

**Post Graduate Diploma in Agricultural Extension
Management (PGDAEM)**

AEM-102

Communication of Agricultural Innovations

(3 Credits)



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AEM-102

Communication of Agricultural Innovations **(3 Credits)**

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Unit-1

Concept, Meaning, Process and Factors Affecting Communication

Structure

- 1.0. Objectives
- 1.1. Introduction
- 1.2. Concepts of communication
- 1.3. Meaning of communication
- 1.4. Process of communication
- 1.5. Factors affecting communication

1.0 Objectives

After studying this unit, the reader should be able

- to Understand the concept and meaning of communication
- to know the process of communication
- to understand the factors affecting communication

1.1. Introduction

Communication is sharing information by observing, listening, speaking, writing etc. People communicate in many ways, including talking by moving their hands and even by making faces. People also use telephone calls and letters for personal communication. Without communication parents would not know what their children need. Teachers could not help their students learn. People could not share knowledge. Each person would have to learn everything for himself or herself. Friends could not make plans with one another. Infact human beings probably could not survive for long without communicating each other.

Mass communication is another important type of communication to send message to large audience. Books are one of the oldest methods of mass communication. Television is one of the networks. Newspaper and radio are other ways that information can be sent to many people. Modern nations probably could not exist without mass communication.

For example, in the morning when Mr. X. enters his office he reads his incoming mail (written communication). In sorting his mail he found a number of pamphlets which are designed to describe the merits of various business machines (pictorial communication). Through the open window the faint noise of a radio is heard, as the voice of an announcer clearly praises the quality of a brand of toothpaste (spoken communication).

When his secretary enters the room she gives him a cheerful “good morning” which he acknowledges with a friendly nod of his head (gestural communication) while he continues with his conversation on the telephone (spoken communication) with a business associate. Later in the morning he dictates a number of letters to his secretary, then he holds a committee meeting (group communication), where he gathers the advice of his associates. In this meeting a number of new governmental regulations (mass communication) and their effect upon the policies of the firm are discussed. Later in the meeting a resolution to the employees of the firm concerning the annual bonus (mass and group communication) is considered.

After the committee has adjourned, Mr. X, engaged in thoughts concerning unfinished business (communication with self), slowly crosses the street to his restaurant for lunch. On the way he sees his friend Mr. Y, who in a great hurry enters the same luncheon place (communication through action), and Mr. X decides to sit by himself rather than to join his friend, who will probably gulp down his coffee and hurry on (communication with self). While waiting, Mr. X studies the menu (communication through printed word) but the odour of a juicy steak deflects his gaze (chemical communication); it is so appetizing that he orders one himself.

After lunch he decides to buy a pair of gloves. He enters a men's store and with the tips of his fingers carefully examines the various qualities of leather (communication through touch). After leisurely concluding the purchase, he decides to take the afternoon off and to escort his son on a promised trip to the zoo. On the way there, son, watching his father drive through the streets, asks him why he always stops at a red light and why he does not stop at a green light (communication by visual symbol). As they approach the zoo, an ambulance screams down the street, and Mr. X pulls over to the side of the road and stops (communication by sound). As they sit there he explains to his son that the church across the street is the oldest in the state, built many years ago, and still standing as a landmark in the community (communication through material culture).

After paying admission to the zoo (communication through action), they leisurely stroll over to visit the elephants. Here his son laughs at the antics of an elephant who sprays water through his trunk at one of the spectators (communication through action), sending him into near flight. Later on in the afternoon Mr. X yields to the pressure of his son, and they enter a movie house to see a cartoon (communication through pictures). Arriving home, Mr. X dresses in order to attend a formal dinner and theater performance (communication through the arts).

1.2. Concepts of communication

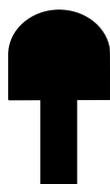
- 1.2.1. Communication is the process by which two or more people exchange ideas, facts, feelings or impressions in ways that each gains a common understanding of the meaning, intent and use of message (Leagans, 1960)
- 1.2.2. Communication is the discriminatory response of an organism to stimulus (Berlo 1966).
- 1.2.3. Communication is the process by which the message is transmitted from the source to the receiver (Rogers, 1983)

1.3. Meaning of communication:

Communication was a Latin root 'communis' which means common – It also requires a degree of commonness between individuals for communication to occur. The purpose of communication is to establish commonness. Communication, thus refers to the process of sharing information, feeling ideas in a manner that there is common understanding of meaning, intent and use of the message.

Communication involves the complete transfer of an idea or thought from one's mind to that of another. It is not, therefore, enough if you tell the farm people about a new idea. They must hear it, understand it and remember it. In other words, communication is telling someone something in such a manner that he gets it. People get an idea when they receive it through one or more of their senses – when they are seeing, hearing, smelling, feeling, tasting. When they get it, you say that your communication has produced a interest in them and it leads them to think and to act.

Communication is the process of unfolding understanding and meaning. It is about achieving a communion of understanding – a coming together in mind. If understanding has not occurred, communication has not happened. I am reminded of the enthusiastic tourist in a foreign country who drew a mushroom, like this.



to indicate his need to the waiter for mushroom soup. The waiter nodded his head, rushed off and returned with an umbrella. These two certainly did not come together in mind. So while ideas and feelings were expressed, communication did not happen. Whatever its purpose, every communication involves atleast two entities or people- a sender and receiver. One person or entity alone cannot communicate. You might well ask what about a person who is talking to himself? In that case also there is one part of his mind talking to the other:

1.4. Process of communication

Most of us are familiar with the five-step process occurring between a sender and receiver when they communicate

Communication being a process, requires at least two persons – a sender and a receiver – irrespective of the mode of communication. The sender conceives the idea, gives it a shape, decides the mode of communication which may be used to convey the idea, and conveys it. The receiver receives it, tries to understand it, and finally takes an action which may be either to store the information or to send the message to the original source or take any other line of action as required by the source. The whole process, discussed as follows:

1.5. Factors affecting communication:

The communication task thus consists of the skillful handling of six key elements. These elements will now be considered in the light of the guides already mentioned and in an attempt to show their singular function, their relationship to each other and how they are to be dealt with in the total process of communication for rural development.

The successful communication requires a skillful communicator sending a useful message through proper channels effectively treated to an appropriate audience that responds as desired. Extension Worker is the communicator who starts the process of communication. The extension worker and mass media like radio are sometimes visualized as sources or originators of messages, which is not correct. Knowledge generates through research and as such the Research Institutes, Research Projects, Universities are the originators of sources of message. The extension worker obtains the required information from research and carries it to the audience, the farmers. The extension worker is the communicator, a carrier of information. To enhance the process, extension workers may take the help of some aids, known as audio-visual aids. They also carry back the reactions of the farmers, their problems etc. as feedback information

to research, for finding out solutions for the same and the six factors are discussed in details bellow.

1.5.1. Communicator

A good Communicator knows

- i. The objectives specifically defined;
- ii. the audience – needs, interests, abilities;
- iii. the message – concept, validity, usefulness, importance;
- iv. channels that will reach the audience;
- v. organization and treatment of the message;
- vi. the professional abilities and limitations

The Communicator is interested in:

- i. the audience welfare;
- ii. the message and how it can help people;
- iii. the results of communication and their evaluation;
- iv. the communication channels –use and limitations;
- v. improvement of the communication skill.

The Communicator prepares

- i. a plan for communication – a teaching plan;
- ii. Communication materials and equipments;
- iii. a plan for evaluation of results.

The Communicator has skill in

- i. Selecting messages;
- ii. Treating messages;
- iii. Expressing messages;
- iv. the selection and use of channels;
- v. understanding the audience;
- vi. collecting evidence of results.

1.5.2. Message

Messages which are relevant, interesting, useful, profitable, credible (latest and best, based on research findings) and complete (neither too much, nor too little) are likely to motivate the people. A good message clearly state what to do, how to do, when to do and what would be result.

A good message should be.....

- i. in line with the objective to be attained
- ii. clear, understandable by the audience
- iii. in line with the mental, social economic and physical capabilities of the audience;
- iv. significant – economically, socially or aesthetically to the needs, interest and values of the audience
- v. covering only one point at a time
- vi. scientifically sound, factual and current
- vii. timely - important and issues are current
- viii. appropriate to the channel selected
- ix. appealing and attractive to the audience
- x. applicable –to one’s own particular situation
- xi. manageable – can be handled by the communicator and within the limits of time

1.5.3: Channel

Channel of communication constitutes the medium through which information flows from a sender to one or more receivers. Face-to-face, word-of-mouth is the simplest and yet one of the most widely used and effective means of communication, particularly for the developing countries. The channels of communication may be classified into a number of ways according to different criteria.

According to form

Spoken: Farm and home visit, farmer's call, meetings, radio talk ec.,

Written: Personal letter, farm publications, newspaper etc.

According to nature of personal involved

Personal localite: They are the local leaders and local people who belong to the receivers own social system. Personal localite channels are important in traditional social system

Personal cosmopolite: These are the channels of communication from outside the social system of the receiver. They are the extension agents of various organizations and are important in changing the farmers from traditional to modern.

According to nature of contact with the people

Individual contact: The extension agent communicates with the people individually, maintaining separate identify of each person. Examples are farm and home visit, farmer's call, personal letter etc.

Group contact: The extension agent communicates with the people in groups and not as individual persons. Examples are group meeting, small group training, field day or farmer's day, study tour etc.

Mass contact: The extension agent communicates with a mass of people, without taking into consideration their individual or group identity. Examples are mass meeting, campaign, exhibition, radio, television etc.

Many obstructions can enter channels. These are often referred to as 'noise' that prevents the message from being heard by or carried over clearly to the audience. 'Noise' emerges from a wide range of sources and causes. The following are some of them

1. Failure of channel to reach the intended audience
2. Failure on the part of the communicator to handle channels skillfully
3. Failure to send channels appropriate objective of a communicator.
4. Failure of an audience to listen or look carefully.
5. Failure to use channels enough in parallel.
6. Use of too many channels in series.

To help overcome some of the problems of communication, one should take the following factors into account:

- i. The specific objective of the message
- ii. The nature of the message – degree of directness versus abstractness, level of difficulty, scope, timing etc.,
- iii. The audience – size, need, interest, knowledge of the subject etc.
- iv. Channels available that will reach the audience, or parts of it
- v. How channels can be combined and used in parallel
- vi. Relative cost of channels in relation to anticipated effectiveness
- vii. Time available to the communicator and to the audience
- viii. Extent of seeing, hearing or doing that is necessary to get the message through; and
- ix. Extent of cumulative effect or impact on the audience necessary to promote action

1.5.4. Treatment of message

Treatment means the way a message is handled, dealt with, so that the information gets across to the audience. It relates to the technique or details of procedure or manner of performance, essential to effective presentation of the message. The purpose of treatment is to make the message clear, understandable and realistic to the audience

Treatment usually requires original thinking, deep insight into the principles of human behaviour and skill in creating and using refined techniques of message presentation. The following are the three categories of bases useful for varying treatment

Matters of general organization

- i. repetition of frequency of mention of ideas and concepts
- ii. contrast of ideas

- iii. chronological – compared to logical and psychological
- iv. presenting one side compared to two sides of an issue
- v. emotional compared to logical appeals
- vi. starting with strong arguments compared to saving them until the end of presentation
- vii. proceeding from the general to the specific and vice-versa and
- viii. explicitly drawing conclusions compared to leaving conclusions implicit for the audience to draw

Matters of speaking and acting

- i. Limit the scope of presentation to a few basic ideas and to the time allotted
- ii. Be yourself –you can't be anyone else, strive to be clear, not clever
- iii. Don't tread your speech – people have more respect for a communicator who talks to the audience
- iv. Know the audience – each audience has its own personality, be responsive to it
- v. Avoid being condescending (patronizing) do not talk or act down to people, or over their heads. Good treatment of message results in hitting the target.
- vi. Decide on the dramatic effect desired – effective treatment requires sincerity, smoothness, enthusiasm warmth, flexibility and appropriateness of voice, gestures, movements and tempo
- vii. Use alternative communicators when appropriate, as in group discussion, panels, interviews etc.
- viii. Quit on time-communicators who stop when they have 'finished' are rewarded by audience goodwill

Matters of symbol variation and devices for representing ideas

Spoken words, written materials, audio-visual aids etc. belong to this category

1.5.5. Audience

An audience may consist of a single person or a number of persons. It may comprise men, women and youth. An audience may be formed according to occupation groups such as crop farmers, fruit farmers, dairymen, poultry keepers, fish farmers,

home makers etc. Audience may also be categorized according to farm size such as marginal, small, medium or big farmers; or according to whether they belong to scheduled caste, scheduled tribe etc.,

The attitude of the audience toward the message largely depends upon who gives what message through which channel; to what extent the content of the message satisfy their needs and intentions; to what measures the suggestions contained in the message are in line with their preheld experiences and preexisting preferences; and how far the message is compatible with group norms and value system to which the audience belongs.

The communicator should, therefore, be careful in selecting message which are relevant to the audience, choose channels compatible to their cultural pattern and make treatment of the message appropriate to their levels of interest and understanding.

In addition to knowing the identity of an audience and some of its general characteristics, there are other somewhat more specified aspects that help to clarify the exact nature of an audience and how to reach it. The following are some of these

- i. Communication channels established by the social organization
- ii. The system of values held by the audience - what they think is important
- iii. Forces influencing group conformity - custom, tradition etc.
- iv. Individual personally factors - change proneness etc.
- v. Native and acquired abilities
- vi. Educational, economic and social levels
- vii. Pressure of occupational responsibility - how busy or concerned they are;
- viii. People's needs as they see them, and as the professional communicators see them;
- ix. Why the audience is in need of changed ways of thinking, feeling and doing; and
- x. How the audience views the situation

1.5.6. Audience response:

Response of the audience is the ultimate objective of any communication function. Response of an audience to messages received may be in the form of some kind of action, mental or physical. Until the desired action results, extension communication does not achieve its most essential objective.

The possible kinds of response to messages received are almost infinite. The following gives an idea of possible variety in response that may result when a useful message is received by a typical village audience

- i. **Understanding versus knowledge:** People usually do not act on facts alone, but only when understanding of facts is gained. Understanding is attained only when one is able to attach meaning to facts, see the relationship of facts to each other and to the problem. Communication must promote understanding
- ii. **Acceptance versus rejection:** Audience response may be either way. Communication should lead to understanding and acceptance of the idea
- iii. **Remembering versus forgetting:** When opportunity for action is not immediately available or action is delayed, the message may be forgotten. Transmitting the right message to the right people at right time is often a crucial factor in successful communication
- iv. **Mental versus physical action:** Changes in the minds of the people must always precede changes in the action by hands. People should not only understand and accept the message but shall also act on it; and
- v. **Right versus wrong:** The goal of communication is to promote desirable action by the audience as specified in the objective. If the response of the audience is in line with the objective, it is assumed to be 'right' action. However, 'noise' may prevent in getting the desired response from the audience.



Unit-2

Models of Communication

Structure

- 2.0. Objectives
- 2.1. Introduction
- 2.2. Concepts of model
- 2.3. Purpose of models
- 2.4. Models of communication

2.0. Objectives

After studying this unit, the student should be able to

- define what is a model
- Know the purposes of models
- Explain the different models of communication

2.1. Introduction:

Models are symbolic representations of structures, objects or operations. They are useful theoretical constructs that are frequently used in social sciences for explanatory purposes. They may be used to show the size, shape or relationship of various parts or components of an object or process. A model may also be useful in explaining the working of a system.

2.2. Concepts of model

- i. It is representation of the process of communication in the same sense that a blueprint is a representation of house
- ii. Models are symbolic representations of structures, objects or operations

2.3. Purpose of models

Communication models serve three main purposes

- i. they describe the process of communication
- ii. they visually show relationship among the variables involved in communication and
- iii. they aid in finding and in correcting communication problems

2.4. Models of communication

2.4.1. Berlo's model

According to Berlo (1960) the model of communication consists of

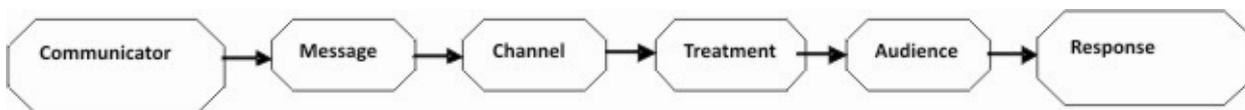


Berlo's Model

1. Code is a system of signals for communication.
2. Encode means to put the message into code.
3. Channel means the medium through which the signals move.
4. Decoder means which converts the message in the code into ordinary language which may be easily understood.

2.4.2. Leagan's model

The communication model given by Leagans (1963) has the following elements-



Leagan's Model

The task of communication, according to him is to provide powerful incentives for change. Success at this task requires thorough understanding of the six elements of communication, a skillful communicator sending useful message through proper channel, effectively treated, to an appropriate audience that responds as desired.

Unit-3

Key communicators – Identification and their role in Agricultural Development Process

Structure

- 3.0. Objective
- 3.1. Introduction
- 3.2. Identification methods of key communicators
- 3.3. Characteristics of key communicators
- 3.4. Role of key communicators

3.0. Objectives

After going through this unit, you will be in a position to

- Define key communicator
- the identification methods in a social system
- discuss role of key communicators in agriculture development process

3.1. Introduction

Key communicators or opinion leaders are persons in any social system who are sought out for information and advice on general or specific topics. Rogers and Kinoid (1981) define opinion leadership as the degree to which an individual is able to informally influence other's knowledge, attitudes, or overt behaviour in a desired way with relative frequency. It is assumed that such persons are respected persons in each social system to whom some people look for advice and information and who through such consultations, influence their behaviour and actions.

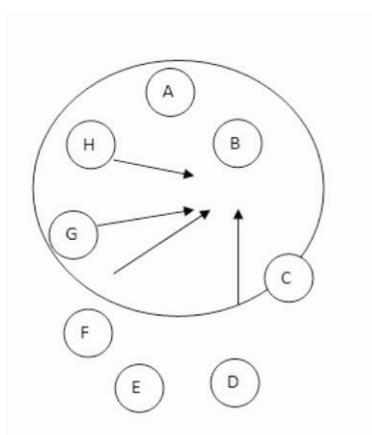
The concept of key communication was first developed by Katz & Lazarfield etal (1944). Since then they have been variously called as fashion leaders, influencers, information leaders, opinion leaders, spark plugs, style-setters, gate keepers etc. However, all these names have been used more or less for individuals operating in a social system who are more important in the communication of information than others.

3.2. Identification methods of key informants

Three important methods are in common use for identifying key-informants. These methods are:

3.2.1. Sociometric method:

This method is very useful to the Extension Workers in finding out the natural or local or informal leaders in the villages, who are the influential persons that help in the introduction and popularization of new, improved practices in their communities or neighbourhoods. An extension workers goes into a given area and asks the farmers to indicate whom they ordinarily consult for advice on farming (or any particular aspect of farming in which the extension worker wants to introduce some improvement). Usually after a few interviews, it becomes apparent which farmer is the influential person or natural leader. Figure (sociogram) illustrates this type of test.



Sociogram

When 'H' is interviewed he may indicate that he generally goes to 'B' for advice on farming 'G' , 'F' and 'D' may also say that 'B' is the one who advice they take on farming. Then 'B' is the operational or potential, 'natural' leader for these people and therefore if the extension worker succeeds in inducing 'B' to take up certain new practice, it is quite likely that others will influenced by his behaviour. 'B' may or may not hold an office or leadership position in organizations in this area. He may not even think of himself as a leader and may insist that he is not a leader. However, so far as these farmers are concerned, 'B' is the operational leader in relation to farming practices.

3.2.2 Information ratings:

In this method, some members of a social system are purposively or randomly selected and asked to designate persons giving advice and information on a general or particular topic. This method is economical and quick as it saves cost and time. However, it is limited to the extent each informant is thoroughly familiar with the social system. This method is usually used in emergency where extension worker is new to social system and wants to send urgent message or distribute some subsidy.

3.2.3 Self-designating method:

In this method, each selected person is asked a series of questions designed to determine the degree to which he perceives himself to be a key-communicator. This method has one important advantage in so far as it also measures the individual's perception of his being a key-communicator, which in turn influences his behaviour. However, its accuracy is limited to the extent the respondents can identity and report their self-image correctly.

3.3. Characteristics

Key-communicators have been found to have distinctive characteristics. On the basis of a review of a large number of research studies, Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) drew the following conclusions regarding characteristics of key-informants.

- (i) External communication
 - a. Key-communicators have greater exposure to mass media than their followers
 - b. Key-communicators are more cosmopolitan than their followers.
 - c. Key-communicators have greater change agent contact than their followers
- (ii) Accessibility: Key-communicators exercise relatively greater social participation than their followers in a social system
- (iii) Social status: Key communicators enjoy a relatively higher social status than their followers as far as conditions in that social system exists.
- (iv) Innovativeness
 - a. Key-communicators are more innovative than their followers
 - b. When the social system's norms favour change, key-communicators are more innovative but otherwise not especially so.
 - c. When the norms of a system are more modern, key-communicators are more monographic. Monography is the tendency of a key-communicator to act as such for only one topic.
- (v) Relationship to the social systems: According to Shankaraiah (1969), the key-communicators under Indian conditions are:
 - a. Perceived as the best farmers when the social system is actively modern
 - b. Social stars when the social system is relatively traditional

3.4. Role of key communicators

1. Diffusion of the new technology to other villages
2. Keeping in touch with the scientists, other institutions, media and sources of information
3. Coordinating the functions of the village organizations and the institutions and channelizing them towards the adoption of technologies for greater production
4. Assisting the villagers in securing the supplies and services required by them
5. Guiding and helping people in getting assistance from government
6. Helping the fellow villagers in the preparation of the action plans
7. Giving constant guidance and acting as the local consultants
8. Focusing on the problems of villager and helping the extension workers and
9. Serving as the demonstrator in the case of agricultural innovations

Unit-4

Feedback - Problems in Communication

Structure

- 4.0. Objectives
- 4.1. Introduction
- 4.2. Meaning of feedback
- 4.3. Characteristics of feedback
- 4.4. Problems in communication

4.0. Objectives

After studying this unit, the learner will be able to

- state the meaning of feedback
- Explain the characteristics and types of feedback
- explain the problems of communication

4.1. Introduction

The importance of feedback cannot be overemphasized and needs no special elucidation. Feedback is the yardstick which measures the effectiveness of communication and is used for evaluation review and to amend the message in the light of response. Efficient workers have reliable feedback and they succeed in their effective communication.

In a continuing human relationship, successive cycles of communication have a cumulative meaning and effect. Every human relationship is always in a state of change. It is constantly getting better or worse. Unfortunately, all change is not necessarily progress. For, progress results from change should occur only in desirable direction. There are powerful forces that tend to slow down changes in people's behaviour. To

overcome these forces, a powerful communication effort by extension workers must be constantly exerted. Progress sometimes is as difficult for rural development worker to achieve as it is for a swimmer to make his way upstream in a swift current.

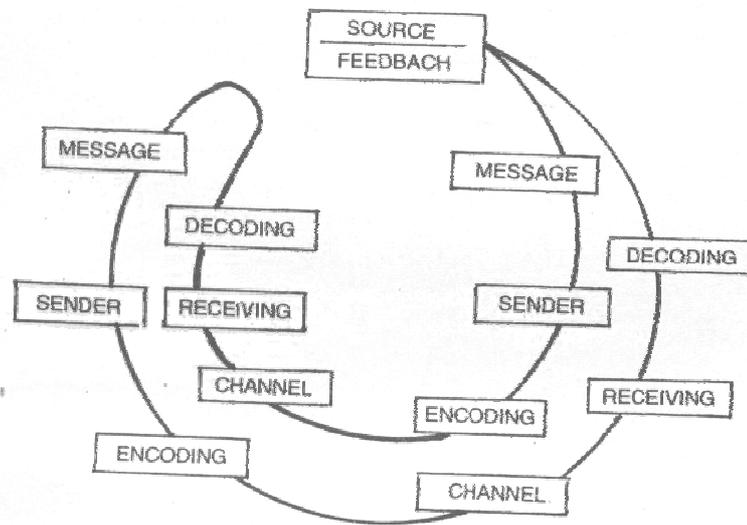
4.2. Meaning and characteristics of feedback

4.2.1 Meaning of feedback

The only real hope of an improvement in our communication system is for the sender to assure himself that his communication has been thoroughly understood by the receiver. All the way through a communication, he must use a control that will ensure the degree of meaning which has placed on his words is appreciated when received. A peace of message transmitted is said to be effective only when there is a provision for feedback in communication. A communication process is said to have feedback, when the receiver of the message has given his response to the sender's message. On the other hand the communicator must know how well the message has been received by the receiver, understood, interpreted and acted upon.

Feedback helps to determine this process. Sending back the knowledge about the message to the communicator is known as feedback. Thus, feedback is one of the important elements of the communication process. A communication process without a provision for feedback is not an effective communication. Two-way communication is essential in good feedback between the sender and receiver which promotes good relations between them and motivates them to do their best.

An effective two-way communication occurs when the sender transmits message and the receivers involves in feedback to the sender which is illustrated below.



4.3. Characteristics of feedback

- i. **Intention:** Effective feedback is directed towards improving work performance and making the worker a more valuable asset. It is not a personal attack. Feedback is directed towards aspect of the job.
- ii. **Specificity:** Be specific rather than saying things like “you always” or “you never” . Vague criticism causes resentment.
- iii. **Description:** Effective feedback can also be characterized as descriptive rather than evaluative. It tells the receivers what he or she done in objective terms, rather than presenting a value judgement.
- iv. **Usefulness:** Effective feedback is information that the receiver can use to improve performance. If it is not something the receiver can correct, it is not worth mentioning.
- v. **Timeliness:** There are considerations in timing feedback properly. As a rule, the more immediate the feedback, the better. This way the receiver has a better chance of knowing what the sender is talking about and can take corrective action.
- vi. **Clarity:** Effective feedback must be clearly understood by the recipient. A good way of checking this is to ask the recipient to restate the major points of discussion.
- vii. **Validity:** In order, for feedback, to be effective, it must be reliable and valid.

- viii. **Readiness:** In order, for feedback, to be effective, the receiver must be ready to receive. When feedback is imposed upon the receiver it is much less effective.

Feedback should be a continuous process as the audience and communicators are neither always the same persons, nor they are interacting in the same situation. The extension agent shall take steps to analyze the responses of the audience, which may be positive, negative or no response. If there has been no response or negative response to a message, the extension agent shall find out reasons for the same. If it pertains to research, the problem should be referred as feedback information to research, to find out solutions for the same.

4.4. Problems in communication

Extension workers and farm advisers often find to their disappointment that farm people do not seem to show the desired response after a message has been communicated.

There can always be something that can stand between you and the person with whom you are communicating, which prevents the easy and complete transfer of the information. This is the problem in communication. You must be able to trace out what and where this block is and remedy it as soon as you can.

4.4.1. Insufficient information:

One common block occurs when you are not careful enough in preparing yourself and your information for communication. Sometimes you fail to provide complete information. This happens when you take it for granted that the farm people already know some of the things, and hence do not include them in the information you give out. One way out of this would be to put yourself in the position of the receiver and ask yourself, if I were him, what is the information I would like to have on this subject? This empathy or putting yourself in the shoes of someone else, and taking up the line of thinking which he normally is expected to do, helps in overcoming the defect easily.

4.4.2. Information overload:

When you provide information in detail covering all aspects of a subject without any thought to whether it is needed or not. You will be creating a strong problem to the reception and understanding of the information by the receiver. He would need both time and energy to sieve and sift the material, and pick out and use it. A good advice often given to communicators is decide what you want to say, say it, and then stop.

4.4.3. Overconfidence:

A block appears when you take it for granted that your communication is clear and people understand you all right, little suspecting that the opposite may be the case. Trying out the material before hand on a person typical of the audience can help you in getting over such a block to some extent. You can then find out whether what you communicate will be in a form that will be quickly and clearly understood.

4.4.4. Language or code:

Language or code becomes a problem in communication, if the sender and receiver do not understand each others language. The problem of semantics is created between them. Communication can be made effective if the message is conveyed in the language which is understood by the receiver. The problem of language in communication cannot be taken lightly. It can cause problems of a serious nature.

4.4.5. Not listening:

Another common block occurs if your talk (person-to-person on the radio) when people are not listening. Listening has to be preceded by a desire to listen. Besides, a listening audience is a voluntary audience, not a captive one, and it is not bound to give you rapt attention. Even while seeming to listen, the listener may be thinking of something else, in which case he is giving you as good as a deaf ear.

4.4.6 Too ahead of audience understanding:

The failure on your part to keep in mind that the level and speed of understanding of your farm audience is rather low results in a problem. Farm people are not so happily placed as you are not exposed to ideas as your are, not familiar with words that appear so common to you. They may not think very far into the future as you do. The information you provide may be far ahead of the situation they are in. If your information is on the treatment of seed, and if the audience is not aware that the seed carries disease germs on its coat, you are one step ahead of their understanding, and thus the information does not get taken in.

4.4.7. Lack of empathy:

There is the failure on your part to see the other person's point of view. You may with all sincerity advise fertilizer use but the audience may have a deep-rooted feeling that fertilizer burns the corps. Unless you are able to clear this point, your information on fertilizer application will meet with a strong block.

4.4.8. Ignoring the leaders:

The key people or the leaders in a community exert a certain influence over a others. If you ignore them or do not take them into confidence or do not direct your communication at them, you are bound to fail. This block will be a strong one, and it is always good to keep in mind the role these key people play in the community while preparing for your communication. This is also called the concept of opinion leadership.

4.4.9. Prejudices:

Do not let your own prejudices or dislikes influence your communication. If people do not need information on certain points, satisfy them rather than ignore them just because such information is unnecessary or unimportant in your opinion. Quite likely, such information is both necessary and important to them.

4.4.10. Beliefs:

Do not ignore the beliefs, customs, prejudices, dislikes and habits of the people with whom you are communicating. These are a strong block against your communication. You have to help get over these gradually. Use tact when your message has to go against any of their beliefs, and shape your information in such a manner that you do not hurt them.

4.4.11. Physical environment:

Noise due to telephonic interruptions, or noise created by the machines can cause distraction. Whispers or even the movements of people can come in the way of effective communication.

4.4.12. Egoism, complacency, over-confidence, Dogmatism and the feeling of omniscience that seeing one knows everything:

These barriers come from within an individual from out of the inner works of his mind and conflicting feelings. Such a person is difficult to deal with, because he will not listen to others.

