

Psychology and Educational Methods

(Selected Papers)

DHARM VIR Ph. D.
Specialist in Educational Methods



334:37
DHA

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATIVE ALLIANCE

Regional Office & Education Centre for South-East Asia
43, Friends Colony, New Delhi-14

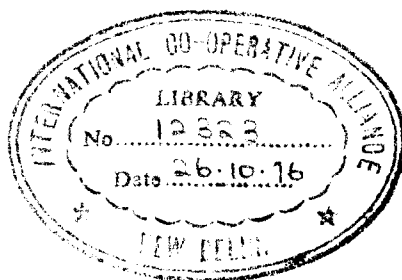
ICA Library
334:37 DHA-P
ICA 00917

PSYCHOLOGY AND EDUCATIONAL METHODS
(Selected Papers)

by

DHARM VIR, Ph.D.
Specialist in Educational Methods

1972



INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATIVE ALLIANCE
Regional Office & Education Centre for South-East Asia
43, Friends' Colony, NEW DELHI-11

TRIP

CONTENTS

Part - I

1. Some Facts About Adult Personality
2. Human Interest and Education
3. Interests of Rural People
4. Development of Cooperative Leadership
5. Some Simple Techniques of Group Development

Part - II

1. Farm Guidance Through Agricultural Cooperatives
2. Methods of Farmers' Education.
3. Participative Methods of Member Education.
4. The Study Circle Method - A Tool of Rural Extension
5. Evaluation in Cooperative Training

gs/23.9.71

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATIVE ALLIANCE
Regional Office & Education Centre
for South-East Asia,
43, Friends' Colony, New Delhi-14.

SOME FACTS ABOUT ADULT PERSONALITY

by

Dr. Dharm Vir
Joint Director (Education)
ICA Regional Office & Education Centre
New Delhi.

An adult education worker knows that his job is to organise such educational programmes which suit the needs and interests of a ~~man~~ mature or maturing person, with a view to bring about such changes in his personality, that enable him to carry out his duties as a member of his society. Worthwhile changes in a personality can be brought only if the adult personality is first understood. A more basic question is: What is meant by the term personality? Does it mean the total appearance of a man or does it mean for more than that? Theologians, philosophers, jurists, sociologists, psychologists and others have defined personality in their own ways. To us as an adult education worker, the psychological definition will be more relevant.

Psychologists also define personality in many ways. Allport G.W. one of the psychologists, defines it as follows :-

Personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment (1937 a, p.45).

The phrase, 'dynamic organisation' emphasizes the fact that personality of an individual is constantly developing and changing, but remaining a systematic entity. Changes in personality may not be so quick that we can always see them. There are psychological tests, which can measure the changes occurred in a personality. Through systematic observation we can also see some of the changes. The term 'psycho-physical' denotes that personality is not exclusively mental nor

physiological. With the phrase 'adjust to his environment', Allport indicates his conviction that it is personality that mediates between the individual and his psychophysical environment, sometimes submitting to it, sometimes mastering it.

Personality Trait is a word frequently used in the field of psychology and education. Its meaning generally remains vague to a layman. Allport defines trait as a generalised and localized neuro-psychic system (peculiar to individual), with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent and to initiate and guide consistent forms of adaptive and expressive behaviour. It is important to note that 'trait' has been defined as a generalized tendency. It means that traits are not found only in relation to specific situations. However, they can be located in the individual personality.

Traits and Habits:

Some people may think that traits and habits are synonymous terms. Actually the trait to a considerable extent represents the outcome of two or more numbers of habits integrated. There is no doubt that trait and habits are tendencies which to some extent determine the behaviour of the individuals. But a trait is more general, whereas, a habit is very specific phenomenon. For example, honesty may be a personality trait, applicable to many social and psychological conditions. But honesty in playing cards only is a specific habit which can be developed by an individual.

Classification of Traits:

It may be added here that traits and habits are determined both by hereditary and environmental factors. The same trait cannot develop in many individuals in the same way, as it takes an unique shape within the personality of an individual.

Some traits may be called hereditary. Their tentative list is given below :-

1. Sex (behavioral or otherwise)
2. Self-assertion (ego-defence)
3. Escape (fear, anxiety)
4. Protectiveness (parental behaviour)
5. Gregariousness (tendency to live in groups)

6. Rest-seeking (sleeping)
7. Exploration (curiosity)
8. Narcissistic sex (excessive pre-occupation with oneself in sex matters)
9. Appeal (sympathy)
10. Construction (creativity)

There are some traits, the origin of which can be attributed to environmental factors. Some of these traits are :-

1. Interest in career
2. Interest in sports and games
3. Interest in religion
4. Mechanical interests
5. Patriotism
6. Super-age structure (a structure in the unconscious built-up by experiences and functioning as a kind of conscience).
7. Self-sentiment (in its developed form self-respect)

Surface versus Basic Traits:

Psychologists have also tried to determine what they call, surface traits. Some of these traits as discussed by Cattell are given below :

1. Integrity-altruism versus dishonesty, undependability
2. Infantile, demanding, self-centredness versus emotional maturity
3. Gentlemenly disciplined thoughtfulness versus foolish, lack of will.
4. Crude social assertion, exhibitionism, versus obedience to authority, modesty.

There are underlying basic traits which are lesser in number than surface traits. These basic traits are more important determinants of human personality. It is difficult to name source or basic traits, but most of them can be measured with the help of personality tests.

Another way of classifying traits:

1. Cardinal trait: It is so dominant that most of the activities are influenced by it directly or indirectly. Such a master quality in an individual has sometimes been called the ruling passion or master sentiment. It can be said that 'love for truth' was the cardinal trait in the personality of Mahatma Gandhi.

2. Central Trait: It represents the tendency which is highly characteristic in an individual. According to Allport, Central Traits are very few in number - between five and ten. But, they are easily traceable in the personality of the individual.

3. The Secondary Trait : It is traceable with some difficulty, because they have limited occurrences, and are less important in describing a personality.

We have discussed three types of traits. These types do not show that traits are independent from one another. The traits are inter-dependent and the behaviour is the outcome of interplay of many traits. The interplay of various traits make the personality of an individual unique. The uniqueness in personality may, sometimes, appear to be inconsistent, when compared with social standards. A Gandhi cap, with the western suit may appear to be slightly inconsistent to an average Indian. But, to an individual, wearing them, it may give satisfaction due to the unique organisation of his personality traits. Sometimes, there may be a real inconsistency in the behaviour of an individual. Suppose, one gentleman wearing the western suit and a Gandhi cap knows Hindi, but he uses English words more frequently, whenever he talks to less educated people. Such inconsistency in individual behaviour may be due to lack of proper organisation of different traits.

Personality and Character :

It is very difficult to make any clear-cut distinction between personality and character. Character may be taken as one's integrated system of behaviour tendencies with respect to moral and ethical issues. When we are concerned with situations involving moral values, when we are dealing with right or wrong or good or bad, we speak of character rather than of personality traits or characteristics. On the other hand when we deal with person's social behaviour in terms of dominance and submission, introversion and extro-version, and similar traits, we shall consider them within the larger categories of personality traits. (1964, Sawrey and Telford p.38).

Development of personality traits such as interests and character should be the main aim of an educational programmes :

REFERENCED

1. Allport G.W. Personality - A psychological Interpretation, New York, Holt, 1937 A.
2. Cattell, R.B. Personality : A systematic theoretical and factual study, New York, McGraw Hill Book Co. 1950
3. Drever, James, Dictionary of Psychology, London, Penguin Books, 1953.
4. Hall Calvin S. and Gardner, Lindzey. Theories of Personality, New York, John Willy and Sons, Inc. 1957.
5. Freud. S, An Outline of Psychoanalysis: New York, Norton, 1949.
6. Murphy C. Personality : A Bio-social approach to Origin and Structure, New York, Harper 1947.
7. Sawrey, J.M. and Telford, C.W. Educational Psychology - Psychological foundations of Education. Second Edition, New Delhi, Prentice - Hall of India (Pvt.) Ltd. 1964, pp. 589.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATIVE ALLIANCE
Regional Office & Education Centre
for South East Asia, P.O.Box 3312
43, Friends' Colony, New Delhi-14
India.

gs/1/11-71.

HUMAN INTEREST AND EDUCATION

by

Dr. Dharm Vir
Joint Director (Education)

One of the main aims of education is to create new interests among educants, and to develop them. If relevant interests are **developed** it may be said that half of the purpose of an educator is achieved; well begun is half done. Soon after necessary interest is created, the educants will themselves make efforts to learn more and more. The result is 'where is the will, there is the way'.

In human psychology, interest may refer to those activities or things which give happiness and satisfaction. Even thoughts of interesting activities or things invokes pleasure and worthwhileness in pursuits. Interests are such personality traits as are influenced by environmental factors. However, excessive interest in oneself especially in sex matter may be attributed to hereditary factors. Interests are considered expressions of self-concept, individual's motives and indicate the mode of individual adjustment.

There is intimate relationship between interests and human experience. The process of development in interest begins right at birth and continues till death. Different configurations of human experiences are formed in the inner psychic set up and those which are pleasant and worthwhile develop into patterns of interests. Whatever interests one acquires during childhood and adolescence are carried by him throughout his life. Interests mature between 15 and 18 years of age. The stock of interests accumulated upto 20 years of age can be sufficient for one's whole life. According to psychologists, there is very limited change in human interest after 25 years of age. The rate of change in interests decreases with advancing age. One's circumstances and vocation may change but not interests. However, there is no change in the 'volume' of one's interests with advancing age. It is likely that the number of interesting activities

may lessen: as many interests may be satisfied by one selected activity. One artistic activity may be **capable of satisfying several human interests.** For example, interest in the art of dancing can help in maintaining good health and respect in society as well as in achieving aesthetic ideals. Such interests mature with age. With advanced age, human strength and energy decreases. Consequently, one may take less interest in active games and sports and more in reading, etc. According to Thorndike (E.L.) there is little change in the volume of one's interest because of this reshuffling.

It has also been found that different types of people have different interests. Psychologists have arrived at the conclusion that similarity in human interests is more than variance. It is possible that there is a difference in degrees in one's interest. Because of common interests human beings have adjusted themselves to each other. Even interests of men and women there is more similarity than variety which is enough for living together. It is also natural that the father and his children have common interests. Children and adults may also show interest in activities according to their abilities but not vice versa. Relevant abilities and interests can be developed in a rich and permissible environment. The environment—physical or social has more influence on human interests than what ageing has. Once the interest is aroused in a subject or activity the learner will himself make efforts to know the subject and master relevant skills. He may fail in his initial efforts. The role of the teacher is to avoid unnecessary mistakes, encourage the learner and arrange an atmosphere in which others do not make fun of the learner. It is correct to say 'Well begun is half done'. The teachers and learners together should identify the objectives of learning and make a plan of education accordingly. Learning should be a pleasure, a worthwhile challenge and a useful pursuit.

There is wrong notion prevalent among adults especially older people that they cannot learn new things. Psychologists have discovered that in certain respects their learning may be slow but in other respects it may be faster and richer. For instance, because of slackness in general energy level, an adult may be slow in learning activities which involve strength and speed. On the other hand, elderly people learn lessons of

language and social studies because of increased vocabulary and experience. However, in order to learn something new, it is necessary to forget something old. So is the case with cooperative education. Human cooperation is not an innate phenomenon. Socio-economic cooperation is certainly to be learned from the environment. By the time an adult achieves maturity he should have the right experience with cooperation. Generally, individuals acquire wrong image, attitudes and experience about cooperative activities. Self assertive attitudes and egoistic tendencies are found dominant among them. In such cases interest in cooperation does not find proper place. To create new interest in socio-economic cooperation is to be based on the existing interests attitudes and experience.

One may be able to change the attitude and provide useful experience. But it has been found difficult to change interests in mature adults. It is therefore necessary to find out the existing interests of adults and relate the educational activities to them.

In India, some efforts have been made to find out occupational reading and other spare-time interests of adults. Such studies should be conducted increasingly, efforts should be made to use them in curriculum planning and development of adult education programmes.

Studies on human interests conducted in India by the author indicate that rural people know little about cooperative societies. However, their interest in social activities such as cooperatives slightly go up with increase in their age. Older adults also show increasing interest in reading simple books on social subjects such as village cooperatives. They would also like to go in the local libraries and read books and other material provided they have an access to such facilities. The adult and adolescent population of villages have shown interest in several other spare-time activities. A brief account of these interests is given separately in the paper entitled "Interest of Rural People".

The cooperative educators and other extension workers are expected to have knowledge of such interests. They should take into account the educational needs and interests of their clients at the time of developing educational activities for them.

References

- Ahmed, M. & others : An Evaluation of Reading Material for Literates and A Study of their Reading Needs and Interests; New Delhi, R.T.P. Centre, Jamia Millia Islamia, 1957 (report of UNESCO/Government of India projects).
- Strong, E.K. Jr : Vocational Interests of Men and Women, Stanford University Press, 1943, 746 p.
- Super, Donald E. and Crites, J.O. : Appraising Vocational Fitness, Reded Harper, 1962, 688 p.
- Thorndike, E.L. : Adult Interest; New York, Columbia University Press, 1935
- Thurstone, L.L. : "A Multiple Factor Study of Vocational Interests" Personnel Journal, 10: 198-205, 1931.
- Vir, D. : A Study of Spare-time Interests of Hindi-Speaking Villages; (Ph.D.dissertation admitted by the University of Lucknow in 1968)

INTERESTS OF RURAL PEOPLE
(A Study in Rural Psychology)

An Abstract of the Ph.D. dissertation admitted
by the University of Lucknow (India) - 1968.

by

Dharma Vir, Ph.D.
Joint Director (Education)
INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATIVE ALLIANCE
Regional Office & Education Centre for South-East Asia, P.O. Box 3312
43, Friends' Colony, (East), New Delhi-14
INDIA.

