperative Bank.

Under the crop loan system scale of finance per acre is fixed by the banks. The experience of the Shriram Society is that the loan sanctioned by the bank is not adequate to meet the full requirements of members. Society makes available additional loan to members from out of its own funds. For this purpose the society fixed borrowing capacity of each individual members on the basis of his actual requirements. During 1977-78 the central bank sanctioned a loan of Rs. 24 lakhs while the actual requirements on the members of the society was on the order of Rs. 30 lakhs. Out of the loan of Rs. 24 lakhs sanctioned, the bank made deductions towards share capital and some other deductions and actually made available to the society Rs. 22,27,000. The society in order to meet the full requirements of the farmers advanced about Rs. 16 lakhs from out of its own funds. This was possible because the society could collect deposits from both members and non-members. Such cases are very few in the State.

The total amount of short-term loan advanced by the society to its members during the last 5 years and recovery/over due position of the same is given in the table IV.

T A B L E - V

LOAN SANCTIONED AND RECOVERED					
Year	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
Total Members	2,698	2,860	2,910	3,030	3,053
Borrowing members,	1,220	1,406	1,422	1,379	1,320
Loan Sanctioned	23,44,274	33,34,341	41,15,388	35,78,432	45,72,760

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1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
Recover-					
ed	26,94,258	24,71,078	35,32,524	31,11,244	42,00,477
Cut-					
Stand-	19,66,374	28,28,737	34,16,601	38,77,584	4,23,00,867
ings					
Against					
howmany	1,436	1,469	1,560	1,669	1,578
members					
Over-					
due Rs.	2,73,197	1,02,074	3,64,376	7,67,931	5,66,191
Against					
Howmany	.250	154	250	401	384
Members					
Percent-					
age	13.91	3.16	10.61	19.96	13.44

So far as the recovery of loan is concerned, the society has effectively made use of linking of credit with marketing. It has Adat shops (Commission agency shop) on the agricultural produce market yard, Rolhapur. Society sells Jaggery and other agriculture produce of members, and deducts loan amount with interest from out of sale proceeds. Out of the total outstanding normally 30/35 percent of the loan is recovered through this linking while about 50 to 60% through the cooperative sugar factories in the area. The society had never been defaulter at the bank level. However from out of the loan advanced out of its own funds, certain overdues remain. The reason for the overdues is the adverse natural conditions and the general difficulties of the members. The society has made efforts to effect recoveries of these dues by the arbitration procedure under the cooperative societies act. However this dues not prove to be very useful. The society has deposit accounts of members, both fixed and savings. However it has never resorted to adjustment of its revocerable dues against these deposits. However,

if the society resorts to the adjustment measures the members would lose faith in the society. This would affect its deposit mobilisation efforts. From the table it would be seen that number of borrowing members is much less than the total membership of society. Management of the society says that all those who ask for loan and who are credit worthy recently receive loan. In case of small farmers enrolled as members recently hardly get benefit of finance because of rules of the financing Banks.

Investments :

The society has invested as on 30.6.1977 an amount of Rs. 2 lakhs in the share capital of the Kolhapur District Central Cooperative Bank. Besides it has also invested reserve fund amount of Rs. 3,62,100/- in the fixed deposit of the Bank. Total investment in the national savings certificate is Rs. 36,165/- and in the Maharashtra State Loan boards is Rs. 5,000/-. This indicates that the total investment of the society, out the business is quite substantial. It is Rs. 8,43,538/- of which Rs. 2,28,225/- is in the share capital of various cooperatives in the district including the D.C.C. Bank.

The Shriram Multipurpose Cooperative Society undertakes multifarious activities. It has as many as 11 different sections working and total employees of the society is 93.

II. Grain Shops :

During the second world war the society started a grain shop and a control cloth shop. Presently there are 4 grain shops through which both controlled and non-controlled items are sold. Each shop has 2 employees and it is in order to meet the cost of management which include the salaries of the employees and the rent of the building that the society has started selling non-controlled items also. Their accounts are maintained independently in the head office and the purchases are made by one of the salesmen along with the directors of the society. Normally the purchases

are made from the local markets. The total turnover of the shop during 1976-77 was 8,14,075. The details about the business turnover during the last 5 years are given in a table below :

T A B L E - VI
GRAIN SHOPS (FOUR) SALES

Year	1972- 73	1973- 74	1974- 75	1975- 76	1976- 77
Control	8,64,154	12,87,120	12,16,229	8,08,490	4,70,171
Non- Control	3,38,007	3,38,635	4,72,804	4,27,065	3,43,904
Total	12,02,161	14,25,755	16,89,033	13,35,555	8,14,075

III. Cloth Shop :

It was in year 1945 that the society started a cloth shop. There are 10 salemen in the shop and the total sale during the year 1976-77 was Rs. 7,67,475. The purchases are made from Bombay and Pune market by the salesman, a member of the managing committee and one more employee. A few purchases are also made in the local market. The Society does not make credit sales. It effectively competes with the private shops in the locality.

IV. Adat Shops :

Kolhapur is famous for its jaggery market. Marketing is regulated under the Agricultural Produce Market Act. Besides private traders number of cooperative institutions from the district have established their adat shops on the regulated market. It was in the year 1955 that the market committee decided to shift its market yard from the heart of the city to outside. The traders opposed the shifting. The district cooperative marketing society (shetkari sangh, Kolhapur) took lead under the able leadership of late Shri Tatyasahab Monite in making it possible for the Market Committee to shift the market yard by opening

adat shops by cooperatives and taking responsibility to purchase entire arrival of jaggery on the market yard. Shriram Society joined hands with the Sangh in opening its adat shops. This is one of the biggest market yards in Maharashtra to-day. The Society functions as a commission agent for the sale of jaggery and other food grains of members as well as non-members. Society has 10 adat shops. This helps the members to get a better price for their produce and to effect recovery of the dues by the society. Society collects usual commission. As stated earlier the society recovers about 30-35 percent of its dues through this linking. The details about this business during last 5 years is given in table below :

T A B L E - VII

COMMISSION BUSINESS :

Year	1972- 73	1973- 74	1974- 75	1975- 76	1976- 77
Rs.	29,20,276	44,63,603	42,74,073	37,46,184	40,55,378

V. Fertilizer Section :

The society has its own manure mixture prepared by hand-mixing. The trademark is Shriram. Society sells its entire production to members only. It has not thought of increasing the production because there is no guarantee of getting adequate supply of raw-material. Besides outsiders may spoil the name of the society by re-selling Society, products by adulterating it. Besides the supply of manure mixture of its, own, the society does supply to members other fertilisers as for their requisitions. The society has been appointed as a sole agent by ruari Agro Chemicals, Goa for sale of their products.