4.4.13. Difference in thinking or perceptions:

Our thinking patterns or perceptions may differ, human as we are. If two persons watch the same event and give a description of it, there will be considerable difference in observation. It is based upon experience, values, attitudes, expectations, emotional state etc.,



Unit-5

Organizational Communication

Structure

- 5.0. Objectives
- 5.1. Introduction
- 5.2. Concept of Organization
- 5.3 Concept of Organizational Communication
- 5.4 Types of Communication in organization
- 5.5 Barriers to Organizational Communication
- 5.6 Types of Barriers

5.0 Objectives

After going through this unit, the reader would be able to. Define organization and organizational communication. Explain the types of communication in an organization. Explain the barriers of Communication in an organization.

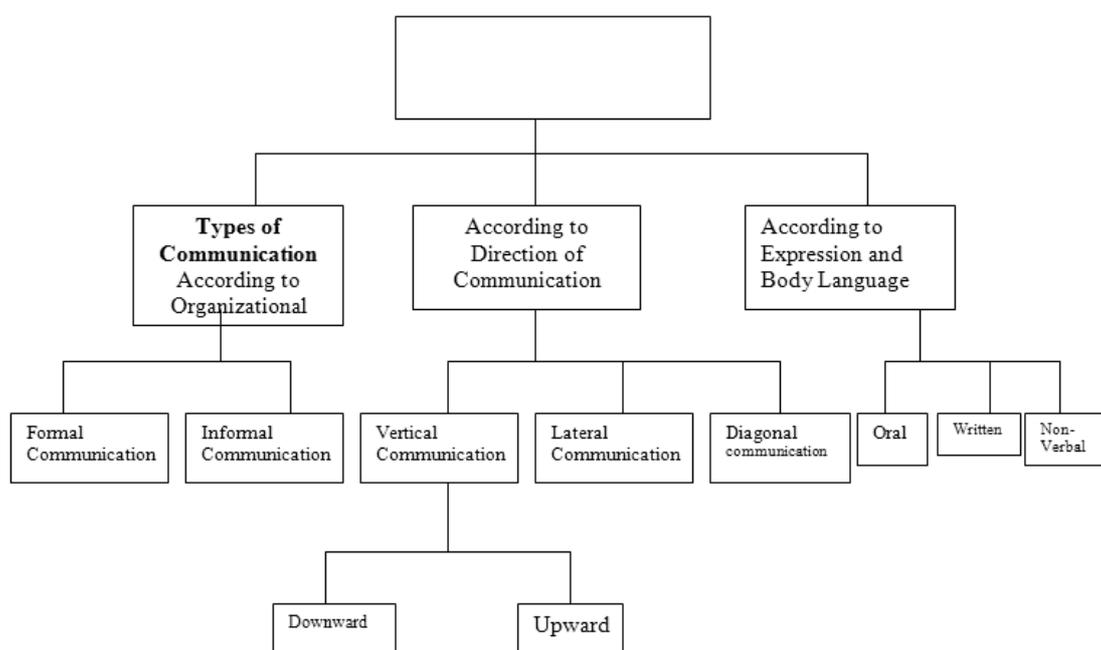
5.1 Introduction

Communication is the most vital ingredient of an organization. In fact, an organization cannot be conceived of without communication. An organization is a group of persons constituted to achieve certain specific objectives. The achievement of these objectives largely depends upon a proper Co-ordination and integration of human effort in an organization. The people working in an organization are interrelated, their activities are also interrelated because all activities are performed only to achieve the organizational objectives. The more effective the system of communication is, the better are the relations between the workers, and between workers and the management.

Communication is the nervous system of an organization. It keeps the member of the organization informed about the internal and external happenings relevant to a task and of interest to the organization. It co-ordinates the efforts of the members towards achieving organizational objectives. It is the process of influencing the action of a person or a group. It is a process of meaningful interaction among human beings to initiate, execute, accomplish, or prevent certain actions. Communication is, thus, the life blood of an organization. Without communication, an organization is lifeless and its very existence is in danger.

5.2. Types of Communications in organization

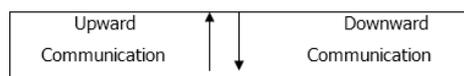
Communication in an organization carries innumerable kinds of messages which may be difficult to map out; but it may be possible to classify communications in regard to how to transmit, or who communicates to whom, or what kinds of relationships communication develops. Thus, Communication may be grouped on the following basis.



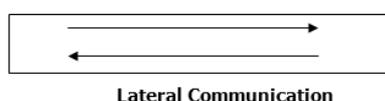
A) According to organizational structure

1. **Formal communication:** Such communications are those communications, which are associated with the formal organization structure. The travel through the formal channels - Officially recognized positions in the organization chart. They are established mainly by the organization structure. Formal communications are mostly in black and white. We generally hear the phrase ‘ through proper channel’. It explains the essence of formal channels. Such communications include orders, instructions, decisions or intensions etc., of the superior.
2. **Informal Communications:** Informal Communications are also known as “ Grapevine Communications”. They are free from all sorts of formalities, because they are based on the informal relationship between the parties, such as friendship, membership of the same club or association or origin from the same place. Such communication include comments, suggestions of any other informal reaction also. They may be conveyed by a simple glance, gesture, nod, smile or mere silence too.

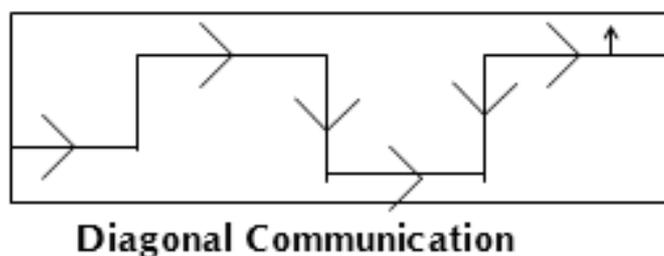
- B) According to Direction of Communication** Vertical Communication: Upward and downward flow of messages constitutes vertical communication. **1) down word communication** **2) Upward Communications:** Upward Communications are just reverse of the downward Communications. It flows from the sub-ordinates to their superiors. Such communications include reactions and suggestions from workers, their grievance etc. Contents of the upward Communication are reports, reactions, suggestions, statements and proposals prepared for the submission to the boss etc. Upward Communication is considered to be a main source of motivation in employees.

**Vertical Communication**

Lateral / Horizontal Communication: This type of communication refers to communication between various departments or units representing the same level, or people within the same or different departments, without having a superior – subordinate relationship viz., peer groups, friends and trainees. It flows between persons at the same hierarchical level. The main object of this type of communication is to coordinate the efforts of different departments performing different but related activities. Such communications may be oral or written.



Diagonal Communication: In an organization, communication does not necessarily traverse along a stipulated path. While vertical and lateral forms for transmission of messages are important, there is yet another mode to be taken cognizance of. That is, the diagonal. In this type of communications, there is no direct path chalked out for information to travel. It could, at certain stage, take on the upward path, then a lateral direction and finally, move downward, or it could even skip certain stages. This channel proves to be very affective as hierarchical bindings are done away with and communication flows irrespective of position or status. It also helps in building relationships and binding ties between the superior and the subordinate.



c) According to expression and body language According to way of expression, and body language, the communication may be oral or written and Non- Verbal.**Oral or verbal communication:** In oral communications both parties to the process of

communication exchange their ideas through oral words either in face-to face communication or through any mechanical device such as telephone, etc. Meetings and conferences, lectures and interviews are other media of such communications. **Written communication:** They are communications on black and white. They include written words, graphs, diagrams, pictures etc. They may take the form of circulars, notes, manuals, reports, posters or memos etc. **Non-Verbal Communication:** Non-Verbal Communication is an integral part of us and helps in communicating effectively. The way an individual positions himself, holds his hands, tilts his head, all transmit volumes about the individual. A receiver observes non-verbal communication 55% of the time, which is much more than listening merely to the words and the voice articulation. Lack of emphasis in this area is due to paucity of material and lack of expertise.

5.3. Barriers to Organizational Communication

When a communication is sent to the receiver, it must be effective and it is effective only when it has been understood by the receiver in the same sense in which the sender intended it. If it is not properly understood by the receiver, the very purpose of communication is lost and the communication proves ineffective. There may be so many obstructions in the way of its being effective. The message may not reach the receiver; there may be some flaws in encoding and decoding the message ; the channel used may be defective or there may be some noise in the channel, or the channel used may be wrong, there may also be personal problems. Thus, for various reasons, the message may not be received by the receiver as was intended by the sender.

5.4. Types of Barriers

Barriers, obstructions, and interruptions in communication may broadly be categorized into the following groups. However, this classification does not suggest that these categories are mutually exclusive.

5.4.1. External Barriers :

External barriers are those caused by factors other than organizational and personal factors. Such external barriers may be (a) Semantic barriers, (b) emotional or psychological barriers.

Semantic Barriers

These barriers are obstructions caused in the process of receiving or understanding a message during the process of encoding or decoding it into words and ideas. The linguistic capacity of the two parties may have some limitations, or the symbols used may be ambiguous. Symbols may have several meanings and, unless the context is known to the receiver, he is likely to take the meaning of the symbol according to his preconceived notion and misunderstand the communication. For this purpose, a meaningful distinction should be made between inferences and facts. Inferences are meaning taken out of the context of the communication and at times cannot be avoided in communication process. Since inferences can give a wrong signal, one should be aware of them and analyze them carefully. In case of any doubt, more feed back may be sought.

Symbols may be classified as language, picture, or action.

(i) Language :In written or verbal communication, words used are important. A word used in the communication may have several meanings. In a face-to-face communication, it is easy to seek clarification of words used, if any doubt is encountered. In case of doubt feedback is required. Many words which we use informally may be taken literally in other contexts, non-friendly situations, or in written communication. Thus, effective communication is idea-centred rather than word-centred. The communication may be decoded correctly by the receiver only if the context is known to him; otherwise, it may be incorrectly interpreted. Without context, language is just like an eyesore that irritates our senses and interferes with our perceptions poorly chosen and incorrect words and phrases, careless omissions, lack of

coherence, bad organization of ideas, awkward sentence structure, inadequate vocabulary, platitudes, numbing repetitions etc. are some of the faults found in many cases of poor communication.

(ii) Picture Picture is another type of symbol. Pictures are visual aids worth-thousands of words. An organization makes extensive use of pictures like blueprints, charts, maps, graphs, films, three-dimensional models, and other similar devices. A viewer may come to understand the whole story when he sees them. Sometimes, a picture creates confusion in the mind of the observer: it may be ambiguous if it is not supplemented by words or actions. **(iii) Action** Action is another type of symbol. We communicate by both – by action or by lack of it. To do or not to do, both have a meaning for the receiver. For example, if a subordinate does a good job, patting and non-patting on his back by the superior, both have a meaning. Patting may inspire him to do a better job again, and non-patting may make him disappointed. In this sense, we communicate all the times on the job whether we intend to do so or not. Action or non-action may influence the perception of the receiver. Action speaks louder than words: if a person says something and does another, there is a credibility gap. The bigger the gap, the less seriously people take him, and he will lose the confidence of his subordinates. They will not take seriously what he says. Body language is a type of action in which a message is communicated through the movement of the whole body or a part of it. Mostly face and hands are used in body language. Examples are eye contact, eye movement, smiles and frowns, touching a furrowed brow, closeness, lip movement, breathing rate etc.

2. Emotional or Psychological Barriers Personal or emotional or psychological barriers arise from motives, attitudes, judgment, sentiments, emotions, and social values of participants. These create a psychological distance that hinders the communication, or partly filters it out, or causes misinterpretation, thereby making the communication inadequate. The following are some emotional barriers:

(i) Premature evaluation Premature evaluation is a tendency to evaluate a communication prematurely, rather than keeping an open mind during the interchange.

Such evaluation interferes with the transfer of information and begets a sense of futility in the sender. This barrier can be remedied by empathy and non-evaluative listening.

(ii) Loss in transmission and retention When communication passes through various levels in a organization, successive transmissions of the same message are decreasingly accurate. A part of information is lost in transit: it is said that about 30% of the information is lost in each transmission. Poor retention of the information is again a malady. Research reveals that workers retain only 50% of information, and the supervisors retain 60% of it.

(iii) Distrust of communicator The communicator is sometimes distrusted by his own subordinates. It happens when he lacks self-confidence, or is less competent in his position. He frequently makes ill-considered judgments or illogical decisions, and then reviews his own decisions when he fails to implement them. Repeated experience of this kind gradually conditions the receiver to delay action, or to act unenthusiastically, hence making the communication ineffective, though apparently it is complete.

(iv) Failure to communicate Sometimes, managers do not communicate the needed messages to their subordinates. This might be because of laziness or procrastination on their part, or they arbitrarily assume that everybody has got the information, or they may hide information deliberately to embarrass the subordinate.

(v) Undue reliance on the written word A written communication might fail to explain the purpose of the order, procedure, or directive. Written communication often tells what is to be done but not why it should be done and, thus, it lacks persuasion. Hence, written communication should not be relied upon very rigidly, rather it should be used as supplementary to productive face to face relationships.

(vi) Inattention The preoccupied mind of the receiver and the resultant non-listening is one of the major chronic psychological barriers. It is a common phenomenon that people simply fail to react to bulletins, notices, minutes, and reports.

5.4.2. Organisational Barriers

An organization is a deliberate creation of management for the attainment of certain specific objectives. The day-to-day functioning of the organization is regulated in such a way as to contribute to the attainment of these objectives in the most effective manner. For this purpose, a variety of official measures are adopted such as designing of the structure, arrangement of activities, formulation of various policies, rules and regulations, and procedures, laying down of norms of behaviour, instituting a reward and punishment system etc. All these variables markedly affect the organisation's functioning. As such major organizational barriers are:

1. Organisation policy The general organizational policy regarding communication provides overall guidelines in this matter. This policy might be in the form of a written document, or it has to be inferred from organizational practice, particularly at the top level. If the policy creates hindrance in the free flow of communication in different directions, communication would not be smooth and effective.

2. Organisational Rules and Regulations

More often, different activities of an organization are governed by specific rules and regulations, Such rules and regulations prescribe the subject-matter to be communicated as also the channel through it is to be communicated. The rules may restrict the flow of certain messages and may omit many important ones. An employee may give up the idea of conveying a message to the top executive to avoid the observance of rules. The message may be important to the organization. It may also be the case that the superior may not allow him to convey the message. This barrier is strongly operative in Indian public sector undertakings where observance of rules and regulations is more rigid.

3. Status Relationship

The placing of people in superior-subordinate relationship in a formal organization structure also blocks the flow of communication and more particularly, in the upward direction the greater the difference in hierarchical positions in terms of their status, the greater would be the worry of middle managers about what their senior bosses might

think; this leads to their paying little attention to the needs and demands of their subordinates. Dislike, distrust, dissatisfaction with job and work environment are other reasons for reluctance to tell anything to their bosses. Such obstruction may be overcome by creating an atmosphere of trust and confidence in the organization.

4. Complexity in Organisation Structure

In an organization where there are a number of managerial levels, communication gets delayed as it moves along the hierarchical line. Also, chances of the communication getting distorted are greater as the number of filtering points is higher. This is particularly true in upward communication because people at intermediate levels do not like to pass on negative remarks either of themselves or of their superiors.

5. Organisational Facilities Certain organizations provide certain facilities for smooth, adequate, clear, and timely flow of communication such as meetings, conferences, complaint or suggestion boxes, open door system etc. If these facilities are not properly emphasized, people generally fail to communicate effectively.

5.4.3. Personal Barriers

As communication is basically an interpersonal process, many personal factors inherent in the two parties to communication, the sender and the receiver, influence the flow of communication and present many hurdles in the way of effective communication.

1. Barriers in Superiors Superiors play an important role in communication. Because of their hierarchical position, they act as barriers in a number of ways as follows:

- i) **Attitude of Superiors** General attitude of the superiors about communication, or attitude towards a particular communication, affect the flow of messages in different directions. If the attitude is unfavorable, there is greater possibility of filtering or colouring of the information. Any information received from the top may not reach the bottom in the same form, or even the reverse may happen.

Managers at intermediate levels may colour the information, sometimes intentionally, with a view to twist the situation in their favour. In some cases the superior quotes his subordinate incorrectly or may say something against him before his boss just to spoil his career, or his chance of promotion, or his image in the eyes of the boss.

- (ii) **Fear of challenge to authority** The superiors in an organization generally try to withhold the information coming down the line or going up as frequent passing of information may disclose their own weaknesses; thus what happens generally happens when the superior lacks self-confidence and is afraid that someone else might be promoted in his place if his weaknesses were to come to light.
- (iii) **Insistence on proper channel** There are channels of communication in an organization along which information passes upward or downward. Some officers insist too much on communication through proper channel. They do not like any bypassing in communication. But, sometimes, by passing becomes necessary in the interest of the organization; however, the superiors think bypassing as thwarting of their authority and block the flow of communication.
- (iv) **Lack of confidence in subordinates** The superiors generally perceive that their subordinates are less competent and, they are not capable of advising their superiors. Therefore they feel, whether correctly or otherwise, that they are overburdened and have no time to talk to their subordinates.
- (v) **Ignoring communication** Sometimes, the superiors ignore a communication or a part of it, to and from their subordinates, to maintain their importance. In some cases, information does not reach the receiver in the same form as it was received from the sender: the superiors filter the information.

2. Barriers Regarding subordinates

There are certain factors with the subordinates, which adversely affect their participation in the communication process. Some factors like attitude, lacks of time, applicable to the superiors are also applicable here. Two more factors with the subordinates need special attention, which are responsible for blocking communication in the upward direction.

Unwillingness to communicate:

The subordinates generally are not willing to communicate upward any information, which is likely to affect them adversely. If they feel that supply of such adverse information is necessary for control purposes they would modify it in such a way so as not to harm their interest.

Lack of suitable incentive:

Lack of incentives to communicate also prevents the subordinates from communicating upward. They are punished when they are wrong but may not be rewarded when they work marvelously well and offer a novel suggestion

The superiors assume that better performance on the part of subordinates is their duty towards the organization or it is in their own interest. The rewards and punishment system and the attitude of the superiors towards their subordinates are responsible for this agony. If a novel suggestion by a subordinate does not evoke any interest in the superior he would not convey it.

Unit-6

Interpersonal communication skills

Structure

- 6.0. Objectives
- 6.1. Introduction
- 6.2. Interpersonal communication skills
- 6.3. Consequences of poor interpersonal skills

6.0. Objectives

After studying this unit, the reader should.

- Explain the guidelines for handling people
- State the critical points in making a good impression on others.
- Be able to understand interpersonal communication skills.
- Be able to know the practical tips to encourage people to like you

6.1. Introduction

Interpersonal communication skills are much more important than technical skills if you want to become a senior manager. Good communication is a very important aspect of interpersonal relationships. Listening is one part of communication which sounds fine in theory but is rare to find in practice. Empathy will help you to understand people and respond to their needs more effectively. Understanding the basic communication model should help to improve your communication skills. Experts maintain that, as much as 65 per cent of the message communicated is non-verbal or body language. There are some practical tips you can apply to help people to like you more.

Similarly, an extension worker fails to achieve results in the absence of interpersonal communication skills though it may be endowed with the best of the technology or even the best of the strategies. The ability to get along with others is immensely helpful for getting success in almost all walks of life. Whether one acts in role of extension worker, farmer, Village Developmental Officer, Scientist, Research worker, the manner in which we interact with people would determine very largely if life remains buoyant or miserable.

Researchers reveals that there is a positive correlation between good relationship and productivity, profit. Success of an extension worker will largely depends upon an effective communication which in turns depends upon the interpersonal communication skills such as empathy, listening, positive attitudes, perception, presentation skills, written communication skills etc.,

6.2. Interpersonal communication skills

6.2.1. *Communication is two-way*

Communication is the art of sharing ideas, information, instruction or feelings. The basic ingredients of good communication are clear thinking, clear speaking and clear writing. We spend about 75 per cent of our waking hours in some form of communication such as talking, listening, reading and writing.

There are 1 million words in the English language (about 200,000 of them are technical). The average person has a recognition vocabulary of 10,000 words and a conversation vocabulary of 2000 words. However, in everyday usage most people manage or a vocabulary of as little as 300 words. In everyday conversation therefore, you should choose words that are most frequently used and understood. It is also wise to keep sentences short and to the point. Avoid jargon and 'in-company' phrases, particularly when dealing with outsiders such as suppliers and customers.

6.2.2. *Listen to learn – learn to listen*

The average speaking rate is 175 words per minute, but we think at about 400 words per minute. This gives each of us a lot of spare capacity for mental doodling. Try to counteract this natural phenomenon by concentrating on what the speaker is saying and meaning. Focus on central ideas rather than details, use your spare mental capacity for summarizing main points anticipating what is going to be said and observing body language.

6.2.3. *Concentrate*

Experts in communication estimate that only about one-quarter of all listeners are able to understand the main idea when listening to a speaker. If you find your mind wandering when listening to somebody, you must get back into focus. You can use the spare capacity productively. It makes good sense to summarize in your own mind the key concepts and ideas the speaker is trying to convey. If you are unsure about the message, be brave and repeat it back to the speaker's satisfaction. This is called feedback and ensures that two-way communication has taken place. Remember, communication does not take place until it is understood. Speaking quickly and indistinctly may also prove a barrier to communication.

You are now beginning to realize that communication is not as easy as it seems. We talk, listen, read and write each day but we don't give it much thought. However, we must continually work at each of them if we are to become skilled in that most underrated art, communication.

Ask questions Ask, don't tell use open-ended questions. Questions beginning with who? What? Where When? How and why? In dealing with enquiries we need to elicit information in order to identify and solve the problem. So use this questioning technique.

6.2.4. *Effective listening*

Have you ever been at a meeting when nobody seems to listen to anybody else? Of course, you have the meeting consists of a series of monologues the people are not really listening to each other but thinking and planning what to say as soon as the other person pauses for a breath. Experts maintain that the best way to make friends is to become an attentive listener. Many people fail to make a favorable impression on others, simply because they do not take the trouble to listen. Communication is a two way process and listening is every important aspect of it somebody once said that the reason we have two ears and only one mouth is because we should listen twice as much as we talk. Apart from anything else, it is just plain good manners to listen.

Wishful thinking: Most people only hear what they like to hear. This phenomenon is known as wishful thinking.

Attention: Don't permit your thoughts to stray or your attention to wander.

Semantics: This is the science, which deals with the development of the meaning of words. Do not put an interpretation on words and phrases other than that intended by the speaker.

Talk person to person: Don't be too formal. Be sincere and sympathetic in your manner. Build trust. Never breach confidence. Make the other person feel welcome and important. Use little courtesies such as 'Good morning', "please" 'thank you', and so on.

Attitude: Develop a positive attitude to other. Don't close your mind to other people's opinions and viewpoints. There are enough 'know alls' in the world. Show respect for their opinions. Don't consider yourself too good to learn from others. Pride is one of the seven deadly sins. Listen, you may learn something.

Get the facts: Don't prejudge a person or situation. Many people stereotype others by their nationality, colour, race, and religion or appearance. Listen, understand and then judge. Don't jump to conclusions.

Excessive talking: How many of us are infatuated with the sound of our own voice? We cannot listen and talk at the same time. Comment on what the speaker is saying without interrupting the flow. Occasionally paraphrase what you have heard. This provides vital feedback and ensures that the message is being received and understood.

6.2.5. *Empathy*

Sensitivity is probably the most important factor in successful communication. Sensitivity in a nutshell is the ability to see things from the other person's point of view. Empathy, which means listening with understanding, is the modern expression for the same idea. People have feelings, opinions, fears and prejudices. Empathize with them and show concern and respect. People like to be appreciated and made to feel important.

6.2.6. *Self awareness*

Self-awareness is a key factor in good personal relationships. Be aware of your strengths and weaknesses. Optimise your strengths and minimize your weaknesses. You must be come aware of your personal biases, likes and dislikes and shortcomings. If they are interfering with your social skills, then you must eliminate them from your behaviour. Before you develop the ability to cope with others, you must first have the ability to live with yourself. Keep your emotions under control. Be cool, calm and collected. Never lose your temper with others. Remember, the best way to win an argument is to avoid it and the best way to cook your goose is with a boiling temper.

6.2.7. *The communication model*

In the basic communication model there is a sender, a message and a receiver. In other words, a speaker, words and a listener.

Sender

First the sender conceives an idea which must be translated into words. The effectiveness with which the sender conveys the message will depend on choice and

appropriateness of words, vocabulary, tone and gestures. All these factors help to project the message with precision and clarity. The message may be distorted, ignored or misunderstood, if any of these is mishandled by the sender.

Message

The message consists of words and non-verbal cues, what are words? Words are symbols which represent concrete objects and concepts. It is important to remember that words can create understanding and inspire people to great deeds or they can create misunderstanding, distrust, annoyance and bad feeling. So pick your words with care and discretion.

Words are not necessarily the precision tools of description that they are made to be.

For example:

- Words mean different things in different contexts. In the context of a training programme, 'course' means curriculum, but in the context of a horse or a greyhound race it means route. Therefore meaning of words lies in the people and not in the words
- Words mean different things in different cultures.
- Words mean different things to different people. A bull to a farmer means livestock. On the other hand, to a stockbroker, it means a person who buys shares.

Receiver

The third ingredient in the communication model is the receiver. The involvement of the receiver can be considered in three ways. Firstly, the receiver recognizes what the speaker is saying and tunes in. Secondly, the receiver interprets the meaning of what is being said by mentally summarizing and reorganizing the idea. Thirdly, the receiver understands the message, which has been assimilated, associates and consolidates with existing knowledge and only then responds to what has been said. You can now see just how complicated communication is. Mishaps can occur at any stage and interfere with the message. This is the communication cycle.

6.2.8. *Verbal and non-verbal communication*

The experts tell us that only 35 per cent of what we mean is in the verbal message. The other 65 per cent of the meaning is contained in the non-verbal communication. Facial expressions, Eyes and other body movements must consider when interpreting meaning. In any social interaction with other people you must be aware of the non-verbal cues and signals. Psychologists have been paying increasing attention to these non-verbal aspects of communication. The following are some of their findings.

Boredom: The hand over mouth to cover a yawn can mean boredom. Glances at watches, frequent recrossing of legs, constant repositioning on seat, fidgeting and eyes wandering can also indicate boredom, disinterest, impatience or tiredness.

Arms folded: Folded arms usually indicate resistance. But beware, it can also mean other things.

Frown: The frown may suggest disagreement, lack of understanding or annoyance. Several responses are possible. You can back up and restate your last point. You can pause and ask for questions, or ask you can clarify your point.

Upward glance: Watch peoples eyes. The eyes are the mirror to the soul, upward glances may mean "I have heard that one before". Eye contact is essential for good communication.

6.2.9. *Memory*

The average person has a poorly trained memory. Both the long-term and short-term memories are important factors in communication. Research has shown that we forget 50 per cent of what we forget 90 percent within 48 hours. Don't rely on your over worked memory that we tend to remember what we like and forget what we dislike.

6.2.10. Encouraging people to like you

Positive Thinking

Many books have been written about the power of positive thinking. The problem with negative thinking is that it becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy. The good news is that positive thinking is likewise a self-fulfilling prophecy. Shakespeare said: There is nothing good or bad except that thinking makes it so. Believe in yourself. Think positive experiences. Think about your successes rather than your failures. Develop a mindset for success. Positive expectations are more likely to lead to positive outcomes. Positive thoughts precede positive actions and positive actions produce positive results. Negative expectations are more likely to lead to negative outcomes. Positive thinking is about developing a favorable image of yourself. Remember there is often little correlation between success and a positive self-image. Many successful, Hollywood stars have a very negative self-image and commit suicide. Unless you have a favorable image of yourself you cannot impress others favorably. You must be able to like yourself before you can like other people. Develop faith in your own ability to handle colleagues and bring work task to completion. The more successful you are the more confident you will become in the future. Don't underestimate yourself and never sell yourself short.

Show Interest

Take a genuine interest in the people around you and in the work environment. To be interesting, be interested. Ask questions that the other person will enjoy answering. Encourage them to talk about themselves and their achievements. Disraeli said: Talk to a man about himself and he will listen for hours. Develop a friendly and helpful attitude. Always try and be sincere. If you are artificial, people will eventually see through you. Be positive. If you don't know something, say: 'I don't know, but I'll certainly find out and let you know', rather than a curt: 'Don't know'. Develop a reputation for reliability. If you say you're going to do something, do it!

Remember to smile

A smile is like a piece of sunshine. You'll be surprised at the friendly way people will react. Smiling facilitates positive thinking by giving you a psychological lift. You can't smile and entertain negative thoughts at the same time. Develop a cheerful disposition.

- **Name:** People like to hear the sound of their own names. One of the best ways of creating goodwill is to remember names and use them. The remember names, relate them to the person's features and repeat the name frequently during the conversation.
- **Manners:** Good manners are a sign of good breeding. Manners help make living pleasant. Like smiling, good manners cost nothing but reap many benefits.
- **Learning is a lifelong continuous process:** Seek out opportunities for self-development, not only in your work life but also in your personal life. Action cures fear. Don't procrastinate. Undertake that educational programme now-whether formal, such as certificate, diploma or degree programme, or informal, such as challenging recreational pursuits. It will make you a more interesting person.
- **Practice:** Practice the previous advice. It's like driving a car, if you practice these, they will become automatic confident responses. Bernard Shaw once remarked: 'If you teach a man anything, he will never learn'. Learning is an active process. We learn by doing. Only knowledge that is used sticks in your mind.
- Some experts maintain that the ability to handle people is three times more important than technical expertise in determining the suitability of people for senior managerial positions. So all the technical knowledge (or job knowledge) in the world is of relatively little use if you aspire to senior management, without the social skills to handle people.

6.2.11. Handling of people

Tact. Don't argue: The best way to win an argument is to avoid it. Let the other person do most of the talking. Use the feedback technique. Ask questions in a friendly voice. Use the open-ended questioning technique – Why? What? When? Where? How? And Who? Arguing encourages emotional responses such as anger. Anger leads to irrational behavior and anything that encourages anger should be avoided. If, despite everything, a person gets angry, don't get angry back. 'Anger blows out the light of reason, but, after a roaring hurricane expends its fury, the full of calm sets in.' Let the angry person blow themselves out.