ES/24.11.1971

A STUDY OF LEISURE-TIME INTERESTS OF HINDI-SPEAKING VILLAGES

ABSTRACT

Introduction

The systematic study of human interests began in the latter half of the Nineteenth century with studies on reading interests of pupils. During the Twentieth century, outstanding work in this field has been done by psychologists like Douglas Fryer, Donald E. Super, E.K. Strong, Jr., E.L. Thorndike and L.L. Thurstone. In the recent past, a large number of studies on interests of men and women have been conducted, particularly in the United States, with a view to develop curriculum of studies or to guide pupils in their personal, educational or vocational life. In India, some studies especially in the field of vocational interests, have been conducted. However, no serious attempt has been made so far to study the leisure-time interests of Indian people.

Aims of present study

The author, therefore, undertook the task of studying the spare-time interests of a dominant segment of Indian society, viz. Hindi-speaking villagers. This is the first study of its kind in this country, so far as we know. An attempt has also been made to find out the relationship between interest scores and the factors of age and belongingness to a State.

The term 'interest' has been defined in several ways. Donald E. Super distinguishes between Expressed interests, Manifest interests, Inventoried interests and Tested interests according to the methods employed in measuring them. Following him we can say that the present study is concerned with Inventoried interests.

Spare-time interests are manifest or inferred 'likes-dislikes', or preferences of individuals or groups for various objects, activities and ideas which are related explicitly or implicitly, and arise from the need of human resource planning and adult education. By volume of interest is meant the average score for all the items of the check-list for an individual or a group of respondents.

Tool and Sample

The Tool

To find out the spare-time interests of Hindi-speaking villagers, a check-list consisting of items of probable interest to them was developed. The final check-list consists of 38 items arranged in alphabetical order. These items could be classified into various categories. However, the main categories of interests used in the study are Intellectual, Social, Religious, Economic, Health and Recreational.

The check-list was administered individually to the villagers by trained investigators. To check the validity of data collected, opinions of local teachers or village-level workers on the interests of respondents were collected in Delhi and Uttar Pradesh. In addition, the author travelled widely in the Hindi-speaking area and observed the spare-time activities of local villagers.

The Sample

The villagers studied were between 12 and 50 years of age. They belonged to five States, viz. Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan. All the villagers selected for the study were associated with the social education programmes conducted in their villages mainly by Community Development agencies. In the study, children below the age of 12 years and adults above 50 years have not been included. It also does not include women. As the field investigation were mainly conducted in 1956-57, it could not include in the sample, the newly formed Hindi-speaking States of Haryana and Himachal Pradesh. However, the present study may be considered as one of the important psychological studies of the 'heartland' of India.

In all, 18 districts from the five Hindi-speaking States and about 150 villages therein have been covered in the present study. From these villages, 500 villagers were chosen with the help of mixed (systematic-random) sampling technique.

Analysis of Data

The number of check-lists duly filled up and selected for statistical treatment are as follows :

<u>States</u>	<u>Number</u>
Madhya Pradesh	76
Rajasthan	72
Uttar Pradesh	226
Bihar	49
Delhi	64
All the States	<u>487</u>

Some check-lists had to be excluded further from the statistical treatment for want of full background information about the respondents. The data have been tabulated according to age groups and belongingness to States. The age-groups used to classify data are :

12-18 years	(adolescents)
19-30 years	(young adults)
31-50 years	(older adults)

The items of the check-lists have been checked on a three point scale - Like, Indifferent, and Dislike. The three categories of responses thus collected have been converted into two categories of Like and Dislike. Interest scores for each item and for different groups of respondents have been worked out.

The Chi-square test was mainly used to determine the significance of difference between scores. It was also used to determine the validity of data. The results showed a close relationship between interest responses of villagers and opinions of the local teachers or village level workers in Delhi and Uttar Pradesh.

Various Types of Interests

The main findings of the study have been discussed under different categories of interests. These categories, in order of popularity, are Intellectual, Social, Religious, Economic, Health and Recreational. Items under each category are as follows :

INTELLECTUAL INTERESTS

1. Reading	94.0
2. Writing	94.0
3. To think over ones own problems	90.0
4. Reading in Library	88.0
5. Teaching	83.0
6. To learn 'yoga' or 'mantras'	43.0
7. To learn astrology	43.0

SOCIAL INTERESTS

1. To do social service	91.0
2. To look after children	90.0
3. To engage in social conversation	86.0
4. To settle mutual disputes	85.0
5. To attend meetings	81.0
6. To participate in 'shramlan'	80.0
7. To do political work	61.0

RELIGIOUS INTERESTS

1. To attend 'katha' or 'milad'	85.0
2. To worship or perform 'namaz'	81.0

ECONOMIC INTERESTS

1. To look after animals	92.0
2. To look after house-hold	86.0
3. Gardening	75.0
4. To have a small-scale business	71.0
5. Handicraft work	69.0
6. To have a petty job	63.0
7. Hand-spinning	58.0
8. To repair machines	53.0

HEALTH INTERESTS

1. To do physical exercise	70.0
2. To go for a walk or sight-seeing	66.0
3. To relax or sleep	56.0

RECREATIONAL INTERESTS

1. Radio listening	93.0
2. Listening to 'Alha' or songs	76.0
3. Witnessing nau-tanki or drama	76.0
4. To see films	63.0
5. To witness music-dance performance	63.0
6. Embroidery work	62.0
7. To play outdoor games	61.0
8. To prepare eatables	50.0
9. To play sedentary games	47.0
10. Smoking or other indulgences	40.0
11. Tailoring work	37.0

Age Groups and Interest

Age does not seem to affect extensively villagers' interests. Out of 38 items only 9 have shown significant differences because of change in age-groups. Most of the items showing differences represent Recreational and Health categories. It is understandable that interest in strenuous activities decreases with increase in age. The older adults show the least interest in physical activities (66.5%) and highest interest in non-physical activities (84%). The interest in social activities has been found almost constant in all the age groups. More interest in activities such as hand-spinning, reading in libraries and smoking or other indulgences is shown by older adults.

A study of the relationship between the age-groups and the 'volume of interest' shows that the volume decreases to 71.5% in the young adult age-group (19-30 years), whereas it remains 74.1 and 74.9 per cent in the adolescent and older adult age groups respectively. It may be noted that

§ By 'volume of interest' is meant the average interest score for all the items of the check-list. It can be calculated for any group of respondents. For details, the book 'Adult Interests' by E.L.Thorndike may be consulted.

there is no significant difference between above scores for adolescents and older adults. Overall differences, however, occur in a few items such as :

writing
to do physical exercise
to go for a walk or sight seeing
to play outdoor games
hand-spinning
reading in library
smoking or other indulgences
to prepare eatables
to witness dance-music performances.

The first four activities involve physical skills or energy. Hence interest in them falls with increase in age. The older adults have shown more interest in preparing eatables and witnessing dance-music performances than the interest shown by young adults. However, adolescents have secured the highest score in recreational activities.

The most popular activities in different age-groups are given below :

<u>ADOLESCENTS</u>	<u>YOUNG ADULTS</u>	<u>OLDER ADULTS</u>
Reading	Reading	Reading
Writing	Writing	To look after animals
Radio listening	Radio listening	To think over one's own problems
To look after animals	To look after animals	To do social service
To think over one's own problems	Child care	Radio listening
To do social service	To engage in social conversation	To look after children

Although activities such as learning 'yoga or mantras' and learning astrology have been disliked by all the age groups, these have been found comparatively more popular among older adults. The latter have, however, shown least interest in some of the recreational activities, e.g. indoor games, outdoor games and tailoring work. It may be noted that with increase in age the interest in reading increases but it seems to decrease in writing.

Interest and Belongingness to a State

A glance at the interest scores secured by villagers in different States leads to the conclusion that sub-cultural factors - unique to Hindi-speaking States - seem to have affected considerably the villagers' interests. It may be noted that 78.9% items have shown significant differences in their Statewise scores. These differences have been found in items of all the categories, particularly in all the items of Social and

Health categories. However, no significant differences exist in the following items :

<u>Categories</u>	<u>Items</u>
1. Social	Writing, reading in the library .
2. Religious	To pray or perform 'namaz'
3. Economic	Handicraft work, embroidery work.
4. Recreational	Radio listening, seeing films.

In all these items except to pray or perform 'namaz', manual or mechanical element is involved. It may be concluded that most of the Hindi-speaking villagers like to do some light manual work in their spare time. For recreation, they seem to like mechanical aids such as radio and films. It is interesting to note that common interest in the above activities except that in writing and reading in a library does not seem to be effected even by difference in age.

The 'volume of interest' varies from State to State as follows :-

<u>State</u>	<u>Volume of interest</u>	<u>Density of Population</u> (1961)
1. Madhya Pradesh	79.8	189
2. Rajasthan	79.1	153
3. Bihar	70.5	691
4. Uttar Pradesh	69.1	649
5. Delhi	63.7	4,640
All the States	71.5	

No significant differences exist between Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan, and Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. However, there exists a significant difference between Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan on the one hand, and Bihar and Uttar Pradesh on the other. Delhi holds the lowest position in the 'volume of interest'. On the whole, Madhya Pradesh has secured the highest interest score followed in order of popularity by Rajasthan, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Delhi. As mentioned above, the interest scores of Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan have been found to be very close. The scores of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh are, however, very close to each other. The scores of Delhi indicate a peculiar trend perhaps because of urban effects or because of its geographical contiguity with Uttar Pradesh as well as Haryana. It is also very near to Rajasthan. The affinity between Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh may be partly due to the historical fact of their having been largely under the rule of native princes, and that between Bihar and Uttar Pradesh as due to their being under the British Rule.

In Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh, the Social category seems to be most popular, whereas in Uttar Pradesh, Delhi and Bihar the Recreational category has been found to be the least popular.

The most popular activities in different Hindi-speaking States are :

<u>MADHYA PRADESH</u>	<u>RAJASTHAN</u>	<u>UTTAR PRADESH</u>	<u>BIHAR</u>	<u>DELHI</u>
Listening to 'Alha' or songs.	To look after animals	Reading Writing	Reading Writing	Radio listening
To do physical exercises.	To do voluntary labour	Social service Child care	Social service Child care	Reading Writing
To attend meetings	To look after household	To look after animals	To look after animals	Reading in Library
To think over one's own problems	Social conversation Social service	Radio listening Reading in the Library	Radio listening To think over one's own problems	Offering prayers To listen to 'Alha' or songs.
To look after animals	Radio listening Reading	To think over one's own problems.		
Radio listening Child care Social conversation, Kitchen gardening, Reading	Child care Teaching			
To witness 'nau-tanki' or drama, Social service, Writing.				

Most of the activities mentioned above have secured more than 90% scores. However, in Delhi only 'radio listening' has received 92% scores; the rest of the activities have secured between 80 and 90% scores. In all the States, radio listening, 'to look after animals', 'Reading' and 'Writing' have received similar attention. Except in Delhi, villagers of all the States have also shown equal interest in 'child care' and 'social service'. The villagers in Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar have shown keen interest in thinking about their problems. Besides, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan have shown interest in social conversation, and U.P. and Delhi have indicated deep interest in reading in libraries.

It may also be noted that thirteen activities in Madhya Pradesh as against only one in Delhi have secured more than 90% scores. It may mean that M.P. is most ruralised and Delhi is the least ruralised or more urbanised State, with other States lying in between.

Interest and Population Density:[§]

Inverse relations between the density of population and volumes of interests have been found in different Hindi-Speaking States. The co-efficient of correlation (p) between them comes to $-.82$. The categorywise co-efficient of correlations are as follows :-

<u>Categories:</u>	(p)
1. Intellectual	$-.7$
2. Social	$-.8$
3. Religious	$-.8$
4. Economic	$-.8$
5. Health	$-.5$
6. Recreational	$-.5$

It may be concluded that there is inverse relation between density of population and rural interests. In Social, Intellectual and Religious items the (p) is more than $-.7$. In case of volumes of interest and population density in different States it has been found to be $-.82$, which is quite significant.

Value of the Study

The main aim of the author was to study interests of rural people, particularly in relation to their age and environment. The human interests have been extensively studied in western countries specially in the U.S.A. whereas little serious attention has been paid in the developing countries. Thorndike E.L. had studied adult interests in the USA about 30 years ago and found out the limited effect of ageing on interests. In the present an effort has been made to validate the Thorndike's findings. It has been also determined that environmental factors have more extensive effect on human interests.

2. The author aimed at developing a simple tool of research to find out the pupil's interests. He is of the view that the check-list can be adapted to local conditions and used by the adult education teachers to screen the interests of pupils or probable pupils. Data on interests collected on a standard check-list will be useful to community development agencies and economic planners. Therefore, the present check-list may further be developed and used in other areas of the country.

3. The study provides additional data on some of the most popular spare-time activities of villagers such as reading and radio listening. Hindi-speaking villagers have shown keen interest in reading agricultural subjects, e.g. modern methods of cultivation, diseases of plants, horticulture and animal husbandry. This shows that their main interest is economic i.e.

[§]The co-efficient of correlation (p) have worked out by the rank difference method. See Garrett H.E. "Statistics in Psychology & Education", Bombay Allied Pacific Pvt. Ltd. pp 371, 1962.

agriculture. Data collected on broadcast preferences in India show that Hindi-speaking villagers give third preference to 'Weather and market reports'; the first preference being news bulletins and Indian film music. But this lower ranking of the economic interest (agriculture) may be due to the nature of the medium of communication viz., Radio. The above finding should prove useful to publishers of reading material, broadcasting institutions, educationists and planners for rural people.