The details about the business turnover in fertiliser during the last 5 years is given in the table below :

T A B L E - VIII

Sale of Fertiliser :

Year	1972- 73	1973- 74	1974- 75	1975- 76	1976- 77
Sale of Fertiliser in Rs.	12,54,131	18,01,061	28,44,821	29,95,835	20,98,461

VI. Supply of other requisities :

Besides fertiliser society supplies to its members all type of oils, seeds, pesticides and medicines for agriculture. It also makes available on hire basis agricultural implements such as plough, rессores, spray pumps, dusting pumps. The society provides foundation seed to its members. In a village of Kasba Bawada there are as many as 65 tractors and for the benefit of the members and non-members the society has started a workshop in which the tractors and other agricultural implements are repaired. The society has its own lathe and welding machine. This business has found to be very profitable because the farmers prefer to get their machines repaired in society's shops instead of taking them to Kolhapur which saves both time and money.

The society has its own rice mill, but it was found that running a rice mill was not economical. There are number of private rice mills in the village with which the society has to compete. These private mills adopt malpractices and pay nominal wages to their employees which the society bound by rules cannot.

VII. The lift irrigation Section :

It was in the year 1963 that the state Government took a decision to pass on the lift irrigation schemes to a cooperative societies. There was a big lift irrigation scheme with 60 H.P. Motor operating on the River Pancha Ganga owned by the state government. The society purchased this set for Rs. 44,000/- in the year 1963. In 1965 it purchased 5 electric pumps owned by Kolhapur sugar mills for Rs. 3,70,000 and the next year an electric pump of a private individual for Rs. 25,000. With the help of these schemes the society provides irrigation facility to its members. Total land irrigated is 481 acres. Per acre charges per year are Rs. 600/- which is less than that of the lift irrigation societies in the area. Irrigation fee is recovered by the society out of the sale of jaggery. During 1976-77 society purchased another irrigation scheme from private sugar factory for Rs. 77,000 and made its own investment there in worth Rs. 60,000/-. Besides society has undertaken a work distribution of drainage water for irrigation to farmers on commission basis. This has added to the net income of the society.

VIII. Utensil Shop.

The society has started a utensil shop in 1972. The annual sale is is over Rs. 1 lakh. It is a paying business because of good margin.

IX. Medical Shop :

It was on 6th October 1973 that the society started its medical shop. The total turnover during 1976-77 of the shop was Rs. 78,146/-.

X. Dairy Scheme :

The society has started from 1.1.1974 collecting milk both from members and non-members at government rate. The milk is sold to customers by charging 15 to 20 paise more per litre. This scheme has proved to be very successful. The society collects about 2,03,245 liters of milk. The business turnover in this section during the

last three years is given in a table below :

T A B L E - IX

Sale of Milk :

Year	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77
Milk Sold out Rs.	3,58,753	3,69,370	4,46,635

Recently society has started providing medium term loan to its members for purchase of buffalows. During 1974-75 a loan of Rs. 27,000/- was given to purchase 18 buffalos. Out of the sale proceeds of the milk, 50 percent is credited to the loan recovery account and 50 percent is paid in cash to the member concerned.

Besides the ration shops, the society has also started a provision stores through which all articles of daily necessities are made available to the members. During 1976-77, the total turnover of the shop was Rs. 90,801.

Management of the Society :

The management of the society is vested in the Board of Directors consisting of 9 elected representatives from members. Seats are reserved for weaker sections and elections are held once in 3 years. The society has also constituted sub-committees for each one of its activities which include one representative from the board and the rest from other members of the society. As stated earlier, there are 93 employees in the society. They receive the benefit of provident fund, leave, gratuity, bonus etc.

Special Features of the Society :

A notable feature of the society is that it has been able to retain its adult class as 'A' since the beginning and it has been able to distribute dividend at the rate of 9 percent since 1960.

In the state of Maharashtra there are a very few primary agricultural credit societies which are economically viable. The Shriram Multi-purpose cooperative society is one amongst very few societies which has been successful not only running a successful business but also achieving a considerable growth both in the quantity and quality of its operations.

The credit goes to the cooperative leadership of the society, and also its devoted employees. Shri. D.M. Chavan who successfully worked as its secretary for 32 years deserves credit for it. Shri P.A. Patil, its present Secretary, is handling the business with the same efficiency. Table X shows general progress of the society in various spheres of its activities.

T A B L E - X

Figures indicating progress of the society since 1964-65

Years	1964- 65	1965- 70	1974- 75	1975- 76	1976- 77
Members	1,711	2,474	2,910	3,030	3,053
Share-Capital	2,53,305	4,95,950	6,48,110	7,59,935	8,83,480
Saving Deposit	4,66,333	7,17,802	5,73,620	5,35,907	5,31,184
Fixed	3,67,538	16,37,988	26,67,960	24,05,495	22,37,400
Working Capital	17,54,594	43,34,000	77,26,400	75,28,000	77,86,089
Net Profit	68,260	99,211	1,05,878	1,26,322	1,40,132
Rate of Dividend	The Society has given the dividend at the 11 years.				