Respect: Show respect for the other person's feelings and opinions. Tact and diplomacy are the watchwords here. Never say directly, or suggest to a person, 'You 're wrong'. You could say you may be right, but let's look at the facts'. Nobody likes being told directly that they're wrong especially in front of a third party. Lord Chesterfield said to his son: 'be wiser than other people, if you can; but do not tell them so'. You may praise but never criticize in front of others. If you use diplomacy and tact, they may admit to themselves that they are wrong. But never, if you crudely try to ram the fact down their throats.

Empathize: See things from the other person's point of view. How would you feel if you were in their shoes? That is what empathy means. Think ahead and try and anticipate reactions. Henry Ford said: 'If there is any one secret of success it lies in the ability to get the other person's point of view and see things from his angle as well as from your own'.

Simple: Speak in simple language. Remember the KISS technique-Keep It Short and Simple. Avoid jargon or technical terms. Don't try to impress others by using big words. Always use the simple work in preference to the long work. Keep your sentences short. Big words and long-winded sentences amount to woolly thinking, confusing others as well as yourself.

Praise: Most people are very reluctant to praise others, even when it is due. We spend most of our time knocking others. Treat people as winners and they will live up to your expectations. A sincere compliment for work well done is a boost to morale and an incentive for sustained excellence in the future. 'You can always catch more bees with honey than you can with vinegar'. However, insincerity is counterproductive. If you criticize for whatever reason, always soften the criticism with praise first. Criticize the act not the person.

Appeal to senses: Dramatize your ideas and involve the other person. Appeal to as many of the senses as possible – hearing, sight, taste, smell and touch. When making a presentation to a group use visuals-a picture speaks a thousand words. Remember the old proverb: 'I hear, I forget; I see, I remember; I do, I understand'.

Synchronization with listener: Watch for body language and non-verbal communication. Try and synchronize your words with the speed of receptivity of the listener (you can gauge this from the actions and expressions of the listener). Mirror your body language to that of the other person.

Sell: Make the other person feel the idea is theirs. This is the best way to implement your ideas. Use the open-ended questioning technique to obtain viewpoints. Concentrate and develop those on which there is common ground and agreement. Show what's in it for them. Most people are motivated by self-interest.

6.2.12. *Making an impression on others*

The critical points about making an impression on other people are

Posture: Your posture can indicate clearly whether or not you are going to be friendly and helpful. Indifference, nerves, restlessness and lack of confidence can all be indicated by posture.

Look, listen and learn: For the total message listen for the words and observe the accompanying body language. Pay attention to what they say and show that you are

really interested in them. People prefer to talk about themselves, rather than listen to you. Don't interrupt the speaker or change the subject or you will show lack of interest and may create resentment.

Expression: Most people look at your face, and particularly your eyes, at some point during your conversation. Shakespeare said that the eyes are a mirror of the soul. Remember, your face and eyes reveal your feelings. They show the other person not only how you yourself feel – tired, interested, uninterested – but also how you feel about the other person. It's polite and a sign of attentiveness to look at the person who is talking to you (but avoid staring). Looking at a person also gives you an opportunity to notice their expression. Use your mouth. A smile, especially when greeting someone, can be the biggest icebreaker of all. Your mouth can show friendliness as easily as it reveals boredom and hostility.

Appearance: When somebody comes up to you, both you and your work area are on view. Do you give the impression that you are friendly, neat, well-groomed, smart and organized? Remember, if you look untidy, your work may be untidy too. People act on impressions. Make sure that you are neatly turned out and look after your appearance and personal hygiene.

Speech: Your first words create an impression, which colour the other person's reply. If they are friendly and positive, they invite a smile and a thank you from the other person. Nothing is more annoying than unhelpful, negative remarks. Remember to use the person's name. There is nothing sweeter to a person's ear than the sound of their own name. Use the name frequently during the conversation. Link some outstanding feature with the person's name to remember it better. To be heard and understood, you need to speak clearly and look at the person as you speak. Do not use bad language or slang in conversation. If you use bad language you will let yourself down and people will judge you by the way you speak.

Eagerness to help: Adopt a positive attitude and helpful manner in your dealings with people. Show in a positive way that you are enthusiastic, eager and willing to help solve problems. If you want to make friends you must be seen to be obliging, unselfish and thoughtful.

Communication Skills for Extension Personnel

WRITING SKILLS

Any written document is a verbal structure consisting of words, sentences, phrases, clauses which form paragraphs and text. To get an effective writing style, it is not that much easy and It is very difficult requires rigorous practice. The organizations are also unable to realize what heavy price they are paying because of miscommunication.

Good writing is writing that works. It is clear at 1st reading it demands no further explanation. For most of the professionals, writing is not something that comes easily. The present age of ICT it seems unnatural and old fashioned to use written communication yet it has its own place in organizational communication. Effective writing is a skill which can be learnt, but people generally complain of the following:

- I lack confidence.
- I know what I want to say, but I cannot put it down.
- I waffle.
- I don't have time to improve.

Choice of words & phrases:

1. Original sentence: Fuel tank deformation was present.
Revised sentence: Fuel tank was deformed.
2. Original sentence: Accident frequency depends on the adequacy of road seen visibility.
3. Revised sentence: Accident frequency depends on how well the road can be seen.

Prefer specific to general words:

1. Original sentence: The Company has brought out 40 publications this year.
2. Revised sentence: 'Books' replaced at publications.
3. Original sentence: She has developed a new gas lighter.
4. Revised sentence: She has designed a new gas lighter.

Prefer to be objective than subjective

Ex: (1) Prepare a formulation - formulate
(2) Tender resignation - resigned

Clichés

He felt no stone unturned in his efforts to achieve tenure finally, a sadder but wiser man, he learned that in this day & age, tenured professorships are few and far between.

His campaign ground to a halt and yet subsequent faculty meetings, he was conspicuous by his absence. He concluded his farewell to his students with these words of wisdom 'Last but not least follow the advice' – Do as I say, not as I do.

Use of Jargon

Jargon ridden: The responsibility of a person involved in pedagogical pursuits is to impart knowledge to those sent to his for instruction.

Jargon free: The teacher's job is to instruct students.

The biota exhibited a 100% mortality response.

All the plants and animals died.

Tautology - Redundancy

Eg:

1. The preliminary studies required a total of 240 man hours.
2. Total and complete protection of all control components is impracticable under all conditions.

ACTIVE-PASSIVE VOICE

1. Decision was made by supervisor to call in the workers for overtime.
2. The supervisor decided to call in the workers for overtime.

To be an effective writer, a profession should cultivate certain habits, attitudes and qualities of mind. Some of them are:

- a. Visualize what you want/wish to say. If you are clear about what to communicate words would automatically follow to express it clear thinking and clear writing go together.
- b. Prepare first draft .
- c. Stop when you finished saying what you wanted to say. Remember professional writes to express but not to impress.
- d. Revise the draft carefully by editing.
- e. Approach the problem a scientist's objectivity, detachment and passion for both.
- f. Don't elaborate point unnecessarily to make your writing crisp and sharp.

A systematic approach for effective writing:

Any writing should involve following stages:

- Preparation & planning
- Writing
- Checking

I Preparation & planning

The best way to prepare for writing is to answer series of questions – 5W's and 1 H. They are why, who, what, where, when and how. This helps to clarify certain issues before writing. Instead of preparing list of contents to be covered in document, it is better to follow pattern plans. Pattern plans are increasingly popular for organization of information. It allows to access info through associates as well as logical connections. Following are steps to develop pattern plan.

1. Take plain sheet of paper and draw a circle in middle.
2. Write down subject (title) or picture in the circle.
3. Write down any idea connected with subject omit nothing.

4. Highlight the key ideas using different colours.
5. Group info around these key ideas using branches and twinges. Add and edit items.
6. Continue the process until pattern plan is complete. Now list key ideas as headings in a logical sequence.

Pattern plans harness creativity and link logically. The advantages of pattern plans are:

Rapidity: More ideas in shortest time.

Completeness: We can get whole picture of the subject at a glance.

Efficiency: Gather and structure material simultaneously.

Individuality: It is our record of thinking. If it makes sense to us, it is much likely to make sense to reader.

II WRITING: Produce the first draft fast, write as you speak. It is not time to think but to put words flow on to the page.

III CHECKING: *Follow 10 point plan for checking*

1. **Paragraphs:** Page should not have less than two paragraph breaks. Use short paragraphs, isolate action points. Use sub-heading and be consistent in layout. Open each paragraph with topic sentence i.e. it is short summarizing. Use link words and phrases to guide the reader from one paragraph to another. Ex: However, moreover, as a result, in addition, etc.
2. **Sentences:** Short sentences are easier to read than long ones. Average length is 17 words per sentence, 25 and above is difficult to understand.
3. **Subject and verb:** Each sentence should have subject and verb. Verb must be finite having tense.
4. **Sentence land scope:** Put important ideas at the beginning or end of sentence as attention will be more. Ideas buried in middle will risk being lost. Break long sentences to chunks of 5-10 words.
5. **Passive-active verbs:** Beware of writing impersonally. Use of passive voice lacks personal touch. Always use active voice.
6. **Adjectives and adverbs:** Keep or use adjectives and adverbs which are absolutely necessary.
7. **Accuracy:** Use of right word for the right expression or action. Use jargon in its rightful place.

8. **Brevity:** Use short words; eliminate clinches. Ex: As matter of fact, as such, by and large etc. And watch out for tautology - why to say same thing twice. Eg: True facts are, enclose herewith, declined to accept.
9. **Clarity:** Clarity is hallmark of plain English/any language. The text written must leave no room for ambiguity. Avoid vague phrase, loaded words; replace abstract nouns with concrete nouns.
10. **Spelling and Punctuations:** Spelling matters as it contributes to our professional and public image. Do not use words unfamiliar to you, always use simpler, shorter words, use dictionary for correct usage of word. Beware of the spell checker. Use thesaurus to improve vocabulary. Punctuation provides expression and voice to words. Less punctuation is better.

SPEAKING SKILLS

If you're like most people, you spend a lot of time talking. Yet the thought of making a speech before an audience may fill you with dread. If so, you're not alone. Many people are terrified if they have to make a public speech.

The guidelines given here for preparing and delivering a speech can help you become a confident speaker. You may never have to address a huge audience. But as an extension worker, you'll give a variety of oral presentations. Learning how to handle speaking situations with ease is a skill well worth developing. It will help you communicate more effectively in a wide variety of everyday situations.

Preparing a speech

There are six basic steps to follow in preparing a speech. They are (1) analyzing the audience (2) choosing a topic, (3) determining the purpose of the speech, (4) gathering information, (5) organizing the content, and (6) choosing a format.

Analyzing the audience:

To speak effectively before a group of people, you need to know something about them. You need to know such abilities. Also consider how much knowledge about the topic your audience already has.

Attitudes:

If you are presenting a controversial topic, try to find what attitude your audience already holds toward the topic. Are most of the members inclined to agree or disagree with the position you will present? Or are they indifferent? If they're indifferent or likely to disagree, you may have to gather more facts and present them more forcefully to be effective.

Size:

A large group may require a more formal speech presentation than a small group. If the group is large, you may be speaking behind a podium or on a stage. If the group is small, you simply may be seated at a table with the other members of the group. These factors may influence your choice of speech format and your delivery techniques.

Choosing a topic:

There are several points to consider in choosing a topic. First, choose a topic that interests you or that you already know something about. You're more likely to enjoy preparing and delivering a speech on a topic you like than on one you don't particularly care about. You're also more likely to get a good response from your audience. Second, consider the probable interests of your audience. A speech on how to improve scores on video games might win an enthusiastic response from a sixth-grade class. But such a speech would probably be of little interest to a group of senior citizens. Third, make sure the topic and tone of your speech fit the occasion. You would not make the same kind of speech at a graduation ceremony that you would at a pep rally. Fourth, if your topic requires research, see that the necessary information is readily available. Finally make

sure you can cover your topic adequately within the time allowed. Limit your topic so you can present your main idea and support it with meaningful details.

Determining the purpose:

Almost every speech has at least one of these main purposes: To inform, (2) to persuade, or (3) to entertain. An informative speech provides information and consists largely of facts presented in a straightforward manner. A persuasive speech tries to convince an audience to do something or adopt a particular point of view. Persuasive speeches may rely on emotional appeals as well as facts to achieve their purpose. An entertaining speech provides a pleasant experience for the audience and may have a more informal tone than the other two kinds of speeches.

Many speeches have two or three main purposes. For example, you may try to entertain the members of your audience in order to win them over- or persuade them- to accept your point of view.

Gathering information:

If your speech requires information you don't already have, you'll need to do research. Here are three ways to go about it:

1. Observe the subject matter itself. If your speech is about how newspapers are recycled, for example, you could visit recycling plant to observe the process.
2. Use the library. The books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets electronic databases and other materials you'll find will provide information on almost any speech topic.
3. Interview an expert or others who have firsthand knowledge. If you're preparing a speech on the effects of budget cutbacks on elementary schools, for example, you might interview the principal and some of the teachers at a local elementary school.

Organizing the content:

Like a written report, a good speech requires careful organization. Most speeches are organized in three parts:

- (1) the introduction,
- (2) the body , and
- (3) the conclusion

As you develop the content of your speech, always keep in mind the importance of attracting your audience's interest in the beginning and holding it to the end. The introduction to your speech needs to tell the members of your audience what your speech is about – but in a way that will make them want to listen. Don't begin by saying. " This speech is about . . ." Instead, try using a personal anecdote or lead in with a dramatic statement.

In the body of the speech, present your main points and supporting details. Make sure the details are closely related to your topic and interesting to your audience, You can present; your main points in several ways, depending on your topic. You can arrange them in order of importance, putting the most important points first. You can use chronological order, describing events in the order in which they occurred. In some speeches, you might discuss a topic that is new to your audience or difficult to understand. In such cases, begin with the simplest facts and work your way upto the more difficult ones. Or think of something that the members of your audience already know about that could help them understand the new or more difficult topic.

The conclusion of your speech is your last opportunity to impress the members of your audience. Try to leave them with something to think about. In many cases, a quotation from a famous person could provide a memorable conclusion to your topic.

Choosing a format:

You need to decide what kind of format to use in delivering your speech. You have four choices" (1) reading the speech, (2) memorizing the speech, (3) speaking

impromptu, and (4) speaking extemporaneously. In choosing a speech format, make sure it is one you are comfortable with and one that suits the occasion. Each format has advantages and disadvantages.

Reading the speech may seem like the safest format. You don't have to worry about forgetting anything, and you can make sure your speech precisely fits the allotted time. But reading your speech also has disadvantages. You may become so engrossed in your manuscript that you forget to look up at the audience. You may begin speaking in a monotone, causing your listeners to lose interest. Once they've lost interest, the point of your speech may never get across. Reading your speech also makes it difficult to adjust the content in response to audience reactions.

If you choose to read your speech, type it double-spaced or write it out neatly so that you can read it easily. Some people write their speeches on large note cards and make an effort to look up at the audience at least at the end of each card.

Memorizing the speech requires that you first write it out and then memorize it word for word. Depending on the length of the speech, this type of delivery could mean hours or days of extra preparation time and effort. The format also has several other disadvantages. You might concentrate so hard on remembering the speech that your voice sounds unnatural. And you'll be unlikely to add remarks or otherwise adjust your speech to suit the mood of the audience. If you decide to memorize your speech, you'll have to keep in mind the need to make your delivery natural and relaxed.

Speaking impromptu requires little or no preparation. As a result, it is rarely used for a formal speech. An impromptu speech enables you to give a lively, spontaneous delivery what you say can be suited specifically to the mood of the audience. But an impromptu speech risks being unorganized. Without adequate preparation, you may ramble and never get your point across effectively. If you know ahead of time that you'd like to say something at a meeting or other occasion, take at least a few minutes to organize your thoughts and perhaps jot down your main ideas.

Speaking extemporaneously is the most commonly used type of delivery in public speaking. You organize your ideas in a written outline and use it as a guide when you give your speech. An extemporaneous speech has the advantage of being both organized and spontaneous. Although you don't write down the complete speech, you can refer to the key words or sentences of the outline to keep yourself "on track." You can easily add or omit details on the basis of audience reaction. And it's not as difficult to maintain eye contact with your audience when you speak extemporaneously as it is when you read from a manuscript.

To take full advantage of the flexibility of the extemporaneous speech, learn about your topic in depth. Gather more details than you'll actually need. That way, you'll have a full stock of material to draw upon to keep your speech interesting. You can also vary the content, depending on the audience's reaction.

Rehearsing and Delivering a Speech

After you've completed all the steps in preparing your speech, you're ready to begin rehearsing, unless you're going to give an impromptu speech. Rehearsing is obviously necessary for a memorized speech, but it is also vital to a good extemporaneous speech or to a speech you plan to read. The more you rehearse your speech, the more confident you'll be when the time comes to deliver it.

As you rehearse, remember that you want to convey more than information. You also want to convey enthusiasm for your topic. If you sound interested, your audience will be more likely to listen to, and enjoy, your speech.

How to rehearse:

Begin rehearsing by using your outline or reading aloud from your manuscript. As you repeat the speech many times, you'll come to depend less and less on your written words. If possible, make a tape recording of your speech and listen to it critically. You may find that you're not pronouncing all your words clearly or that you're going too fast or too slow.

Next, practice in front of a mirror, paying attention to your posture and gestures. Then, ask someone to listen to your speech and give an honest reaction to both content and delivery. Your listener may be able to spot distracting mannerisms that you should correct, such as clenching your fists at your sides or shuffling your feet. You can also videotape yourself to observe your own strengths and weaknesses. Finally if you will be delivering your speech in an unfamiliar place, try to practice it there at least once. That way, you can practice with a podium and microphone if they are to be provided.

Your voice:

The way you use your voice can add greatly to the impression you make when delivering your speech. As you speak, pay special attention to the volume, speed, and pitch of your voice and to clarity of pronunciation.

Volume, obviously, you'll want to speak loudly enough so that the audience can easily hear you. You'll have to consider such factors as the size of the room, whether you'll be using a microphone, and whether there are outside noises you must speak over. Try to vary your volume to make your voice sound more interesting. At times, you might speak more loudly to emphasize an important point. At other times, you might gain attention by speaking more softly, making the audience listen more carefully.

Speed:

Don't speak so fast that you slur words or become difficult to understand. If you have a time limit, pace yourself so that you can finish your speech without having to hurry at the end. Varying your speed from time to time can make your speech more effective. You can slow down to emphasize a point. And a dramatic pause at the end of a particularly important statement can be an effective technique.

Pitch is how high or low your voice sounds. You vary your pitch automatically during normal conversation. Your voice sounds higher when you are excited and lower when you are serious. During a speech, your voice should follow this natural pattern of pitch variation. Try to avoid speaking in a monotone.

Clarity of pronunciation:

Speak as distinctly as you can without sounding unnatural. Avoid saying “er” or “uh” between words or phrases. Enunciate word endings, such as -ing. Clearly.

Your appearance

The way you use your body can be almost as important as your voice when you give a speech. Dress neatly in comfortable clothing that is appropriate to your audience. Avoid wearing unusual clothes or jewelry that might distract the audience or get in your way as you speak. Stand up straight but in a relaxed manner. Don't slouch or lean on the podium, if you're using one. Try to keep a pleasant expression on your face.

As you speak, keep eye contact with your audience. Don't look up at the ceiling or down at the floor. If you're reading from a manuscript, hold it up slightly so that you can easily glance at the audience from time to time.

Gestures can help emphasize important parts of your speech. But don't overdo them. If you gesture constantly, you'll lessen the effect and make the audience more aware of your gestures than your words. And make sure your gestures look natural and blend smoothly with what you're saying.

Audio - visual aids:

can enliven your presentation. Such aids include drawings, photographs, maps, charts, graphs, diagrams, chalkboards, models, slides, films, records, tape recordings and videotapes. Audio-visual aids can add welcome variety to your speech and help hold the audience's attention. They can enable the audience to understand exactly what you mean. They can also make your speech more memorable by leaving the audience with a more vivid impression of your topic than words alone can convey.

Rehearse with your audio-visual aids so you can incorporate them smoothly into your speech. Here's a list of points to remember when using audio-visual aids:

1. Have them set up and ready to use before your speech. If an aid is particularly interesting or unusual, it may be good idea to have the aid handy, but hidden, until the appropriate time in your speech. Other-wise, your audience may be too distracted to pay close attention to the earlier parts of your speech.
2. Mount illustrations and set them up on an easel, rather than trying to hold them while speaking.
3. If you're going to write on a chalkboard or paper, remember to keep turning back to your listeners to keep your eye contact with them.
4. If you'll be using such equipment as a film or overhead projector or a tape or videotape recorder, be sure it's in good working order and that an electrical outlet is nearby.
5. Don't pass a visual aid around during your speech. It's too distracting. If you have material to pass out, do it before or after your speech.
6. Don't stand in front of a visual aid or block the view of part of the audience.
7. Remember to talk to the audience, not to the aid.

Stage fright:

When the time finally comes to deliver your speech, you'll probably suffer from that common ailment – stage fright. To keep your nervousness from working against you, concentrate on what the person speaking before you is saying, rather than worrying about your own presentation.

When your turn comes, take a deep breath or two to help stay calm. Act confident, even if you don't feel confident. Remember that your audience is rooting for you to do well, Walk briskly to your place and look directly at the audience to gain the group's attention. Then begin. Once you begin speaking, your nervousness will decrease.

LISTENING SKILLS

Listening:

Listening is a process of receiving, interpreting and reacting to the messages received from the communication sender. Listening is a process involving awareness, reception, and perception.

MISCONCEPTIONS/MYTHS ABOUT LISTENING:

Listening is the same thing as hearing

Listening is not an automatic process. Listening is different from hearing. In hearing, the sound waves strike the eardrum causing vibrations. These are transmitted to the brain. Listening occurs only when the brain swings into actions by reconstructing these electronic impulses by giving meaning to the sounds. True listening is a dynamic process. It involves more than the passive act of hearing. Hearing is with ears, but listening is with mind.

All listeners receive the same message

If this were so, why some people will sleep or not enjoy the speech/presentation/lecture. All listeners do not receive the same message in a uniform manner. Listening is a very demanding activity. It demands not only full attention but also proactive interest in what the speaker is talking about. This may not be always easy for all listeners.

Good readers are good listeners

Listening improves with age

Listening skills are difficult to learn

The researches found that shortly after a 10-minute oral presentation the average listener will have retained only 50% of what was said and after 48 hrs they are likely to remember only 10%.

If you want to be a more effective listener then you must not only open the lines of communication and relax but you must compel others to do the same. You only hear with your ears (which are always open), but listen **with your mind**.

Two ears is a blessing:

Most successful leaders and managers LISTEN. Many qualities can take you to the pinnacle of your profession, but what can “keep” you there is effective listening. “The better you listen, the luckier you get,” says KEVIN J. MURPHY, a U.S. management

consultant. According to him, listening is an accurate perception of what is being communicated and an open mind is therefore the key to communication. We are blessed with two ears and one mouth (or shall we say one tongue) – a constant reminder that we should listen twice as much as we talk.

The most common complaint is “He (or she) doesn’t listen to me.” Whether it is officer to subordinate or subordinate to officer, all have the same complaint. We seldom listen half of what is said and we may not be fully attentive to the other half. Hearing is momentary, either you get the message and remember it, or it is gone forever.

Distortions in listening:

The exercise that you have participated in a game where one person whispers two or three sentences to the next person standing in a line, in the end the message barely resembles the original thought. It produces much fun and enjoyment among participants besides being an effective learning lesson. Not listening properly can result in a disaster. A survey carried out amongst top executives of United States attending a seminar on listening had three typical answers: “Frankly, I had never thought of listening as an important subject by itself”, “Now I realise that many of the troubles in my company have resulted from someone not hearing something or getting it in a distorted way”, “We seem to have inadvertently overlooked listening as a facet of communication. It is the most important link but obviously the weakest one”.

Listening is least taught:

Perhaps the biggest oversight has been the least attention paid to listening in our classroom instructions. Our primary attention has been on reading and writing. Very little emphasis is paid on speaking and almost no attention to skills of listening. This is strange because there is so much lecturing in colleges and schools. The only training listening has been in the form of admonitions or commands: “Listen” or “Listen carefully.”

The two-way communication:

Even in countries like United Kingdom and United States of America, teaching listening skills has assumed significance only in the last four or five decades. In India such a realization has yet to take shape although many multinational and progressive companies have recently started training programmes in listening skills. As LEEIACOCCA, Chairman and CEO, Chrysler Corporation in his autobiography says, "Listening is one skill that can make the difference between a mediocre company and a good company." Globalisation, market competition and the advent of faster electronic and computer techniques have made it imperative that we widely spread the message of effective communication, especially listening skills, in schools, colleges, universities and all professional sectors including government offices. The art of listening can be learnt and taught for all age groups, what is needed is practice and will.

TYPES OF LISTENING

1. **Ignoring:** Completely not listening to others.
2. **Pretending:** Yeah! Right, uh-huh are some of the expressions of those who practice pretending.
3. **Fake Listening:** Many listeners mistake silence for listening. They steadfastly fix their eyes on the speaker and try to project themselves as good listeners. In fact they miss many important points.
4. **Marginal Listening:** A poor listener is a marginal listener. Day dreamers, poor listening habits, wandering attention and avoiding understanding of complex points by finding escape routes are the characteristics of marginal listeners.
5. **Evaluate Listening:** This traps the listener into the temptation of passing hasty judgements or unfounded evaluations about the speaker.
6. **Selective Listening:** Hearing only certain part of the speech/conversation **etc**, and think that is important to them.
7. **Attentive Listening:** Paying attention and focusing energy on the words that are being said. It is a process to observe and understand what is said and to assimilate the viewpoint of the speaker. Listening to this type is more useful in solving complex problems.
8. **Empathic Listening Or Active Listening:** This is the highest form of listening. This is listening with intent to understand how they feel. This type of listeners practices a lot of mental paraphrasing.

Listening for success:

The problems are almost the same in a one-to-one conversation particularly when the other side is your superior and group listening. Here your self-confidence, integrity, and character will play a significant role. Many a times people do not talk to you for getting solution to their problems, they want an empathetic ear. Psychiatrists make their living listening and helping patients feel better by just lending a friendly ear.

In conclusion, what we urgent need is awareness about the huge benefits of effective listening amongst all categories of people: students-teachers, children-parents civil servants-citizens, superiors-subordinates. All of us, irrespective of age and status can improve our aural skills. People who listen will have a much better chance for success.

Developing listening skills are very important for various reasons. Here are some of the many benefits you get out of becoming a good listener.

Benefits of being a good listener:

When you listen to other person with full attention, it shows that you are giving respect to the person. By giving the person respect, you gain his respect and love.

The other guy in turn will listen carefully to what you have got to say.

Listening skills will help you in knowing more about the person which can be helpful in your professional life as well as personal like.

By knowing more about the other person, you increase your chances of making friends with him/her. You endear yourself in their eyes.

You can improve relationships with people by being a good and sympathetic listener to their concerns and problems.

Listening skills help in improving conversation skills, and you can avoid many confusions, misunderstandings and conflicts if only you develop the willingness to lend more attentive ears to the speaker.

READING SKILLS

Reading skills are extremely important as they improve one's ability to communicate effectively. They are useful for immediate accomplishment like keeping up to date information, improving writing ability. In fact, proficiency in reading is a prerequisite to good writing ability. But reading alone will not help you unless you develop ability to comprehend what you have read. Listening and reading are strictly individual traits and are often taken for granted. We can pretend to read and listen which is not the case with speaking and writing. We may be hearing a speech but not listening (with mind) it is as much as we may be seeing a page of book but not reading it. What one effectively listens and reads becomes a valuable raw material for effective speaking and writing.

Reading is one 3R's of elementary education. The only one literally beginning with the letter R, the other two R's being (w)riting and (a)rithmetic, the principle focus of reading is on comprehension or understanding.

Reading is a process:

It is a visual process: Eye movement, eye span, and perception span.

It is a brain process: Word resources (or) vocabulary, background knowledge, general education etc.

Defining reading:

- Means learning to pronounce words.
- Learning to identify words and get their meaning.
- Learning to bring meaning to a text in order to get meaning from it.

An average reader reads 250 words/minute, a very good reader reads 500-600 words/minute and an exceptional reader reads 1000 or more words/minute.

Good reading depends upon you,

Your sharpness of your thinking facilities

Your ability to remember and retain what you read

Your word power.

For effective reading: you have to read twice

First a quick reading to follow author's pattern of thinking and organization of thoughts and to get to know the general meaning (overview).

In the **second reading**, you get to know the particular details (what you are looking for). You can understand details more effectively and remember them more easily once you have grasped the central theme. This approach is very useful to study and subject.

Comprehension is the main aim of reading. Rapid perception and thinking help good comprehension. Mind can also be trained for aggressive comprehension. Your word vocabulary has to be simultaneously increased. (Read regularly "It pays to enrich your word power" section in readers digest).

One of the best tools for a rapid, effective reading is skimming. But it depends upon the purpose and also whether the material before you lends itself to skimming.

Reading skills enable:

1. To read the written form as meaningful language
2. Read anything fluently.

To mentally interact with the message one should have the following skills:

Word attack skill: Ability to convert graphic symbols to intelligible language.

Comprehensive skills: Ability to use context and prior knowledge to aid reading and to make sense of what reads and hears.

Fluency skill: Ability to see larger segment and phrases as whole as an aid to reading and writing more quickly.

Critical reading skills: Ability to analyze, evaluate and synthesize what one reads, and ability to see relationship of ideas and use them as an aid in reading.

How we actually read:

Reading any written material involves eye movement over the words and sentences.

The eye movement: From left to right horizontally

In 1890, a French ophthalmologist Emile Javal found the actual movement of the eye.

He said there are what called fixations and saccades while reading. Fixation is nothing but fixing eye over a certain word for a brief period of time. While saccade is the jumping over certain words without any fixation.

Jack and Jill went up the hill ---- slow reader

Jack and Jill went up the hill ---- fast reader

The number of fixations and length of fixations determine the speed of reading. A slow reader has 15 fixations with 1 ½ seconds fixation time for each fixation. While the fast reader has only 7 fixations with 1/5th second as fixation time. Hence to become a fast reader you should stop fixing on each word and cut down the length of each fixation.

Regression: It happens while reading that is reader tends go back to the already read material again and again.

Visual wandering: It is another phenomena which generally happens. Reader tends to visualize and imagine about what he has read without reading further fully.