4. The study has revealed sub-cultural differences in Hindi-speaking area. However, these differences are not significant on some items such as reading in libraries, writing, embroidery work, handicraft work, repairing machines, radio listening, seeing films and offering prayers. It may be noted that common interests have been shown in the activities (except in offering prayers) which were popularised by the Community Development agencies. This shows that religion was the only common interest among the Hindi-speaking villagers before the introduction of Community Development programmes, and with the introduction of latter, some more common interests have developed in the villagers. It is needless to emphasize that the possession of common interests provides a solid foundation for national integration programmes.

5. It may be noted that young adults have shown the least interest in smoking or other indulgences, hand-spinning, preparing eatables and in witnessing dance-music performances. Most of these activities are of a recreational type, and lack of interest in them has considerably decreased the volume of interest of young adults. This finding may be of some use to family planning workers and adult education teachers. The lack of interests in some of the recreational activities on the part of young adults seem to be due to family responsibilities and comparatively more indulgence in sex. It has been noted that young adults showed more interest in reading about 'husband-wife' relations' as compared to other age groups, when they were asked to articulate their reading interests on a specially designed check-list.

6. The study contributes to our knowledge of the spare-time interests of Hindi-speaking villagers. It succeeds in collecting useful data in the field of adult psychology apart from making some theoretical contribution to the field of adult interests. The study makes substantial contribution to a general understanding of male adolescents and adults and especially to the knowledge of the interests of Hindi-speaking adults living in different States and belonging to different age groups. It also shows indirectly the impact of the Community Development programmes on the minds of rural people living in this country.

7. Plans for economic development should take into account the development of human resources. Adult education programmes are generally geared to the development of human resources. An understanding of adult psychology is essential for any educational programme. Abilities and interests of learners in a particular cultural milieu must be found out to plan and implement any educational programme. It is, however, regretted that no serious effort has so far been made in this country to measure interests of adult pupils. The present study is the first effort of its kind in the field of measurement of adult interests. It may also be taken as a contribution to what may be called 'Rural Psychology'.

gs/29.10.1971

DEVELOPMENT OF CO-OPERATIVE LEADERSHIP

by

Dr. Dharm Vir
Joint Director (Education)

Eleanor Roosevelt, when asked to mention the leadership qualities of her husband-President Roosevelt, said: "It is very often the opportunities which bring out the leadership qualities".

Cooperative movement throws a challenge before the society and provides opportunities to social minded citizens for self-development and social and economic development.

Leadership may be defined as an arrangement of the social situation so that the group results may be achieved. A leader is a person who arranges the situation in a group, that its objectives are achieved to the maximum possible extent. If objectives of cooperatives may be well achieved, the qualities of imagination, initiative and courage are to be brought forth in leaders and potential leaders. The trained leaders by their example and action can change and improve situation in cooperative movement. A movement needs different types of leaders at different stages of its development: inspirators, innovators, interpreters, educators, coordinators and evaluators. For example, Swedish cooperative leader Albin Johansson and Danish cooperative leader Severin Jørgensen may be considered as inspirators and innovators who initiated and pioneered cooperative movement in their own countries.

A distinction is often made between traditional leadership based on factors like caste, kinship, economic status and modern leadership based on education and functional efficiency. A study on cooperative leadership in two districts of India conducted by Vaikunth Mehta National Institute of Cooperative Management, Poona shows that traditional factors are still predominant in determining the position of leaders. The training and education may encourage modern leadership. However, in the absence of inner transformation of the society in general, it is very difficult to accelerate this change, through education alone.

Importance of Cooperative Leadership: Prof. Gadgil in his paper on "An Integrated Cooperative System" hopes that such a system can be achieved and used to the advantage of weaker section in the society. According to him,

it can mainly be achieved through honest and dedicated cooperative leadership. In absence of such a development in cooperative leadership, the movement will completely tarnish its image among the public. He very aptly states:

"There is today a crisis. Something has to be done about it. Existing cooperative organisation and thought cannot serve our purpose. We must put forth the type of leadership, the type of thinking and also determine the direction which we really want in the future. I am afraid that unless we do this the blind faith in the cooperatives which is still persisting in the Indian public opinion may not be retained some years after".

Psychology of Leadership: Basic to sound leadership is an understanding of human social needs. They are :

- (i) Activity and Variety
- (ii) Basic achievement needs
 - security of status and desire for power
 - sense of personal worth
 - sense of participation
 - group membership.
- (iii) Secondary achievement needs
 - personal development
 - release from emotional tension
 - service to community.

Characteristics of successful leaders: Surveys of studies on leadership conducted in the U.S.A. showed the following personal factors which may be attributed to the success in leadership function:

- Capacity : (social intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality and judgement.)
- Achievement: (scholarship, knowledge, perseverance and accomplishment.)
- Responsiveness: (activity, sociability, cooperation, adaptability, humor, sympathy and empathy)
- Status: (social-economic position, popularity)
- Situation: (mental level, status, skills, needs and interests of followers, objectives to be achieved.)

The vision of the leader must be broader and constantly broadening.

He has to have a courage, judgement, sympathy for his fellows and faith in cooperation.

Methods of Leadership : According to the types of leaders there are three main methods of leadership as given below :-

1. Autocratic Leadership : The leader mainly seeks obedience from his group. He determines policy and considers decision making a one man operation.

2. 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. The leader's job is largely that of moderator.
3. Free-reign Leadership: The leader is more or less an information booth. 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.

Usually the autocratic leader works on groups, the laissez-faire leader works for groups and the democratic leader thinks of himself as working with and within groups. The democratic leader prefers atmosphere and persons to organisational structure.

It is generally said that democratic leadership is the best. But the experience, especially in developing societies, shows that some times autocratic or free-reign leadership may function under exceptional circumstances. However, for the cooperative movement the democratic type of leadership has been found most suitable.

Leadership functions are :

1. Defining and clarifying goals.
2. Determining progress in relation to the goals.
3. Selecting the appropriate procedures.
4. Maintaining the group.
5. Helping members to participate effectively..

Techniques of Leadership:

Stimulate People to Right Action by

- (1) Managing the People You Director.
- (2) Making your Advice Get Results.
- (3) Presenting Effective Training.
- (4) Correcting People's Mistakes.

- (5) Inducing People to Try Harder.
- (6) Encouraging People to Think.
- (7) Giving Instructions and Orders.
- (8) Improving Confidence and Morale.

Strengthen and Increase Your Prestige

By

- (1) Recognizing your Responsibilities.
- (2) Adjusting Your Personal Outlook.
- (3) Developing Estimates of People.
- (4) Securing Active Cooperation.
- (5) Getting Along with Your Boss.
- (6) Gaining Recognition and Credit.
- (7) Creating a Favourable Reputation.

LEADING AND BOSSING

In order to be a democratic leader, it is important to know the difference between a 'boss' and 'leader'. It can be said that a boss can also have some characteristics of democratic leadership. On the other hand a leader can behave like a boss. However, there is a distinct difference between behaviour patterns of the two types of persons, which is given below :-

The Boss

- + Drives his men
- + Counts on authority.
- + Keeps them guessing fearful.
- + Talks about "I".
- + Says "get here on time".
- + Finds blame for breakdowns
- + Knows how it is done
- + Makes work a drudgery.
- + Says, "Go".

The Leader

- + Coaches his men.
- + Gets their good will.
- + Arouses their enthusiasm.
- + Makes it "We"
- + Gets there ahead of time.
- + Fixes the breakdown.
- + Shows how it is done.
- + Makes work a game.
- + Says, "Let's go".

Evaluate your Leadership

It will be better for leaders to test their effectiveness and development. Some simple tests are available to measure leadership qualities. Some of the testing devices have been constructed by psychologists and these are used in laboratories conducted on Human Relations and Group Development.

The Role of Cooperative Unions in Leadership Development

1. The unions which are promotional leaders should attract talented people towards Cooperative Movement and train them in various tasks.
2. They should study local situations and encourage right type leaders. Especially young leaders should get adequate attention and publicity. The question of specifying some qualifications for leaders of cooperative institutions may be given due consideration.
3. The Unions should conduct educational and training programmes for existing leaders and executives. They should also encourage member societies to have planned educational and leadership development programmes.
4. The Unions should also have information and consultancy services in cooperative education, management and related matters, for member societies and other educational institutions.

Selected References

- Airan, J.W. The Nature of Leadership
- A Practical Approach. Bombay, Lalvani Publishing House,
1969, pp. 186
- Bellows, Roger Creative Leadership
N.J. Prentice Hall, Inc. 1961, pp. 338
- Dinesh, C. Cooperative Leadership and Management - An Empirical
Approach, Poona, V.M. National Institute of Cooperative
Management. 1970, pp.92, Rs. 8/-.
- D. Vir Manual for Study Circle Leaders (Revised) 1969,
New Delhi, ICA Regional Office & Education Centre.
- D. Vir Students' Cooperatives and Cooperative Youth
Work, 1970, New Delhi, ICA Regional Office &
Education Centre, pp. 6 (mimeographed).
- D. Vir Development of Cooperative Leadership Among Youth
published in COOPERATOR, New Delhi, National
Cooperative Union of India, 1970.
- Gordon, Thomas. Group Centred Leadership; a way releasing the creative
power of groups. Boston, Houghton Mifflin, XII, p.366
- Hutchinson, Corl R. Teachers' Manual for Study Circles
New Delhi, National Cooperative Union of India, 1966,
pp. 388
- I.C.A. Cooperative Leadership in South-East Asia. Bombay,
Asia Publishing House, 1963 pp.134
(A collection of papers read at the Seminar on
Cooperative Leadership in South East Asia held at
New Delhi, November, 1960.)
- I.C.A. Report of the Experts' Conference on Cooperative
Member Education.
(held at Kuala Lumpur April 7-14, 1968), New Delhi,
ICA Regional Office & Education Centre.

- I.C.A. Report of the Seminar Continuation on Cooperative Leadership And Management. (held at Bangkok, June 23 - July 6, 1969) New Delhi, ICA Regional Office & Education Centre, pp 24 (mimeographed)
- I.C.A./UNESCO International Conference of Cooperative Education Leaders (Report) held at Jongny Sur Veyey, Nov 30 to Dec.5,1970 (mimeographed limited circulated).
- Laird, D.A. and Laird E.C. The Technique of Handling People. Eleven Helps for your Human Relations New York, McGraw Hill Book Co. Inc,1954, pp 189.
- Merrifield C.W. (Ed.) Leadership in Voluntary Enterprise, New York, Oceana Publications, Inc., 1961 pp 432.
- Murphy G. & Naik, Chitra. Leadership in Educational Administration, New Delhi, Ministry of Education, 1957, p.22
- Roskill, S.W. The Art of Leadership. London, Collins, 1965 pp 191.
- Sahai, B.N. (Ed.L.P.Vidyarthi) Leaders for Development Programme in Leadership in India. Bombay, Asia Publishing House, 1967.
- Sahai, B.N. Leadership Conflict and Development Programme, in "Change and Conflict in Indian Society",1967 (Ed.L.P.Vidyarthi)
- Sen,Lalit K. Opinion Leaders in India. National Institute of Community Development, Hyderabad, 1969.
- Taylor, J.W. How to Select & Develop Leaders. N.Y. McGraw Hill, p. 262
- Uris, Auren. How to be a Successful Leader, New York, McGraw Hill Inc., 1953, pp. 239
- Wetherill Richard W. How to Get Leadership and Influence Toronto, D. Van Nostrand Co. Inc., 1950, pp. 353

17th Nov.1971

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATIVE ALLIANCE
Regional Office & Education Centre
for South-East Asia, P.O.Box 3312
43, Friends' Colony, New Delhi-14
India.

SOME SIMPLE TECHNIQUES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Dr. Dharm Vir
Joint Director (Education)
ICA, New Delhi

Definition of a Group:

According to Taylor, a group is defined as a unit possessing the following basic characteristics :-

- (a) It consists of two or more people;
- (b) there is interaction and communication between the members;
- (c) there are one or more symbolic objects present; e.g. the objects and principles of cooperation; the motto of "all for each & each for all",
- (d) each person has some kind of relation with other members and one or more symbolic objects, e.g. in the executive of a club or association, and
- (e) they have unit awareness, viz. among the board members of a well run cooperative society.

Why Groups Fail:

Most failures in groups are due to one or more of the following reasons :

- (1) The atmosphere inhibits group action, e.g. in a teacher-oriented class.
- (2) The group is not composed of the right combination of persons. Their objects and interests differ too much .
- (3) The members lack skills in playing their respective roles.
- (4) The organisation is not suitable for accomplishing desired purpose. For example, cooperatives being mainly business organisations are less suitable for political or charitable purposes.

Diagnosis of a Group:

Sociability of individual members and social climate of a group can be measured with the help of psychological tests and sociometric techniques. For example, the teacher of a class may ask his students to name three most popular classmates in order of their preference. He may ask each individual student to note down these names on a slip of plain paper and hand it over to him. The students may write confidentially three names in order of popularity and they need not put their names on the slips to avoid identification and consequent unpleasantness. These slips duly completed should immediately be collected by the teacher in the class itself. The results of data collected from students may be analysed and if necessary results announced in the class. Use of such a technique will arouse much interest in the class and will lead to improvement in the social perception of students.

There are other techniques in which some social indicators are listed to show characteristics of democratic leaders or integrative Vs. Disintegrative tendencies in a group. The indicators written on separate cards are mixed up at random and then the students are asked to classify them according to given instructions. Such games have been found highly interesting and useful for group work in the class. The specialists in business management use several types of "business games" in their training programmes and involve their students in the educational process.