Audit 'A' From the Beginning of the society.

A note on the working of Shri Paisa Fund Shetaki
Sahakari Bank Ltd., Hupari.

INTRODUCTION :

Kolhapur district is known for various types of successful cooperative societies. In the field of agricultural credit, supply of agricultural inputs and provision of other services to the farmers. Mini Primary Cooperative Societies have made an impact on the life of farmer of Kolhapur.

Hupari is a small town about 14 miles away from the city of Kolhapur having around 20,000 population. This place is well-known for silver ornaments. However, the surroundings is full of fertile land known for sugar-cane cultivation.

The concept of cooperation in the form of thrift and savings was born with an idea of collecting handful of foodgrains from the farmers during the season, everyday storing it and then making it available to the needy farmers during the like season. After the Second World War and the originator of this concept Shri A.B. Naik is presently the Managing Director of the Bank under discussion. The concept of Musti Fund i.e., donation of handful of grain further developed into Paisa Fund i.e., donation or saving a paisa i.e., a smallest coin everyday. The social workers entered with a spirit of cooperation will help to develop this idea of Musti Fund and Paisa Fund and started Bhishi i.e., a thrift scheme. The Hupari Paisa Shetki Sahakari Bank has its origin in its Bhishi. The Bank was registered on 24th January 1950 which its registration No. 18310. It is

Mr. L.B. Naik and Mr. M.B. Patil who took initiative in the organisation of the society.

AREA OF OPERATION :

The area of operation of the Bank extends to 5 miles radius of the Hupari town such includes seven villages. However, many firms continue to be the members of the Hupari Bank. Today all these villages have their own Primary Societies. The only criteria is that the person should not be a boring member of his village society.

MEMBERSHIP :

The societies started with 504 A class members on the date of its registration. However, the membership has considerably increased over last 28 years and today the number of A class members is 3,627. The A class member holds a share and as a right of participation in the management. Besides, there is a provision in the by-laws for B class members. They have to pay a nominal entrance fee Rupee 1/-. They are entitled to receive the service from the bank. However, not eligible for participation in the management. The face value of a share is Rs. 10/-. The total number of nominal members (B class) as on 30th June 1977 was 4,995. The growth of membership during the life time of the society is given in Annexure-I.

FUNDS :

As indicated above society collects share capital from A class members. The amount of authorised share capital is Rs. 5 lakhs while the paid up share capital as on 30th June 1977 is 4,96,250. Besides, the share capital the Bank collects deposits from members and

non-members. The total amount of the deposit as on 30th June 1977 was around Rs. 29 lakhs. The society accepts both fixed deposits and saving deposits attracted the scheme for collection of Pigmy deposits, cash certificates and other attractive schemes of weekly and deposits are operated by the Bank and attractive rate of interest on the deposit.

Besides Bank borrows from the Central Cooperative Bank. Various kinds of loans to lead the credit requirements farmer members regarding production of sugar-cane and other crops. It also provides minimum term loan for purchase of milch cattle from the loan borrowed from the bank.

Out of the profits earned the society creates various funds including reserve fund, building fund, bad day fund, risk fund and such other funds as are required to be provided and the provisions of the Maharashtra Cooperative Society Act. The loan of reserve fund as on 30th June 1977 was 3.19 lakhs. The building fund was Rs. 1.20 lakhs while the bad day fund was Rs. 80 lakhs. Besides the bank has collected special deposits from the members to meet the cost of the construction of its new building.

The position of the bank regarding the growth in its share capital, deposits, reserve fund and other funds over last 28 years is given in Annexure I.

BUSINESS OF THE BANK :

(a) Loans : The main function of the Bank is to provide loan facilities to its members for various purposes such as agricultural production, dairy and various kinds of small occupations. During the year

1976-77 the Bank has advanced a loan of Rs. 24.20 lakhs for agricultural production out of which 21.26 was recovered. Thus, the percentage of values in agricultural finance is less than 5 percent. This indicates the sound working definition of the Bank. Besides, agricultural finance the Bank also advanced industrial cash credit loans for which the rate of interest is bit high (18,000). The total loans advanced under this aid during 1976-77 were over Rs. 75,000. Besides, the pledge finance of Rs.37,000 was also amounted to the members.

In order to provide subsidiary occupation to the members in 1976-77 the Bank advanced at Rs. 11,000 as interest free loan to 18 members for purchase of sewing machines. This members have to repay their loan in weekly installment. So far the bank has provided sewing machines to 45 members.

The farmers and the agricultural labourers need consumption finance. The society provides such consumption finance at a concessional rate of interest of 12 percent to the extent of Rs. 300 per member. During the year 1976-77 such a loan facility was given to 98 members.

Besides the loan for the above purposes the bank advances loan for purchase of milch cattle (buffaleos) from out of its own funds. During the year 1976-77 40 members were provided with this loan facility. The society arranges to collect the milk with the help of the milk society in the town which in return supplies it to the district milk federation. The society collects two paisa per litre from the sale of milk covers risk fund and provides agricultural facilities and also reimburse

the farmer who has to suffer loss due to natural calamities.

The society has a varied n vol scheme of assisting the weaker sections and farmers. It provides the entire loan facility to this members required for the cultivation of the crop. It takes over the entire production from the field and promises the farmer to pay a 50 percent of the sale proceeds. From out of the rest of the 50 percent the loan of the Bank is recovered along with interest.

INVESTMENTS :

The Bank has made investments in Government securities in shares of various cooperative banks in building machinery, vehicles and agricultural implements. The members derives the benefit of this investments. The total investment in the shares of other cooperative societies are to the tune of Rs. 3.13 lakhs while investments in National Savings and Defence Certificates etc. are exceeding Rs. 4.53 lakhs.