This regression and visual wandering result in unmotivated reading habits.

Reading faster is influenced by mental and physical barriers. The mental barriers are certain myths, lack of motivation and concentration. The physical barriers that influence speed of reading are position or posture, environment and eyesight problems.

The styles or approaches of reading:

Study reading:

Slow reading:

Rapid reading:

Skimming:

Some suggestions:

For developing reading skills and accomplishing success in reading are listed below.

1. **Objectives of reading** should be clear in mind. Normally people read things in which they are interested.
2. **Use the technique of skimming** which means reading for major ideas and not each word while scanning the material one should continue a silent communication with the author of the material i.e. responding to the materials is one's means of understanding the author's concepts.
3. **Take brief notes along with reading** to remember what has been read.

4. One should read critically and then **write down his own views** related to the concepts. In conclusion, some tips for faster and better reading:

In conclusion, some tips for faster and better reading:

- Make a quick survey of chapter headings, table of contents, introductory chapter, graphs, and illustrations, and the preface. (it will give an insight about the contents and nature of the material. It also helps deciding whether to read details)
- Learn to read by PARAGRAPHS. A paragraph generally contains one leading idea around which supporting details are arranged. Find this idea rapidly.
- Reading the “main idea” in each paragraph may be sufficient.
- If details are important, reading proficiency can be increased by organizing subsidiary ideas and facts.
- Watch for the directional word.
- Real fast reader knows how to glean the essential ideas by SKIMMING.
- These readers generally have a comprehensive knowledge of language and subject matter and know how to synthesize. They seek really essential or specific ideas of facts.

A word of caution:

- Best readers cannot read everything with the same speed.
- Reading speed depends upon reading objectives. Eg: Novels, Fiction, Economic theory.
- Motivation to read determines reading speed. Eg: Sports news by sports lover.
- Psychological barriers that impedes effective reading.

DOCUMENTATION SKILLS

- In general terms it is any communicable material (text video audio etc.) used to explain some attributes of an object system or procedure Its a tool to help individuals and development organisations learn from their own experiences
- Its an accumulation of our rich experiences to widely share with its an organized systematic process of note taking and recording that could later be used for policy advocacy fund raising and monitoring and evaluation.
- Its a key to knowledge management

- Its an effective source for providing relevant information and data that could be used for all purposes as appropriate.

Why is this important

- To get our message across
- To promote and mobilize resources
- To monitor evaluate and understand the impact
- To consciously make changes in our work
- To use it for advocacy purposes
- To influence policies and practices
- To add to institutional memory
- To capture events learning and experiences
- To generate knowledge and be an authority

Elements of Documentation

- Clarity on the subject and overall objective (what/why)
- Complete understanding of the programme information (aim time period location resources actors process end results)
- Familiarity with various tools and techniques for generating information (FGD Key Informant Interviews Case Studies etc)
- Selection of appropriate medium (written audio video) format style as per the context
- Good facilitation skills
- Precise focused simple and easy to understand and use
- Feeding back to the source
- Cross-checking verifying and triangulating
- Acknowledging the source (plagiarism is punishable)

Common Skill Gaps

- Patience (rush/hurry to document)
- Sensitive to confidentiality
- Shortsightedness (unaware of its longer term use/multiple use/reproduction)
- Technical skill to produce as per the needs

- Creativity and innovation (resistance to change/newness)
- Quality/salability/reliability
- Proper understanding of culture people location norms
- Grounded and human face
- Progressive learning (field notes simple accounts recording daily work field report progress report professional report)
- To generate knowledge and be an authority (sort of!)

Means of documentation

- Photographs
- Videos and documentaries
- Note taking
- Case studies
- Reports
- Articles
- Journals

Focus group discussion (FGD)

- It is a group discussion of approximately 6-12 people guided by a facilitator
- Group members speak freely and spontaneously about a certain topic among themselves guided by a facilitator
- It is a qualitative method to get in depth information on a certain topic

How to conduct a FGD

- Determine purpose
- Situation analysis
- Selection of participants
- Physical arrangements
- Preparation of a discussion guide
- A nominated facilitator or moderator and also a recorder
- Normally within 60-90 minutes
- Not more than one or two topics

Key Informant Interview

- It is obtaining information from a community resident who is in
- a position to know the community as a whole or the particular portion you are interested in.
- That community resident can be a professional person who works with the group you want more information about or a member of the target audience.
- Key informants can be young or old or from a variety of socio-economic levels or ethnic groups.
- They are an important source of information in a research aimed at qualitative assessment.
- Key informants can be interviewed in an informal way or you can use formal techniques such as telephone interviews personal interviews etc

How to do

- Selecting right informant (knowledge and analysis)
- Building rapport
- Acknowledging the wisdom of the key informant
- Finding a place for a free and open discussion
- Exploring unclarities and sensitive information
- Cross-checking triangulating and verifying
- Selecting people from various spectrums

Case Study

- Method for Qualitative research.
- In-depth longitudinal examination of a single instance or event.
- A systematic way of looking at events collecting data analyzing information and reporting the results.

Types of case studies

- Illustrative case studies
- Exploratory case studies
- Critical instance case studies
- Program implementation case studies
- Program effects case studies



- Prospective case studies
- Cumulative case studies

6.3. Consequences of poor inter personal communication skills

- Stress
- Lack of communication
- Irritation
- Close mindedness
- No team spirit
- Lack of credibility
- Poor self-esteem
- Suspicion
- Loss of productivity
- Isolation
- Poor health
- Distrust
- Anger
- Prejudice
- Un co-operative behavior
- Conflict
- Frustration
- Unhappiness

AEM-102

Communication of Agricultural Innovations

(3 Credits)

Block-II

Mass Media Communication

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Unit-1

Role of Mass Media in Agricultural Development

Structure

- 1.0. Objectives
- 1.1. Introduction
- 1.2. Concept of mass media
- 1.3. Role of mass media in Agricultural development

1.0 Objectives

After studying this unit, the reader should

- State the concept of mass media.
- Be able to explain the roles of mass media.

1.1 Introduction

Mass media – written, spoken and visual carry information from its source to receivers – readers, listeners, viewers. The media may be used effectively in dealing with all sections of society everywhere, but they are especially important for taking science and technology to Indian agriculture.

Mass media can be further divided into four types – printed, spoken, visual, a combination of those three. The term mass media implies a large audience. Mass media materials are needed whenever large number of people must be reached and motivated to action, which is an important advantage. Radio, television, cinema and newspapers are examples of mass media which have large audiences with very low cost per person contacted. Where mass media material influence people to adopt new practices, the cost per adoption is low. These materials may be used to supplement nearly any other teaching and information method.

1.2. Group Communication, Concept of mass media

It is very difficult to communicate about the Agricultural Technology to the individual farmer but it is more effective in enhancing more adoption rates. Mass communication is indirect and results influencing in adoption of Agricultural practices by the farmers. The next best approach is Group communication and often convey the information to the farmers in groups. This method provides direct contact with the individuals and also group dynamics operate for achieving the high productivity. Group pressure influences the individuals to proceed for adoption practices for Commodity Interest Groups (CIG), Self Help Groups (SHG) and youth groups are good examples to create solid impact in this regard.

1. *Commodity Interest Groups (CIGs):*

Farmers in India remain poor as they are not able to obtain better prices in spite of the hard work they do in order to reap harvests. They are not in a position to determine the price for their own produce. The need of the hour is to establish commodity groups, farmers interest groups and farmers federation so that they gain the confidence to fix price for their produce. A Farmers' Commodity Interest Group (FCIG) is a self managed, independent group of farmers with a shared goal and interest. The members work together to achieve this goal by pooling their existing resources, gaining better access to other resources and to share in the resulting benefits. The present era, is witnessing increased dealings in knowledge of the agricultural produce, their marketing and the role of the different farmers' groups in the entire marketing process.

Commodity Interest Groups were promoted under Extension Reforms at village level. Block level teams will monitor the function of CIGs.

FORMATION OF COMMODITY INTEREST GROUPS:

- i. CIGs should be promoted / mobilized for all major commodities (Size 20-25 farmers).
- ii. CIG members should meet at least once in a month to discuss activities and future course of action.



- iii. Block Technology Team (BTT) and Farmer Advisory Council (FAC) shall monitor functioning of all CIGs on a regular basis.
- iv. CIGs at village level should be federated at block level and subsequently at district level.
- v. CIGs should maintain proper register & records (commodity / proceedings / savings / accounts).

SELF HELP GROUPS (SHGs):

The Self- Help Group (SHG) is an informal organization of 10-20 persons from the homogenous poorer section of the society. It is controlled and managed by the members. The regular saving contribution to corpus fund is the eligibility to join the SHG. The mutual trust is the spirit of the organization. It has its own set of rules and regulations. There is transparency and accountability in SHG transactions. The SHGs are formed by the promoters like banks, NGOs and Government Departments such as Department of Women and Child Development etc. There are various categories of SHGs. Some are women SHGs and some other are men SHGs. My present research study is concern to women SHGs.

Features:

1. Regular savings by the group members
2. Transparency and accountability in SHG transactions\
3. Have promoting agencies like banks, NGOs, govt. departments, common interest cooperatives and corporate etc.
4. Have additional benefits like credit linkage, insurance and credit plan services
5. SHGs act as grass root level agents of development
6. SHGs are the primary units of development process of the country

SHG profile in India:

The Self- Help Group movement has been initiated in India, with a view to facilitate poor rural women to avail bank credit, a pilot project for micro credit by linking SHGs with banks. The Reserve Bank of India directed the commercial banks to actively participate in this linkage programme. However the SHG movement was

initially started as micro-finance institution movement has now taken the form of women empowerment paradigm as a group approach to eradicate rural poverty. The constitutional support⁶ to socio-economic justice and the international obligations have encouraged India to Endeavour to initiate the self-help movement in the country.

Growth of SHG in the country:

There is uneven geographical distribution of SHGs in the country. Andhra Pradesh alone has 30.5 percent of the total SHGs of the country. The lowest percentage i.e. 0.19 is in Punjab. The SHGs growth is very low in states like Assam, Bihar, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan where the social environment is totally unfavourable to rural women empowerment..

Why SHGs in India?

Self Help Group is the right approach to create self employment opportunities so as to supplement the income and assets of the rural poor.

The SHG programme provides the rural poor women to access to micro-credit. It encourages rural women entrepreneurship and rural women empowerment.

SHGs are working towards providing encouragement to minor irrigation, creation of self employment opportunities and development of educational facilities in rural India

SHGs help in providing urban amenities in rural area, to create new growth centres to take up investments in dairying, poultry, horticulture, farming, fishing, forestry, goatery, samall and cottage industries.

Thus, SHGs have achieved the expected results in income and employment generation activities. They have organized productive activities and enhanced their savings and investment levels. They have empowered rural women to some extent and enabled them to cross poverty line.

Characteristics of SHGs:

1. **Homogenous membership:** As far as possible, the membership of an SHG may comprise people from comparable socio-economic background. Though difficult to define in clear terms, a major indicator of homogeneity in membership is of conflicting interests among members.
2. **No discrimination:** There should not be any discrimination among members based on caste, religion or political affiliations.
3. **Small Group Approach:** Ideally is 20 so that members can participate in all activities, open freely and speak out their opinion. However, membership should not be too small since its financial transactions will turn out to be insignificant.
4. **Transparency in functioning:** Transparency provides mutual trust and mutual faith and confidence among the members.
5. **Thrift:** The habit of thrift is a must as it helps to build a strong bond.
6. **Set of by laws:** The SHGs draw and finalize a set of by laws indicating roles and regulations for the SHGs functioning and also roles and responsibilities.
7. **Utilizing savings for loaning:** Even an SHG has accumulated sizeable amount in the form of savings say for a period of 3-6 months, the members may be allowed to avail loan against their savings for emerging consumption needs and supplement their income for credit needs.

Sustenance among SHGs: Sustenance among SHGs is an important aspect which can be achieved through the following interactions.

1. Promotion of literacy among members

In order to make SHG effective in functioning, there is a need for all members to understand basics of finance and working of SHG. But illiteracy among members stands in the way of members to give their fullest to group functioning and taking up the NGO in villages.

2. Proper organization and management of group

In order to improve the organization and management of SHG, there is still a need to train both the leaders and SHG members. The trainings for leaders should be focused on the roles and responsibilities of leaders with regard to group functioning. Whereas all

SHG members need a thorough training on how a group functions and particularly emphasis need to be given on organizational and financial management of the group.

3. *Leadership development*

In order to maintain a balance between knowledge and confidence of members there is a need to rotate leadership roles among group members. It also helps in sharing of work and responsibility. Therefore, trainings to potential leaders must be imparted with focus on developing leadership skills, group dynamics and handling group conflicts.

4. *Exposure cum learning visits*

In order to keep the SHG active there is a need to plan and organize exposure cum learning visits for both SHG members and Project Staff. Care must be taken that these visits should be timely, relevant to group and frequent i.e. very long gaps bring down the motivational level of group members and project staff.

It is also important that compatible SHGs should only be chosen for visits so that the members can relate to them.

5. *Information empowerment*

Keeping in view the holistic approach for empowerment of women, it is essential to incorporate some essential aspects for the overall development besides technological interventions. These are social, political, legal along with child care, nutrition and health land home and environmental sanitation. Effective and proper trainings would help women to improve their personal and social life.

6. *Technological interventions*

Instead of addressing one technology uniformly to all SHG members efforts could be done to divide the women members of a village in various interest groups of farm and non-farm activities. Then only efforts be done to promote field demonstrations, providing technical guidance and a central place could be identified

where ready availability of equipments should be ensured on lending basis. This would definitely foster quicker adoption of technologies and wasteful expenditure of time and labour could be minimized.

7. *Activate groups in social mobilization*

The groups should register their existence and presence felt by the villagers by taking up activities that would promote social mobilization and development of their village. For this, various cultural activities could be planned like Prabhat Pheri, Drama, Puppet shows, song, skits, rally etc. with educational messages. In this it would be advisable to associate local artists as people can relate to them easily. The burning, relevant and current social problems can also be brought in front of village community. The SHG must also work together to tackle problems related to development of village.

8. *Promotion of Income Generating Activities (IGA)*

Though women in rural areas are exposed to some of the enterprises but it is not sufficient for them to establish in that venture. It is imperative to lay stress that a women must be guided and helped in choosing which enterprise she can take up. Also it must be ensured that SHG members are helped thoroughly to have knowledge on the process of establishing an enterprise, management and marketing. If these inputs are not supported strongly then women are least likely to succeed in taking up any IGA on sustainable basis even after having a desire and need for such activity.

9. *Evaluation, impact study and follow-up*

So much effort is put into giving inputs for development of women, but they are only of little value if it is not assessed as to how far these have marked an impact and how much the members have gained out of it. Therefore, there is a need to assess the impact of technological intervention, information empowerment, organizational and financial management of SHGs and leadership development. Such evaluation will help to pinpoint to the thrust areas that need to be restricted. Similarly follow-up activity needs to be done so that the problems could be attended as and when arises. In absence of

such mechanism the women feel left out and helpless and slowly and slowly the SHG is doomed to become extinct.

10. Organizational linkage development

In order to develop SHG as strong institutions at village level there is a need for developing a proper organizational linkage. For this it is necessary to have an agency at district level that would totally be entrusted with the task of development of rural women. This agency would direct women oriented schemes and programmes of GO and NGO for benefit of SHG members, help in redressal of social, legal, personal and other problems of women and arrange for cultural educational programmes at village level. This agency would have liaisoning at village level where a Women Empowerment Cell could be developed. This cell would help and guide SHGs in solving technological, financial, legal, social and other problems of members of SHG.

In addition there is an urgent felt need to associate an energetic, knowledgeable, resourceful, empathetic and experienced women to act a facilitator for the groups in a village. She should be there from initial stages of SHG formation till the group is in existence. Even though after SHG attains sustainability she should not be withdrawn. It has been seen that any programme of whatever magnitude and kind starts diminishing once the agencies and schemes start withdrawing. In order to constantly boost up the spirits of members and build trust and confidence among them the facilitator must be an integral component of effective SHG functioning.

In India, the number of SHGs has increased from 2122 in 1994-95 to 21.01 lakhs in 2005-06. Meanwhile the number of SHGs having bank loans increased from 1502 to 4.83 lakhs the total amount of bank loans increased from Rs. 179 lakhs to Rs. 3096.13 crores and the number of families loan availed increased from 25534 to 7238835.

YOUTH GROUPS

The Ministry of Human Resource Development (1985) considers 'youth group' in India as persons in the age group of 15 to 35 years. Youth forms nearly one-third of the

total population of India. Rural youth constitute over two - and - half times of the size of urban youth.

Social profile of youth:

Breakdown of the traditions socializing structure (for example, joint to nuclear family), urbanization, industrialization, migration, unemployment, and the effects of the mass media have affected the life and growth of the youth significantly. The dilemma and concerns of the youth have become accentuated rather than diminished. There is a need to establish a meaningful relationship in the family and community structure; there is a need for them to be fruitfully employed, and there is an equally important need to satisfy their search for identity for their own emotional intellectual and physical concerns.

BASIC NEEDS OF YOUTH PEOPLE

- Need for good physique
- Need for security and belonging
- Need for love and sympathy
- Need for fun and fellowship
- Need for achievement and competition
- Need for appreciation and recognition
- Need for new experience
- Need for a sense of personal growth
- Need for spiritual development
- Need for a sense of continuing learning

NEHRU YUVA KENDRAS (NEHRU YOUTH CENTRE)

For the development of non-student youth, the 3 scheme of Nehru Yuva Kendra (NYK) was initiated in India in 1972. The scheme comprises setting up in selected districts, one District Youth Centre and two Block Centres. A Coordinator is appointed at the district level. The Coordinator is an administrator as well as field worker and has a central role in the functioning of the Centre. Organizing Committees at three levels,

the Centre, State and District; coordinate, advise and supervise implementation of the programme.

Under the training programme of NYKs, the following major activities, besides others, are undertaken –

- i. Programmes of training for groups of rural youth engaged in various occupations in agriculture or allied fields to increase their functional capabilities and to bring improvement in their efficiency and productivity;
- ii. Vocational training programmes in selected fields in which opportunities for self employment are locally available; and
- iii. Assisting the rural people in securing credit from nationalized banks and cooperative societies.

The trades in which training is provided often differ from district to district and State to State, depending on local requirements and climatic conditions. There are more than 40 vocational trades in which training is imparted. The NYKs also assist in the running of other employment generating schemes like TRYSEM of the Ministry of Rural Development.

The NYKs, mostly located at the district headquarter, are expected to carry their programmes to the grass roots through a network of youth clubs and Mahila Mandals. These organizations, already existing or created by the Kendras are affiliated to the NYKs and function as suitable centres for planning and implementation of the programmes. These village level organizations provide the micro-level basic structure to translate the objectives of NYK into action through the methods of non-formal education.

Rural Youth Clubs

In India, the rural youth programme was first organized in the 1920s around Sriniketan in West Bengal by the workers of the Visva-Bharati. In 1953-54, experiments were initiated in certain parts of the country to organize rural youth on the pattern of 4-H clubs in the USA. The Planning Research and Action Institute, Lucknow initiated pilot

youth club projects in Balia, Etawah and Saharanpur district of Uttar Pradesh. Similar programmes were also started in some other States like the Punjab and Karnataka. The progress of rural youth activity had, however, been limited and did not take deep roots in the village development programmes (Vidyarthi, 1961).

The Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation and subsequently the Ministry of Human Resource Development made concerted efforts to organize youth clubs as an integral part of the development programmes.

Objectives of rural youth club

1. To lead a wholesome life
2. To develop cooperative attitude
3. To develop scientific outlook
4. To improve rural community
5. To appreciate dignity of labour
6. To recognize farming as a worthy occupation
7. To acquire scientific knowledge
8. To develop leadership talents
9. To serve as agents of change
10. To make wise use of leisure time
11. To conserve natural resources
12. To participate in healthy recreational activities
13. To aspire for continuing learning.

Steps to organize a youth club

- Step 1:** Study and grasp the village situation
- Step 2:** Contact village leaders
- Step 3 :** Call a preliminary village meeting
- Step 4:** Approach active youths and adult advisors
- Step 5:** Call a meeting of active and adult advisors
- Step 6 :** Formation of the club
- Step 7:** Have an enrollment drive
- Step 8:** Election of office- bearers and club leader
- Step 9:** Adequate initial guidance

With a view to giving a new thrust to the youth club movement in the country, a scheme of assistance was started. It aims at assisting the newly setup youth clubs at grass roots level to enable them to start their activities and get established.

Extension Programme for Rural Youth

1. Agriculture and rural development agencies should undertake comprehensive youth extension programmes to teach the rural youth agriculture related improved practices and other economic skills to enable them to become self-employed and increase income of their families.
2. Youth programmes must arrange various useful training, related to modern agricultural practices to increase their knowledge and skills. It should involve dropout educated rural youth earlier than other youth groups. Elderly rural youth need to be given due preference.
3. Rural youth from marginal and landless families may be encouraged to undertake such programmes and activities which would not be hindered by small farm size. These may be poultry, cattle and goat rearing; vegetable cultivation in and around the homestead; fish culture in mini-pond and the like.
4. Able and interested parents of rural youth need to be involved as organizational leaders of rural youth programmes. The extension functionaries need to be involved for technical assistance and guidance.
5. There should be provision for organized sports and cultural activities in youth programme to make the youth healthy in body and mind.
6. Opportunities should be created for the landless rural youth for community service and recreational activities in their free time.
7. There should be also provision for literacy programme, including functional literacy, in the youth programme.

Based on earlier studies, Singh (1998) emphasized that special attention needs to be given on educated rural youth for high-tech agriculture. These young farmers will not only act as key-communicators but will also be active partners in participatory research.

Concept of mass media

- Mass media refer to those which enable development agents or agencies to reach a large number of persons, directly (or) indirectly, with one exposure or a single source.
- Mass media channels are all those means of transmitting messages that involve a mass medium such as radio, television, and newspapers and so on, which enable a source of one or a few individuals to reach an audiences of many.
- Mass media are the means or devices of communication used to reach large number of audience at a time.
- Mass media are the tools or technologies that facilitate dissemination of information and entertainment to large numbers.

1.3 Role of mass media

1.3.1. Social integration & communication network

Through the mass media, social integration has been sought to be achieved in our rural areas and rightly so. At the same time, our society is hierarchical and stratified and the lack of vertical mobility among the various classes, particularly the rich and the poor who are separated by varying degrees of social distances that have tended to widen over the years, particularly after the onset of the Green Revolution. The various religious groups are also separated by emotional and psychological distances.

In this context, the tremendous expansion in the communication infrastructure in the countryside has been a welcome development. Printed text with words and figures communicate the message through the sense of sight only. Radio is a mass medium, which communicates message through sense of sound, but films and television combine both visual and auditory characteristics.

Impact of TV:

TV is instrumental in imparting knowledge on agriculture. The audio and visual impact of TV plays a great role in the life of illiterate persons also. In fact, illiterates gained more than the literates. While content analysis of other TV programmes for the

rural masses is still an unexplored field, very few studies have been made on farmwomen.

India is the first country in the world to use satellite for direct telecasting to the remote villages. The Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE) project was in operation for a year during 1975-76 and was carried out in the backward districts of Bihar, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka, Initially, the poor had no access to the media and hence there was community listening/viewing.

1.3.2. Media and motivation

Development communication media originated primarily to carry information on agriculture, health, population control, etc the rural masses. However, soon it was realized that information alone is not sufficient. Audience should be motivated to take to new practices. The media was thus given the additional role of motivating the audience. It was also found that unless infrastructural support was available from the development agencies, new ideas could not be practiced. For example, marketing a particular variety of seed available was not possible in the given constraint. Hence, close co-ordination between the media and development agencies was found to be very necessary.

1.3.3. Need for a balanced blend

With more than five lakh villages and about 5.028 blocks, the information needs of the rural masses are tremendous. We must make the best use of all media sources like the radio, TV, films, exhibitions, traditional media, like the folk dances, folk songs, folk dramas, etc as also talks, discussions on topics and the like. It has been found that the audio-visual medium is very effective, though it cannot replace classroom teaching altogether or take the place of a textbook. Rural newspapers have been utterly lacking in India. Whatever papers are available from within the rural areas; there is need for professionalism in them. There is also need for full-fledged morning newspapers in many of the rural areas. There is no gainsaying the fact that the mass media is

enormously instrumental in accelerating development in many areas of human endeavor, but its potential has been realized late in rural India.

1.3.4. Media is a facilitator

There is also a great need to use extensive interviews as research tool, to make people 'speak up' on various issues. For instance, for health services to children in the rural areas, the endeavour should be to generate awareness among the masses on the relevance of education should be to generate awareness among the masses on the relevance of education to their daily lives and living. The media can play the role of a facilitator to create an environment congenial to literacy promotion and make people more receptive to the efforts being made by the government for educating the children in remote and backward rural areas.

The effort should be to bring the rural communities to the state of preparedness, where they would pressurize the government to provide the infrastructure and facilities for basic elementary education as a right of each and every rural child. The media should explain that education is very important and relevant in the lives of all rural people. Mass media must bring about policy changes, when and if necessary, so that there is effective use of the communication channel.

1.3.5. Blending technology and tradition

If modern communication technology becomes an aid for the dialogue between the classes and the masses, between the thinking sections of society and the working, it will serve as a liberating force, as a support to emancipation and mass creativity. But if sophisticated technology turns into a substitute for a dialogue, into a destroyer of traditional communication among the people and between the people and the governing and intellectual elite, it will turn into an engine of structural oppressions of the masses. It would certainly be tragic if the communication revolution, which has vast potential of promoting the realization and renewal of folk and peasant art and culture, in its actual impact promotes their disintegration and destruction.

We have to see that the mass media becomes a beneficial tool for overall rural development. Through the media, people's lives could be enriched in various ways. And for this, variable relationship studies need to be conducted to know which factors are related and influence each other. Rural knowledge management needs to be promoted tremendously if the various ills of rural life and rural environment are to be removed.

1.3.6. The message and the medium

If one were to survey the rural scene in the country, one may hear a loud uproar about the pressing need for rural marketing, which is described as fascinating, challenging, exciting and highly profitable, but a cursory look at the number of organizations engaged in rural marketing would prove the hollowness of such claims. Though the rural market is sufficiently large and has a lot of potential for the marketers interested in tapping it, it poses numerous problems. Rural markets are highly dispersed, thinly populated and scattered. They are subject to varying religious, cultural and social pressures. This poses special problems for the marketing communicator while there is no one best way of communicating with the rural masses.

Therefore, selection of an appropriate medium or media for carrying the well-designed messages to the target audience is equally important. In rural India, there are age-old techniques such as word of mouth, signs, town cries, etc., having co-existed with the numerous media developed during the last two decades or so. No doubt, if proper types of communication channels are developed and effectively used in rural areas, they can become a very important source of disseminating knowledge and information to the vast number of people and to far-off places in the country.

1.3.7. Creating awareness

The first thing it can do is to make the people aware about the very existence of the programmes chalked out for them. Most of the rural folk, particularly in the remote areas are ignorant of them. In the process, those who are well off manage to avail

themselves of the benefits, defeating the very purpose of the programmes. Apart from the electronic media and the press, field publicity men can motivate the people through films and the traditional media.

1.3.8. Deciding priorities

The media can also send a helping hand in the identification of priority areas. The gram sabha will draw up plans for the development of its area based on the needs of the people. The rural reporters who make on the spot study of the village concerned can serve as a guide to the gramsabha.

1.3.9. Exposing lapses

Face to face talks with the beneficiaries of the programmes and representatives of Panchayat Raj institutions at various levels will bring to light the drawbacks in the implementation. Media reports will help initiate remedial measures. While projecting the positive side, the radio and TV should not get shy to expose the lapses.





Unit-2

Print, Electronic Media and Photo Journalism with Audience Research

Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Print Media
- 2.3 Radio Journalism
- 2.4 T.V. Journalism
- 2.5 Photo Journalism, Media Convergence with Audience Research

2.0 Objectives

After studying this unit, the reader should

- State the different types of information materials
- Explain the different print media viz, leaflets, folders, bulletins, circular letters etc.
- Be able to know how to write Radio scripts.
- Be able to understand writing T.V. scripts
- Be able to realize the importance of photos and pictures in print and other media.

2.1 Introduction

Mass media can be divided into printed, spoken, visual, and a combination of those three. Mass media materials are needed whenever large number of people must be reached and motivated to action, which is an important advantage. Printed media, radio, television, cinema are examples of mass media, which have large audiences with very low cost per person contacted. Modern nations probably could not exist without mass media materials.

2.1 Print Media

Print Media of various types such as leaflets, pamphlets, circular letters etc. Printed materials are used singly or in combination with other extension methods. Some of the printed materials are presented below.

2.2.1 Leaflets

A leaflet is usually a single sheet of printed matter, sometimes folded. It gives accurate or specific information on a particular topic.

It is intended to:

Provide precise and reliable scientific information told in simple language about a single practice or item of interest.

Serve immediate needs of the farmer.

How to Write

A. Plan the Script

1. Decide on your message select topics related to the urgent needs of the farmer – have one simple practice or idea at a time.
2. Jot down all appropriate points – decide the essential points – finally arrive at the desirable points.
3. Select the most important one from the essential points – this forms the central theme.
4. List the remaining essential points in logical order and group the desirable points under the appropriate essential points.

B. Write the Script

1. Write your script, with all essential points in sequence, the desirable points supporting the essential ones.
2. Make the most important points catch the reader' interest.



3. Write in simple short sentences – use familiar words – be clear in your words and sentences – avoid being misunderstood.
4. Address your sentences to your reader.
5. Lead him to action.
6. Be accurate in your information.
7. Be brief.
8. Use illustrations and pictures in the appropriate place.
9. Give details with reference to local situation.
10. Start with an appeal, which will be of benefit to the reader.
11. Round up with confirming what you said at the opening of your leaflet. It will reassure your reader.
12. Mention the source where further information on the topic or help can be obtained.

C. Review the Script

1. Go over the writing, after the completion of it – over after a day.
2. Remove the defect and rewrite, where required.

Advantages:

They are (1) economical, (2) relatively easily and quickly prepared, (3) can be preserved and used by readers, and (4) supplement other information and media.