Objectives of Group Development:

Some of the objectives which can be achieved through group development techniques are as follows :-

- (1) To make the members of a group interact and participate in an educational activity.
- (2) To make the members understand that each of them can be more effective when they belong to a group.
- (3) To develop in them ability to express their ideas and communicate effectively in a small or large group.
- (4) To develop interest in group work, and social outlook.
- (5) To develop democratic values and social attitudes among members and thus promote cooperative leadership.
- (6) To develop ability to think quickly, clearly and critically.

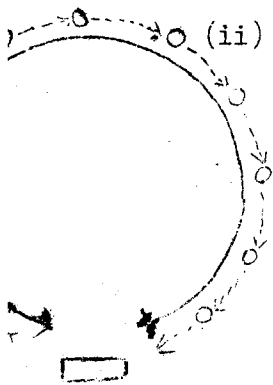
Techniques of Group Development:

Some of the important techniques of group development are discussed briefly in the following account. These techniques are :-

"Problem Census", "circular response", "agenda building", and "brain storming", "Be-Hive" or "Buzz Groups", "Problem Solving", and "Role Playing". The evaluation has also been discussed as one of the techniques which can help in the assessment of group activity and ultimately in group development.

I. Problem Census

- (i) A teacher may ask specific questions in order to know the exact problems, e.g. what are your difficulties in getting loans from the local cooperative?



- (ii) For collection of problems, the technique of 'circular response' may be used. According to it, the group members are asked to sit in a circle, facing each other. The teacher then asks students one by one to give answer. He may start clockwise or anticlockwise, and complete the circle. However, he does not force any of his student to give a reply. He should write down in brief the problems enumerated on the blackboard, without much discussion.
- (iii) Classification of problems: The problems collected should be clarified and classified according to the purpose. For example, problems which can be solved by students can be put in one group.
- (iv) Giving priority to problems (agenda building): Out of the problems classified, important ones should be selected and put in shape of agenda for further discussion.

II. The technique of Problem Solving should ensure the following steps :

- (1) Identification of the real problem e.g. farmers pay more when they are not organised.
- (2) Collection of facts and relevant figures for solving problems, e.g. the rate of interest charged by private traders, and by the cooperative societies, etc.

- (3) Analysis & Projection: Finding out suitable solutions (through brain-storming, buzz groups, etc., to be discussed later).
- (4) Decision Making: Selection of suitable means out of the alternative ways to solve the problems e.g. organization of a thrift and credit society, and education of members for that purpose. The technique of 'role playing' may help in focussing on problems in implementing a decision.
- (5) Action e.g. calling a meeting of active farmers with the help of the local cooperative educators, and deciding to have study circle on bye-laws of a thrift and credit society.
- (6) Evaluation of results: whether members participate in the meetings of study circle and are ready to organize a thrift and credit society.

III. Brain Storming:

Members of the group are asked to suggest solutions to the problems identified. They should be encouraged to give their solutions spontaneously, without much reference to their limitations, 'ifs' and 'buts'. No body should be allowed to judge or laugh at any one for giving impractical suggestions. The teacher may say 'wilder the better'. It is better to record all the suggestions on black-board as fast as possible, possibly with the assistance of one of the members of the group. In this way a list of solutions can be collected by storming the brains of students. There should be a time-limit fixed for each session (4-5 minutes).

IV. An example of "Role Playing" : (time allowed: 10 minutes)

There has been serious mismanagement in the local thrift and loan society. This has been revealed partly in the regular process of supervising the activities of the society, partly by a series of complaints by different members to the Cooperative Department. Some of the complaints are :

- (1) The chairman uses the cash of the society for his own purpose. (Example: when the auditor asked the society's cash to be produced (395.75) he produced four notes of 100 each and said the society's money was included in the 400).

- (2) The accounts of the society are not written regularly, (a member of the managing committee asked for the cash-book to be shown to him and it was found that the book was not written for 3 months).
- (3) The general body meeting of the society was not called in time as per usual practice.
- (4) There are 80% arrears of loans due from members. No action has been taken against such members who have not repaid last year's loans. New loans have been given only to a few members known to the chairman even though they had not paid last year's arrears.
- (5) The society has not been able to complete the building, the amount for which was sanctioned last year. Government subsidy for the purpose has not been drawn so far although it was sanctioned a year ago.

A Cooperative Officer visits the society and the meeting of the executive committee is held. One complaining member has been called to explain his grievances at the meeting. One of the members is assigned the role of the cooperative officer, 2 others amongst them are chairman and secretary of the society, and some of the participants act as committee members. Whatever happens at the meeting is observed by rest of the members. Soon after the role playing session, the observing participants are asked to give their comments about the behaviour of role players and lesson derived from the session.

The purpose of this illustration is to show a method whereby it is possible to effectively teach the members the importance of active member control and make them understand some of the issues involved in the effective operation of the society. The most important result is that the members perceive social relationship better by playing different roles and thus experiencing the feelings of others and appreciating their points of view. One or two members of the participating group may be appointed by the teacher as special observers to watch the functioning of the group.

"Be-Hive" (approximate time allowed:5-6 minutes) An Example:

A cooperative society is faced with the problems of insufficient utilization of its marketing facilities. The members do not send their produce regularly but often sell it through other channels. The general body has on its agenda a discussion of this problem. The managing committee is anxious to know more adequately the members' own reasons for not utilizing the services of the society to the desirable extent.

An Education Officer from the district cooperative union has come to the general body meeting to help discuss the problem with the members. He decides to divide, at random, the members present in the meeting into 5 groups. The groups are asked to elect their own chairmen and secretaries and find out the main reasons of their non-patronage to cooperative society. The groups are expected to work separately but in proximity with each other so that their 'buzzing' sound may accelerate the work of different groups. After 5-6 minutes the groups assemble again in the general session. Each group has to give within 10 minutes the main reasons for the non-patronage of members to the cooperative society.

One of the purposes of this demonstration is to show how a cooperative educator can evoke a lively response from his audience in a general body meeting where conventional methods, such as lectures, often fail to produce member participation.

Evaluation:

Assessment of educational programme can be either internal or external. It can be a combination of both. By internal evaluation we mean that the participants and organizers in the programme together assess their achievements and failures so that performance of both parties could be improved by gaining insight into problems and through refreshed approach for solving these problems. This type of evaluation should be encouraged in cooperative education programmes. Internal evaluation should be periodic and final.

It is necessary to define in advance the immediate objective, intermediary goals and final aims of any educational programme, before the educational programme is evaluated with the help of several

methods. Internal evaluation, if conducted properly, makes the group increasingly active and responsible.

Sometimes, groups of students can be given group tasks such as, discussion on a question of common concern, enactment of a play, group singing, picnic study forum etc. The task should be common to all the groups, so that the performance of one group may be compared with other groups with the help of common criteria. If a group achieves a score in assessment, say 15 out of 20, then each member of that group should receive 15 scores. The inter-group comparison will generate competitiveness and ultimately cohesiveness within each group.

References

- D. Vir : Manual For Study Circle Leaders (Revised) 1969, New Delhi, ICA Regional Office & Education Centre
- D. Vir : Participative Methods of Member Education, New Delhi, ICA Regional Office & Education Centre (mimeographed)
- M. Ahmed (Ed) : "COOPERATION" Jan-June, 1964 (Half yearly) Dacca, "Sanabaya", 9/D, Motijheel Commercial Area.
- Methods and Techniques of Workers' Education (Report of the Workshop on Workers' Education held in New Delhi April 11-17, 1971), New Delhi, Indian Adult Education Association, 1960, pp 87.
- Taylor, H.F. : Balance in Small Groups, New York, Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, 1970, pp. 321

PART - II

FARM GUIDANCE THROUGH AGRICULTURAL COOPERATIVES

Dharm Vir &
Shiro Futagami

1. A Regional Seminar on Farm Guidance Activities of Agricultural Cooperatives was held from 29th September to 17th October, 1969 at Seoul in collaboration with the National Agricultural Cooperative Federation of the Republic of Korea and (for study visits in Japan) with the Central Union of Agricultural Cooperatives of Japan. The Seminar started with the study visits in Japan. The seminar was attended by 28 delegates and observers from Ceylon, India, Iran, Japan, Republic of Korea, Nepal, Philippines, Thailand, F.A.O. and I.L.O. One of the features of the seminar was the use of three case studies on approaches used in farm guidance work in Japan, Republic of Korea and India. These case studies were prepared and presented by the experts from the countries concerned. During their study visits in Japan and Korea, the two agricultural cooperatives on which case studies were prepared and circulated were visited by the seminar participants for first-hand knowledge and detailed discussions.

2. Farm Guidance is agricultural advisory services through cooperatives integrated with credit, supply, marketing and other activities of cooperatives. The concept of farm guidance was conceived from the experiences of Japanese agricultural cooperatives. Farm guidance is indispensable to an integrated approach of multi-purpose cooperatives.

3. In most of the countries, agricultural advisory services are undertaken by the government through its agricultural extension offices and the contents of such government agricultural extension programmes may vary from country to country. However, it may be mentioned that most of these governmental extension works are rather confined to the technical aspect of agricultural production such as

improved production techniques, use of improved inputs, etc, with a view to increasing agricultural production. However, it was often found that such extension work had not made desired impact on the improvement of agriculture or farmers' economy. The important thing is that there will be no positive response from the farmers who are the persons to decide on the practical application of new production techniques unless more attention is paid, along with extension work for such techniques, to the economic aspects of such application with proper provision of facilities such as credit, supply, marketing etc, so that the farmers may be ensured of better economic return out of their increased produce.

4. In pre-war Japan agricultural advisory service was undertaken by separate organisation supported financially by the government. But after the World War II, agricultural cooperatives re-started under the new Agricultural Cooperative Act with an objective of increasing agricultural productivity as well as economic and social standard of farmers. Hence, the guidance service was newly added to the traditional activities of agricultural cooperatives. Such services are to give advices to the farmers in order to raise the economic and social conditions of farm households, which may include both production and living aspects of farmers. Therefore, guidance services of agricultural cooperatives in Japan are divided into two : guidance on farm management improvement and guidance on home-life improvement, and the former is called as farm guidance. In multipurpose cooperatives in Japan, agricultural services are well integrated with their economic activities through farm guidance service. This has enabled the cooperatives to formulate and implement their business programmes. Thus the farm guidance is based in the context of cooperative agricultural advisory service for the improvement of farm management of individual farmers with an emphasis on its economic aspects while the agricultural extension service is referred to governmental agricultural advisory service on production techniques.

5. The main objective of farm guidance activities of agricultural cooperatives is to create an interest and willingness among farmers to improve their farm management and for this purpose the society has to

extend assistance to farmers in an integrated way in the field of finance, supply of production material, marketing techniques and farm management guidance. Farm guidance activities may include various aspects of agricultural management. Agricultural cooperatives should decide the priority areas and establish closer collaboration and coordination with all other institutions concerned. An important pre-requisite for successful farm guidance is the existence of a common policy on farm management improvement. On the basis of such a common policy, better integration and coordination will be established.

6. The important task of agricultural cooperatives is to change the simple reproduction process of agriculture into one of dynamic and expansive production. Therefore farm guidance activities of such cooperatives must be a process of implementation of programmes for agricultural modernisation and education.

7. The major elements of farm guidance through cooperatives concerned in the seminar were :

the agricultural policy of the government; land improvement schemes; research and socio-economic surveys; the selection of Crops to be produced and the question of bulk production; the production and management programme of the whole village and that of individual farmers; the standardisation of the quality of agricultural produce and agricultural inputs; the formation of commodity groups; joint utilization of machinery and labour; planned production and protection, and joint marketing techniques; the improvement of production techniques of farmers and the reduction of production costs: joint cost production, grading and checking facilities; a plan for farm management and life improvement; cooperative member education and information; and trained personnel.

8. It was agreed that for the formulation of a guidance programme and its successful implementation cooperatives should obtain information and data at appropriate levels and preferably in joint collaboration with national organisations. As a beginning modern calculating machines and

office equipment should be used by well-trained staff to expedite the task of collecting relevant information and data.

9. The seminar was of the opinion that the following steps should be taken by a society for formulating regional production plans in a country. The farm guidance activities should be based on such plans as well as the business plans of local cooperatives:

- (1) Survey the capability of the society, etc.
- (2) Convey the results of such survey to the members.
- (3) Select crops, which could be grown with best benefit to the farmers.
- (4) Assist in the implementation of the farm production plans of the farmers.
- (5) Arrange for credit, supply of agricultural inputs, provision of other services, storage, etc.
- (6) Arrange for the installation of processing plants.
- (7) Arrange for proper communications to facilitate supply and marketing.
- (8) Arrange for trained farm guidance advisers.
- (9) Educate the farmers.
- (10) Form commodity groups and select leaders of such groups.
- (11) Arrange for coordination amongst the Extension Officers of the government and of the society.

10. The seminar discussed the organizational structure, funds required, methods and techniques for farm guidance through cooperatives and recommended several measures in this behalf. The seminar also discussed the setting up of commodity groups in the cooperative societies. An outline for the Experimental Project on Farm Guidance developed during the Seminar is enclosed.