The society has property which consists of its building to godowns to lockwells, Pipelines, Oil mill, cloth shop, a hand-made manure mixture factory, flour mill, a jeep, a motor-car, two sewing machines, a tape recorder and dead-stock. Low of investments has been made in the purchase of this property.

VARIOUS SECTIONS OF THE BANK :

(a) Fertiliser : The Bank has its own hand-made manure mixture known as Polisa Fund. Besides, the Bank also supplies to farmer members the fertilisers of the government factory and other kinds of fertilisers. The total fertilisers sold by the society during 1976-77

were around 2,000 metric tonnes.

COMMISSION AGENCY :

The society has its own Meat Shop (Commission shop) on the market yard at Kolhapur. Through this commission shop the society sales to producer of its members.

CLOTH SHOP :

Society has a fair price cloth shop which meets the need of the farmer members. The total sale during 1976-77 in the shop was around Rs. 75,000.

HAUNTING MACHINERY :

The Bank has its own haunting machinery which provides facility of various cooperatives and provides institutions.

It is with the help of this members that the society publishes a quarterly journal in the regional language known as Paisa Fund Shetki Sahakari Bank Ltd., Hupri. The farmers receive training and information in the agriculture, cooperation and industry through this quarterly journal.

SOCIAL SERVICE ACTIVITIES OF THE BANK :

(a) Weaving Section : The Bank has started a thrift scheme especially for ladies. In parts training to ladies to sewing and some other industries it also provides free medical aid to ladies and small children from out of its own funds. During 1976-77 58 male, 530 women and 153 children received the benefit of this free medical aid the expenditure of which was more than 12,000.

THE ASSISTANCE TO EMPLOYEES :

The employees of the Bank receive very facilities. Besides the loan facilities of provident fund, gratuity medical aid etc. The society has taken insurance worth Rs. 5,000 of each employee working of a place which involves risk and worth Rs. 2,000 for every workers. Out of the premium two third and one and a half respectively is paid by the Bank. It also gives to the wives of the employees free saris and blouse pieces and school uniform to the children of the employees. Besides they also get a special gift during the festival.

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ACTIVITIES OUT OF THE FUNDS OF THE BANK FREE PRIMARY

(a) Free Primary School : The societies pays fees of small children going in the free primary school at the rate of Rs. 2/- per head. 310 children have received the benefit of this. Besides the Bank has also donated Rs. 200 for purchase of equipments for the primary school. The bank has paid donations for purchase of books.

For intelligent students from the high school the Bank has a special scheme of giving scholarships. It also gives donations to the school. Bank has a special scheme of book. It purchases sets of books keeps well at the disposal of the high schools and allows them to be utilised by the poor students. Bank's investments in this scheme is over Rs. 2,000.

The Bank is proud in assisting intelligent and deserve to poor students for pursuing their higher Education. It has helped some Doctors and engineers to complete their education.

COMMUNITY MARRIAGES :

This unit scheme of the Hupari Bank started in 1964. The marriage expenses are unpayable to the poor class of people. However, because of the social customs even the poorest of the poor kind avoid to meet such expense. By borrowing from whatever source and at whatever cost the money may be available. The bank arranges for the marriage celebration at a common place where at a time in number of marriages can take place. The bride and the bridegroom have to come there with their friends and relatives. The Bank meets all the cost of religions' ceremony. Besides also gives present to the couple. This done at a very low cost. A chart give in Annexure I would indicate the marriages celebrated by the Bank during last 15 years.

MATERNITY BENEFIT :

The unit scheme provides medical assistance to the ladies and the small children.

SPECTACLES :

This is another unit scheme of the Bank which gives to the poor and old people the facility of buying spectacles when they need them very badly. The Bank meets the entire cost of this. During the year under report (1976.77) the bank has provided 90 persons with this facility.

MANAGEMENT :

The Management of the Bank gets in the Board of Directors consisting of 9 persons elected from amongst members in the general body meeting. It has number of sub-committees which look after its various activities of these sub-committees. Besides, the members on the board

other members of the society are also associated.

Shri A.B. Naik is the Managing Director of the Bank who is elected from amongst the members and works as Managing Director in a narrow capacity. Mr. A.B. Naik who has given this bank a shape that we see today and also its ideas which have made the bank undertake various social economic activities for the welfare of the members and common man.

EMPLOYEES :

The total number of employees is 70. The bank has arranged to give them training with various cooperative training programme. The facilities given to the employees have been already indicated above.

The Bank is a class under the audit of the departmental centres..

PROGRESS CHART

Year	Members		Share Capital Rs	Reserve Fund Rs	Others Funds Rs	Deposits Rs	Working capital Rs	Inves- - tments - Rs	Member loan Rs	Net Profit Rs	Divid- - end Rs
	A	B									
1963	1280	1899	149340	40804	65991	365464	1394600	201472	632793	18607	5 "
1964	1352	1688	172740	47833	84697	488914	1491971	205472	695796	32824	6 "
1965	1528	2376	202910	57900	61978	574271	1817777	213072	785908	35304	6 "
1966	1617	2562	228050	68214	75512	648518	2198603	229760	976601	51303	6 "
1967	1739	2709	259810	62417	129635	677616	2536521	239360	421120	63578	7 "
1968	1909	2857	307780	85277	193993	907167	3155370	323435	4363860	94111	9 "
1969	2022	2972	350610	113632	139590	1095847	3972306	330000	1517693	48143	9 "
1970	2171	3058	365710	132751	232297	1234648	4404602	374350	2113649	39916	9 "
1971	2284	3190	372910	150456	264288	1158740	4206691	406850	2070958	50871	9 "
1972	2432	3277	390035	173126	386322	1439751	4299263	428280	2172489	82756	9 "
1973	2620	3400	403750	198258	450638	1857252	5695782	481865	2246938	91960	9 "
1974	2957	3579	438220	224020	530465	2241272	5939736	580825	3291734	69152	9 "
1975	3067	3744	474980	254095	561157	2262994	6307767	589525	3394855	75357	9 "
1976	3287	4261	479610	285965	658000	2523370	7129602	674525	3310451	96885	9 "
1977	3627	4995	496250	319302	538883	2931962	7122142	814942	4000098	134432	

CONTD...