Commercial concerns and theatres commonly distribute leaflets to advertise their products. In extension, leaflets may be distributed by the staff personally at field days, farmers' tours and college days. Other distribution methods are by post, and by placing in seed, fertilizer, and insecticide bags. Such methods permit large numbers of leaflets to be distributed easily, quickly and at small cost. Attractiveness of leaflets can be increased by using different colors of paper or ink, and by illustrations or photographs. Leaflets – sometimes called flyers.

2.2.2. Pamphlets

The leaflet contain from 4 to 12 pages stitched or stapled at the center. The pamphlet varies in size from 12 to 24 pages. The difference is arbitrary, and may sometimes refer to a leaflet as a pamphlet or it may be the other way round.

2.2.3. Circular Letters

Circular letters give an intimate, personal approach to the extension message. Receiving a letter is an important event for village people. Use letters as an effective method to convey information of common interest to large numbers of literate people at one time

Circular letters are more easily and quickly prepared than most other information materials. They are economical when mimeographed, costing only a fraction of paise each. It can be very effective if it has a personal touch and drawings, cartoons or pictures.

There are two types of circular letters: (1) Announcement and (2) Subject Matter. The Announcement letter announces about an event such as meeting, demonstration etc., to take place. It invites people to take action. The Subject Matter type of letter may be in the form of a chatty, informal news story. It has the facts, but they are presented in personalized form. It is designed to bring out changes in practices.

A good circular letter contains these three essential parts:

First - introduction. Relate the new message to a previous favourable programme, experience or situation, or show how it is opposite from a previous unfavourable programme, experience or situation.

Second - explain the importance of the topic and show how it will benefit the reader.

Third - appeal to action and relate the action to the objective in writing a letter;

2.2.4 News Letters

A newsletter deals with current items of interest and normally is printed periodically. Newsletters deal with more than one subject, are printed in large numbers and distributed in many ways.

Some tips on preparing news letters are:

1. Use a salutation, if necessary, such as “Dear Farmer” etc.
2. Let the length of the letter be normally 4 to 8 pages.
3. Have desirable size like 6” x 9”. It should be handy.
4. Illustrate it with realistic photos, cartoons and sketches.
5. Let the lay-out be attractive. It is better to have news items in columns and each news item should carry, one illustration along with it, as far as possible.
6. Have an attractive get up. The front page has to carry title of the news letter, with an illustration containing emblem – representing the publishing agency. The page may contain a brief editorial. Last page may contain again an illustration, special appeals, if any, and name of publishing agency.
7. News items may consist of periodical hints to farmers, achievements and experiences of farmers, research findings, announcements, and a few statistics. Other miscellaneous items may be important events of the area, special festivals in which the audience are interested.

2.2.5 Folders

A folder is a single piece of paper folded once or twice. When opened, material is presented in sequence. Make sure this sequence appears in the finished folder. If not, the reader may become confused.

Folders are normally printed on paper heavier than flyers so they may last longer. Folders are usually prepared on “offset” or heavier paper. They may be made more attractive by using photographs, line drawings and various colors of inks and paper. A four-inch by eight-inch folder is quite attractive. A width-to-length ratio 1: 11/2 may be

more suitable when paper size permits, without waste. There is no set rule on size. The basic consideration is that publication size fits the paper stock, thus eliminating excessive trimming.

Folders are economical. Folders are not distributed as freely and indiscriminately as are flyers because they (1) cost more, (2) may be used with more sophisticated audience, and (3) are more durable.

2.2.6 Bulletins

A Bulletin conveys large amount of information. Its primary objective is to give information which the reader can apply to his own local situation. It is a booklet running into more than 20 pages.

Bulletins are of two kinds:

1. Technical bulletin – designed primarily to present scientific material to those working in specific fields.
2. Popular bulletin – to present material to people in the field of extension.

Extension bulletins are popular bulletins for extension workers, progressive farmers, school teachers, instructors in colleges and extension training centers.

For effective preparation of popular bulletin the following points have to be considered:

1. Have good 'eye appeal'. It should be attractive to see.
2. Use direct style in writing: It should be simple, direct, clear and convincing without 'fine' writing.
3. Choose words as you would your friends. Select words and use them in proper relationship.
4. Make sentences light. Be clear, precise and definite. Make sure you say what you have in mind. Check and recheck. Mention important information in the first part of your sentence.
5. Have short paragraphs.

2.2.7 Farm Journals

Farm Journals are important tools to disseminate relevant development messages to the rural audience. The Farm Journals suffer from a number of problems viz financial problems, delayed publication, lack of trained farm journalists, technical jargon etc. Some of the suggestions for improvement of farm journals are.

- Farm Journals must cater to miscellaneous interests of farmers and provide contents to tastes of different categories of readers.
- Use of illustrations and photographs should be promoted.
- Editor of farm Journals should preferably be agricultural Graduate trained in farm journalism and exposed to rural life and farming.
- There is urgent need to simplify technical terms.
- Lay out, typography, preparation of illustration, proof reading should not be left to chance.
- Accuracy in reporting of technical information is a must. Name of chemicals, varieties and their doses must be carefully checked.

2.2.8. News Stories

News is any timely information that interests a number of persons, and the best news is that which has the greatest interest for the greatest number. It is an accurate, unbiased account of the main facts of a current event that is of interest to the readers of newspaper.

The purposes of new stories are a) to develop interest b) to inform general public c) to disseminate subject matter information d) to create favorable attitude e) to reinforce other extension methods like meetings and demonstrations.

1. Remember that news should have one or more of the following characteristics.
 - a) Something that actually happens
 - b) Unusual (extra-ordinary) 8000 lb of paddy pease.
 - c) Important (not trivial)

- d) New, recent or timely
 - e) Something that interests farmers
 - f) New knowledge
2. Use accepted principles of good writing
- i. Write the lead sentence i.e. something of importance to the reader.
 - ii. Use inverted pyramid pattern of writing
 - iii. Use the five W's and H as a guide
 - iv. Write in simple language
 - v. Avoid using your personal opinion
 - vi. Be accurate, fair and brief
 - vii. Include motivating appeals
- b. Evaluate effectiveness of news stories

A few examples will make this clear

2.2.9. Wall Newspaper

As the name implies, a wall newspaper is printed on only one side so it may be displayed on walls or similar backgrounds.

They are intended to provide timely information periodically to rural people. Color, illustrations, drawings and photographs help attract attention. They are normally on off set paper.

Unlike leaflets or folders, wall newspapers contain more than one item. Announcements, crop forecasts, latest research results, success stories, recommended practices news of extra activities and other important items, all may be in one issue.

Points to remember in preparing and using wall newspapers are:

Lettering should be bold and large enough to be read from distance, words and sentences and paragraphs should be short, select items for interest and timeliness,

display in prominent, well lighted open areas at convenient height to reading, and protect from sun, wind and rain when displayed outside.

2.2.10. Newspaper

It is a bunch of loose printed papers properly folded, which contains news, views, advertisements etc and is offered for sale at regular intervals, particularly daily or weekly.

Newspapers are usually printed on a special type paper known as newsprint.

The purposes of newspapers are

- to serve as a forum for extension activity in an area or a community
- to put out information which would be of service to the leaders and people and to highlight the important activities of individuals and groups which are worthy of emulation.
- To acquaint the public about programmes, activities, progress etc.

The points to be remembered in writing newspapers are a) write it in story type. It should be easy to understand and simple language b) give a personal touch c) give accurate details d) plan publication so that the different issues are in a sequence e) encourage local farmers to write and f) give a suitable caption.

2.2.11. Banners

Banners are traditional mass media information visuals in India. One need only walk down a village, rural town to see banners flying, advertising everything from meetings to sweet meat shops. Extension workers seldom use them.

Banners are rather costly and require considerable time and skill. As with all other information materials, they must be attractive with a brief, dearly presented message. Height and length of a banner should be pleasing proportions unless durable cloth and waterproof paints are used. Wind and rain may destroy the banner therefore flex printing can be taken.

2.2.12 Calendars

Calendar are widely distributed in most countries of the world as an advertising tool. Hence they should not be overlooked by extension workers.

A unique and outstanding advantage of calendars, when hung in offices, colleges, schools and homes, is that they are constant, year-round reminders of educational messages.

2.3 Radio Journalism

Radio is most popular mass media, among majority of rural. When you want to reach people who cannot read or write, or people who live in remote villages, and when you want to reach people speedily, you make use of the radio. It is a personal medium, received in private by the listener in the company of his family members or by himself.

The radio belongs to the spoken word means of Communication. The medium is transient and fleeting and its impression is quick and faint. It is a one-way communication. The message has to be simple and clear so that people can understand it and act. The broad caster has to get and hold the attention of audience otherwise the message is lost.

Special features of Radio:

There are certain special advantages with radio as a medium. It reaches more people more quickly than any other means of mass communication. It is relatively cheap. It reaches illiterate audience also. It builds enthusiasm and maintains interest. You use the radio to inform, alert, direct, interest, stimulate and motivate people.

Limitations

- Radio alone cannot bring change
- Listeners have no control over content or speed of message
- It is difficult to transmit complicated messages through radio.

Mode of programme presentation

Radio programmes are presented in the form of news, interviews, discussion, documentaries, quiz, question-answer etc.

Writing the News

Let's take radio news. Writing the news for the radio is different from writing it for the newspaper. The technique you follow for writing the news for the newspaper is good only for the news paper. The reader has your words before him and he can read them at his pace. There is the headline to prepare him for the news. He can go back and read it all over again if he misses any point or fails to understand you fully. Not so with the radio. There is no chance for him to go back and start from the beginning.

That is why you have to write the news for the radio to suit the ear and not the eye. It has to be short, simple and direct with familiar words and simple sentences. In other words, it has to be made very, very simple

Write in the way you would say it aloud to your friend or a group of people. Remember, it is a voice-to-ear method of communication. Your news script has to be 'listenable' as your written word has to be 'readable'. Let us take a few examples.

Readable:

A bullock -drawn reaper for harvesting wheat has been designed and developed by the Research and Training Center of the Punjab Agricultural University at Ludhiana. The machine has been successfully tried on the University Farm, and steps are being taken for its production on a commercial scale.

Listen able:

A bullock-drawn reaper has just been developed. The machine is for harvesting wheat. The reaper has been designed and developed at the Punjab Agricultural University at Ludhiana. The machine has been worked successfully at the University Farm. Steps are now being taken to produce it in large numbers for sale to farmers.

Readable:

The Uttar Pradesh Government today proposed the establishment of four new fertilizer plants with a capacity of 1.8 million tons a year to meet the State's requirements of fertilizers in the Fourth plan period.

Listenable:

Uttar Pradesh Government today proposed to set up four fertilizers factories. The four factories together will produce 1.8 million tons of fertilizers a year. This quantity of fertilizers is what is needed by the state in the Fourth plan period.

Thus you see that writing the news has to be based on sound rather than sight. It follows the rule of good conversation. It is more direct, with a simpler sentence structure.

Keep the news items brief. The radio station cannot stretch time, and has to accommodate your programme within the time slot it has at its disposal.

Script for the talk

A straight talk on the radio is in a way the most unnatural way of talking. It is an indirect talk with an unseen listener. It is a one-way traffic. Therefore local dialect must be used like bhojpuri, dharwad kannada, telangana, coastal telugu, rayalaseema telugu etc.,

Thousands may be tuned in to your station and to your programme. But you have to address your talk to one, two or to a small group of listeners. You have to mould your talk as if you are sitting round the table with the listeners and chatting, and not mark the words, teaching, lecturing or sermonizing. You have to remember that the listener is free to turn the knob if you sound as if you are teaching or lecturing. Nobody tunes in to hear a dry lecture or a sermon.

- 1 First, select a topic.
- 2 It should not be one that needs an hour to explain.



- 3 It must be something that you can cover in a few minutes.
- 4 It has necessarily to be of interest to a very large number of listeners.
- 5 You have plenty of topics to select from, Ex: significant crop or livestock developments, the agricultural situation, demonstrations, success stories, current problems, research station stories, meetings held, or to be held, questions asked, new farm or home publications, current angles of a project, crop and livestock competitions, activities of farmers clubs, women's clubs and youth clubs.
- 6 A five-minute talk is ideal for the radio.
- 7 A talk should never go beyond ten minutes at any cost.
- 8 120 words should be a good average for a minute.
- 9 Your talk should have about 600 words.
- 10 You can have an additional 50 or 100 words as a stand-by, in case you finish reading earlier than your allotted time.
- 11 Write out the central fact or point as a complete and definite guiding statement before composing your talk.
- 12 Select two or three supporting points, which will strengthen the main statement.
- 13 Then write the script. When you write, write as if you are talking to a person in his own home, someone whom you know personally.
- 14 Make your script clear and convincing, and your arguments logical
- 15 The script for the radio talk should have your idea plainly stated at the beginning itself so that the listener has no doubt at all of what you are going to talk about.
- 16 Having done that, you enlarge on the main idea - provide the supporting ideas. Finally, summarize clearly what you said.
- 17 Make your facts and statements convincing. Give logical reasons for making them. Give examples.

- 18 Quote authorities. Give instances when what you say was put into practice with success. Point out the results of experiments, trails, demonstrations and research surveys. Give local places, names of local people, local examples.
- 19 Spell out large figures in the script; write two lakhs, rather than 2,00,000. It makes reading it out easier for you.
- 20 Do not give the impression that everything to be said about your subject has been said in your talk.
- 21 Make the listener seek further information about it, either by contacting the specialist or asking for a leaflet.
- 22 After you have written the script, check it.

2.4. Television Journalism

Has unique advantages over other mass media. While it provides sound, vision and movement. It can reach largest number of people in shortest possible time. It is a medium unlike any other. T.V. Screen is small and depends on close-ups. People can watch sitting in their homes. Television viewing does not demand extra strains to go out or read a book and the message are pre-selected, sorted out to present in simple manner. The medium is quite suitable for subjects that require dramatized presentation, identification of objects, live demonstration of complex technical process depicting animated presentation and presentation of experiences, places, processes, unfamiliar to viewers.

What television can or cannot do

As a mass medium T.V. leads to awareness, contributes to information and helps to form opinion. Before the farmers are motivated to action, televised information may create awareness and interest. However, local demonstration and interpersonal communication are required to convince them. T.V. is good in exposing people to a whole range of new ideas and experiences. Programme on agriculture have immediate effect if ideas are put forward at a time when need them most, deal with subject about

which farmers do not have pre-fixed notion. If programmes are supportive to efforts made by extension or advisory services working in the locality, the changes are more likely to come.

Limitations

It is centralized mass medium i.e. programmes are produced in distant urban environment and so may not be appropriate for all viewers alike. Those who cannot afford costly inputs recommended by TV cannot benefit. Language of TV is quite sophisticated for rural viewers.

Components of good television programs

A good television program must attract the viewers' attention and hold their attention. It will do this by being-

Relevant to the audience

- Understandable
- Believable
- Technically well made

Characteristics of effective television program

- Good Design: Purpose, objectives and message will be strong and clear throughout and will be based on thorough planning. There will be an effective balance of visual and aural presentation of the message so that the visuals are not used as decorative additions to the spoken message.
- Good Script: The message will be presented in a format suited to the medium and attractive to the chosen audience. At all times the script will acknowledge the importance of finding and maintaining the balance between message and medium.
- Good Production: The finished program will be good, cleanly produced television, adhering to all the rules of good presentation – both technically and artistically.

Attracting the attention of audience

It is good idea to give some thought to what it is that attracts audience to a subject with which they are not already familiar. Some considerations are:

- It affects their lives
- It affects their health
- It affects the welfare of their families
- It offers an immediate (or near immediate) chance of improved income of higher value for money
- It offers an immediate (or near immediate) chance of improved life-style
- It allows them to make use of natural talent
- It provides them with a feeling of self-worth
- It gives pleasure
- It is informative.

In choosing format for the programmes, one should take into account the following:

- Audience preference
- Budget – some types of programmes are much expensive to purchase than others, so budget must be a high priority item in determining format. It is possible to make low cost programmes with help of Mass Communication departments of Education Media Research Centre of Universities.
- Time – This is as important as budget, since some TV formats such as animation, require considerable time which may not be available to you.
- Type of information to be disseminated
- Preference of TV station using the programme
- Length of programme (some formats are suited to longer programmes, while others are better for short “filler” style).
- Availability of facilities (since producing television requires an array of facilities including editing, dubbing, transfer time etc). One must make sure these facilities will be available when needed or even that they are available at all.
- Producer’s personal preference and abilities
- Suitability of format to subject matter

Formats commonly used for the delivery of development of message on television:

1. **Actuality:** In actuality, the audience sees and hears people in undertaking being discussed. The programme may be introduced by a host, but from then on, rather than interviewing people the programme cuts directly to the people involved.
2. **Animation:** It is business of combining individual shots (of still drawing) to give the illusion of movement.
3. **Demonstration:** A demonstration programme is just what its name implies. It is a programme in which the main focus is the demonstration of the way something is done or the way something works. A demonstration can be done in the studio or in the field.
4. **Documentary:** A documentary explores a topic in depth. Frequently a documentary is created by shooting first and scripting later.
5. **Drama:** A drama is a play which presents a true-to-life story in dramatized form with actors playing the parts of the story's characters. The story develops through what the characters do and say. Drama is an effective way of involving an audience since it is a realistic representation of life.
6. **Graphics:** The word graphic means pictures. A very effective programme can be created using painted pictures, across which the camera can move to create a sense of movement.
7. **Illustrated Talk:** In this type of programme, the focus is on person (usually an expert, or perhaps a host) who is presenting the information. However, rather than stay on the person (and create a boring type of programme known in the trade as a "talking head" programme) the programme uses illustrations of what the presenter is talking about.
8. **Interview:** This is exactly what the name implies – a host interviewing someone on a particular topic. An interview can be done on the location or studio. The interview is a very hard programme to do well on television.

9. **Panel show:** This type of programme is usually done in studio with a group of experts discussing a topic with a moderator. It is likely to be more interesting than an interview because it involves more number of people, but it needs to be very well planned and rehearsed so that the camera is always on the appropriate speaker.
10. **Puppets:** Some very effective and interesting programmes can be made using puppets instead of live actors. The advantages of puppets are that they add novelty; they do not have to be paid (as actors often do); lines do not have to be learned, since the people playing the parts of the puppets can read the lines and rehearsal time can be considerably shortened.
11. **Slides:** Slides are much cheaper than film or tape and can be used very effectively for a television show. Be sure that one allows about 1 slide for every 3-5 seconds. If the slide is left on screen for too long, it slows down the action very badly and results in static and therefore boring show.

Writing Script For Farm Telecast Programmes

Script writing for farm telecast is the most difficult job. It requires:

1. Great degree of creativity
2. Language and editing skills
3. Journalistic talents
4. Command over the content
5. Capacity to put the content in a story format in logical sequence and suitable format
6. Perfect visualization of entire programme in the mind
7. Selection of correct format (method of presentation)
8. Profile of audience
9. Knowledge about local terminology and illustrations
10. Information requirements of the farmers or viewers

2.5 Photo Journalism

“One picture is worth a thousand words”

Words, written or spoken, often fail to convey what exactly is meant. Many words have more meanings than one, and the average reader, and especially our farm reader who has not had much education, takes time to understand the precise meaning of a word. The written word thus cannot tell everything clearly and precisely. This is where pictures come to your help.

Man first created pictures to communicate with others. Pictures gave place in course of time to symbols. Symbols to letters and letters to words. Man found in words a quicker and easier form of expression, and words came to be used more than pictures.

But pictures still have a hold on us. We are all interested in pictures, because they tell us more than what words can ever do. With pictures we learn faster, and remember things longer.

A good picture (or illustration) draws the viewer’s attention at once and arouses his interest in the subject matter. Those who read slowly can more easily grasp meanings with the help of pictures. Pictures are a universal language, and help all readers get the meaning correctly. They also make the subject matter more realistic and lively.

Pictures help you cut down the length of your writing. A picture can replace the many words which you would otherwise require to explain and convey a fact effectively. The average reader is always attracted to pictures and when there are pictures, and is readily coaxed into reading the text.

The layout of a page looks more attractive with pictures. They also lend a tone of authority to your writing.

All this makes Farm Editors not only give as many pictures as possible with the articles, but also sometimes set apart a few pages entirely for pictures either on different

subjects of on a single subject to form a picture story. We shall learn more about the picture story later.

- 1 When you write a story for farm papers or magazines, or draft a leaflet or bulletin, you think of illustrating it with photographs, drawings, charts and graphs.
- 2 All these help a good deal in making your writing better understood.
- 3 Of these, photographs are more commonly used, because they are more realistic than the others.
- 4 Photographs are best taken by yourself since you are the best judge of the kind of photographers that should go with your story.
- 5 You can get them taken by a professional photographer, But it will cost you more.
- 6 A photograph must tell a story, and tell it at a glance.
- 7 It should have one central or dominating point of interest.
- 8 This dominating point should not be at the dead center of the photograph, but a bit away from the center.
- 9 The photograph should be pleasing to the eye, if not fascinating. Light and shade will increase its worth.
- 10 Before you finally select a photograph, see if it fits in with your writing, and if it helps clarify and explain your subject matter, and can get the attention of the reader.
- 11 Discard all foggy pictures or those with muddy areas.
- 12 Do not 'trim' or cut the photographs.
- 13 Do not also paste them on mounts.
- 14 Type out (or write clearly) the caption and other instructions on a separate slip of paper and paste this slip on the back of each photograph.

- 15 Get a thin sheet of paper to cover the picture or front side of the photograph and secure it firmly by pasting its top portion on the back of the photograph.
- 16 Do not use pins or clips. Do not write the captions or any other matter with pencil on the back of photograph.
- 17 Diagrams, plants, working drawings (blue-prints) are other illustrations are pressed into service to make our meaning clearer.

Charts and graphs are used for adding reader interest, and clarifying, condensing or explaining points. They also give feeling of authority to your writing.

Media Convergence

The Gutenberg era is over. A new digital communications technology has emerged. An electronic superhighway is beginning to girdle the globe as voice, video and data converge, bringing in their wake a new basket of digital, multimedia and interactive communication technologies.

But it is not just the technologies that concern us. It is the social change that accompanies the technologies that must be our prime concern. The new technologies are doing much more. They are changing the way we live-the way we work, relax, manage our money, trade and communicate with each other. The new technologies are changing the way we perceive people, cultures, countries and companies and our expectations of them and also our expectations of ourselves.

The Past Days of Communications

Several preliminary steps occurred in human history which are the basis for all human communication. While it can be argued that the species has always had an underlying basis of verbal and nonverbal language, the organization of the verbal language into discrete components with a lexicon and syntax allowed the eventual development of forms of written communication, which progressed from symbolic drawings to phonemic symbols. A significant revolutionary step in the development of

written communication was embodied in the printing press, which allowed a rapid reproduction of written thought and eventually the reproduction of drawings and photographs, as well. However this means of communication is essentially one-way and /or nonreal time.

The first remote communications method that exhibited a real-time nature was telegraphy. The telegraph allowed an instantaneous transmission of text characters to a remote receiver. Telegraphy utilized a coded translation (via the Morse code, among other) of letters and numbers into an on/off digital representations that could be easily decoded at the remote end by a trained human operator, who listened to the clicks of a remote solenoid . Later, telegraph progressed to a constant-length code that was encoded and decoded by mechanical means. This coded representation became the basis for storage, retrieval, and transmission of text by computers. Although telegraphy provided an important means of communication for critical business and personal one-way communication, it created little change in every day life. This was the first generation of communication.

The invention and proliferation of the telephone, on the other hand, did provide pervasive change in everyday interpersonal communication. Unlike written correspondence or telegraphy, two parties could now give immediate feedback by responding to statement, answering questions, providing needed information, or taking needed action. In addition, the telephone added a critical component" one could not only recognize the other person's voice, but hear the tone, urgency, and emotion that is so important to effective interpersonal communication. Subsequently, the development of wireless voice communication through two-way radio equipment provided similar benefits without the need for fixed wiring.

The deployment telephone and two-way radio systems have brought us instantaneous voice communication. As a result, we can have quick and easy voice access to others around the world, and even in aircraft and ships at sea.

Video communication has also moved quickly to influence our everyday lives. From the early beginnings of television, we have had the ability to communicate fixed and moving images in real time. One-way transmission of video and audio content are now second nature, although recent years have seen the addition of more extensive content selections through cable and direct satellite transmission. Now technological advance will allow new applications for video communication that are not limited to a single direction, one-to-many mode.

These Second generation systems are digital and capable of providing voice, data and fax transfer, apart from a range of other value-added services. At present second generation systems are still evolving with ever-increasing data rates via new technologies such as HSCSD (high-speed circuit switched data) and GPRS (general packet radio service). At the same time, there is an increasing demand from consumers for data delivery, telephony services, global roaming, E-mail, video and Internet access on one single device. These needs have resulted in global standards that are more open, like Wireless Application Protocol (WAP). Applying high-speed data transfer and radio terminal technology (like bluetooth), third generation systems are now evolving to provide the bandwidth required for multiple usage. The 3G enables multimedia and is currently in the process of being standardised under 3GPP (a Standardisation body with representatives from Asia. Europe and the America which is helping to establish technical specifications). Among the three types of system to be standardised (WCDMA -DS, MC-CDMA and UTRA TDD), Japan and Europe will adopt WCDMA-DS when they usher in 3G in 2001-2002.

For the first time a merging of communications media is becoming practical. Properly implemented, this will make immediately available the vast knowledge base we have been busy computerizing. It will also make direct voice and video communication ubiquitous. Data sharing, with adequate security and safeguards, we allow information and commerce flow freely. We will create a true global village, with instantaneous multimedia communication which will provide substantial increases in

productivity, a better quality of life, enhancements in education and recreation, and cross-cultural understanding.

The Genesis

The roots of network convergence can be traced to the advent of digital communications, which reduced information into discrete, identifiable and thus, more easily transferable pieces of information. It also efficiently maximizes the transfer of information by allowing more signals to move through a single communication path. Network convergence utilizes this attribute of digital communication to efficiently and effectively distribute different types of information - voice, video and data on the same communication network. Moreover, network convergence reduces the inefficient flow of voice, video, and data whose different characteristics led to the development of separate communication network that were designed differently, and are often incompatible.

Network convergence has also developed from the implementation of digital packet-switching technologies. Such as IP telephony that permits the transmission of voice, video, and data over computer network that were originally developed only for data transmission.

The New Paradigm

With blurring of geographical boundaries, thanks to the distance insensitive Internet, majority of business and individual are becoming part of a high-speed networking fabric which will enable secure digital communication of voice, data, and video to or from anyone, any where and anytime. Till recently, it would have sounded like a chapter straight out of science fiction fortunately, the technology now exists to deliver it. Customers now want to pick and chose from narrowcast and broadcast. They want a fusion of voice, data, and video in all possible mixes. In other words, this means the availability of multiple technology choices to fulfill the customer's desire for anytime access to people, information, and commerce.

But convergence does not necessarily sound the death knell of age-old technologies. In fact, it leaves enough room for many technologies to co-exist and one will not replace the other outright. This is because no one technology can meet all the requirements of the market-place. Hence, each technology will find its niche and redefine new and old classes of service and user terminals. In this context one can safely assume that there will be a rash of new user terminals that will let us communicate in ways we dream.

Convergence is the key today. We can think about convergence in several different ways. One is in terms of the actual industries converging, such as communication, entertainment, and computing. Another is converging voice, video, and data over a common infrastructure or within a common computing platform.

One important factor during convergence is the transformation of the desktop computer through faster processors supporting advanced graphics and multimedia capabilities. The PC today is a collaborative communication and media tool .

Another factor driving convergence is the cost of maintaining three separate networks for voice, video, and data. Corporations can realize substantial saving in equipment, staff, and services by using converged networks.

Enterprises are looking at cost savings in the WAN as the first leverage point for convergence. Using Voice-over-Frame Relay, VOIP and Voice-over-ATM the same WAN lines can be used for voice as well as data, resulting in substantial cost savings.

Next, enterprises want to install the LAN and WAN infrastructure to do real-time video and audio information delivery.

For education, a professor's lecture can be delivered to remote campuses live or as stored video-on-demand files on a web sites, Converged networks can also be used to deliver corporate communications, presentations, and training to employees directly at their desktop.

Its Affect on Data Networks

Convergence is fundamentally changing what a data network is, from a traditional data packet store-and-forward mechanism, to a real-time communication infrastructure. That really changes data network requirements and drives the need for higher bandwidth, class and quality of service, multi-cast support, and policy management.

Many people believe that we still need to run ATM to the desktop to support these new features. Ethernet has evolved into a very suitable technology for delivering these advanced features at about a third of the cost of running ATM to the desktop.

Using Same Application Standard

With standards-based converged applications, we see interoperability between different vendors - high-end videoconferencing systems, for example, can talk to low-end desktop system using the same application standard.

Payload convergence is that aspect of converged networking wherein different data types are carried in the same communication format. However, the payload convergence does not prohibit the network from handling packets, according to their service requirement.

Protocol convergence is the movement away from multi-protocol to single protocol (typically IP) networks. While legacy networks are designed to handle many protocol and one type of data, converged networks are designed to handle one protocol and provided the services necessary for multiple types of data (such as voice, one way video, and interactive video).

Physical convergence occurs when payloads travel over the same physical network equipment regardless of their service requirements. Both multimedia and Web traffic can use the facilities of an edge network, even though the former has more stringent bandwidth, delay and jitter requirements than the later.

Device convergence means the trend in network device architecture to support different networking paradigms in single system.

Application convergence represents the appearance of applications that integrate formerly separate functions. For example, Web browsers allow the incorporation of plug-in applications that allow web pages to carry multimedia content such as audio, video, high-resolution graphics, virtual reality graphics and interactive voices.

Technology convergence signifies the move towards common networking technologies that satisfy both LAN and WAN requirements. For example, ATM can be used to provide both LAN and WAN services.

At the technical level, digital transmission has the potential to deliver integrated interactive text, video, voice and data to a mass audience what we might call 'real multimedia'. However, historically each part of the spectrum and mode of transmission became associated with a different form of communication: point-to-point communication became the province of the telephone, and wireless transmission became associated with broadcast news and entertainment. This is now changing with digital compression techniques the limited transmission capacity of existing telephone and cable infrastructures can be expanded to deliver a range of multimedia services that previously could only be carried on expensive broadband networks. Similarly digital compression allows point-to point communication to be conducted increasingly by advanced forms of radio transmission.