11. It was considered that the commodity group mentioned above is an answer to the perpetual conflict of single-purpose vis. multipurpose cooperatives and avoids the necessity of a farmer joining several societies. A commodity group encourages member involvement interest maintained throughout the year. It polarizes leadership and at the same time disperses leadership tasks among many. It facilitates the propagation of new ideas and the adoption of new practices. It simplifies record keeping by the farmers themselves. A commodity group can lead to joint action at farm level, and also to the development of specialized services which aid production, e.g. raising of chicks up to a certain period. It facilitates specialization by the cooperative farm guidance staff and rationalizes the use of credit (supervised credit) and facilitates the recovery of loans, concentrates capital in profitable lines of production rather than dispersing limited resources. It makes possible price stabilization over several years of the production cycle. In Japan this is achieved through the monthly salary or long-term average payment system. It facilitates the work of Cooperative Federations.

12. The seminar felt that only an agency which can integrate agricultural research, education of personnel and extension for rural areas in shape of farm guidance will success in solving farmers' problems and making effective contribution to agricultural development. Cooperatives can be an organisation which may integrate and coordinate efforts in this field and effectively contribute to agricultural development. It is only through an efficient combination of research and farm guidance especially through agricultural cooperatives that possible plateaus and declines in agricultural development could be foreseen and the upward trend made to last longer.

13. The seminar discussed the role of different agencies in planning and implementation of farm guidance activities in an integrated manner through agricultural cooperatives. It was suggested that coordination committees consisting of representatives from relevant agencies should be formed at different levels.

14. The seminar also considered the role of various international organisations. It was felt that there is a need for closer coordination among these agencies in the field of financial and technical assistance for cooperative development. In addition, all the agencies implementing agricultural or rural development should have departments for research and evaluation to assist planning, implementation and constant evaluation of their programmes. Assistance (technical or financial) needed from international organisations in planning and implementing projects on Farm Guidance was indicated. Technical Assistance from international organisations may concentrate in the areas like supply of equipment, grant of fellowships, assistance in research and preparation of case studies on the systems of farm guidance through cooperatives in selected countries, and securing of experts. The participants strongly felt that international organisations concerned should coordinate their activities in the field of cooperative farm guidance and management improvement through the ICA so that they may be more effective in implementation of field projects.

15. The international agencies should pool their funds and other resources to conduct experimental projects and research and evaluation programmes of common interest. Recently the F.A.O., I.L.O., I.C.A., and IFAP have agreed to have a Liaison Committee and a Joint Programme in the field of technical assistance to agriculture. It may also promote some projects in the field of agricultural education and consultancy work, particularly in the management of cooperative enterprises. It was recommended by the Seminar that after assessing the work of the above Liaison Committee at international level, a similar committee should be formed by the organizations concerned for the South-East Asian Region.

16. The seminar also noted that quite a few research studies of an applied type have been made of farmers' problems. Some pilot projects on farm guidance activities through agricultural cooperatives should be undertaken in different countries of South-East Asia. Research and evaluation must be made an integral part of such projects.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATIVE ALLIANCE
Regional Office & Education Centre
for South-East Asia, P.O.Box
43, Friends' Colony, New Delhi-14.
India.

gs/17.8.1971

An Outline for the Experimental Project on FARM GUIDANCE

through Agricultural Cooperatives in South-East Asia based on the recommendations of the I.C.A. Regional Seminar held in Seoul, in October 1969, is indicated below :

A. Objectives:

1. General objectives:

- (a) Improve the performance of the agricultural cooperatives.
- (b) Promote improvement of the standard of living of the farming community.
- (c) Contribute to the growth of the national economy.

2. Specific Objectives:

- (a) Increase efficiency of the farm units by involving the members of the community in farm planning and, for the purpose, provide inputs and services through cooperatives and other agencies.

This would include (i) conducting survey to assess the actual and potential resources i.e. physical, human and financial, and assessment of production capacity as related is the price structure and market demand, (ii) estimate of additional requirements and facilities which can be provided through cooperatives and other agencies; and (iii) relating to the commodity interest of farmers, formulate a farm plan and a budget based on the repaying capacity of the farm unit.

- (b) Improve the performance of individual farmers in terms of increased knowledge, new skills and changed attitudes.
- (c) To provide essential leadership training at different levels.

B. Organisation (indicated in Appendix - A)

A suitable number of primary cooperatives may be involved in the experimental projects. The sample of these cooperatives should be drawn from a compact area or economic region.

C. Functions of the Cooperatives

1. Survey and business planning and evaluation.
2. Credit-Loaning saving and recovery.
3. Supply: Production material and consumer goods.
4. Marketing: Cereals, livestock etc.
5. Education and farm guidance - guidance on farm management and home life improvement as well as member education.
6. Formation of servicing to commodity groups.
7. Coordination with relevant agencies.

D. Personnel:

1. Manager of an agricultural cooperative:
He should possess fair degree of cooperative knowledge and business administration with a view to implement successfully the day-to-day programme of the society under the general guidance of the Board of Directors.
2. Experts on specialised subjects: The Manager shall be assisted by a team of experts who should be well qualified preferably graduates and trained in their various branches of work i.e. production, marketing, supply including farm guidance. The number of experts will vary according to the size and viability of each society. Each multipurpose society to be involved in the experiment should appoint atleast one farm advisor.

The Seminar on Farm Guidance Activities of Agricultural Cooperatives was of the view that training of the personnel of the society should be given due importance. A cadre of cooperative personnel should be formed, wherever it does not exist, so that the farm guidance programme with its allied activities is implemented by the personnel of the movement itself. The practice of taking persons from the government department,

wherever in vogue should progressively be restricted. Legislation, if any, in the matter requires to be liberalised.

E. Funds:

The funds should be raised from the following sources :

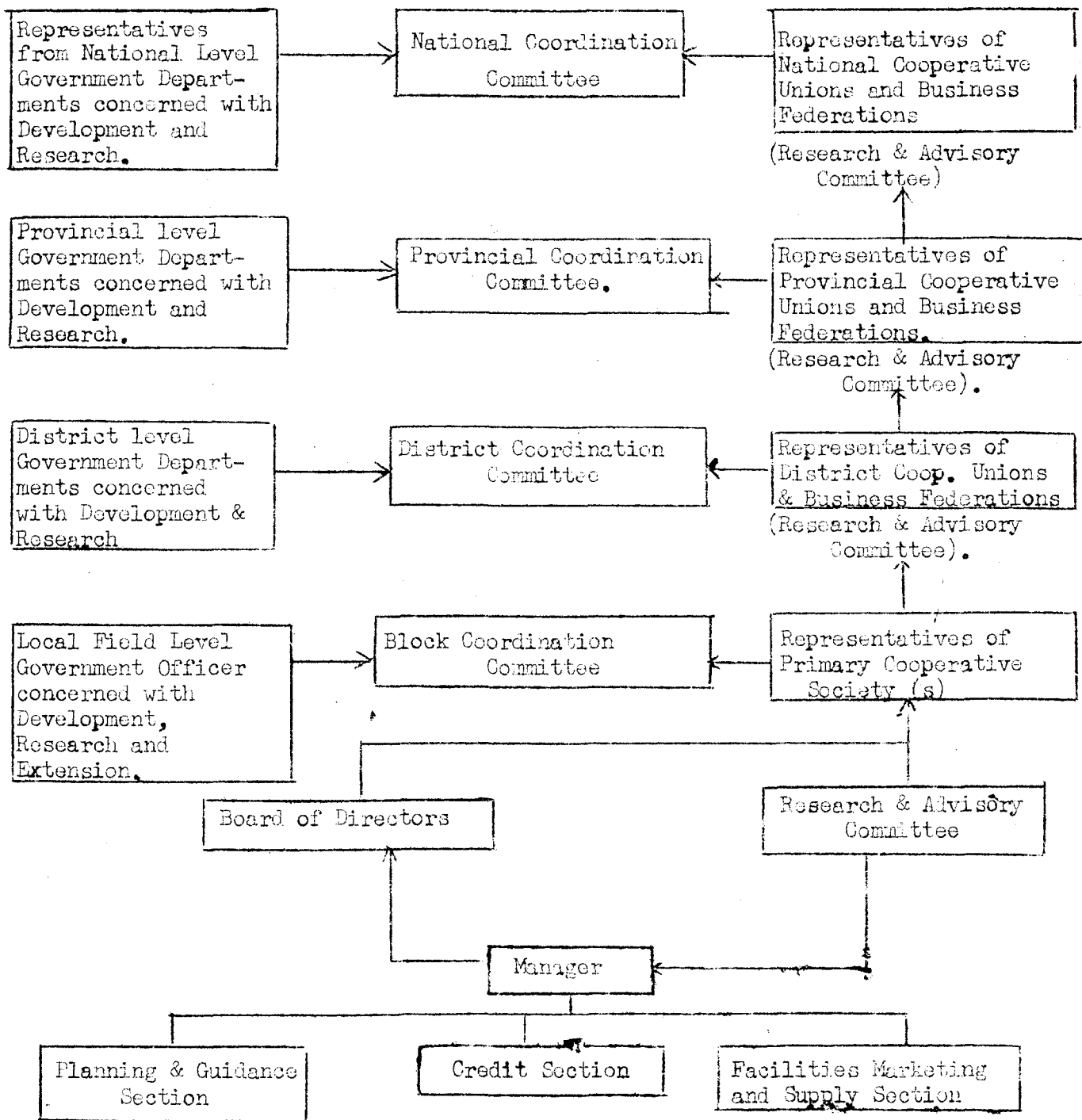
1. Share capital and other funds of the cooperatives.
(The societies should have their Education Funds).
2. Contribution of members for farm guidance activity.
3. Raising of rural deposits.
4. Loans from financing agencies.
5. Financial assistance in form of grants or subsidies from the government, cooperative unions and federations till such time that the agricultural cooperative societies become financially self-reliant.

F. Evaluation:

Evaluation should form an integral part of the pilot project with a view to assess the achievement and failures of the objectives set forth in advance. The lessons learned should be brought into the planning process of action programmes at an early stage.

.....

ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE FOR FARM GUIDANCE



COMMODITY GROUPS

(Study-Cum-Action Groups of Farmers)

METHODS OF FARMERS' EDUCATION

Dharm Vir, Ph.D.

INTRODUCTION:

1. Farm guidance is advanced type of farmers' education. Education is a planned process of human teaching and learning. It aims at a systematic and desirable change in individuals and their relation with others. Teaching is the process of arranging situations that stimulate and guide the learning activity towards the goals that specified desired changes in the behaviour of people. Essentially, teaching consists of providing opportunities to learners to pay attention to important aspects of the things to be learned, develop their interest, arouse their desire and take suitable action to solve their problems. Teaching methods are the devices used to create such situations which are conducive to effective communication between the teacher and the learner.
2. It is usually said that if learners have not learned the teacher has not taught. It means, teaching to be **successful**, should result into effective learning experience. From the psychological angle, a learning experience is the mental or physical reaction one makes through his behaviour (e.g. seeing, hearing or doing things) and thus develops understanding of and proficiency in the things learned. According to the process of diffusion in learning, people normally have to go through the following stages of mental development before a new idea is accepted and put into practice.

1. Awareness - to know that the idea exists.
2. Interest - to become interested in it.
3. Assessment- to decide whether or not the new idea is useful and practicable.
4. Trial - to try out the idea, usually in a small way and see the results.
5. Adoption - to change to the new practice or a set of practices.

3. An effective learning can take place in suitable situation which is constituted of the following factors :

- (a) trained teachers, with clear objectives;
- (b) interested learners in a conducive environment;
- (c) upto-date subject matter;
- (d) teaching material and equipment; &
- (e) physical facilities.

As the farm guidance mainly aims at economic education of farmers and members of their households, the guidance workers have to ensure that all relevant elements of teaching-learning situation are present in their programmes and supporting facilities are made available to learners. They have to be proficient in technical knowledge, educational process, approach to farmers and use of educational methods and techniques. Last but not the least they are supposed to be effective co-ordinators for various services to be provided to farmers.

SOME APPROACHES TO FARMERS' EDUCATION:

Different approach to farm guidance have been adopted in different parts of the world. Some of these approaches are mentioned below :

4. An ideal approach toward farmers' education has been successfully tried out by the St. Francis Xavier University in the Maritime Province of Canada. The approach known as Antigonish Movement is based on the following principles :-

- (1) The social organisations must accept primacy of individuals and equality among them on a democratic basis.
- (2) Social reforms must come through education.
- (3) Education must begin with economic purposes and contents.
- (4) Education should be through group action.
- (5) Effective social reforms involves fundamental changes in social and economic institutions.
- (6) There should be full and abundant life for every one in the community.

Economic cooperation is the first step towards a just society which will permit every individual to develop to the utmost capacities within the frame work of good social order. Cooperative organisation is the inevitable result of a democratic people mobilised for economic betterment.

5. In United States, the Cooperative Extension Service is provided to the farmers jointly by the Land Grant Colleges, Universities and Government Agricultural Extension Agencies. It is a cooperative approach in the broadest sense, cooperatives as such are not necessarily co-sponsors of farmers' education programmes, which are mainly agricultural in content. However, farmers may be taught advantages and disadvantages of cooperative associations. These teachings sometimes lead to formation of cooperatives or professional associations of farmers and such as artificial breeding association, soil conservation districts, etc.

Some Extension Agencies have a cautious attitude toward teaching about cooperatives.

The formation of an association or organisation would not be desirable objective for adult farmer education in the public schools. It is, however, legitimate to teach in the public schools the advantages and disadvantages of cooperative associations. Helping farmers decide whether to have an

association is as legitimate as helping farmers decide varieties of hybrid corn to buy.

6. According to Sanders, the Cooperative Extension Education in the United States, largely contributed to three elements basically essential to the agriculture and culture of that country. These are:

- (a) abundance of food and fibre;
- (b) a family system that involves the home as an effective social and economic unit, and
- (c) a systematic process of leadership development.