PROGRESS CHART

Year	Community marriage				Delivery Ladies	Routine Rs	No	Medicine	Triple			Rs	School fees		Boys:Rs	medi cine :Rs	Higher Edu- cation Int. free loan	
	occa sions	:marr age	Expen ditu re	Aver age Exp.:					1st chi ldr en	2nd chi ldr en	3rd chi ldr en		Boys	:Rs			Boys	:Rs
1963	3	28	1056	38														
1964	2	43	839	20														
1965	2	64	121	19														
1966	2	60	1436	25			3	32										
1967	2	59	1109	19			2	86										
1968	2	85	1304	18			1	60							3	46	1	250
1969	2	57	1390	24			0	00							2	46	(1)	650
1970	2	39	1969	50			0	00							1	2	3	(1) 1950
1971	2	58	1803	31			2	97				10	240	4	128	4	(1) 1450	
1972	2	65	1331	20	5832	389	4	68	112	36	182	10	240	3	55	5	(5) 1600	
1973	2	90	2137	27	119	908	1	21	326	216	223	14	10	1	15	4	(10) 1450	
1974	2	56	1839	33	39	408	3	115	188	129	96	145	10	220	1	9	5	(3) 2000
1975	2	23	3033	33	00	00	0	82	300	259	163	825	10	180	1	0	3	(3) 800
1976	2	87	2726	31	00	00	63	3276	96	85	75	367	20	220	8	203	7	(6) 450
1977	2	62	1958	32	00	00	148	3973	20	25	15	83	20	240	33	2080		(10) 2650
		82	2521	31	00	00	00	00					20	400		Rs 970	20	(56) 300
													20	620		Rs 590	14	(70) 17665

A NOTE ON THE WORKING OF
NAME OF THE SOCIETY : 'SHETKARI SAHAKARI SANGH LIMITED, KOLHAPUR.'

I) General Information:

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Name of the Society. | Shetkari Sahakari Sangh Ltd., Kolhapur. |
| 2. Date of registration. | 23rd October, 1939. |
| 3. Address. | F.B.No. 64, Old Palace, Kolhapur. |
| 4. Area of operation. | Kolhapur District. |
| 5. Type of organisation. | Agricultural Marketing Society. |
| 6. Objectives. | Promoting the economic interests of the agriculturists by securing better returns for their agricultural produce and making available agricultural requisites like manure mixtures, fertilizers, fuel lubricants, insecticides, quality seeds and the like at reasonable rates and as near to their residence as possible. To render such other services for raising agricultural yield and take up Consumer activities on large scale etc. |
| 7. Audit classification (Past 5 years). | 'A' Audit Classification. |

II) Membership:

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|----------------------------|--------|--------------------------------|------|---------------|-------|---------------------|----|
| 1. Classification of membership. | <table border="0"> <tr> <td>a) 'A' Class Individuals :</td> <td>30674.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>b) 'A' Class Co-op. Societies:</td> <td>738.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>c) 'B' Class.</td> <td>7913.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>d) State Government</td> <td>1.</td> </tr> </table> | a) 'A' Class Individuals : | 30674. | b) 'A' Class Co-op. Societies: | 738. | c) 'B' Class. | 7913. | d) State Government | 1. |
| a) 'A' Class Individuals : | 30674. | | | | | | | | |
| b) 'A' Class Co-op. Societies: | 738. | | | | | | | | |
| c) 'B' Class. | 7913. | | | | | | | | |
| d) State Government | 1. | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Special Conditions of Membership (if any). | <p>For 'A' Class Membership : Share amount Rs. 25/- minimum plus Entrance fee Rs. 1/-.</p> <p>For 'B' Class membership : Rs. 1/- Entrance fee (Nominal membership).</p> | | | | | | | | |

3. Growth of membership over last five years	Year	'A' Class		'B' Class	State Govt.
		Individual	Society		
	1972-73	17042	622	7557	1
	1973-74	19905	645	7567	1
	1974-75	24923	656	7589	1
	1975-76	26914	677	7593	1
	1976-77	30675	738	7913	1
4. Coverage of membership in the area.	Very Satisfactory.				
5. Any other information on Membership.	There is a continuous growth in membership both of Individual and Societies.				

III) Capital and Funds :

1. Authorised Share Capital.	Rs. 51,00,000/-				
2. Face value of each share.	Rs. 25/-				
3. Paid up Share Capital. (growth over last 5 years)	Year	Rs.			
	1973	20,71,100			
	1974	21,42,825			
	1975	27,20,750			
	1976	28,42,950			
	1977	31,06,300			
4. Linking of shares with services:	Service to all				
5. Restriction on holding of maximum shares by a members (if any)	As per Sec.28 of the Maharashtra Cooperative Societies Act, 1960, maximum shares one can hold is restricted to the extent of Rs.5,000/-only.				
6. Return on Share Capital (last 5 years)	1973.	..	9 %		
	1974	..	9 %		
	1975	..	9 %		
	1976	..	9 % + 3 % = 12 %.		
	1977	..	9 % + 3 % = 12 %.		
7. Other modes of raising Capital	By way of accepting deposits from members. By way of loans from Central Co-op. Bank.				

a) Deposits :

i) Types of deposits & growth over last 5 years.	Year	Fixed		Savings		Total Rs.
		Indivi- dual Rs.	Societi- es Rs.	Indivi- dual Rs.	Societi- ties Rs.	
	1973	1949461	27000	193657	13835	2183953
	1974	2049829	1000	230550	168276.	2449655
	1975	1957296	1000	181507	65668	2205471
	1976	1952371	-	152160	88847	2193378
	1977	1895079	101000	138923	180809	2315811

ii) Rate of Interest on Deposits.	On Fixed Deposits:	<u>Period</u>	<u>Rate of Interest</u>
		6 months	7% p.a.
		1 year	8% p.a.
		2 years	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ % p.a.
		3 years	9% p.a.
		4 years	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ % p.a.
	5 years	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ % p.a.	
	On Savings Deposits:		5% p.a.