Institutional convergence

Nowadays digital technology allows a substantially higher capacity of traditional and new services to converge towards the same transporting networks and to use integrated consumer devices for purposes such as telephony, television or personal computing. Convergence is happening already on a global scale. One key message is that convergence should not lead to additional regulation. Current rules should be reviewed to check whether they will still be relevant in the light of convergence. The

countries need to have the right regulatory framework in order to maximise the benefits of this convergence in terms of job creation, growth, consumer choice, cultural diversity. Traditionally, communications media were separate. Services were quite distinct - broadcasting, voice telephony and on-line computer services. They operated on different networks and used different "platforms". TV sets, telephones and computers. Each was regulated by different laws and different regulators, usually at national level. Nowadays digital technology allows a substantially higher capacity of traditional and new services to be transported over the same networks and use integrated consumer devices for purposes such as telephony, television or personal computing.

Telecommunications, media and IT companies are using the flexibility of digital technologies to offer services outside their traditional business sectors, increasingly on an international or global scale.

CONVERGENCE REGULATIONS

The extent to which convergence will really transform markets and the speed of any changes are two crucial factors affecting the debate on regulation. There is a wide range of views, falling between the two main camps, the maximalists and the minimalists.

According to the maximalist, most current regulation originated in an era when distinctions between sectors were clear. Convergence will increasingly blur all the distinctions between services, all networks will be able to deliver any service to any platform.

The minimalist point of view holds that convergence will have a more limited impact, that it will not alter the specific nature of different types of service. Its proponents argue that media policy should actively promote social, cultural and ethical values whatever technology is used for delivering services. They favour two sets of

rules, one for economic aspects and another for service content, in order to guarantee efficiency and quality, as in broadcasting today.

A powerful motor for job creation and growth

Convergence is not just about technology. Convergence is a debate about the impact of technology and a quantum leap towards a mature Information Society.

The Changes will offer many new opportunities for citizens to enrich their lives, not just the economic dimension, but the social and cultural ones as well. The global nature and interactivity of new communications media like the Internet are already opening new vistas, far beyond traditional, national media. Convergence will certainly expand the overall information market and be the catalyst for the next stage in the integration of the world economy. Even small business can market globally, thanks to the low cost of the World Wide Web site.

If India can embrace the promise of convergence, by creating a supportive environment, change will be a powerful motor for job creation and growth, plus increased consumer choice and cultural diversity. By putting in place the right regulatory framework, governments and policy makers will have a key role in ensuring a supportive environment.

India On The Threshold Of Convergence

The convergence in India has arrived faster than expected. The convergence would help in web casting, video on demand, internet via cable. The much awaited delivery of Internet through cable network has already started in Delhi and Mumbai.

The optical fiber cable carries more bandwidth resulting in more signals being carried with superior clarity. The cable companies are expected to rule the roost due to investments made by them in the cable networks. The upgradation of cable network (optical fiber). The MTNL poses tough competition for all the players. As it can pup the broadband network on its exiting network at a very low cost.

The cable operators deliver the cable and satellite channels to the consumers. With more and more channels going pay to air, would open up subscription revenue for the broadcasters. In future it will emerge a major source of revenue and much large than the advertisement revenue stream. The channel will be carried on two platforms - Direct to Operator (DTO) and Direct to Home (DTH). Both the services have user addressability in ear of convergence.

Direct To Operator (DTO)

The DTO is a step, moving towards subscription channels. In DTO channels are digitized and encrypted by the broadcaster. It operates using C band. The signals are downloaded by the cable operator by using the Integrated receiver decoder (IRD) and distributed to cable homes.

The DTO transmission helps in saving of the cost, tracking the subscription revenue but calls for additional investment for the decoders for down linking of signal.

It is capitalizing on price sensitiveness of consumers of India, who would not be willing to subscribe to the high cost DTH services. The subscription of the convergence is expected to the Rs 250 per month per subscriber in India.

Direct To Home (DTH)

It offers an alternative to the DTO service addressing superior reception with advance level of multi channel subscription revenue for broadcaster. The digitized channels are broadcast using the Ku (above 4800 Mhz). The consumers have the option to receive more than one signal which are downlinked by the consumer directly by using dish antenna at their home.

DTH can broadcast more than 100 channels using IRD, which ensures conditional access on payment of subscription. The investment of dish antenna and other hardware is borne by the consumer. The installation cost of DTH is high enough to deter price

sensitive consumer of India and it is estimated that subscription of 2 million consumers would be needed to make the service profitable.

DTH can be broadcast using C band (below 4800 Mhz) or Ku Band (Above 4800 Mhz). The transmission at C band needs dish antenna of 3-4 meters. This C band proposition does not seem to be possible in metros where the potential consumer of the DTH would reside.

Conclusion

The increasingly competitive environment in the multimedia industry promises tremendous user benefits through increased savings in time, greater choice, and an explosion of innovative services and products. This is the promise, to date, truly interactive services allowing the viewer to descend through a series of levels of information are still at the experimental stage.

The development of multimedia services will not replace judgment value that is provided by the traditional media. Hence, the traditional media will still have a large role to play in the new multimedia world.

Multimedia has the potential to vastly increase the range of services available, and offer its users a larger choice of applications but new technology alone will not ensure success; it is the people who use it who will decide the future of multimedia. The users' wants and needs; how they will manage the flood of options; and, above all, whether or not they will pay for the freedom of choice are what counts.

Convergence : technological and institutional

'Convergence ' has become a cliché of the information age. In its current usage it refers to two distinct though related phenomena :

- The way that all transmission media become bit-carriers so that different 'network platforms' can carry similar kinds of services and

- The tendency of the previously separate worlds of broadcasting, film , telecommunication, publishing and computing to become involved in each other's business.

Recent examples of new, convergent services include:

- Services delivered to TV sets via systems like Web TV;
- E-mail and World Wide Web access via digital TV decoders and mobile telephones;
- Using the internet for voice telephony.

Audience Research

What is audience research?

Audience research is a systematic and accurate way of finding out about your audience. There are two main things that audience research can do:

- (1) estimate audience sizes, and
- (2) discover audience preferences.

Radio and TV stations are unique in having a special need for audience research: this is the only industry that cannot accurately count its audience. A factory will always count the number of products it sells. A newspaper will (or could) always know its paid circulation. An organization that provides services rather than products (e.g. a hospital) is able to accurately count the number of people who walk through its doors. But radio and television programs are given away free to their audiences, and there is no way of measuring how many people tune into a program - without audience research.

For this reason, audience research was one of the first forms of market research. When radio became popular in rich countries in the 1920s, audience research followed soon afterwards. In countries where broadcasters depended on commercial revenue, such as the USA, audience surveys were done to find out how many people would hear a particular advertisement.

In countries with public radio, such as Britain and New Zealand, audience research began in the 1930s, seeking information from listeners. New Zealand's first audience

survey was in 1932. Postcard questionnaires were sent out to households with radio licenses, asking questions such as "Do you listen on a crystal set or a valve set?" and "Do you dance to broadcast dance music?"

Since those days, audience research has moved far beyond radio and television. The current growth area is internet audience research. And, though printed publications have readers rather than audiences, the same methods apply.

Methods of audience research

The most common method of audience research is the survey: a group of people is selected, they are all asked the same questions, and their answers are counted. But as well as surveys, there are many other methods of audience research, including observation, mechanical measurement (people-meters) and qualitative research. The first part of this book deals with surveys, and the second part covers most of the other methods.

Audience research methods can be applied for any activity with audiences: not only radio and television stations, but also print media, artistic activities, and (most recently) the internet. The methods described in this book apply to all of these, as well as to the study of societies (social research) and economic behaviour (market research).

Audience research, social research, and market research

Audience research, social research, and market research share a common body of methods, with slight variations. So when you know how to do audience research, you will also know how to carry out many types of market research and social research.

2. Audience research and management systems

The importance of feedback

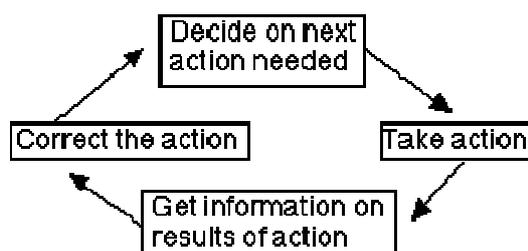
For any activity to be carried out well, some form of feedback is needed. Try walking with your eyes shut, and you will soon bump into something. Even without

your thinking about it, the feedback from your eyes is used to correct your steps. In the same way, any organization that does not keep its eyes open is likely to meet with an accident.

In the media industries, the equivalent to walking is broadcasting the programs. The equivalent of watching where you are going is audience research.

But when you are walking, you are doing more than simply move your legs, and watch where you are going. You will also have decided where you are walking to. Depending on what you see, you will adjust your steps in the desired direction. And of course, at any time you may change your direction of walking.

Whether the activity is walking or broadcasting, you can draw a diagram of a "feedback loop", like this:



In recent years, the study of management methods has produced a system known as "strategic management." It follows the principles shown in the above diagram. Notice the bottom box, labelled "Get information on results of action". Audience research is part of that box.

The importance of knowing what you're doing, and why you're doing it

Around the 1970s, some international aid programs had problems knowing exactly why they were doing some projects. Though a project might seem like a good idea, what was it actually achieving? To help answer this question, many aid agencies adopted a system called the Logical Framework, or a similar system called Object-Oriented Project Planning (ZOPP, in German).

The Logical Framework

The Logical Framework method (Log Frame for short) begins by creating a hierarchy of goals. It works like this:

1. State the main goal that you want the project to accomplish.
For example, to eliminate malaria in a region.
2. Then consider what other goals will need to be achieved to meet the first goal. In the case of the anti-malaria project, the three objectives could be:
 - a. to encourage people to avoid being bitten by mosquitoes;
 - b. to make anti-malarial drugs readily available
 - c. to eliminate malaria-carrying mosquitoes.
3. Now consider what must to be achieved to meet each of those goals...and so on. To continue the anti-malaria example, the goals for 2a could include
 - a1. making anti-mosquito equipment widely available
 - a2. encouraging people to wear enough clothing at times when mosquitoes are feeding
 - a3. advising people on how to avoid being bitten by mosquitoes.

The process continues, adding more and more levels. The highest levels are part of the initial plan. The lower levels are activities rather than goals. At the lowest possible level, a worker on the project might work towards goal **a1** by visiting a particular school on a particular day, and giving the teachers information that could be used in lessons..

The whole structure can be drawn like a tree, with the single main goal at the bottom, and each branch dividing into more and more goals, objectives, strategies, aims, purposes, or activities. No matter what these are labelled, they are all a type of plan. (With the tree analogy, notice that the trunk is what you'd call the highest level - it's really an upside-down tree.)

This tree-like approach works well for a project with a very specific goal, such as the anti-malaria campaign. But organizations with audiences usually don't have a single main purpose. Many of them have several purposes, which are not clearly defined: nothing as simple and as measurable as "reduce the level of malaria in this region." For

public companies, it's a little easier: in many countries their stated goal is to maximize the value of their shares. At least, that's what they say: but in many cases their shareholders could do better if the organization was closed down and the money invested in a more profitable concern. My own theory, after observing what really happens, is that the primary purpose of any organization is to survive.

And for an organization with audiences, its primary purpose (after survival) is to be creative: to provide enough entertaining, inspiring, informative, and educational material that its audience will stay with it - and the organization will survive..

For example, a radio station may decide to broadcast a program about how to avoid catching malaria. The program's purpose for the anti-malaria campaign is clear, but what purpose does it serve for the station? The station could say "we are broadcasting this program because we like to spend an hour a week on public health" - but why is that? In fact, broadcasting a program will probably serve a number of different purposes, because organizations with audiences usually have multiple, fuzzy, and overlapping goals.

To check that the tree-hierarchy makes sense, you can create an intent structure. This is done in the opposite way from forming the hierarchy of goals. You begin at the top level of the tree (the leaves, not the trunk). For each activity, consider "Why should we do this? What will it achieve?"

For most organizations with audiences, their logical framework diagrams won't look like trees, because each activity (program, article, etc) will serve several purposes. A tree covered in cobwebs might be a better example.

To complete the Logical Framework, several questions have to be answered for each goal and sub-goal:

- What resources are required to achieve this purpose?
- What constraints may prevent it; under what conditions will it succeed?
- How will its success be evaluated?

This last question is where audience research comes in. Most activities of an organization with an audience can't be evaluated without doing audience research.

The need for audience research

If you have an audience, and you don't do audience research, this is equivalent to walking with your eyes shut. But many organizations (even those with audiences) survive without doing audience research. How do they survive?

- Even if an organization doesn't do systematic audience research, it usually has some informal method of collecting feedback, and sometimes these informal methods seem to work well.
- When funding is guaranteed, regardless of audience size, broadcasters can survive without audiences. Many shortwave services have tiny or unknown audiences, but governments fund them out of national pride.
- Organizations that rely on revenue from their audiences often use the amount of revenue as a substitute for audience research. This applies to most small businesses. As long as they keep making money, they feel no need for audience research. But when the flow of money unexpectedly declines, the businesses often feel the need for market research. Income flow will tell the owner *what* is happening, but not why.

If you want to know *why* audiences react as they do, you need audience research - or market research, or social research, depending on your industry. In larger organizations, where information about revenue is often delayed, or is complicated by other factors, regular audience research (or market research) can often provide an early indication of a change in the habits of the audience (or the customers).

Varieties of audience research

Not all information-gathering is research. To qualify as research, information-gathering must be systematic and unbiased. It must cover the entire audience of interest. It should also avoid subjectivity: if two people do the same research, they should arrive at the same results.

Some politicians believe they can do public opinion research (yet another form of audience research) by talking to taxi drivers, because they believe that taxi drivers are typical of the whole population. Of course, this *might* be true, but it probably isn't. In developed countries, most taxi drivers are men, fairly young, and with below-average education. If you assume that the opinions of taxi drivers are typical, you are taking a big risk. Audience research greatly reduces this risk.

Audience Measurement

As mentioned above, radio and television have special need of audience research - simply to find out what most other organizations already know: how widely their services are used. Thus audience measurement is the most widely used form of audience research.

There's an important difference between audience research and the customer information that non-broadcasting organizations gather. These other organizations collect information (mostly financial) about all their customers. If they calculate a total sales figure, it should be completely accurate. Audience research, because it relies on samples, can't be accurate to the last digit - but nor does it need to be.

If proper sampling procedures are used, you can estimate for a given sample size (number of people interviewed) the range of accuracy for any audience estimate.

A newspaper can make a statement like this: "Last week we sold 53,234 copies."

A broadcaster, after doing an audience survey, could make a statement like this: "Last week, the best guess at our audience is 52,000 listeners - but there is a 5% chance that the true figure is smaller than 49,000 or larger than 55,000." Interviewing more people can reduce the margin of error (3,000 either way, in this example), but it is always present whenever information is based on a sample, instead of the whole population. The larger the number of interviews, the smaller the margin of error. The next chapter covers this topic in detail.

Audience measurement is done in two main ways:

1. Surveys, asking people which programs or stations they listened to, at which times, on which days.
2. Meters attached to TV sets (or occasionally to radios) , which record the stations the set is tuned to, at which times, on which days.

Meters are more accurate than memories, but are very expensive. In most developed countries the television industry is large enough and rich enough to afford meters, particularly when there are commercial stations whose revenue depends on accurate audience information. But in developing countries, and those without commercial broadcasters, surveys are the commonest method of audience measurement.

Audience measurement can find out only that a person (or household) was tuned into a program at a particular time. It provides no information about the amount of attention being paid to the program, or opinions about the program, or other matters related to the program.

Evaluation

Sometimes a program has a clear purpose. For example, a radio program on health education might try to educate people on how to prevent malaria. If that is the only purpose of the program, its success can be evaluated using audience research methods.

Outcomes from the program might include people being aware of the program, people listening to it, people acting on its advice, and eventually a fall in the number of people who have malaria. (Of course, if the malaria rate does drop, there could be many other reasons for this too. When something happens, there are usually many different reasons.)

Another type of evaluation is testing a program not for social effectiveness (as above) but to simply improve programs. For example, a TV channel will make a pilot program and show it to a small group of people. These viewers will be asked questions

about the program, and depending on their reaction, the program might be broadcast, cancelled, or changed.

Understanding your audience

If you don't want to measure the audience or evaluate a program, why would you do audience research? A very important reason is to understand your audience. The more you know about the types of people in your audience, their backgrounds, their interests, and their preferences, the better you can be at making programs to suit them.

Research as program content

Another reason for doing research is to use the results as program content. Some stations, before an election, carry out opinion polls, in which voters are asked who they intend to vote for. The results are then broadcast.

How research is done: an overview

Let's begin with how not to do a survey.

Sometimes, broadcasters seem to say to themselves "Shall we do a survey? ... Yes, why not? What a good idea!"

So they produce a questionnaire, writing down all the things they want to know about their audience. Then they find some people who will fill in the questionnaire. (This type of survey nearly always uses questionnaires that the respondents fill in themselves.) Perhaps there is a big fair being held nearby, so the station prints a lot of questionnaires, and leaves a heap at the fair, with a sign instructing people to take a questionnaire, fill it in, and mail it back.

Not all of these questionnaires will be fully completed - but the station staff are probably used to forms that are unclear and poorly filled in. Now, the staff wonder what to do next. They begin to realize how much work will be required to process the questionnaires - though they are not sure how this processing is done.

What they didn't know was that producing the questionnaire and getting some completed questionnaires back was the easiest part of the process. Often, at this point the manager desperately glances through the questionnaires, and declares "Yes! I knew it all along: the listeners agree with me." The questionnaires are put away in a box. They gather dust for a year or two, and eventually they are thrown out.

What a waste of effort! If this story wasn't so common, it would be funny.

How to organize a survey

Now that you've seen how *not* to do a survey, let's look at a better method. Whether you do the survey (or other research) yourself, or commission another organization to do it, you should first of all:

1. Know what you want to know, and
2. Know how you will use the results.

If you don't know these, you will probably flounder in indecision, and not find out what you really need to know.

Audience research projects are usually done in this order:

1. Define the purpose of the research.
You should be able to summarize this in one sentence.
2. Try to find out if the information you need is already available.
If the information exists, you can stop now. If the information is not available, you can go ahead with the research plan.
3. How much is it worth to you, to know this?
Research can be very expensive. There are always ways to reduce the cost, but they bring certain disadvantages.
4. Which research method is most appropriate?
If you need precise numerical information, a survey will be needed. If you need to gain a broad understanding, and numbers are not so important (e.g. the types of people in your audience and what they prefer) qualitative research may be more appropriate.
5. Who will do the research?

Will you do it by yourself, or hire a research organization to do it all, or will it be some type of joint effort?

6. Now do the research.

This book explains how.

7. When the research is finished, compare the results with your activities.

What differences are there between the perfect activities (as defined by your audience) and your current activities? What needs to change? Why not change it, then?

Planning a research project

You can plan a research project by asking yourself, and answering, these questions:

- What do you already know about your audience?
- What do you need to know?
- How will you use the results?

What do you already know about your audience?

It's worthwhile to keep a list of some basic facts about your audience. I have compiled a set of basic questions, which cover most aspects of audience research. A well-informed publisher should know most of the answers to these questions.

The basic questions of audience research

1. How large is the audience - both as an average, and as the reach (number of different people)?
2. What kind of people make up the audience? How do they differ from the whole population - e.g. in terms of age group, sex, occupation, etc?
3. Where is your audience? In each part of your coverage area, what percentage of the population are members of your audience?
4. When does your audience use your publication (or tune into your station) - what time of day, what day of week, etc?
5. How do your audience members spend their time? How much of their time is spent being part of your audience? And how much with your competitors?
6. What type of content (e.g. radio and TV programs, newspaper articles) interests your audience most - and least?
7. What styles of presentation do your audience prefer, and what styles do they dislike?

8. Which activities, attitudes, and other effects do your publications cause among your audience?
9. How will your audience react to a new kind of program or article that you might introduce?
10. How can you increase your audience? Is it best to try to find new listeners? Or to bring lapsed listeners back? Or to persuade existing listeners to spend more time with your broadcasts?
11. What percentage of the population in your area know about your station - and how much do they know about it?
12. What is preventing people from using your service as much as they might?

Most audience research is directed towards answering the above general questions. Some of them, of course, are more than one question. In fact, some of those questions can be divided into hundreds of more precise questions.

With any proposed research project, it is useful to work out which of the above general questions it tries to answer. Most research projects will cover more than one of the general questions, but if you have done no audience research before, it will be impossible to cover all questions with a single project. You would have to ask thousands of questions, and most respondents would not have enough patience to answer so many questions accurately.

AUDIENCE FEEDBACK:

Receivers are not just passive absorbers of messages; they receive the message and respond to them. This response of a receiver to sender's message is called Feedback. Sometimes a feedback could be a non-verbal smiles, sighs etc. Sometimes it is oral, as when you react to a colleague's ideas with questions or comments. Feedback can also be written like - replying to an e-mail, etc.

Feedback is your audience's response; it enables you to evaluate the effectiveness of your message. If your audience doesn't understand what you mean, you can tell by the response and then refine the message accordingly.

Giving your audience a chance to provide feedback is crucial for maintaining an open communication climate. The manager must create an environment that encourages feedback. For example after explaining the job to the subordinated he must ask them whether they have understood it or not. He should ask questions like “Do you understand?”, “Do you have any doubts?” etc. At the same time he must allow his subordinated to express their views also.

Feedback is essential in communication so as to know whether the recipient has understood the message in the same terms as intended by the sender and whether he agrees to that message or not.

There are lot of ways in which company takes feedback from their employees, such as : Employee surveys, memos, emails, open-door policies, company news letter etc. Employees are not always willing to provide feedback. The organization has to work a lot to get the accurate feedback. The managers encourage feedback by asking specific questions, allowing their employees to express general views, etc. The organization should be receptive to their employee’s feedback.

A manger should ensure that a feedback should:

1. Focus on a particular behaviour - It should be specific rather than being general.
2. Impersonal - Feedback should be job related, the manager should not criticize anyone personally.
3. Goal oriented - If we have something negative to say about the person, we should always direct it to the recipients goal.
4. Well timed - Feedback is most effective when there is a short gap between the recipients behaviour and the receipt of that feedback.
5. Use “I” statements - Manager should make use of statements with the words like “I”, “However” etc. For example instead of saying “You were absent from work yesterday”, manager should say “I was annoyed when you missed your work yesterday”.
6. Ensure understanding - For feedback to be effective, the manager should make sure that the recipients understands the feedback properly.
7. While giving negative feedback to the recipient, the manager should not mention the factors which are not in control of the recipient.



Unit-3

Community Radio and its Operationalization

Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Community Radio-Meaning, Importance
- 3.3 Operationalisation of Community Radio
- 3.4 Experiences of community radio in India

3.0 Objectives

By going through this unit, reader will be able to:

- Explain the importance of Community radio in dissemination of farm technologies.
- Describe Different issues to be considered in operationalisation of Community Radio
- List out and analyse Important initiatives of community radio in India & abroad through cases.
- To choose relevant topics and formats by identifying information needs of farmers.
- To evolve a feed back mechanism for evaluating and assessing community radio programmes.

3.1 Introduction

Radio has been one of the oldest media access points for information seekers. With information revolution in rural India through radio has witnessed green revolution. Farmers were very keen to tune the radio for forecast of weather, market prices and pests and diseases. But, with the limited time slot and dominating function of

entertainment through music, agricultural issues addressed remained more general and applicable mostly for irrigated belts. AIR has experimented many programmes for rural people. One such is Radio rural forums with a theme “listen, discuss and act”. Forum of 20 persons meet once or twice a week. First discuss issues of cultivation aspects for twenty minutes and in remaining time they get answers for their questions. Questions raised in the programme were answered in last ten minutes of the next programme. The success it received was beyond expectations. Encouraged with many such forums i.e., 7,500 forums were started in the country till 1960s. Later it lost its identity as transistors became cheap, a shift from group to individual listening took place. This led to the operational problems. In early 1970s some stations in south started “Farm School on AIR” which consisted of a complete course on subject of relevance to farmers in different episodes with the success experience at Bangalore AIR station in 1978, Farm School on AIR is being run at different stations.

Government of India established Farm and Home units in AIR in 1965 to communicate specifically on agriculture and related technical information. Programmes of F & H unit include talks, discussions, and interviews with successful farmers, school on AIR and agricultural bulletins, etc.

In its effort to make the radio programmes more rural and farmer oriented and location specific, AIR has initiated many efforts mostly in strengthening its coverage and network throughout the country, but air time for agricultural/rural sector remained same, this led to the initiation to address only location specific, agricultural and rural livelihoods through community participation.

Anna FM is India's first campus 'community' radio, launched on 1 Feb 2004.

On 16 November 2006, the government of India notified a new Community Radio Policy which permits NGOs and other civil society organizations to own and operate community radio stations. In December 2002, the Government of India announced a policy for granting community radio licenses to well established educational and management institutes. In this direction few NGOs have initiated their own community radio centre. Similarly MANAGE has also proposed to have are such community radio

station and one FM primarily in agricultural areas. Frequency modulation technology has also brought revolution in localization of broadcasting and operation of large number of stations. However, this has to be supplemented by a strong community radio movement to ensure greater involvement of local communities in the development process.

Despite rapid technological changes in telecommunications in the last few decades, radio broadcasting remains the cheapest mode of information dissemination, equally catering to the needs of the rich and poor, rural and urban masses and reaching the remotest parts of the country. Needless to say, it plays a vital role in the country's socio-economic and cultural development. Among the various modes of radio broadcasting, community radio especially has an important role to play. Due to its focus on local concerns and aspirations and the interactive nature of its programming, community radio can be a powerful medium for education and development. The experience of a number of developing countries in using community radio for such purposes has clearly demonstrated its tremendous potential for strengthening development support for farming community.

This module will certainly help you in understanding the concept of community, radio, different experiences in the country and enable to motivate communities for having community radio. You will be able to assist the communities in identifying needs, selection of topics, programme production and feed back assessment in community radio programmes

3.2 Community Radio-Meaning, Importance

3.2 .1 Types of Radio

Radio stations can be categorised into three types:

Public radio

This is radio owned and operated by the government. Its main purpose is normally to serve the general public in the way that the government thinks is best.

Private radio

This is radio owned and operated by individuals or companies. The main purpose of this kind of station is to make money.

Community radio

This is radio owned and operated by a community or members of a community. It can be supported by the State, individuals or corporates or even international bodies. The central purpose for this radio is to offer the people a voice and help develop the community. A radio station is recognised as 'community radio' when the station is owned by a non-profit group or by a co-operative whose members are the listeners themselves.

Community radio is a broadcasting organisation established to provide communication support for the social, economic and cultural development of a community within a geographical location and owned and operated by the community on a non-profit basis.

3.2.2 Concept of Community & Community Radio

Origin of the word 'Community' lies in having 'something in common', something that can refer to geographical concepts like the neighbourhood, village, town, etc. but can also refer to other social determinants such as ethnicity, religion, gender, etc. Thus two forms of community - geographical communities and communities of interest - can be identified. Virtual communities, which display many of the characteristics of geographic or interest communities but are based in Cyberspace, are a third. When used in common parlance, 'community' means a body of people with some common interests.

Community Radio essentially means a wireless broadcasting installation that is owned and operated by the community that forms its audience. It commonly implies a low power and inexpensive setup that confines its signal to the community of people clustered nearby.

3.2.3 *Community Radio - Importance in Rural community*

- Community radio is a catalyst for social development and is prevents to most obvious and some times the only choice to respond to the information and cultural needs of illiterate, marginalized, remote and under served communities. It is closest to oral culture and found to have huge potential for communication.
- Radio is an enormously supportive medium, particularly in context of poor women in their struggle for autonomous markets and legitimate space for discussing issues that main stream media may not be interested.
- The centrality of community participation of content is a cross cutting non-negotiable in all the initiatives.
- This Community radio can also give traditional folk media a new lease of life by involving traditional folk forms and creating new sustainable hybrid forms of expression and communication.
- Community radio can become right platform to surface women's rights in socio-political situations.
- It can be effective and successful means of maintaining community cohesion during disasters and in times of emergency.
- Listeners feel greater sense of identification with this programme and clearly say that this is distinct from AIR.

3.3 Operationalization of Community Radio

3.3.1. *A radio station has basically three components:*

- Studio for live broadcasts or recording programme for later broadcasts
- Transmitter, to convert the speech into a high frequency signal for transmission and
- Tower with antenna. An antenna mounted on a high pole or a tower is used to send signal in a large area. In the case of FM broadcasts, allowed for Community Radio Station (CRS), the signal travels in the line-of-sight. As such, a higher antenna has the advantage of higher coverage.

Handling and operation of the equipment on a daily basis, in the studio and at the tower may be done by volunteers from school teachers or students or the community. Various groups can be formed, namely for hardware maintenance, content creation, OB coverage, dubbing and recording. They will be trained by the service provider /

consultant as a part of the total solution. Once the radio station is fully functional, the board/society needs to look into the following aspects of running a station:

- Rules for staff and volunteer management
- Rules on fundraising (this includes advertising)
- Maintain liaison with the local administration
- Policy for programme production
- Prepare annual financial statement
- Attend important meetings with anyone who supports the station
- Regular meetings with the programme staff to guide and encourage their work.

3.3.2 *The stake holders*

Community members - This is the audience and the people who are central to the project
Providers of technology - These people provide the equipment that the project will need; trainmembers of the community on how to use and maintain the equipment

Government - There are two levels in the government that need to be kept in focus:

- a) The department which will grant permission for the programme either through AIR channels or through ownership of radio transmitters
- b) The local administrative authorities

Producers and staff - These are the people who know the crafts of programme production and will help the community to generate ideas and create programmes.

They will also help with inputs from outside sources that would add to the general information pool essential to sustain radio programmes

Resource mobilisers - These are the people who provide the finance to support the initiative. These could be the State, corporate house or NGO but the ultimate sustainability must come from the community.

Unit-4

Role of Traditional Media in Agricultural Extension

Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Traditional Media Concept, meaning, scope and importance
- 4.3 Types of Traditional Folk Media
- 4.4 Traditional Folk Media in Agricultural development

4.0 Objectives

By going through this unit, you are assured that you will be able to:

- Explain the concept of traditional folk media, its scope and importance and list out its various characteristics.
- Explain different types of traditional folk media in different state in the country.
- To Distinguish between traditional folk media and modern media.
- To analyse how best traditional folk media can be utilized along with modern media.