7. It has been reported that the agricultural cooperative movement in Poland has struck deep roots in the life of Polish farmers. The progressive cooperatives are not only supplying articles of every day use, but are also propagators of new work methods, based on achievement of science and technology. Farming in Poland demands a modern technical bias and highly qualified workers. The cooperatives provide competent assistance and guidance in farming as well as in rural reconstruction work. Some cooperatives have become patrons of Polish folk art by propagating education and culture among the rural population, patronising gifted artists.

8. In Tanzania (East Africa) a new approach to adult education (including farm guidance) is being tried. The approach is based on revolutionizing the curricula of schools, colleges, radio and other adult education agencies. The element of self-help and vocational competence has been injected in the new approach. The I.C.A. office in East Africa and Cooperative Education Centre Moshi have been contributing towards it by organising correspondence and other training courses and special radio broadcasts for farmers and cooperative employees. The results of Tanzanian experiment indicates that adult education in developing countries must be concerned with the processes by which peasants increase their standard of living and decrease their heavy burden of hardships. It must also be concerned with national or regional

development on a cooperative basis, and prepare the peasantry for more effective participation in country's political and economic life.

9. Another good example of farming guidance activities by cooperatives to its members can be cited from Australia. The Westralian Farmers' Cooperative Ltd. (Wesfarmers) of Western Australia offers a wide range of services through a chain of country branches and agents, many of which are district cooperative organisations. The important adjuncts to this business is **property sales, finance facilities, insurance and farming guidance**. In serving the farmers, the cooperative has built up a specialist knowledge of areas and locations suited to varying types of farm operations. Expert advice from the cooperatives' agronomists, animal husbandry and grain-handling specialists help, thousands of farmers, increase their production and develop new land.

10. A successful approach to farmers' education has been by agricultural cooperatives in Japan. As all of us know that educational activities for improvement of farm management form the corner stone of the activities of agricultural cooperatives. They do not only deal with supply of credit or other requisites for farm production or sale of farm produce, but also play an active and sustained role in agricultural and household improvement programmes. The educational activities of agricultural cooperatives are popularly known as a Farm Management Guidance. As this approach is most relevant to cooperative development in the South-East Asian region, we may give it the name of "Cooperative Farm Guidance". This cooperative approach to the adult education has been discussed in detail elsewhere.

11. In developing countries of South-East Asian region, particularly in India and Pakistan there are several good examples of farm guidance under agricultural crop loan schemes. While India is noted for its intensive agricultural development areas (I.A.D.P.), Pakistan has its own

projects based on 'Comilla Approach' to Rural Development. Although these countries are on the verge of 'green revolution', much is to be done in the field of farmers' education. Such an extension education should have the following characteristics :

- (a) it must be largely informal and designed to bring understanding of problems to be solved;
- (b) it must, in most situations, contribute to improvement in rural living with which majority of people are concerned. To begin with it may emphasize agricultural productivity;
- (c) it must bring immediate satisfaction to individuals as well as contribute to long term goals;
- (d) it must inspire and assist individuals and groups to develop and carry out programmes to achieve goals they set for themselves.

It is hardly to be over-emphasized that cooperatives can give a yeo-man-service in providing and coordinating such an extension education for their member farmers and others.

METHODS AND TECHNIQUES:

12. The selection of methods of education depends on several factors, such as the objectives of the programme, quantity and quality of participants, contents to be conveyed and resources available. As we already know the teacher is most important factor in the effective use of methods. It is impossible to prescribe in general a set of methods for farm guidance work or farmers' education. Nevertheless, important methods have been classified according to the size of audience and are listed below under the Mass Teaching Methods, Group Teaching Methods and Individual Teaching Methods. Emphasis has been laid on the methods which are effective with small groups of adult participants which emphasise self-help.

MASS EDUCATIONAL METHODS:

13. These are mainly for the purpose of getting awareness and interest of people in some new ideas. They include the following mass media of communication :

- (a) Radio,
- (b) Television (to be supported by satellite communication system).
- (c) Wire-communication system,
- (d) Visual-aids, such as posters, charts, film shows, slide-shows etc.
- (e) Press & publicity material such as,
 - News Stories,
 - Feature Stories,
 - Newspaper columns,
 - Special news pages,
 - Bulletins, Leaflets and circulars,
 - Reaching people by direct mail, correspondence courses,
 - Campaigns.

GROUP EDUCATIONAL METHODS

14. Group methods assist people from awareness stage to the interest and some-times to the trial stages of accepting new / practices. They include the following methods. It is possible for the participants to ask questions, exchange ideas and stimulate each other to action, whenever a new idea is presented to them as a group.

Large Group Methods:

- (a) Method Demonstration.
- (b) Result Demonstration.
- (c) Meetings of farmers, combined with Method demonstration or Result Demonstrations, lectures, panel discussion, symposium, colloquy, etc.
- (d) Exhibitions, models, fairs and festivals.
- (e) Study tours and Field Days
- (f) Seminars and Workshops
- (g) Training courses, functional literacy classes, Residential courses, e.g. folk high schools, Vidyapeeths.
- (h) Contests and achievement days.
- (i) Dramas, role playing, creative dramatics, etc.

GROUP EDUCATIONAL METHODS (Small Groups).

15. It has been found effective to serve in local cooperatives, through :
- Advisory Groups,
 - Local leadership (model farmers)
 - clinics,
 - Short courses,
 - Study Groups,
 - Group discussions,
 - Commodity groups in Japan,
 - Tele-clubs & Radio Farm Forums as in India and other countries.
 - Voluntary and local leadership.
 - 4-H and YMW clubs
 - Home Demonstration.

INDIVIDUAL EDUCATIONAL METHODS:

16. Although **much** of extension teaching is done in groups, learning is an individual process. In many instances individual contacts with farmers are necessary to study the local situation and to get a farmer to adopt a new practice.

Individual Methods include the following :-

- (a) Visit of Guidance Workers to farms and homes;
- (b) Assistance in preparation of individual production plans;
- (c) Supervised credit programmes;
- (d) Correspondence courses;
- (e) Farmers' calls, to the offices of guidance agencies.

LOCAL LEADERSHIP METHOD:

17. This method is the use of leader-follower pattern existent in any community. Local leadership is utilised to reach a large number of farmers. The method involves locating, developing and utilising the local, functional and voluntary leadership.

This method is employed :

- (1) To put across a new idea in such a manner as to be accepted with least resistance.
- (2) To have local people with information or know-how who can carry on without the extension workers.
- (3) To develop local leaders who take on increasing responsibilities in conducting their own affairs and community work.

18. The following points are to be taken into consideration while employing this method :

- (1) Decide on specific duties to be performed by local leaders.
- (2) Select or elect local leaders. This could be achieved in the following ways:
 - (a) By individual contacts with the local people
 - (b) By assisting the local group to make intelligent selection, by explaining the function of the leader in relation to the job.
 - (c) By associating leaders suggested by panchayats, societies, Farmers' Forum, clubs, and other institutions and groups.
 - (d) By recognising the traditional, functional and potential leaders.
- (3) Give trial assignments to the leaders located before entrusting further responsibility.
- (4) Training the leaders in jobs by :
 - (a) running leader-training camps;
 - (b) acquainting them with details of leadership jobs and organisational procedures;
 - (c) teaching subject-matter;
 - (d) acquainting them with the sources of demonstration and study material;
 - (e) providing them with teaching aids;

- (f) involving them in planning and organising the village activities, such as study circles, farmers' meetings;
- (g) assisting them in conducting demonstrations, assembling materials and other preparatory work.

19. Follow up should be considered an integral part of leader training. Some suggestions for it are given below :-

- (1) Recognise leaders and honour them in public meetings.
- (2) Take the advice of the leaders on important issues.
- (3) Encourage the leaders to develop their own ideas and to start their own programmes.
- (4) Give them more and more responsibilities.
- (5) Invite them to participate in tours and meetings.
- (6) Let them lead visitors to a village.
- (7) Visit their village and appreciate their work.

20. Purposes: The extension activities that could be promoted by this method are :-

- (1) Teaching local people the knowledge acquired from extension workers, subject - matter training camps or other reliable sources.
- (2) Mobilising local initiative and resources and setting desirable and attainable objectives for the community.
- (3) Developing and maintaining local community organisations, such as cooperatives, Panchayats, etc. through programme planning and its effective implementation.

21. Advantages:

- (1) It multiplies or extends the efforts of an extension worker, i.e., reaches more people.
- (2) Since local leaders are trusted and followed, this method is effective in convincing rural people.
- (3) The ideas could be conveyed in the local language more appropriately by this method.

- (4) Saves the time of an extension worker.
- (5) Develops local leadership and self-help in the community.
- (6) Builds up cohesiveness in the community.
- (7) Builds up confidence and prestige of the community.
- (8) This is comparatively economical and creates a conducive atmosphere for other methods.
- (9) A good leader acts as a shock-absorber between the people and the extension agency when things go wrong.

22. Limitations:

- (1) Functional leaders are limited and their training is a tedious process.
- (2) False leadership and jealousy comes in the way of effectiveness of this method.
- (3) Leadership may be wanting in matters of literacy and competence.
- (4) It is a slow process until an effective group is developed.
- (5) Local leaders might use their prestige for personal gain.
- (6) Extension workers' personal contact with the people might become limited.

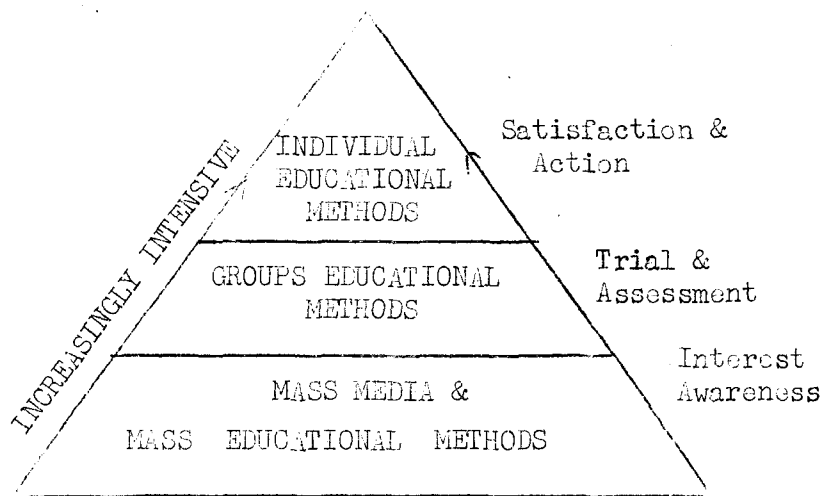
In spite of its limitations, it is advantageous to use local leadership method in farmers' education or farm guidance activities.

CONCLUSIONS:

23. It is obvious that no single method or technique can reach all people nor it can influence all if it does. Farm guidance workers must be proficient in the use of various methods of extension education. To achieve desired objectives they should be able to select, adapt and use a suitable combination of methods

and techniques. In general, people are influenced to make changes on their farms, in their homes and in their community in proportion to the number of exposures they experience in extension education. However, some people may respond quickly and while others may react slowly. This is because their background is different, so they are in the different stages of adoption. This calls for a continuous and practical type of extension education using a variety of methods, suitable to meet the educational objectives and contents set for different groups. The resources locally available should also be kept in mind while selecting educational methods.

24. The whole process of diffusion in relation to different methods of farm guidance mentioned in the paper can be illustrated in the diagram given below :



Paper presented by Dr Dharm Vir, at the Regional Seminar on "Farm Guidance Activities of Agricultural Cooperatives" held in Seoul, Republic of Korea, 1969.

21 Oct.1972

PARTICIPATIVE METHODS OF MEMBER EDUCATION

Dharm Vir, Ph.D

The scope of adult education is as wide as adult life itself and therefore methods employed by adult educators are varied. Cooperative Member Education is a type of adult education mainly orienting the members towards cooperative ideology and making them effective members of their cooperatives. As the effectiveness of any educational programme mostly lies in the methods we will try to locate suitable methods for member education in the following account.

The selection of a method of education depends on many factors, mainly the specific objective of education, the content to be conveyed and then nature of audience. One of the objectives of a member education programme may be the fostering of principles of economic democracy in the minds of members. The content may be the description of organisation and functioning of a successful cooperative organisation and the audience may be the members of a consumer cooperative society in a big town. If there are 50 to 60 members to be served a lecture followed by questions and answers may be arranged for them. They may be taken on a visit to the cooperative organisation as well. It may thus be seen that different methods can be employed in order to achieve any of the objectives of member education. Some of the methods may have more advantages than others. There may be more element of participation on the part of teachers and taught in some of the methods than others. It has been experienced that the educational method involving participants into their activities are definitely of superior, from the learning and interest stand point, to those methods in which participants remain mostly passive. Let us, therefore, examine the involving capacity of different methods which can be employed in the member education work. We may classify these

methods as participative and non-participative ones. Generally speaking, the following methods may be put in the category of participative methods :

1. Questions - answers (directly or through correspondence)
2. Group discussion, study circles, panel discussion, discussion forum v/s Debate,
3. Seminar, conference and workshop,
4. Drama, skits, role playing, group songs, etc.

1. The Question-answer method is a very common method of education. Much depends on framing the questions. A good question may provoke thinking and a bad question may lead to confusion or misunderstanding. The recent trend is to ask a short question in such a way that a short and definite answer comes out. Such an answer can be checked by a layman with the help of a key to the questions. The questions may be posed by a teacher or speaker to the audience and vice versa. They may be conveyed orally, transmitted through Radio or TV or communicated in black and white. The question answers are generally combined with lectures, talks, discussions and other methods of adult education. It may well be used in member education work, because the adult members are expected to have capacity to frame and understand good questions.