b) <u>Borrowings:</u>	i) Type of Borrowings (growth over last 5 years)	<u>Year</u>	<u>HYPOTHECATION (GEN)</u>		<u>HYPOTHE (MANURS)</u>	
			<u>Sanction</u> Rs.	<u>Interest</u> Rate	<u>Sanction</u> Rs.	<u>Interest</u> Rate
		1972.73	4500000	10 $\frac{3}{4}$ %	-	-
		1973.74	7000000	11 $\frac{1}{4}$ %	-	-
		1974.75	7500000	15 %	-	-
		1975-76	10000000	15 $\frac{1}{2}$ %	-	-
		1976-77	10500000	15 $\frac{1}{2}$ %	2000000	15 $\frac{1}{2}$ %
		<u>Year</u>	<u>CLEAN CASH</u>		<u>PLEDGE</u>	
			<u>Sanction:</u> Rs.	<u>Int.</u> Rate	<u>Sanction</u> Rs.	<u>Int.</u> Rate
		1972.73	3000000	10 $\frac{3}{4}$ %	-	-
		1973.74	3000000	11 $\frac{1}{4}$ %	1500000	9 $\frac{3}{4}$ %
		1974.75	2500000	15 %	1500000	14 $\frac{1}{2}$ %
		1975.76	2500000	15 $\frac{1}{2}$ %	1500000	15 %
		1976.77	2500000	15 $\frac{1}{2}$ %	1500000	15 %

ii) Rate of interest on borrowings As above .

iii) Repayment of borrowings (default - if any) Repayments in time, no default of any kind.

C) Funds :

i) Kinds of funds raised (with growth over 5 years.)	<u>Year</u>	<u>Reserve fund</u>	<u>Other funds</u>	<u>Working Capital</u>
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
	1972.73	30,07,207	44,18,137	2,97,63,684
	1973.74	32,98,074	61,94,511	4,06,45,824
	1974.75	36,02,110	90,91,146	3,75,46,943
	1975.76	39,76,500	1,08,71,346	4,05,28,584
	1976.77	44,15,974	1,15,03,205	4,21,16,567

ii) Investment of these funds:	In Securities & Fixed <u>Deposits in D.C.B.Bank</u>	<u>Fixed Assets.</u>
	Rs.	Rs.
	11,75,304	37,30,051

IV) Management :

- a) General Body Special Features (if any) Full scope is given to all members to participate in carrying out the business transactions on the Agenda of the meeting.
- b) Attendance of General Body (last 5 years)
- | <u>Date of General Meeting</u> | <u>Attendance</u> |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|
| 7th November, 1973 | 883 |
| 3rd November, 1974 | 1073 |
| 13th November, 1975 | 1050 |
| 27th December, 1976 | 1874 |
| 16th December, 1977 | 2832 |
- c) Special General Meetings held during last 5 years (reasons for these meetings) Not held.
- d) Composition of Board of Directors.
- | | | |
|---|----|-------|
| Representatives of Co-op. | .. | 6 |
| Individual representatives | .. | 3 |
| Managing Director | .. | 1 |
| Representative nominee from Financing Agency. | .. | 1 |
| | | .. 11 |
- T o t a l
- e) Duration of term 5 Years.
- f) Reservation of seats -
- g) Govt. nominee on board (if any) No.
- h) Office bearers, their term Chairman, Vice-Chairman, Managing Director.
(One year) (Five years)
- i) Frequency of Board Meetings. On Eleventh of Every Month (once in every month). However, if required meetings are held more than once.
- j) Sub Committees kinds with function :
- 1) Purchase Sub Committee : for finalising purchases.
 - 2) Service Selection Sub-Committee. : For interview & recruitments, etc.
 - 3) Record finalisation Sub-Committee. : for taking decision in arranging of unwanted record & destruction.

V) BUSINESS :

i) Nature of Business

Diversified activities of the 'SANGH'

- 1) MARKETING: Commission: Commodities handled jaggery, tobacco, groundnuts.
(Adat) Shops
- 2) Supply of Agri. Requ- isites: Fertilisers: (BULL BRAND NPK mixture and granulated fertilizers processed in the Sangh's own Processing Plant) and other Govt. fertilizers.
- 3) Agricultural Develo- pment Centres: Providing guidance and assistance to the agriculturists in their agricultural production.
- 4) Supply of petroleum : Agencies/Distributorship from Indian Oil Corporation, Bharat Petroleum Corpn., Indo-Burma Petroleum Co., for supply of oils, lubricants, rocke Petrol, mobile oil etc.
- 5) Supply of machinery & Spare-parts : Oil Engines, Electric Motor pumps, engine Spare-parts, Pipes, Belts, Fuel pumps, Meters, bicycles, Electrical materials, Lamps, Sanitary-ware etc.
- 6) Services in Consumers field : Pharmaceuticals, Cloth, Utensils, Food-grains, Provision, groceries, Sugar etc.