4.1 Introduction

The hold of tradition is still stronger in our country, particularly in the field of agriculture; age-old beliefs and practices have survived to a surprising level. Traditional beliefs, attitudes, values and folkways materially influence the progress of rural and agricultural development. A National Committee in its report on communication media in India said, "From the point of view of its greatest appeal to the masses and its quality

of touching the deepest emotions of the illiterate millions, the medium of songs and drama is matchless"(Vidyalankar 1964, p. 35). The great task of extension education is to impart a desirable controlling influence on others through the use of effective extension teaching methods. It is better to have an inventory of the locally available and familiar traditional media for possible utilization in the field of agricultural communication. A proper blending of the traditional media with the electronic media is a welcome step in this direction. Besides, occasions such as agricultural fairs, farmers' days, exhibitions, fertilizer campaigns, etc can be used by the development agencies as a forum to disseminate agricultural innovations through traditional media to the farming community.

Traditional media is the media of people but modern media is for the people. Traditional folk media, thought to be dying bread in many developing countries, are currently being given a new lease of life. Current interest is not only in efforts to preserve this indigenous art but also to promote them as effective communication media to sell development messages. John A. Lent Prof. of Communication, Tule University, U.S. has found folk media as agent of changes. Modern media is imported one whereas folk forms are generated from people. Hence, utilization of traditional media has widened its impact, even across cultural regions where actually they have survived. Those who want to use these effective tools of communication should identify the folk channels as most popular and fashionable and understand their real life situation and utilize them to get maximum advantage.

4.2 Traditional Media Concept, Meaning, Scope and Importance

4.2.1 Traditional Media concept

Traditional media means the mediums through which the cultural traits passed from generation to generation. It is born and expressed in the idiom of people's culture and has always seemed to entertain, educate and propagate the existing ideas and

attitudes. Keeping in view their intimacy with the people at the local levels, folk media channels prove to be powerful tools of communication in the rural society.

4.2.2 Concept of Folk

'Folk' means race of people.

'Folk Music' - Music passed on from generation to generation. Any music composed on this idiom is folk song. A folk song is a song handed down to people.

4.2.3 Traditional Folk Media

Traditional folk media have no grammar or literature but they are surviving through oral and functional sources. It provides channels for expressing social, cultural, regular, moral, religious and emotional needs of a particular society or community; hence, they are the media of people unlike the modern media that are for the people. Folk media channels are powerful tools of communication, which play a crucial role in the dissemination of information in the rural areas catalyzing socio-economic development, say the authors. These folk forms of media have proved to be the agents of change in rural societies. They are passed from generation to generation by word of mouth or orally. Now they are dying in developing countries. Traditional folk media are mostly used during religious or festive occasions. They are very specific in nature. These low cost media besides being credible in rural areas have potential for persuasive communication and get instant feed back.

4.2.4 Scope and importance of Traditional Folk Media

The folk art forms satisfy the innate desire for self expression and also satisfy man's need for moral instruction combined with entertainment as well as for dramatic and the lyrical. In contrast with the electronic media, it preserves and disseminates in a lively manner the traditions and culture of our forefathers. Indian folk forms have a generous mix of dialogue, dance, songs, clowning, etc. So it is a very important method for communicating agriculture technology to the farmers and for the benefit of rural development programmes.

The traditional media has always been used for moral, religious, agricultural and also for rural development. Rarely has it been resorted to for pure entertainment. It played an important role in many cultures. Some forms are dying out for lack of support and the onslaught of the modern mass media or as a result of disruptions in the society. The traditional media is personal, familiar and more credible with which the majority of literate and illiterate people in the villages identify easily. However, these forms need to be used with understanding and sensitivity.

Folk entertainments can provide fresh and interesting programme material for the mass media making them, more acceptable to both the rural and urban audiences. The folk media can be usefully employed to educate the non-school masses. In sum, the role of the traditional media in a country like ours is of paramount importance in enriching our culture and tradition as also disseminating information and educating our rural folk.

4.2.5 Characteristics of folk media

The important characteristics of the traditional media are as under:

1. The accessibility of the traditional media is very wide;
2. It involves more than one sense; The potential for cognitive gain retention is possible but restricted;
3. Potential for effective change in the attitude of the people is high.
4. There is no change in the skill of the people;
5. The maintenance of particular message is not possible;
6. Interest arousal capability is very high;
7. Range of mode choice is narrow;
8. Less operational abilities and skill; and
9. Personal cost is not relevant.
10. Folk media never die but continue in spite of several obstacles or objectives in modern age.

11. In the process of transmission, the contents of the media become less distinct and fail to sustain their content and original characters.
12. As long as the contents and formats satisfy psychological and social needs of people, they are carried forward by people themselves.
13. All types of such traditional media have identified their worthiness as communication agents with commonly accepted behavioural patterns of their respective culture
14. More the folk forms come down as expressive channels of messages more they are regarded worthy of their use in the society.
15. In modern age their content will be changed or distorted regardless of their structural characteristics.
16. The styles of folk media are intensively associated with rural masses.

4.3 Traditional Folk Media in Agricultural development

4.3.1 Use of Traditional Folk Media in modern media

The integration of modern media and existing traditional media creates a process of interaction. Traditional folk media, through to be a dying art in many developing countries. But as per John Lent, Professor of Communication, USA, a new lease of life is given to this media. The Third World Countries are gradually giving serious thought for the use of traditional media to aid the development programmes. He further points out that it is India to lead in attempting to preserve the cultural identity of indigenous arts to bring a sense of functional relevancy to them and established a song and drama division as a branch of information and broadcasting ministry in 1954. This division is putting every effort to convert this ancient wealth of performing arts to developmental communication functions. The foremost user of the traditional media in our country is the Directorate of Field Publicity and the Song and Drama Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Govt. of India. The Regional Officers of these organisations work in collaboration with the field units and are also helped by the Block Development Officers, village level workers (Gram Sevaks and Sevikas) Agricultural Extension Officers and other local people.

The folk media programmes are scripted by "the artists themselves; the direction and treatment have to be approved by extension workers and local officials. They have proved successful in reaching out the rural and semi-urban areas. The various programmes include folk plays, poetry recitation, *quawwalies*, puppet shows, religious discourses like *Harikatha*, folk songs and folk dance.

However, the fact remains that the exposure of the rural population to social education and development programmes through the folk media is as insignificant as to the modern media.

4.3.2 Advantages of traditional folk media

- Most intimate and close to masses in all the regions in the country.
- They are close to the heart and minds of people as their primary appeal is emotions but not intellect.
- There is clarity in communication with their familiar format, content, local colloquial dialects.
- As these forms are specific to different groups and regions there is no cross cultural communication hurdle.
- Rapport is immediate and direct, the barriers to communication almost non-existent.
- Easily available to their clientele.
- Flexible to accommodate any new theme.
- Generally all age groups enjoy these traditional folk forms, is it not ?
- They are low cost media compare to modern mass media.
- The Indian traditional folk forms have a generous mix of dialogue, dance, song, clowning, moralizing and prayer.
- Folk media unlike electronic media invite audience participation also.
- Folk forms satisfy the innate need for self-expression for moral instruction through entertainment and for the dramatic and the lyrical.
- These are the main vehicles for passing on traditions and culture from generation to generation.

4.3.3 *Blending of Traditional Folk Media with modern media*

A wise strategy is one which bring about a mutual reinforcement of the advantages of both traditional and modern media. Both media are simply two different points on the same continuum. To-day's innovation, is likely to be tomorrow's vintage medium (Best of typical medium)

As per Shyam Parmar "the judicious use of mass media a reality. He further says gear the messages and give them different treatment according to audience having different norms in different settings. Shaping of communication contents should be negotiated through the prevailing systems of communication in different societies". Traditional media co-exists with rituals and ceremonial functions. Its audience are regional and ethano-linguistic. They are persisting with flexibility to infuse any message for modernity. Though there are sporadic efforts made in this direction, a systematic and broad based efforts listed below are essential to make use of folk media in agriculture development.

No mass media can exist in vacuum. The multi-divisional cultural fabric of the Indian Society as a whole is evidently deep set with certain values and norms. What is relevant to the Orissa tribe may not be relevant to the Todas of Nilgiri hills. The London expert group meeting on Inter Regional Seminar-cum-workshop on the Integrated Use of Folk and Mass Media recognized that "No communication strategy would be complete unless it included traditional media". For effective bridging of the gap which exists between new technology and its use by farmers, and dissemination of socio-political and scientific information a coalition of modern technology based mass media and traditional modes of communication is essential. In the total communication network, avoidance of folk media may keep the major part of the population per haps ignorant of many useful things.

However, mooting the idea of blending both traditional folk media and mass media is excellent and easy but process of integrating them without losing the individual identity is an up-hill task. A constructive and comprehensive role of all the personnel involved with mass media, traditional folk media and subject matter is desirable.



Don't you feel now, that traditional folk media forms once produced or developed can be multiplied or replicated through modern media like radio and TV at different places. A bit of focus and attention by all of us is needed to give a push to these traditional forms and use them as medium for dissemination of agricultural technology either by your own department or organization or in partnership with others.

Hence there is a need to use this traditional folk media with modern electronic media for more effective communication.



AEM-102
Communication of Agricultural Innovations
(3 Credits)

Block-III
Farmers & Innovation Decision Process

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Unit-1

Diffusion and Adoption Process

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Diffusion and Diffusion process
 - 1.2.1 Meaning of diffusion
 - 1.2.2 Meaning of Diffusion process
- 1.3. Adoption and Adoption process
 - 1.3.1 Meaning of adoption
 - 1.3.2 Meaning of adoption process
 - 1.3.3 Meaning of innovation
- 1.4 Diffusion of innovations
- 1.5. Elements of diffusion and their functions
 - 1.5.1. Opinion leadership and change agents
 - 1.5.2. Types of Innovation-Decisions
 - 1.5.3. Consequences of innovations

1.0 Objectives

At the end of reading of this unit the extension officers will be able to

- a. define diffusion and diffusion process
- b. define adoption and adoption process
- c. explain the meaning of innovation

- d. discuss about the diffusion of innovations
- e. state the relationship between diffusion and adoption
- f. indicate the elements of diffusion
- g. explain the types of innovation decisions and consequences of innovation

1.1 Introduction

One of the most important function of Extension is to bridge gulf between research centers and the farmers in the matter of introduction of improved methods of agriculture. In other words successful communication is the main job of an extension worker. We have already considered the term communication and its elements in the units earlier discussed. An extension worker's job does not end with merely informing the farmers about improved practices, he should ensure practical application (by the farmers) of the result of research and field trials. Extension officer's efficiency can be measured (a) by the speed or quickness with which the gulf between what is known and what is done by the farmers is bridged. (b) by the number of new practices adopted; and (c) also by the number of farmers and communities that adopt the new practices. While discharging the technology dissemination function by the extension worker, they are often faced with some of the following questions:

1. There is lag between what is known and what is done by most farmers. Why?
2. Where do most farmers get their new ideas?
3. In some villages, people seem to accept new ideas quickly and in others, nearly all the people are slow to take to new things. Why?
4. Some farmers accept new ideas and put them into practice faster than others. Why?
5. Some new ideas and practices are accepted quickly and with little apparent efforts, while others are accepted only after years of effort put forth by extension agencies. Why?

These questions have been focus of considerable research by the behavioural scientists in several countries including India. An understanding of the adoption and diffusion processes shall help the extension agents to accelerate the adoption of the innovations.

1.2 Diffusion and diffusion process

1.2.1 Diffusion:

Diffusion is the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system. It is a special type of communication, in that the messages are concerned with new ideas. It is this newness of the idea in the message content of communication that gives diffusion its special character.

1.2.2 Diffusion process

Diffusion of innovations refers to the spread of those innovations through a population, and is simply the result of a host of individual adoption decisions. If individual adoption decisions are, to an extent, predictable, then the larger diffusion process is also predictable. Therefore the diffusion process can be explained with the terms given by Rogers as “the spread of a new idea from its source of invention or creation to its ultimate use of adopters”. The diffusion of innovations is essentially a social process in which subjectively perceived information about a new idea is communicated.

1.3 Adoption and adoption process

1.3.1 Adoption:

A diffusion of innovation within a social system takes place through its adoption by individual or groups. Adoption is a decision to make full use of an innovation as the best course of action available.

1.3.2 Adoption process:

The “Adoption process” is a decision – making process goes through a number of mental stages before making a final decision to adopt an innovation.

Wilkening(1953) described that the adoption of innovation as a process composed of learning, deciding and acting over a period of time. The adoption of a specific practice composed of learning, deciding and acting over a period of time. The adoption of a specific practice is not the result of a single decision to act but series of action and thought decision. He identified four adoption stages namely, awareness, obtaining information, conviction, trial and adoption.

So adoption is essentially a decision making process. Decision making is a process comprising a sequence of stages with a distinct type of activity occurring during each stage. Similarly, the way in which an individual adopts an innovation is viewed as process, a series of related events in a time sequence.

1.3.3 Innovation

An innovation is an idea, practice or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption. Perception is an activity through which an individual becomes aware of objects around oneself and of events taking place. The technologies, practices developed through research are innovations. These may be new varieties of crops and plants, new breeds of livestock, new chemicals and medicines, new technique of doing things etc. Farmers themselves may develop some new practices, which are also innovations programmes. Turmeric intercropped with maize in Karimnagar and Nizamabad districts of Andhra Pradesh is a farmer innovation. Irrespective of the time period the idea or practice was originally developed, when a person first become aware of it, it is an innovation to that person.

1.4 Diffusion of Innovations:

The process by which an innovation spreads within a social system is called “diffusion”. An innovation, however, diffuse within a social system through its “adoption” by individual and groups. Diffusion and adoption are thus closely interrelated even though they are conceptually distinct. It takes time for an innovation to

diffuse throughout a social system. It is unrealistic to expect that all farmers in a community will adopt an innovation immediately after its introduction.

Hence, there is always a variation among the members of a social system in the way they respond to an innovative idea or practice. While there is always a few members in a social system who are so innovative that they adopt an innovation almost immediately after they come to know about it, the majority take a long while before accepting the new idea or practice. It is the first few adopters of an innovation who influence the other members of a community to adopt the innovation as they interact with them. This is referred to as the “interaction effect.” After the innovation is adopted by a few farmers, they influence a few others to adopt it who, in turn, offer a new stimulus to the remaining ones. There is a definite pattern in which innovations diffuse within a community.

Attempts to plot the cumulative proportion of adopters of innovation over time within a social system have shown that the resulting curve assumes the form of an S-shaped growth curve. This is called the “diffusion curve”. Although all diffusion curves tend to be S-shaped, their exact forms vary by particular innovations in specific social systems. The traits which characterize an innovation affect its rate of diffusion within a social system and the resulting diffusion curve. The rate of diffusion of an innovation and the form of its diffusion curve are also influenced by the characteristic features of a social system.

When an innovation is first introduced in a social system, a small proportion of farmers adopt it. Through interaction with these first adopters and observing the results of its use on their farms, a few more farmers come to know about the innovation and its usefulness, and eventually adopt it. Over the period of time a large number of farmers become familiar with the innovation through interaction with farmers who have already adopted is reflected in the upward slope of the S-shaped diffusion curve. After the majority of the farmers of the social system have adopted the innovation, only a few hard-core resisters are left who have not yet adopted the practice, and they upward

slope comes to an end. The remaining part of the curve now has a more gentle slope until the entire village adopts the innovation.

The diffusion process of an innovation thus involves four major stages. At the first stage, only a few innovative farmers try out and adopt the innovation after its introduction in a village. This group of farmers is often referred to as “innovators” who have been described to be prosperous and venturesome enough to be able to take the risk of trying out an innovative idea or practice.

In the second stage, a larger group of farmers, but still a small majority in the village is influenced by the innovators to adopt the recommended practice, referred to in the literature as “early adopters”, the group of farmers is not too different from the average farmer, of a village although they are often respected for their farming ability and successful and “discrete” use of new ideas and practices. Because of their respectability in the village, the early adopters serve as the role model for other farmers who seek opinion and advice on farming matters from them. It is primarily this influence of early adopters which makes the large majority of the farmers in a village, called the “late adopters”, to adopt the innovation in the third stage of the diffusion process.

This is when the diffusion curve takes a rather steep upward climb. In the final stage, the diffusion process slows down and the diffusion curve gently levels off as the proportionately few remaining farmers of the village gradually adopt the innovation. The small group of farmers who take the longest time to adopt an innovation is called the “laggards”.

1.5. Elements in Diffusion Process and their Functions:

The four main elements involved in diffusion are the innovation, communication channels, time and the social system .Let us understand about these four elements in diffusion.

1.5.1 Innovation

An innovation is an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new or an improvement over the existing one by the individual or members of a social system. If the idea seems new, it is an innovation. As the innovation may represent a slight modification of, or a significant departure from, the existing idea or practice. The “idea” constitutes the central element of an innovation which often manifests itself in a material or behavioural form.

An innovation do not diffuse at the same rate. An innovation which represents only a slight modification of an existing idea or practice will obviously diffuse at a faster rate than the one which represents a significant departure from it. Some of the important traits of an innovation which influence the rate of adoption are relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability and observability. These traits are a matter of perception to farmers rather than being inherent qualities of an innovation. The perceived qualities of an innovation vary for individual farmers and social system.

Most of the new ideas are technological innovations and we often use the word “innovation” and “technology” as synonyms. A technology is a design for instrumental action that reduces the uncertainty in the cause-effect relationships involved in advising and desired outcome”. A technology usually has two components (1) A hardware aspect, consisting of the tool that embodies the technology as a material or physical object, and (2) a software aspect, consisting of the information base for the tool. For example, we often speak of (1) “Computer hardware” consisting of semiconductors, transistors, electrical connections, and the metal frame to protect these electronic components, and (2) “Computer software” consisting of the coded commands, instructions, and other information aspects of the tool that allow us to use to extend human capabilities in solving certain problems.

Some innovations only have a software component, which means they have a relatively lower degree of observability and thus a slower rate of innovation and their

spread is relatively difficult to trace. Even through the software component of a technology is often not so easy to observe, we should not forget that technology always represents a mixture of hardware and software aspects. According to our definitions, technology is a means of uncertainty reduction that is made possible by information about the cause-effect relationships on which the technology is based. A technological innovation has at least some degree of benefit for its potential adopters. A technological innovation creates uncertainty about its expected consequences as well as representing an opportunity for reduced uncertainty representing the possible ability of the innovation to solve a problem. This advantage provides the motivation that impels an individuals to exert effort in order to learn about the innovation.

Once such information seeking activities reduced the uncertainty about the innovation's expected consequences to a tolerable level for the individual, a decision concerning adoption or rejection will be made. If a new idea is used by an individual, further evaluative information about effects is obtained. Thus, the innovation decision process is essentially an information - seeking and information - processing activity in which the individual is motivated to reduce uncertainly about the advantages and disadvantages of the innovation. We distinguish two kinds of information in respect to a technological innovation.

1.5.2 Communication Channels

A communication channel is the means by which messages get from one individual to another. Mass media channels are all those means of transmitting messages that involve a mass medium such as radio, television, newspapers and so on, which enable a source of one or a few individuals to reach an audience of many. On the otherhand, interpersonal channels are more effective in perusal an individual to accept a new idea, especially if the interpersonal channel likns two or more individuals who are similar in socio-economic status, education, or other important ways. Interpersonal channels involve a face-to-face exchange between two or more individuals.

Most individuals do not evaluate an innovation on the basis of scientific studies of its consequences, although such objective evaluations are not entirely irrelevant, especially to the very first individuals who adopt. Most people depend mainly on subjective evaluations conveyed to them from individuals like themselves who have previously adopted the innovations. This dependence on the experience of near peers indicates that diffusion is a social process and the heart of the diffusion process consists of the modeling and imitation by potential adopters of their network partners who have adopted previously. More effective communication occurs when two or more individuals belong to the same groups, live or work near each other, and share the same interests (homophilous). More effective communication occurs in homophilous condition. When homophily is present, communication is therefore likely to be rewarding to both participants in the process.

One of the most distinctive problems in the diffusion of innovations is that the participants are usually quite heterophilous. An extension officer, for instance, is more technically competent than his or her farmers. This difference frequently leads to ineffective communication as the participants do not talk the same language. In fact, when two individuals are identical regarding their technical grasp of an innovation, no diffusion can occur as there is no new information to exchange. The very nature of diffusion demands that at least some degree of heterophily be present between two participants.

1.5.3 Time

The time involved in diffusion in (1) the innovation – decision process (2) Innovations, and (3) and innovations rate of adoption.

The innovation – decision process is the mental process through which an individual or other decision making unit passes from first knowledge of an innovation to forming an attitude towards the innovation, to a decision to adopt or reject, to implementation of the new idea, and to confirmation of this decision. We conceptualize

five steps in this process (1) Knowledge, (2) persuasion, (3) decisions, (4) Implementation, and (5) confirmation.

An individual seeks information at various stages in the innovation - decision process in order to decrease uncertainty about innovation's expected consequences. The decision stage leads to adoption, a decision to make full use of an innovation as the best course of action available, or (2) to rejection, a decision not to adopt an innovation.

Innovativeness is the degree to which an individual or order unit of adoption is relatively earlier in adopting new ideas than other members of a social system. Based on innovativeness, the adopters can be classified into five categories viz., (1) innovators, (2) early adopters, (3) early majority, (4) late majority and (5) laggards.

The distribution of adaptors over time within a social system follows Bell-Shaped Curve and approaches normality, the two parameters of the normal curve, the mean and the standard deviation are used to partition the curve into five areas and adaptors in each are referred to respectively as innovators, early adaptors, early majority, late majority and laggards as shown in Fig 13.2 in Unit No.13.

The measure of innovations and the classification of a system's members into adopter categories are based on the relative time of which an innovation is adopted. Rate of adoption is the relative speed with which an innovation is adopted by members of a social system. The rate of adoption is usually measured by the length of time required for a certain percentage of the members of a system to adopt an innovation. It is a system perspective rather than an individual as a unit of analysis. There are differences in the rate of adaption for the same innovation in different social system.

1.5.4. Social System

A social system is defined as a set of interrelated units that are engaged in joint problem solving to accomplish a common good. The members or units can be individuals, informal groups, organizations, or sub systems. The sharing of common

objective binds the system together. Diffusion occurs within a social system. The social structure of the system influence how and what information is disseminated. Knowledge of social structure is important to consider when studying diffusion. A village as a social system is made up of a variety of individuals and groups with distinctive statuses, roles, norms and goals all of which, at least in ideal terms, functionally relate to each other to attain its major goals and objectives.

The structure of a social system constitutes a set of boundaries within which innovation items diffuse. The differences in the adoption of agricultural innovations at the village level can often to explained in terms of their differences in structural characteristics. The degree to which a village is structurally homogeneous or heterogeneous, unitary or highly stratified, affects the rate of diffusion of agricultural innovations within its boundaries. The information can be distributed through formal (Government) and informal communication structures (peers, groups etc.).

1.5.5 System norms

Norms are the established behaviour patterns for the members of a social system. They define a range of tolerable behaviour in a social system. They define a range of tolerable behaviour and serve as a guide or a standard for the members' behaviour in a social system. The norms of a system tell an individual what is expected behaviour. A system's norms can be a barrier to change. In our country, for example, sacred cows roam the country side while millions of people are malnourished. Pork is not consumed by Muslims. Polished rice is eaten in most of our Asian countries even though the whole rice is nutritious. These are examples of cultural and religions norms. Norms can operate at the level of nation, a religious community, an organization, or a non local system like a village.

1.5.6 Opinion leadership and change agents

The most innovative members of a system is very often perceived as a deviant from the social system, and is accorded low credibility by the average members of the

system. This individual's role in diffusion is likely to be limited. Other members of the system function who provide information about innovation to many in the system function as opinion leaders. Opinion leadership is the degree to which an individual is able to influence other individuals' attitudes or overt behaviour informally in a desired way with relative frequency. This informal leadership is not a function of the individual's final position or status in the system.

Leadership is earned and maintained by individuals' technical competence, social accessibility, and conformity to the system's norms. By their close conformity to the system's norms, opinion leaders serve as an apt model for the innovation behaviours of their followers. Opinion leaders thus exemplify and express system's structure. Opinion leaders are exposed to more external communication, higher social status, greater social participation, more cosmopolitans and more innovativeness.

The two-step model came about from earlier studies that sought to find out what makes certain people influential. One such study focused on "molecular leaders," or persons who were influential in their immediate environments, but not necessarily prominent within the community at large. The importance of molecular leaders was uncovered during the 1940 presidential campaign when the effect of radio and print on forming voting decisions was investigated in a community in Ohio. The findings evidenced the role of personal influences as being much larger than the effect of mass media in persuading voters. In the end, voters made up their minds in a way that closely conformed to the political climate of the social environment.

Researchers discovered even more from this study. Before, it had been assumed that the elite of a community formed opinions that then trickled down from one social level to the next. However, the Ohio study revealed the existence of a type of horizontal leadership. In other words, each social strata generated its own opinion leaders. Further, the research showed the existence of a two-step flow in the effect of the mass media. Overall, the two-step flow theory has improved our understanding of how the mass media influence decision-making.



Opinion leaders as individuals who receive information from the media and pass it along to their peers. They are individuals who are knowledgeable about various topics and whose advice is taken seriously by others. Opinion leaders can be found in all types of groups: occupational, social, community, and others. They often tend to be very socially active and highly interconnected within the community.

Opinion leaders also play important roles in movements of social change. Opinion leaders can bring legitimacy to a social movement. Known as "legitimizers," these social opinion leaders are judges, politicians, business executives, clergy members, sports figures and entertainers. Such people help "legitimize" a cause in the eyes of the public by marching in demonstrations, appearing at rallies, donating money, speaking in favor of the cause, and so forth.

Reinvention: Reinvention is the degree to which a technology is changed or modified by a user in the process of its adoption and implementation. Re-invention is beneficial to adopters. Flexibility on the process of adopting technology may reduce mistakes and encourage customization of the technology to fit it more appropriately to local and / or changing conditions. Reinvention may occur because the technology advocate influences the clients to modify or adopt a technology.

Re-invention occurs due to the following reasons:

1. Technologies that are relatively more complex and difficult to understand
2. Re-invention can occur only to adopter's lack of selected knowledge about the technology such as when there is relatively little direct contrast between the adopters and the change agent or the previous adopter
3. A technology that is a general concept or that is a tool with many possible applications is more likely to be reinvented.
4. When a technology is implemented in order to solve a wide range of user's problems re-invention is more likely to occur.

Forced discontinuance: Sometimes the technology itself is banned due to several reasons. For example, DDT and BHC were banned by the Government due to their deleterious effects.

One of the two major issues of modern agricultural technology, in general draw special attention i.e. stability of adoption behaviour of farmers. Based on the role switching behaviour of farmers, the farmers may be classified as adopters, partial adopters and non-adopters and so on. A total of adopter is one who adopts the entire package at recommended levels. He may not commit all his land to the new technology. He is like the adopter at the trial stage of adoption. On the contrary, a partial adopter accepts only a few of the recommended practices or uses them at adjusted or modified levels. He may again, be a full scale or limited scale partial adopter. A total or partial adoption may, in course of time turn into non-adoption by discontinuation of the technology. Thus adopters, partial adopters and non-adopters, are not fixed categories or have stable roles

Extension worker is an individual who influences client's innovation - decisions in a direction deemed desirable by a change agency. The change agent usually seeks to obtain the adoption of new ideas, but may also attempt to slow down diffusion and prevent the adoption of undesirable innovations. Change agents use opinion leaders in diffusion campaigns.

1.5.7 Types of Innovation - decisions:

The social system has yet another important kind of influence in the diffusion of new ideas. Innovations can be adopted or rejected by an individual member of the systems/ or by the entire social system, which can decide to adopt an innovation by a collective or an authority decision.

- 1. Optional innovation - decisions:-** Choices to adopt or reject an innovation are made by an individual independent of the decisions of other members of the system.



2. **Collective innovation - decision:-** Choices to adopt or reject an innovation are made by consensus among the members of a system. All units of the system must conform to the system's decision once it is made.
3. **Authority innovation - decision:** Choices to adopt or reject an innovation are made by relatively few individuals in a system who possess power, status, or technical expertise. Individual has little or no influence; he or she simply implements the decision. Collective and authority decision types are much more common than optional. Authority decisions have the fastest rate of adoption, but can be circumvented during their implementation. Contingent innovation decision type is the fourth type in which choices to adopt or reject can be made only after a prior innovation - decision. For example, an individual member of a social system may be free to adopt or not to adopt a new idea only after his/her system's innovation decision.

The social system is involved directly in collective, authority and contingent innovation - decisions.

11.5.8 Consequences of Innovation

Consequences are the changes that occur to an individual or to a social system as a result of the adoption or rejection of an innovation. We can classify these consequences into three categories.

1. Desirable versus undesirable consequences
2. Direct versus indirect consequences
3. Anticipated versus unanticipated consequences,

Change agents usually introduce innovations into a client system that they expect changes which can be desirable, direct and anticipated, but often soon innovations result in some unanticipated consequences that are indirect and undesirable for the systems members. Change agents can anticipate and predict an innovation's form and perhaps its function but not its meaning for the client.



Unit-2

Stages in Adoption and Innovation-Decision Process

Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1. Introduction
- 2.2. Stages in Adoption process
- 2.3 Innovation-Decision Process

2.0 Objectives

After reading this unit, the extension officers will be able to

- explain the various stages involved in adoption process .
- discuss about innovation-decision process and its stages
- describe why there is lag between what is known and what is done by the farmers in adopting the practices
- explain the meaning of certain concepts of dissonance, discontinuance and overadoption

2.1 Introduction

As an extension officer you might have seen in the villages that even the farmers are aware of innovations they do not adopt immediately. They take some time, think and act. That means there is a lag between what is known and what is done by the farmers in adopting the farm practices. The decision to adopt an innovation, however, “is not normally a single, instantaneous act” is a decision-making process involving a period of time during which an individual goes through a number of mental stages before making a final decision to adopt an innovation. First the farmer comes to know the idea, then collect information and form an attitude and finally take decision to adopt or reject. Some times it so happens, farmer may reject even after taking the decision to

adopt due to some conflicting messages. At all the stages communication sources actively help the farmer to take appropriate decision. This situation is better explained in terms of stages in adoption and innovation decision process.