2. Group discussion is a very popular method of adult education. Just as a good question leads to a clear understanding of an issue, in the same way a good discussion not only contributes to a clear understanding but also to a democratic and logical decision. In group discussions even questions are discussed and sometimes challenged each member having a chance to express his opinion and to take part in decision-making. The method also helps in unearthing potential leaders and developing personality of the participants. An effective group discussion mostly depends on a trained and popular leader and rapporteur.

Since an average adult member is expected to have some ability to reason and express himself in a small group, the group discussion has been gainfully employed in member education. It has been seen that the quality of discussion is higher in the groups having higher standard of education and higher level of information

Panel discussion is another form of group discussion in which a group of experts attend to an audience and discuss with them the pros and cons of any complicated topic. The experts first read out their papers or make statements. The leader may conclude the discussion. Through this method the ordinary members may meet a number of experts at the same time and have their opinions on different aspects of any complicated issue relating to cooperatives. But it is difficult to collect many experts at a place and at the same time. Secondly, there should not be much gap between the understanding level of the experts and the audience.

In spite of the fact that debate has many weak points, it is used for cooperative education purposes. The debate may give rise to discussions for discussion sake and exaggerate the feeling of individual competition at the cost of cooperative group life. At the same time, debate creates enthusiasm among the participants and audience. But a debate may turn out to be a non-participative method of education, if the audience has simply to hear and admire arguments and burning speeches.

Seminars

Historically, seminars provided opportunities for a group of top people in a particular subject to get together and discuss the statements made by these selected persons to present their papers. They were called seminaries and only those who had the privilege of a very high degree of education could only dream of participation in such seminars. However, recently the word has acquired a wider meaning and the seminar method can now be used for member education, provided the membership are educated enough to understand the contents of the working paper.

Generally seminar involves the following processes:

- i. The organisers select a particular subject of interest to participants,
- ii. The working papers in the subject are carefully prepared bringing out the different issues under the subject,
- iii. The participants are divided into a number of small manageable groups for discussion on the working papers.

After the working paper has been discussed in the groups a report is made on behalf of each group to the general session (plenary session) of the seminar where another opportunity to discuss the issues raised in the working paper is given. At the end of discussions in the open session there is summing up by the director of the seminar. The summing up also remains open to discussion. In this way the participants get several opportunities to discuss the same issue.

When the number of members, say 50 to 60, seminar method can be used effectively. In this way seminar can serve as a tool of education and decision-making in a large group gathered at the district, state, national or even at international level. At the local level several cooperative societies together may organise a seminar for their members.

Drama

Drama is a well-known medium of cultural expression and means of recreation. It can be used very well for the educational purposes provided the participants are given different roles in the drama. In a traditional form of drama heavy preparations and more money are required. The staging is also too prolonged. These defects can be removed and the method is adaptable to the conditions of member education. The theme of drama may be related to the local conditions. It has been found not impossible that ordinary members write their own script for drama after training and then stage it.

Skit is a sort of one act play in which some idea or recreation is passed on the audience in an interesting way. Skit does not involve elaborate arrangements but needs interesting ideas from the organisers or members.

There are some modern forms of group techniques e.g. role playing, problem census, circular response, agenda building, brainstorming, buzz groups etc. They help in making the education processes more involving and participative. Some of the group work becomes problem centered.

Role playing is the technique of group work in which the members decide the theme of the play with the help of their leader. They do not write the manuscripts for the play but do assign role to be played by different members. Each player has to decide his dialogue and action

and then rehearsal may take place under the supervision of the leader. After one or two rehearsals the play is staged.

Since the theme is related to the social conditions of participants there is no need to have special dresses or dialogues crammed up. This type of role playing is also called creative dramatics because it not only gives the participants an opportunity to play different types of social roles but to express their creative talents and feeling as well. When the members play different types of social roles they cannot only understand but also experience the social conditions better. They also develop a feeling of cooperation.

It will be in the fitness of things to mention here some of the so-called non-participative methods of adult education. The following methods may be considered as non-participative ones because mostly they keep the audience as passive.

1. Lecture,
2. Radio talk
3. Film or TV shows,
4. Demonstration.

Individual reading may also be called a non-participative activity because mostly the reader is expected to read and grasp the ideas given. He does not get an opportunity to discuss these ideas with the author or others. The effectiveness of the methods mentioned above may be increased if they are combined with more participative methods already described. Such combinations have been worked out. Study circle method is the outcome of one of such combinations.

Generally, in study circle method we combine individual reading, group discussion, question-answer and correspondence course methods. Sometimes audio-visual aids like radio, demonstration, records etc. are also used. Even lectures can occasionally be arranged for the members of several study circles together. Due to this varying combination, the method has high educational value and the members have opportunity to learn from each other in a group and enjoy the advantage of face to face group life. It may not be over-emphasized that effective group life is the basis of democracy - economic or otherwise. Enlightened leadership emerging out of it helps in formation of healthy public opinion and logical decision-making.

THE STUDY CIRCLE METHOD - A TOOL OF RURAL EXTENSION

by

Dharm Vir, Ph.D.

Some of the main methods of adult education are training courses, individual study, group discussion, seminars and correspondence courses. All these methods, together with audio-visual aids, can be combined in such a way as to give a continuous, satisfactory and inexpensive educational programme. Often these methods are used separately for adult education purposes but have not been very successful in attracting large groups of adults and sustaining their interest. The study circle method is a fine combination of several methods of adult education. It creates a continuity in the educational programmes and ensures the active participation of the members. Since the method is being used successfully in advanced cooperative movements, let us examine its applicability to the conditions in developing countries.

What is a study circle?

A study circle usually consists of ten to fifteen members, meeting at weekly, fortnightly or monthly intervals over a specified period, in order to study a chosen topic and to discuss common problems. A topic is usually studied with the help of a booklet and/or a study guide especially prepared for circle studies.

The study guide is divided into a number of lessons, each dealing with a different aspect of the topic under study. Sometimes special study material or discussion sheet is prepared to deal with a topic, containing readable and well-illustrated text and also some questions to be answered. The study material may be accompanied by some visual aids. In this connection you might like to examine some study material prepared by the ICA Education Centre. The Delhi State Cooperative Union has also developed some study material for study circles and correspondence courses.

The members of the circle read the study material in their leisure time and assemble at a particular place and time for discussion on one of the lessons, under the guidance of a trained leader. They try to answer the questions given at the end of the lesson. The group answers are written in the answer book by the leader or the secretary of the group, after consultation with all the members. Sometimes individual members correspond with the teachers. The answer book is sent for checking to the teachers working in the central organisation. The teachers check the group answers and return the book. Thus, the study circle work forms a cycle which may be seen in the diagram (page 5).

INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK

Central Organisation

As shown in the diagram, the central organisation for study circle is the national or state cooperative union, in which the study circle section is located. The teachers employed at this section prepare study material and visual aids on various topics, help in training the leaders and guide study circles through correspondence. Sometimes they visit the local societies to acquaint themselves with their problems. Such visits help the teachers in producing more effective material and encourage the local societies in organising study circles.

It is responsibility of the central organisation to take the help of external agencies such as radio and television stations in conducting the member education programmes. The lessons of the study material may be broadcast on these mass media. The members of the study circles would then listen to the broadcasting programme and a group discussion would follow on the topics under study. After completing a study course, the members may be awarded certificates by the Central Organisation. The District Cooperative Unions and the Business Federation should have their own educational personnel to look after study circles and other educational activities. They will secure the cooperation of cooperative press in ventilating the problems being faced by members and their societies.

District Cooperative Union

As the leader of a study circle is essential for its efficient functioning, he needs training in conducting discussions and keeping the group together. Although the leader does not need to be an expert he should be fairly knowledgeable about the topic to be studied. Therefore, special training programmes may be organised by the district cooperative unions or to other corresponding bodies for such leaders, before a study circle course is introduced in the field. These leaders working

in a town or district should meet frequently and discuss common problems. Special seminars on important subjects may be organised by them from time to time. The Union may also sometimes arrange meetings of members from several study circles at convenient places. Their study circle leaders may be given some honour in such meetings.

The District level organisations and bigger cooperative societies having resources and personnel for extension and guidance work should depute their employees to act as resource persons for the study circles. They should also seek cooperation of other extension and service agencies.

Local Cooperative Societies

The local cooperative society should give publicity to the study circle courses and may decide to start one or several circles after consulting the members. The members may suggest leaders for conducting the circles. Such leaders are sent to the district cooperative union for training.

The societies may pay for the study material and miscellaneous expenses on study circles and supervise the work of the circles at the local level. They should, however, appoint an Education Secretary to coordinate study circle activities and look after other educational activities at the local level. The local society should also follow-up some of the common problems and assist the members in getting them solved.

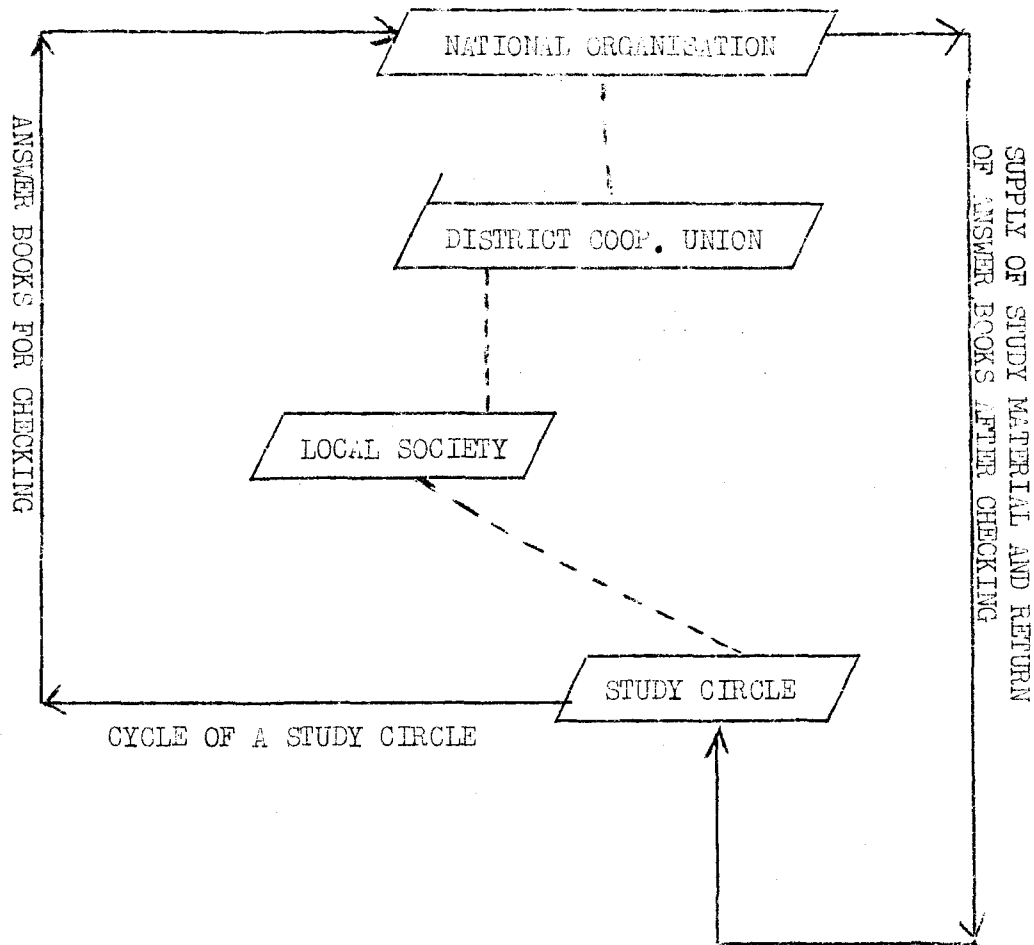
Study Circles

There may be several specialised study circles in a local cooperative to cater common needs and interests of different groups of members, such as, vegetable growers, women, youth etc. Each study circle consists of a leader, a Secretary and a number of members. The leader will organise the study circle on the chosen topic, lead the discussion and encourage active participation by the members. The Secretary should assist the leader in his work by arranging the group meetings and writing the group reports. The Secretary should also help in keeping contact with the teacher of the course. The group may choose its own leader and a Secretary.

The study circle meetings take place weekly or fortnightly for group study, discussions and question-answer work on the lesson under study. If some of the members have not read the lesson, it may be read aloud in the meeting. Reading aloud is particularly required for the illiterate members to whom the contents of the lesson may be further explained.

Members

The members of a study circle study the lesson in their free time and try to answer the given questions on their own. In addition to his individual study, a member may be requested to read out the lesson to an illiterate member of the circle. The members should also be encouraged to discuss their common problems, take necessary decisions and action and assess the results of the efforts made. In case of problem solving by a group emphasis should remain on self-help and mutual help among members and development of local leadership.



Limitations:

It has been found that many study circles could not be run on a continuous basis in the countries of South-East Asia. The main reasons for these failures are: lack of trained leaders and educational personnel, absence of organisational structure for organising servicing and publicising study circles. There also exists general apathy and low levels of education among members. Finally, too much has been expected from this method alone, whereas vested interests in many cooperatives have discouraged or sabotaged educational activities through study circles and other means.

SUMMARY

Study circle is a democratic method of adult education. From the organisational point of view, it is an intimate group of members organised by the members for the benefit of members and their cooperatives. In brief, a study circle is a small group of 10-15 persons,

who meet regularly in their spare-time, to discuss common problems or study a subject of common interest, under the guidance of democratic leader, and with the help of study material and resource persons.

Sometimes, content for group study and discussion is also conveyed through mass media of communication, such as radio, T.V. press etc.