Agency for Text-Books from Maharashtra State Text-Book Bureau.
- 7) Manufacturing Activities. : 1) Granular Fertilizer Plant at Tukadi.
2) Oil Mill
3) Chilly powder.
- 8) Ancillary Activites: 1) Printing Press.
2) Transport fleet.
3) Bombay Branch facilities for procuring goods and Govt. Nominee for distribution of Sugar etc.

ii) Beneficiaries of Business.	Members as well as non members can desire the benefits from the Shops of the Sangh.			
iii) Business results over last 5 years.	<u>YEAR</u>	<u>TURNOVER.Rs.</u>	<u>INCOME.Rs.</u>	<u>EXPENDITURE.Rs.</u>
	1973	22,44,63,336	83,79,150	74,68,195
	1974	29,41,31,861	1,27,66,681	1,16,51,067
	1975	41,30,41,083	1,52,81,045	1,40,95,472
	1976	39,95,91,086	1,38,10,436	1,25,90,197
	1977	38,51,82,344	1,43,75,631	1,31,02,851
iv) Problem of members Loyalty(if any)	No.			
v) Profit/Loss over last 5 years.	<u>Year</u>	<u>Net Profit</u>		
	1973	.. Rs.	9,10,954	
	1974	.. Rs.	11,15,614	
	1975	.. Rs.	11,85,573	
	1976	.. Rs.	12,20,239	
	1977	.. Rs.	12,72,780	
vi) Co-ordination with other Co-operatives in the business	We procure goods from Apex Marketing and Apex Consumer Societies and other Co-operative manufacturers along with other manufacturers and supply goods to Co-operatives in the Districts and individual members and non-members.			

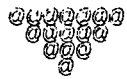
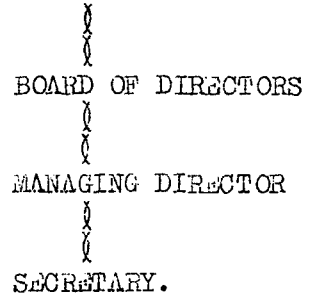
VI) Staff Position :

i) No. of Employees	1063
ii) No.on deputation(organisation from where recovered).	As istant Registrar Co-operative Societies from Co-operative Department as Officer on special duty.
iii) Trained/Untrained.	Trained 99.
iv) Schem. of/Training (if any)	Special Training Classes for the employees of the Sangh are conducted by the Co-operative Training Centre, Kolhapur.
v) Temporary/Permanent	Permanent : 834. Temporary : 229.
vi) Trade Union of employees(if any)	Sahakari Karmachari Sanghatana, Kolhapur.
vii) Employees representative on Board(if any)	-

viii) Benefits given to employees:

- 1) Provident Fund : At the rate 1:1
- 2) Gratuity : 1/2 of one months pay for the no. of years of service.
- 3) Medical aid : 1 % of the pay is contributed by Sangh.
- 4) Loan facility : --
- 5) Other : Bonus depending upon availability of excess funds. Ex-Gratia Benefit depending upon profitability.

6) Structure of Administration. : GENERAL BODY



COURSE IN TRAINING METHODOLOGY &
TECHNIQUES FOR AFGHAN TEACHERS

LIST OF RESOURCE PERSONS

- Vaikunth Mehta National Institute
(VMNICM) : Prof. D. Jha, Director
Dr. S.C. Mehta, Professor
Mr. D.R. Datar, Reader & Local
Coordinator
Mr. M.A. Deshmukh, Reader
Prof. R.V. Nadkarni, Professor(Retd.)
- .sual : Prof. R.D. Bokil, Principal
Mr. Kale, Sound Engineer,
Mr. Kamle, Artist in Visualisation
Mr. Jadav, Technician in Photography
- ICA Regional Office & Education : Dr. G. Ojha
Centre for South-East Asia (ICA ROEC) Programme Director
43, Friends Colony, New Delhi
- Project on Agricultural Cooperatives : Mr. Lars Gronkvist
and Credit in the Republic of Project Adviser
Afghanistan (PACCA Project)
Kabul
- Secretariat : Mr. Vinay Nagpal
ICA ROEC, New Delhi
Mr. K.W. Belgee
VMNICM, Pune

Technical Guidance

Mr. J.M. Rana
Director (Education)
ICA ROEC, New Delhi

TRAINING METHODOLOGY & TECHNIQUES COURSE FOR
AFGHAN TEACHERS

Mid-Course Evaluation Form
(Part - I & II)

PART - I

Note: Strike out whatever is not applicable

Objectives Part

1. Do you think that the following objectives of the Part-I&II of the programme have been achieved.

a) To know the principles of Communication and Learning	Fully / Partly / Not at all achieved achieved achieved
b) To acquire the knowledge and skills of teaching techniques and methods particularly Lecture Method & Group Discussion Method	Fully / Partly / Not at all achieved achieved achieved
c) To acquire skills in handling projected and non-projected aids	Fully / Partly / Not at all achieved achieved achieved

2. If partly achieved or not at all achieved, please indicate the areas of improvement.

3. Do you consider the areas covered in the subject will help you in improving your performance. YES / NO

4. If no, indicate the subjects which you would like to add or drop
 - 4.a Would like to add:
 - (i)
 - (ii)
 - (iii)

 - 4.b Would like to drop
 - (i)
 - (ii)
 - (iii)

Coverage

5. What is your opinion about the Coverage of the following subjects:

5.a Communication Process Adequate/Inadequate

- If inadequate, give suggestions to improve

5.b Psychology of adult learning Adequate/Inadequate

- If inadequate, give suggestions to improve

5.c Learning Process Adequate/Inadequate

- If inadequate, give suggestions to improve

5.d Teaching Technique & Methods Adequate/Inadequate

- If inadequate, give suggestions to improve

5.e Lecture Method Adequate/Inadequate

5.f Group Discussion Technique Adequate/Inadequate

- If inadequate, give suggestions to improve

6.1 What is your opinion about the handling of the subjects

i. Communication System Very Good/Satisfactory / Not-Satisfactory

ii. Communication Games V. Good/Good/Satisfactory / Not-Satisfactory

iii. Psychology of Adult Learning V. Good/Good/Satisfactory / Not-Satisfactory

iv. Lecture Method V. Good/Good/Satisfactory / Not-Satisfactory

v. Group Discussion V. Good/Good/Satisfactory / Not-Satisfactory

6.2 Have you any suggestions to improve the handling of the subjects?

YES / NO

- If Yes, give details

7. Technique used for training

7.1 What is your opinion about the techniques used for training V.Good/Good/Satisfactory /Not-Satisfactory

- If not satisfactory, indicate the subjects, where you were not satisfied

8. Skills

8.1 Have you improved your skill in lecturing Very much/to some extent/not improved

- If not improved, give reasons:

8.2 Have you acquired the skills in conducting group discussions To great/to some extent /not at all extent extent

- If not at all, give reasons for the same

PART - II

Teaching Media

9.1 Have you acquired the knowledge about the use and benefits of projected aids in training YES / NO

- If No, in what respect you consider yourself deficient

9.2 Have you acquired the knowledge about the use and benefits of non-projected aids in training YES / NO

- If No, in what respect you consider yourself deficient

Skills

10.1 Have you acquired the skills to use the following projected aids:

- (i) Film Projector Fully/Partly/Not acquired
- (ii) Overhead Projector Fully/Partly/Not acquired
- (iii) Slide Projector Fully/Partly/Not acquired

S

10.2 If not acquired in which type of projected aid you require further orientation

11.1 Have you acquired the skills to use the following non-projected aids:

- (i) Chalk or Black Board Fully/Partly/Not at all
- (ii) Flannel Graph/Board Fully/Partly/Not at all
- (iii) Flipover Chart Fully/Partly/Not at all
- (iv) Magnetic Board Fully/Partly/Not at all

11.2 If you have not acquired the skill, indicate the type of non-projected aid in which you would like to be further oriented.

General

12.1 What is your opinion about the Boarding and Lodging arrangements

- (i) Boarding arrangements Excellent/Good/Satisfactory/Non-Satisfactory
- (ii) Lodging arrangements Excellent/Good/Satisfactory/Non-Satisfactory

13. Over all handling of the Course Excellent/Good/Satisfactory/Non-Satisfactory

.....

Oct. 30, 1979

COURSE IN TRAINING METHODOLOGY &
TECHNIQUES FOR AFGHAN TEACHERS

Final Course Evaluation Form

Note: Strike out whatever is not applicable

1. Do you think the following objectives of the Course have been achieved?
- | | | | |
|---|----------------|------------------|----------------------|
| a) To know the principals of Communication and Learning | Fully achieved | /Partly achieved | /Not at all achieved |
| b) To acquire the knowledge & skills of teaching techniques & methods | Fully achieved | /Partly achieved | /Not at all achieved |
| c) To acquire skills in handling projected & non-projected aids | Fully achieved | /Partly achieved | /Not at all achieved |
| d) To acquire knowledge in designing and evaluating training programmes | Fully achieved | /Partly achieved | /Not at all achieved |
2. If partly or Not at all achieved, please indicate areas for improvement.

3. Do you think all the relevant areas have been covered in the Course? YES/NO

4. If not, indicate the areas

a) you would like to add

- i.
- ii.
- iii.

b) you would like to drop

- i.
- ii.
- iii.

5. What is your opinion about the coverage of following subjects?

- | | |
|--|---------------------|
| a) Training Evaluation | Adequate/Inadequate |
| - If inadequate, give suggestions to improve | |
| b) Cooperative Leadership & Training | Adequate/Inadequate |
| - If inadequate, give suggestions to improve | |
| c) Cooperative Training Structure in India | Adequate/Inadequate |
| - If inadequate, give suggestions to improve | |
| d) Improving Training - How to use feed-back | Adequate/Inadequate |
| - If inadequate, give suggestions to improve | |
| e) How to design training programmes | Adequate/Inadequate |
| - If inadequate, give suggestions to improve | |
| f) Techniques & problems of curriculum formulation | Adequate/Inadequate |
| - If inadequate, give suggestions to improve | |
| g) Cooperative Movement in India | Adequate/Inadequate |
| - If inadequate, give suggestions to improve | |

-: 3 :-

6.1 What is your opinion about the handling of the following subjects:

- | | |
|--|--|
| a) Training Evaluation | V.Good/Good/Satis- /Not-
factory satisfactory |
| b) Cooperative Leadership & Training | V.Good/Good/Satis- /Not-
factory satisfactory |
| c) Cooperative Training Structure in India | V.Good/Good/Satis- /Not-
factory satisfactory |
| d) Improving Training - How to use feed-back | V.Good/Good/Satis- /Not-
factory satisfactory |
| e) How to design training programmes | V.Good/Good/Satis- /Not-
factory satisfactory |
| f) Techniques & problems of curriculum formulation | V.Good/Good/Satis- /Not-
factory satisfactory |
| g) Cooperative Movement in India | V.Good/Good/Satis- /Not-
factory satisfactory |

6.2 Do you have any suggestions for improving the handling of the subjects?

YES/NO

- If Yes, give details

7. What is your opinion about the techniques used for training

V.Good/Good/Satis- /Not-
factory Satisfactory

- If not satisfactory, indicate the subjects where you were not satisfied.

8. What is your opinion about the study visits?

Very Useful/Useful/Not at all
useful

- If not at all useful, give suggestions for improvement

Workshop

9. What is your opinion about the Workshop on Course Planning and Designing of Curriculum? Very Useful / Useful / Not at all useful
- If not at all useful, give suggestions for improvement.

10. What is your overall impressions about the Course?

11. What is your opinion about the duration of the Course? Adequate / Inadequate
- If not adequate, how many days you would like to add more

General

12. What is your opinion about
- i. Boarding arrangements Excellent/Good/Satisfactory / Not-satisfactory
 - ii. Lodging arrangements Excellent/Good/Satisfactory / Not-satisfactory
 - iii. Arrangements for study-visits and sight-seeing Excellent/Good/Satisfactory / Not-satisfactory
 - iv. Overall handling of the Course Excellent/Good/Satisfactory / Not-satisfactory
13. Any other comments and suggestions:

(need not sign)