A TOOL OF RURAL EXTENSION

1. At present the study circle method is used mainly for member education of active members including the office bearers of local cooperative societies. Some of the problems related to their business are also discussed and solutions found. However, the method has the potentiality of covering the main socio-economic questions of the village as a whole. It can also conveniently be combined with other methods of rural extension.
2. In order to cover the whole adult population in a village, we will have to find out the common needs and interests of different groups and cater them accordingly. For example, the villagers can be grouped into the following categories :
 - (a) farmers growing food crops, cash crops, fruits, vegetables, etc.
 - (b) women;
 - (c) children and youth;
 - (d) artizans;
 - (e) landless labourers, unemployed or semi-employed persons.

3. In countries of South-East Asia, multipurpose cooperatives in villages should be able to cater well the main needs of the first category of population. However, special organisations would be needed to serve other categories such as women, landless labourers and unemployed people. Close coordination among different extension agencies is essential for service of rural families as units of production.

4. Experience in India shows that it is very difficult to achieve coordination among different agencies particularly at the local level. Efforts were, therefore, made to integrate them in the government sponsored community development blocks and Intensive Agricultural Development Programmes (I.A.D.P.) areas.

5. Another approach to integration can be under the auspices of local multi-purpose cooperatives which should develop their business plans on the basis of the common needs and interests of their members. These cooperatives should also provide for member education including agricultural extension. Such an integration will be more purposeful, economical and democratic. As a matter of their basic principles, these cooperatives are expected to make provisions for education of their members as well as of employees and general public. Of course, cooperatives are selective in their approach and they will take some time in providing comprehensive services to rural population.

6. A good example of cooperative rural extension work can be taken from Japan, where most of the local cooperatives are multi-purpose. They provide farmer members with all types of services, such as production credit, banking and insurance facilities. Even social facilities e.g. for cooperative marriages are also provided in the premises of local cooperatives.

7. In their business functions these cooperatives include education of members and their families. Agricultural specialists are employed by them to provide members with farming guidance services. They also employ youth and woman workers on a part-time or full-time basis, to serve young farmers and housewives. Mass media of communication e.g. press films, radio, televisions, two-way wire communication facilities are available to these cooperatives for publicity, education and farming guidance work.

8. The Central Union of Agricultural Cooperatives in Japan are Prefectural (State) Level federations of agricultural cooperatives actively assist their member cooperatives in conducting comprehensive extension programmes in an integrated manner. The government extension agencies and adult education associations channelise most of their efforts through the local cooperatives. It may be noted that this integration in rural extension work has been achieved in Japan after experimentation with other approaches.

Conclusion:

There are several things to learn from the Japanese experience in the field of agriculture. First, the rural cooperatives must diversify their business and make themselves more popular in rural areas. Second, they should increasingly undertake farm guidance and other educational programmes for their farmer members and their families. Third, the government can channelise most of its extension activities through cooperatives. Finally, local population can be classified in small interest groups and served by their own organisations such as cooperatives in an integrated manner. These groups can effectively be served through study circles combined with other suitable methods and techniques.

(The paper presented at the National Seminar on Integrated Rural Extension held at the Ramakrishna Vidyalaya, Rural Institute, Coimbatore (India) from 27th to 29th November, 1968).

EVALUATION IN COOPERATIVE TRAINING

BY
Dharm Vir, Ph.D.

I. In the field of education, evaluation is a systematic and objective assessment of activities and programmes as a whole. The evaluation can be both qualitative and quantitative. It can be continuous periodic and final. If properly used, it is an important tool of education and the very process of evaluation can be made educational. It is this process of educational evaluation which will be emphasised in this paper.

Evaluation as a part of the educational process is the professional affair of teachers and educationists. However, evaluation is also conducted by planners, administrators, and external agencies such as Government departments and special committees constituted for the purpose. A comprehensive plan of evaluation takes into account educational as well as administrative aspects. The main purpose of evaluation should always be self-improvement and improvement in the effectiveness of an educational programme.

II. The Process:

An evaluation is conducted in terms of objectives laid down for the programme, and it measures the effectiveness of the programme against a set of criteria. It means that criteria should be defined in measurable terms. The scientific measurement tends to be quantitative and objective. However, the element of subjectivity remains, especially in judging qualitative aspects of any programme. Finally, the psychological process what is called objective judgement is the most important part of an evaluation programme. The process of evaluation involves the following steps.

- i. Determination of objectives of the programme,
- ii. Setting of criteria
- iii. Collection of data (facts and figures)
- iv. Analysis of data,
- v. Interpretation of data
- vi. Reporting of results,
- vii. Application of results and recommendations,
- viii. Further research and evaluation.

III. Evaluation at different levels:

Educational evaluation programmes are generally conducted at different levels, some of these are :

- i. Trainees' and Teachers' level,
- ii. Training course as a whole,
- iii. Training institution as a whole
- iv. Training programmes at the national, regional and international levels.

The evaluation of trainees will be dealt with in detail in the succeeding account.

IV. Evaluation of Trainees

Evaluation in a training situation is a term somewhat different from mere measurement or examination. The latter implies only a rather precise quantitative assessment of the outcome of training whereas evaluation relates to a wider, more comprehensive and sustained process of assessing trainees' progress. According to this approach evaluation is integrated with the whole task of training, and its main purpose becomes to improve training and not merely to measure its achievement. In its highest sense, evaluation brings out the factors that are inherent in trainee's growth such as proper attitudes and habits, manipulative skills, interests, appreciations and understandings, in addition to the conventional acquisition of knowledge.

V. Defining Objectives:

Educational objectives are the changes and improvements a teacher wishes to produce in his trainees. The changes that are expected to take place through training can be in the following areas :

- Knowledge and understandings
- Skills and abilities
- Interests and appreciations
- Attitudes

The broad objectives can be further specified in terms of classroom teaching or lesson planning. For example, the specific objective of a training lesson may be to make trainees understand the revised principles of Cooperation, or to enable trainees to handle stock-taking of a cooperative store. To achieve an objective, relevant experiences are given to trainees. To illustrate, a trainee may be asked to discuss

the difference between the old set of principles of Cooperation and the ones recently approved by the International Cooperative Congress. In other case, teachers may arrange for their trainees to handle practical stock-taking of a local consumer store. Learning by experience is designed to bring about pre-planned changes in trainees. As the programme proceeds teachers have to make frequent checks to find out the extent, or degree, to which changes are taking place. Unless desirable changes are seen occurring in trainees, the training programme cannot be called successful. Thus, it can be seen that evaluation is not an extension of the usual written examination in a subject, nor it is a means for judging the competence of individual teachers. One cannot pass judgement on trainees or their teachers by just testing them at the end of a course of instruction. The changes occur over a period of time, and therefore, no single appraisal can tell us adequately of the result. It is, therefore, necessary to determine the status of a trainee at the starting point. Then, at periodical intervals, evaluations have to be made.

VI. Evaluation in Cooperative Training:

As regards the examination system prevailing in cooperative training centres, the draft report of Principals' Conference organised by the ICA at Dacca (East Pakistan) in 1964 reads as follows :

11. "The end of the Course examination is only one method of assessing the trainees. But it will not be possible to judge the trainee correctly by such examination results. It is absolutely necessary for the members of the staff of training centre to develop free and close relations with the trainees by giving continuous assignments, examining their work from time to time and giving constructive criticism of the work done by them so that the trainee has a chance to improve his approach and technique from time to time."

Keeping the above remarks in view let us think of methods and techniques of evaluation relevant to cooperative training programmes.

VII. Methods and Techniques

i) Written examinations: These are generally conducted with the help of essay-type tests. Efforts are being made in a few training centres to supplement essay-type question-papers with objective types

of tests. The written tests are useful in measuring achievements in knowledge ability to analyse a problem critically, or to recall and organise relatively large amounts of material. The written examinations are conducted periodically in many cooperative training institutions. However, some sort of written examination should be conducted before the course begins, so that the progress because of training may be measured accurately.

In some institutions the case method is used to train employees in the process of making objective judgements and evaluate their abilities to handle life-size problems. This method should be tried in South-East Asia.

The essay-type written examinations give a fairly good indication of the abilities to express oneself through writing, but they do not objectively and adequately measure knowledge. It is also difficult and more expensive to judge the essay-type answers. The objective type of tests should be developed for use in cooperative training programmes.

ii) Oral Examinations

Oral examinations are used to test knowledge and to supplement written examinations. They also give an indication about the trainee's ability to express himself in face to face situation.

iii) Practical Examinations

Practical examinations are used to test manipulative skills. For example, a trainee or a group may be asked to prepare a management development programme for a large-size marketing society. Alternatively, they may be asked, in the examination situation, to prepare a duty chart for their employees. Evaluation of practical work can also be made through study circles or workshops during the training course. Through such a group work, skills to do a job as well as leadership qualities of trainees can be judged.

An examination of trainee's productions e.g. a visual aid or book-review prepared by him also gives an idea of his abilities, aptitudes and achievements. Some time the material produced by a group is judged and compared with that of other groups in the training situation. It would be worth-while to encourage evaluation of

such group activities and develop suitable devices for measurement. It will encourage group activities and team spirit among the participants.

iv) Observation:

Systematic observation provides evidence on the trainee's level of intellectual and emotional maturity and also on his social adjustment. This device is also useful in checking the growth of habits and manipulative skills. Careful observations and recording of evidence are invaluable in forming judgements about trainees.

v) Interviews

Interviews with trainees, individually or in group, can help the teachers in securing evidence concerning growth of interests aspirations and problems of trainees. In a cooperative training programme, it is important for a teacher to know about the motivation level and problems of trainees. Hence, individual interviews with them may be conducted. It may be mentioned that in the West Pakistan Cooperative College individual interviews with trainees are conducted as a part of the training programme.

vi) Questionnaires:

Questionnaires, check-lists and sometimes standardised tests can be used to collect evidence about abilities, growth of interests and attitudes.

Mailed questionnaires are used to follow up the trainees activities in this field, after completion of the training programmes.

vii) Records:

Cumulative records maintained by teachers is a device which assists the teacher to discover the growth of trainees' in different directions. Such a record for each trainee is being maintained by some of the Cooperative Colleges in the Region.

Library records and anecdotal records of individual trainees are additional indicators of their interests and personality development. An anecdotal record is the teachers' description of significant trainee's behaviour in an incident or critical situation.

A training programme affects trainees in several ways, and therefore, different methods and techniques are used to assess their achievements. It will be very useful to record in a systematic way these achievements, along with observations of teachers. To achieve this end, a cumulative record card can be maintained by a training institution for each trainee.

viii) Follow up:

Evaluation of trainees is not complete unless it is seen how they can apply their knowledge and skills to their work. They should also show more favourable attitude towards their cooperatives and take interest in further training. Finally they should be able to judge objectively their own progress before it is assessed by others. To achieve this end, the trainees should be involved in the evaluation process during the training programme itself. A mailed questionnaire was issued by the ICA Education Centre to follow up the activities of participants of several of its seminars held in the Region. The response to questionnaire was very limited.

The ICA Regional Office and Education Centre held follow-up meetings on a limited scale. In 1968, a follow-up meeting of the former ICA Fellows was held at Penang (Malaysia) to discuss their achievements and also the effectiveness of the Fellowship Programme. Some of the fellows also attended the Experts' Conference on Member Education proposed to be held in Malaysia in 1968, and thus refreshed their knowledge gained during their participation in the Fellowship Programme.

Such follow-up meetings may also be used to promote the activities of other trainees who might have made outstanding contributions in the field.

VIII. A System of Evaluation:

Qualitative remarks and quantitative marks are used to assess the status of trainee in his class or training institution. It will be convenient if the following records are maintained for each training course.

- i) Teachers' Diaries about trainees work.
- ii) Attendance Register
- iii) Results-Sheets of formal examinations
(Written, Oral, Practical, etc.)
- iv) Results-sheet of Group Projects.

After the mid-term or final evaluation programme is over the qualitative remarks may be turned into quantitative marks and entered into individual cumulative record cards along with other quantitative marks. The total marks may give an idea about the positions of trainees in the class. These positions may be graded and final results prepared. It may be noted that all the aspects of a trainee's personality cannot be quantified and weighed objectively. Hence, the cumulative card can help us in giving an estimate only. These marks are to be supplemented by qualitative remarks and results of follow-up activities.

On the basis of evaluation, certificates may be issued to the successful candidates. Nevertheless, special training programme should be prepared for those who could not complete the training course successfully, (candidates securing less than 40% aggregate marks).

IX. Some Points for Considerations

The system of evaluation discussed above may seem to be too elaborate for orientation, short-term, and refresher courses. It may also not work effectively in correspondence courses. However, the utility of the system may be judged in terms of basic and advanced courses conducted by different cooperative training institutions. It may be noted that the I.C.A. Fellowship Programme was a course of advanced training.

Second certificates are generally issued by training institutions to their successful trainees. However, this approach has not been found very effective. To secure certificates, trainees work hard and afterwards they generally fail to apply their knowledge and skills in their work. Therefore, issue of formal certificates are sometimes not encouraged. Third, the question of giving individual and group rewards to trainees may be discussed. One way of encouraging group activities may be to divide trainees into small groups and assign them with a group project. For example, they may be asked to have group discussions, debates, picnics, outings, socials, etc. In debates it has been found difficult to arouse group feelings and develop team spirit.

Each group may be given marks according to its performance on the group project. Then, one group can be compared with another. Through group projects it is possible to organise competitions at higher levels. The individual trainees should get the same marks as his group has got. This system of marking should encourage individual trainee to participate effectively in group activities. The last but not least the question of follow up of the ex-trainees should be discussed in the Seminar.