2.2 Stages in Adoption Process

In their pioneering work of diffusion of hybrid corn seed in two Iowa communities in the United States, Ryan and Gross first drew attention to the existence of a sequence of stages in the process of adoption by farmers (1) “awareness” of the existence of an innovation, (2) “conviction” of usefulness, (3) “acceptance” in the sense of willingness to try the innovation which is followed by its (4) “complete adoption”. The existence of an adoption process involving four interrelated stages was also outlined by Wilkening. According to Wilkening (1953) adoption of an innovation is a process composed of learning, deciding, and acting over a period of time. That means the adoption of specific practices is not the result of a single decision to act but series of actions and thought decisions. He identified four adoption stages - awareness, obtaining information, conviction and trial, and adoption. It indicates that initial knowledge of a practice, its mental acceptance as a “good idea”, its use on a trial basis and finally its full adoption. Wilkening’s first two stages were later extended into three and the resulting five stages identified by the North Central Rural Sociology Sub Committee for the study of Diffusion of Farm practices (1955) are widely accepted and received world wide attentions. The five stages of adoption process are:

(1) Awareness (2) Interest (3) Evaluation (4) Trial (5) Adoption

They were first presented in a widely circulated publication, *How Farm People Accept New Ideas* published by Iowa Agricultural Extension Service in 1955. They also indicated that adoption of an innovation by the farmers is not an instantaneous act. It is a process that occurs over a period of time and consists of a series of actions.

Let us look at how a farmer does at each stage and passes through one stage to another over a period of time.



1. Awareness

This is the starting stage wherein the farmer comes to know the existence of the new idea but he doesn't have full information about the idea. At this stage farmer is aware of the idea, but lacks detailed information about it. For instance, the farmers may know SRI cultivation in Rice only the name and may not know what (SRI) is, what it will do and how it will work.

2. Interest

The farmer develops interest in the innovation and seeks additional information about it either from extension officer or from fellow farmers or from any source, which he feels credible. That means the farmer at the interest stage acquires more information about an innovation or idea. Farmer wants to know, what the innovation/idea is, how it works and what its potentialities are.

3. Evaluation

The farmer here makes mental application of the new idea in the present and anticipated future situations and decides whether or not to try it. The farmer at this stage judges the utility of the innovation. He/she makes an assessment whether the idea is applicable to own situation and if applied what would be the result. For instance, the farmer after hearing to SRI cultivation in Rice and acquiring more information at the invent stage what are the components and how they improve and save yield & water respectively, he/she mentally judge whether SRI cultivation improves rice yields it adopted.

4. Trial

You are aware that at the first instance, the farmers may not take up any new idea & an innovation right away on a large scale because he/she doesn't want to take risk even though the potential of the idea has been proved. The farmer actually applies the new idea on a small scale in order to determine its utility or feasibility & applicability in own situation. Even though, the farmer takes a decision to try the idea by virtue of its

plus points or merits, generally the effectiveness of the idea is tested taking this as small scale trials in their own field standards, even though farmers has thought about it for longtime and gathered information concerning it.

5. Adoption

Being satisfied with the performance of the new idea tested on small scale in his own situation, the farmer uses the new idea continuously on a full scale. Trial may be considered as the practical evaluation of an innovation. The innovation becomes a part of his normal farming activity. It provides the advantage of the innovation and hence the farmer takes final decision and applies the innovation in a scale appropriate to own situation on a continued basis.

6 Other Models of Adoption Process

The stages of adoption are dynamic and not static. The same five stages do not occur with all the adopters and all the practices sequence is not always the same. Some times one stage appears more than once. In some cases some stages are so short as to be imperceptible, and in other cases some stages seem to be skipped. If the farmer have confidence in the extension works and his recommendation. They may jump from evaluation to adoption stage. There are no clear-cut differences and some times the whole process is capsules and looks like a unit act. Singh and Pink (1965) have developed a seven-stage model of the adoption process. Need, awareness, interest, deliberation, trial, evaluation and adoption.

A. NEED: Need is nothing but the difference between what is and what ought to be. Here at this stage, farmer himself wishes to change his existing practice in & or to get more yield/income.

B. AWARENESS: The farmer just comes to know about an innovation without knowing the details of it.

C. INTEREST: Farmer makes an attempt to know more about the innovation.



D. DELIBERATION: Farmer at this stage possibility of application of the innovation under own conditions. Seeks advice of opinion leaders observe the performance at different places and discusses with the members of family. The farmer then takes a decision to try out & reject the idea.

E. TRIAL: Puts the practice on a limited scale to observe the performance under own conditions.

F. EVALUATION: The farmer observes performance of the innovation on various dimensions. He/she collects data on the performance of the innovation on others situation. Compares performance of the new with the old one and figures out other changes which will be necessary if the innovation is adopted. Calculates input - output, risks, uncertainties etc.

G. ADOPTION: In this stage the farmer takes the decision to extend the use of the innovation on a continued basis.

2.3 Innovation – Decision Process

2.3.1 Meaning of Innovation Decision Process

The Innovation- Decision process is the process through an individual(or other decision making unit) passes from first knowledge of an innovation, to forming an attitude toward the innovation, to a decision to adopt or reject, to implementation of the new idea, and to confirmation of this decision to adopt or reject and to confirmation of this decision. This process should be distinguished from the diffusion process by which new ideas are communicated to the members of a social system. The major difference between the two processes is that diffusion occurs among the units in a social system, whereas innovation-decision making takes place within the mind of an individual.

The adoption or rejection of an innovation is a decision by an individual. If he adopts, he begins using a new idea, practice, or object and ceases using the idea that the innovation replaces. The innovation-decision is a special type of decision-making; it has

certain characteristics not found in other kinds of decision-making situations. In the case of the adoption of an innovation, an individual must choose a new alternative over those previously in existence. Therefore, the newness of the alternative is a distinction of innovation-decision making.

2.3.2. A Model of the Innovation-Decision Process:

The conceptualization of the adoption process has been highly favoured by diffusion researchers in the past. But recent critics of this model point out that it is too simple and its numerous deficiencies are:

1. It implies that process always ends in adoption decisions, whereas in reality rejection may also be a likely outcome. Therefore, a term more general than “adoption process” is needed that allows for either adoption or rejection.
2. The five stages do not always occur in the specified order, and some of them may be skipped, especially the trial stage. Evaluation actually occurs throughout the process, rather than just at one of the five stages.
3. The process seldom ends with adoption, as further information seeking may occur to confirm or reinforce the decision, or the individual may later switch from adoption to rejection (a discontinuance).

With this background Rogers has come up with a model of Innovation-Decision Process and is depicted in Fig. 2.1

The model consists of essentially the four functions / stages viz., knowledge, persuasion, decision, and confirmation and these can be described shortly in detail. The model contains three major divisions (1) antecedents, (2) process, and (3) consequences. Antecedents are those variables present in the situation prior to the introduction of an innovation. Antecedents consist of (1) the individual’s personality characteristics, such as his general attitude toward change, (2) his social characteristics, such as his cosmopolitanism, and (3) the strength of his perceived need for the innovation. All these

variables and others affect the way in which the innovation-decision process occurs for a given individual.

The social system's norms (modern or traditional for example) serve as incentives or restraints on the individual 's decisions. Such system variables as tolerance for deviancy, communication integration, and other characteristics also affect the nature of the innovations-decision processes of the system's members.

Communication sources and channels provide stimuli to the individual during the innovation-decision process. The typical individual gains initial knowledge of the innovation mainly from cosmopolite and mass media channels. At the persuasion function, the individual forms his perception of the innovation from more localite and interpersonal channels. An innovation may be adopted at the decision stage in the process and be used continuously or rejected at a later date (a discontinuation). A discontinuance may be due to the innovation's replacement by an improved idea or to disenchantment with the innovation. The new idea may be rejected at the end of the process but adopted at a later date due to changes in how the individual perceives the innovation. Continued information seeking often occurs throughout the confirmation function, because the individual seeks to reinforce his decision. Sometimes, however, contradictory (to the innovation-decision) messages reach the individual, and this leads to discontinuance or later adoption.

According to Rogers (1983, 1995), the Innovation-Decision Process is the process through which an individual or other decision-making unit passes from first knowledge of an innovation, to forming an attitude toward the innovation, to a decision to adopt or reject, to implementation and use of the new idea, and ot confirmation of this decision. This process consists of a series of actions and choices over time through which an individual or an organization evaluates a new idea and decides whether or not to incorporate the new idea into the ongoing system. This behaviour consists essentially of dealing with the uncertainty that is inherently involved in deciding about a new alternative to those previously in existence. The perceived newness is a distinctive

aspect of innovation-decision making, compared to other types of decision-making. Innovation-decision is a process that occurs over time and is conceptualized to have five stages as given in Fig 2.1.

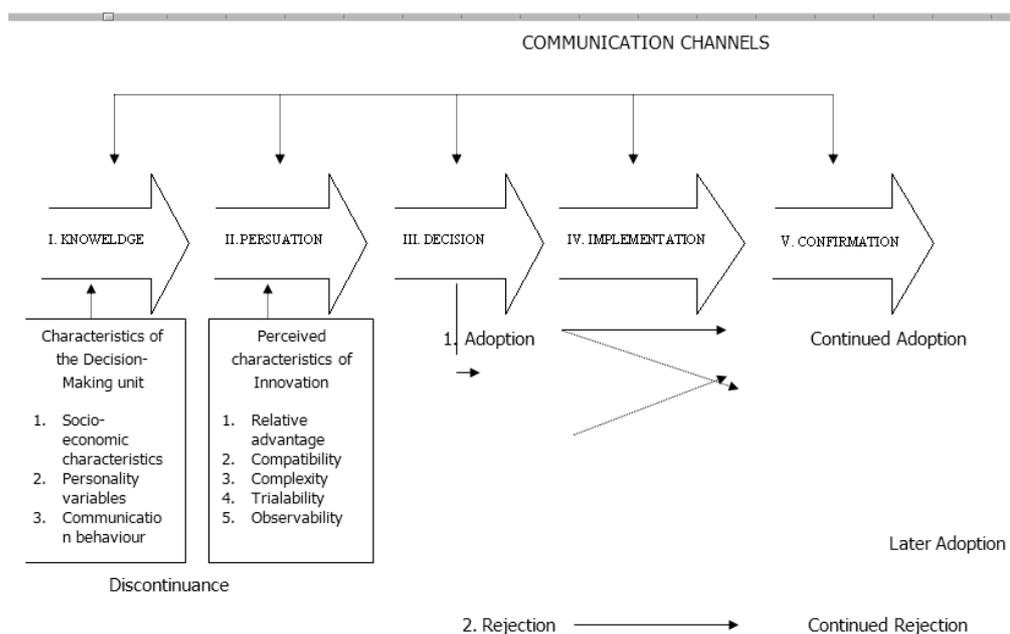


Fig. 2.1 Paradigm on Stages in the Innovation-Decision Process

A. Knowledge

Innovation-decision process begins with knowledge stage, which commences when the farmer is exposed to the innovation’s existence and gains some understanding of how it functions. Knowledge function is mainly cognitive or knowing. Knowledge seeking is initiated by an individual and is greatly influenced by one’s predispositions. Generally, individuals tend to expose themselves to chose ideas which are in accord with their interests, needs, or existing attitudes. The tendency is called “Selective exposure”. Further that individuals will seldom expose themselves to messages about an innovation unless they first feel a need for the innovation, and that even if such individuals are exposed to such innovation messages, there will be little effect of such exposures unless the individual perceives the innovation as relevant to his needs and as consistent with his existing attitudes and beliefs (selective perception). For example, a

farmer can drive past 100 miles of hybrid corn in India and never “see” the innovation. Likewise, we are all exposed daily to hundreds of mass media messages about new products. But few of these register on our minds. Selective exposure and selective perception act as particularly tight shutters on the windows of our minds in the case of innovation messages, because such ideas are new. We can scarcely have consistent and favourable attitudes and beliefs about ideas which we have not previously encountered. There is, then, much in the ideas of selective exposure and selective perception to support Hassinger’s viewpoint that need for an innovation must usually precede awareness-knowledge.

Questions such as ‘what is the innovation?’ ‘How does it work?’ and ‘Why does it work?’ are the main concerns of an individual about an innovation. The first of these three types of knowledge, awareness-knowledge, is information that an innovation exists. Awareness-knowledge then motivates an individual to seek ‘how-to-knowledge and ‘principles’ knowledge. This type of information-seeking is concentrated at the knowledge stage, but it may also occur at the persuasion and decision stages.

How-to knowledge consists of information necessary to use an innovation properly. The adopter must understand what quantity of an innovation to secure, how to use it correctly, and so on. In the case of innovations that are relatively more complex, the amount of how-to knowledge needed for proper adoption is much greater than in the case of less complex ideas. And when an adequate level of how-to knowledge is not obtained prior to the trial and adoption of an innovation, rejection and discontinuance are likely to result.

Most of the extension officers seem to concentrate their efforts on creating awareness-knowledge, although this goal can be achieved more efficiently in many client systems by mass media channels. Extension officers/change agents could perhaps play their most distinctive and important role in the innovation-decision process if they concentrated on “how-to-knowledge, which is probably most essential to clients at the trial and decision function in the process. Most extension workers perceive that creation

of principle-knowledge is outside the purview of their responsibilities and is a more appropriate task for formal schooling and general education i.e. agricultural literacy. It is admittedly difficult for extension workers to teach basic understanding of principles. But, when such understanding is lacking, the change agent's long-run task remains very difficult. For instance, we in India advocate the adoption of new crop varieties to villagers. But because the basic principles of how to evaluate these seed innovations is never developed, the extension officers must conduct repeated diffusion campaigns each time a new crop variety become available.

Knowing about an innovation is often quite a different matter from using the idea. Most individuals know about many innovations which they have not adopted. Why? One reason is because the individual knows about the new idea but does not regard it as relevant to his situation, as potentially useful. Therefore, attitudes toward an innovation frequently intervene between the knowledge and decision functions. In other words, the individual's attitudes or beliefs about the innovation have much to say about his passage through the decision process. Consideration of a new idea does not pass beyond the knowledge function if the individual does not define the information as relevant to him or if he does not seek sufficient knowledge to become adequately informed so that persuasion can take place.

B. Persuasion

At the persuasion function in the innovation-decision process the individual forms a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the innovation. Whereas the mental activity at the knowledge function was mainly cognitive (or knowing), the main type of thinking at the persuasion function is affective (or feeling). Until the individual knows about a new idea, of course, he cannot begin to form an attitude toward it.

At the persuasion stage the individual becomes more psychologically involved with the innovation. Now he actively seeks information about the idea. His personality as well as the norms of his social system may affect where he seeks information, what

messages he receives, and how he interprets the information he receives. Thus, selective perception is important in determining the receiver's communication behaviour at the attitude formation stage. For it is at the persuasion stage that a general perception of the innovation is developed. Such perceived attributes of an innovation as its relative advantage, compatibility, and complexity are especially important at this stage.

In developing a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the innovation, the individual may mentally apply the new idea to his present or anticipated future situation before deciding whether or not to try it. This might be thought of as a vicarious trial. The ability to think hypothetically and counterfactually, to project into the future, is an important mental capacity at the persuasion stage where forward planning is involved.

All innovations carry some degree of subjective risk to the individual. He is unsure of the idea's results and feels a need for reinforcement of his attributes toward the new idea. He is likely to seek conviction that his thinking is on the right path from peers by means of interpersonal communication channels. Mass media messages are too general to provide the specific kind of reinforcement that the individual needs to confirm his beliefs about the innovation. And the peers that he seeks out for such reinforcement are likely to be rather similar to him in their characteristics; such homophily connotes higher credibility of the persuasive innovation messages.

C. Decision

At the decision stage in innovation-decision process, the individual engages in activities which lead to a choice to adopt or reject the innovation. Actually the entire innovation-decision process is a series of choices at each function. For instance, in the knowledge function the individual must decide which innovation messages to attend to and which ones to disregard. In the persuasion function he must decide to seek certain messages and to ignore others. But in the decision function the type of choice is different from those previous; it is a decision between two alternatives, to adopt or reject a new

idea. This decision involves an immediate consideration of whether or not to try the innovation, if it is trialable. Most farmers will not adopt an innovation without trying it first on a probationary basis to determine its utility in their own situation. The small-scale trial is often part of the decision to adopt, and is important as a means to decrease the perceived risk of the innovation for the adopter. In some cases innovation cannot be divided for trial, and so it must be adopted or rejected in toto. Innovations, which can be divided for trial use, are generally adopted more rapidly. Most farmers who try an innovation then move to an adoption decision, if the innovation has a certain degree of relative advantage. Methods to facilitate the trial of innovations, such as the distribution to farmers of samples of new idea speed up the rate of adoption.

We see the decision to adopt or reject and the actual use or non-use of the innovation as somewhat different behaviours. In the case of optional innovation-decisions, these two behaviours usually occur concurrently and in the same individual. But in the case of authority decisions, for example the unit of decision and the unit of adoption (or rejection) may be different individuals and the two events (decision and use) may not occur at the same point in time.

It is important to remember that the innovation-decision process can just as logically lead to a rejection decision as to adoption. In fact, each function in the process is a potential rejection point. For instance, it is possible to reject an innovation at the knowledge function by simply forgetting about it after initial awareness. And of course rejection can occur even after a prior decision to adopt. This is discontinuance, which can occur in the confirmation stage.

D. Implementation

Implementation occurs when an individual or other decision making unit puts an innovation into use. At this stage the individual is generally concerned with where to get the innovation, how to use it and what operational problems will be faced and how these could be solved. Implementation may involve changes in management of the

enterprise and/or modification in the innovation, to suit more closely to the specific needs of the particular person who adopts it.

Re-invention often occurs at the implementation stage. Re-invention is defined as the degree to which an innovation is changed or modified by a user in the process of its adoption and implementation. Re-invention often is beneficial to the adopters of an innovation. Flexibility in the process of adopting an innovation may reduce mistakes and encourage customization of the innovation to fit it more appropriately to local situations or changing conditions. As a result of re-invention, an innovation may be more appropriate in matching an adopter's preexisting problems and more responsive to new problems that arise during the innovation-decision process.

Recognition of the existence of re-invention brings into focus a different view of adoption behaviour – instead of simply accepting or rejecting an innovation as a fixed idea, potential adopters on many occasions are active participants in the adoption and diffusion process, to give their own unique meaning to the innovation as it is applied in their local context. Adoption of an innovation is thus a process of social construction.

E. Confirmation

Most of the researchers indicated that a decision to adopt or reject is not the terminal stage in the innovation-decision process. Human mind is in a dynamic state and an individual constantly evaluates the situation. If the individual perceives that the innovation is consistently giving satisfactory or unsatisfactory results the person may continue to adopt or reject the innovation as the case may be. At the confirmation function the individual seeks reinforcement for the innovation-decision he has made, but he may reverse his previous decision if exposed to conflicting message about the innovation. The confirmation stage continues after the decision to adopt or reject for an indefinite period in time. Throughout the confirmation function the individual seeks to avoid a state of internal disequilibrium or dissonance or to reduce it if it occurs.

2.3.3. REJECTION is decision not to adopt an innovation. This may be of two types Active rejection and passive rejection. When a farmer rejects after adopting the innovation including even its trial is called Active rejection and simply non- adoption is called Passive Rejection.

2.3.4 Dissonance

Human behaviour change is motivated in part by a state of internal disequilibrium or dissonance, an uncomfortable state of mind that the individual seeks to reduce or eliminate. When an individual feels dissonant, he will ordinarily be motivated to reduce this condition by changing his knowledge, attitude, or actions. In the case of innovative behaviour, this may occur:

1. When the individual becomes aware of a felt need or problem and seeks information about some means such as an innovation to meet this need. Hence, a receiver's knowledge of a need for innovation can motivate information-seeking activity about the innovation. This occurs at the knowledge stage in the innovation-decision process.
2. When he becomes aware of a new idea for which he has a favourable regard. Then the individual is motivated to adopt the innovation by the dissonance between what he believes and what he is doing. This behaviour occurs at the decision stage in the innovation-decision process.
3. After the innovation-decision to adoption, the individual may secure further information which persuades him that he should not have adopted. This dissonance may be reduced by discontinuing the innovation. Or if he originally decided to reject the innovation, the individual may become exposed to pro-innovation messages, causing a state of dissonance which can be reduced by adoption. These types of behaviour (discontinuance or later adoption) occur during the confirmation function in the innovation-decision process.

These three methods of dissonance reduction consist of changing behaviour so that attitudes and actions are more in line. But often it is difficult to change one's prior decision to adopt or reject; activities have been set in motion which tend to stabilize the original decision. Perhaps a considerable cash outlay was involved in adoption of the innovation, for instance. Therefore individuals frequently try to avoid becoming dissonant by seeking only that information which they expect will support or confirm a decision already made. This is an illustration of selective exposure. During the confirmation stage the individual wants supportive messages that will prevent dissonance from occurring.

The adoption of the confirmation function to the innovation-decision process suggests a new role for the extension worker. Whereas extension workers have in the past primarily been interested in achieving adoption decision, the new model gives them the additional responsibility for providing supporting messages to individuals who have previously adopted. Probably one of the reasons for the relatively high rate of discontinuance of some innovations is that extension workers assume that once adoption is secured, it will continue. But without continued effort there is no assurance against discontinuance, because negative messages about an innovation exist in more client systems.

2.3.5 *Discontinuance*

Discontinuance is a decision to reject an innovation after having previously adopted it. Discontinuance also may take two forms.

- i) Replacement discontinuance is a decision to reject an idea in order to adopt a better idea that supersedes. Eg. Hybrid over variety.
- ii) Disenchantment discontinuance is a decision to reject an idea as a result of dissatisfaction with the performance. Eg. Crop varieties generally deteriorate after number of years. They are then replaced by superior varieties, if available, or may not be cultivated at all.

iii) Forced Discontinuance Farmers are forced to discontinue the existing practices because of Government Policies. For Eg. The Government has banned the use of chemicals like D.D.T. and B.H.C.

A farmer in Karimnagar District of Andhra Pradesh was cultivating maize crop with high yielding varieties and getting 3.75 Tones per ha. He was not getting good yields even with high yielding varieties. He came to know that hybrids would give more yields and accordingly he has replaced the existing HYV of maize with hybrids (Replacement Discontinuance). The hybrids are superior and better yielder compare to HYV. This is Replacement Discontinuance.

One of the farmers in Nizamabad district of Andhra Pradesh was cultivating rice crop with Samaba Mahsuri variety. He was dissatisfied with the results of Samba Mahsuri variety because of high susceptibility to the various pest and diseases. Therefore, he continued and took another variety released from Jagithail Research Station. This is Disenchantment Discontinuance.

Farmers are used to control the terminate problem with the help of DDT and BHC chemicals, but they discontinued the practices because of the ban of these chemicals by the Government. Even though they are affective in control the problem. (Forced Discontinuance)

2.3.6 Over adoption

You are well aware that some farmers continue to adopt an innovation, rather vigorously, when experts (Scientists or extension officers) feel that it should not be so done. This is overadoption.

An example of this phenomenon is indiscriminate sinking of shallow tuber wills in a limited area, which may result in lowering of the water table, ultimately making the irrigation system ineffective. Excessive use of pesticides is another example of over adoption.

Over adoption produces negative effect and may cause distortion or deterioration of the related systems. In sufficient knowledge about an innovation and inability to predict its consequences generally leads to over adoption. As a change agent, your role is to prevent the excessive adoption of the innovation by providing adequate knowledge about the innovation through training and communication.

Active adoption is the process by which the farmer who takes up an innovation influences other farmers to do so. In other words, other farmers got influenced by the farmer who adopts the innovation. For example, a farmer takes up a practice of double ring method of irrigation for citrus orchards and not only adopts but also he influences other orchard growers to do the practice for better results. On the other hand passive adoption means the farmer who adopts the practice do not influence the other farmers to do the practice. The farmer who has taken up double ring method of irrigation in his orchard do not influence other farmers to take up the practice. The innovation is confined to the farmer who has adopted. In the former situation, diffusion effect is more compared to latter.

2.3.7 Innovation - Decision Period

The innovation - decision period is the length of time required to pass through the innovation - decision process. The time elapsing from awareness-knowledge of an innovation to decision for an individual is measured in days, months, or years. This period is thus a gestation period in which a new idea is fermenting in the individual's mind.

Earlier adopters have a shorter innovation - decision period than later adopter (Fig. 12.5.)

2.3.8 Role of Awareness-knowledge and Rate of Adoption

Most Extension workers wish to speed up the process by which innovations are adopted. One method is to communicate information about new ideas more adequately so that knowledge is created at an earlier date. Another method is to shorten the amount of time required for decision after an individual is once aware of new idea. Many potential adopters are often aware of an innovation but are not motivated to try it and adopt it. For example, almost all of the Iowa farmers in the hybrid corn study heard

about the innovation before more than handful were planting it. Shortening innovation-decision period is one of the main methods of speeding the diffusion of an innovation to the extension workers among the clients. In one sense the main alternative for extension workers is to attempt to increase the rate of awareness-knowledge.

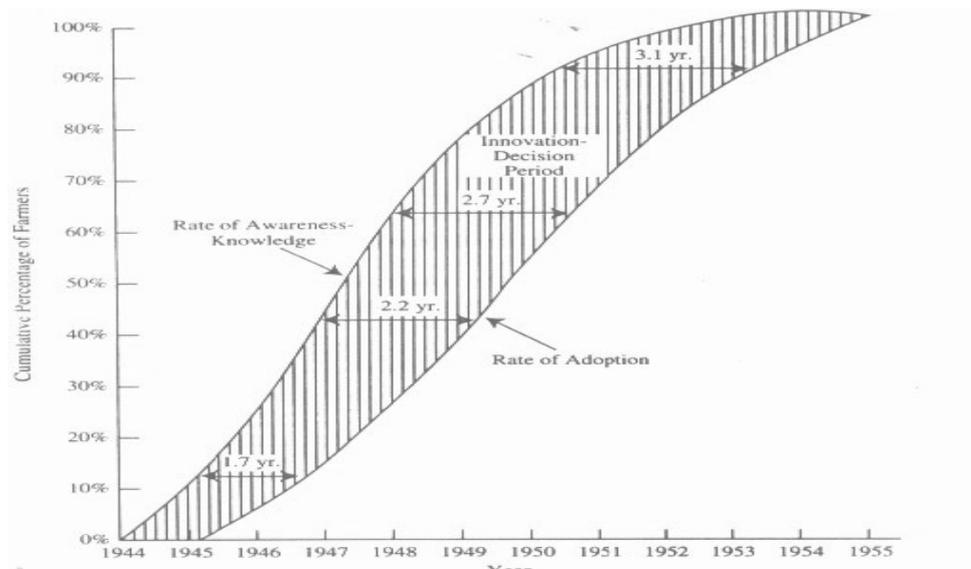


Fig. 2.5. Rate of awareness - Knowledge, Rate of Adoption and Length of Innovation - Decision Period for IOWA Farmers, adopting as used spray by year.

Fig.2.5 illustrates these interrelationships between rate of awareness-knowledge, rate of adoption, and the innovation-decision period for one innovation, 2,4-D weed spray. The slope of the curve for rate of awareness-knowledge is steeper than that for the rate of adoption. These data, plus evidence from supporting studies, suggest generalization i.e. the rate of awareness-knowledge for an innovation is more rapid than its rate of adoption. For instance, Figure 12.5 shows there are 1.7 years between 10 per cent awareness-knowledge and 10 per cent adoption, but 3.1 years between 92 per cent awareness-knowledge and 92 per cent adoption. When looked at in another way, these data (Fig. 12. 5) indicate that later adopters have longer innovation-decision periods than do earlier adopters, a point to which we shall soon return.



There is a great deal of variation in the average length of the innovation-decision period from innovation to innovation. For instance:

1. 9.0 years was the average period for hybrid corn in Iowa
2. 2.1 years was the average for 2,4-D weed spray in Iowa
3. 3.8 years was the average for fertilizer by Pakistan farmers

How can we explain their differences? Innovations with certain characteristics are generally adopted more quickly; they have a shorter innovation-decision period. For example, innovations that are relatively simple in nature, divisible for trial, and compatible with previous experience usually have a shorter period than innovations without these characteristics.





Unit-3

Adopter Categories and Attributes of Innovation

Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Classification of adopter categories
- 3.3 Distinguishing characteristics of adopter categories
- 3.4 Attributes of Innovation
- 3.5 Factors influencing adoption of innovations

3.0 Objectives

After studying this unit, the Extension officers will be able to

- Classify the adopter categories
- the characteristics of different categories of adopters
- explain the meaning of attributes of innovation
- discuss about the relationship between attributes and rate of adoption
- study the factors influencing the adoption of practices

3.1 Introduction

In any social system, when innovation is introduced, there are very few people to immediately accept and put them into use and some farmers take very long time to accept and put into use. There is a variation among the farmers. Innovativeness is one of the concepts that brings variation among farmers besides other factors. Accordingly farmers can be classified into different categories. You have been observing very closely

with regard to the adoption of various innovations in the villages under your jurisdiction, some of the innovations readily accepted by the farmers and some other are not easily accepted by the farmers even after a considerable period and some innovations are not at all accepted by the farmers. This entire situation happens because of certain attributes of an innovation. Even though certain innovations are economically beneficial they may not be accepted because of their culture and beliefs and system norms.

3.2 Adopter categories

There are different categories of farmers. According to Rogers (1971), the farmers based on their innovativeness can be classified as

1. Innovators (Venturesome)
2. Early adopters (Respectable)
3. Early majority (Deliberate)
4. Late majority (Skeptical)
5. Laggards (Traditional)

All individuals in a social system do not adopt an innovation at the same time. Rather, they adopt in an ordered time sequence, and they may be classified into adopter categories on the basis of when they first begin using a new idea. In technology transfer programme, it is of great practical utility for the extension workers to identify the individuals who are likely to adopt innovations early and who may lag behind.

The adoption of an innovation over time follows a normal, bell-shaped curve when plotted over time on frequency basis. If the cumulative number of adopters is plotted, it results in an S-shaped curve. The S-shaped curve rises slowly at first when there are few adopters in a time period, accelerate to a maximum when about half of the individuals in the system have adopted and then increases at a gradually slower rate as the few remaining individuals finally adopt (Fig. 3.1). The S-shaped curve is like that of a 'learning curve' as propounded by the psychologists. Each adoption in the social system is in a sense equivalent to a learning trial by an individual.

Both of these curves are for the same data, the adoption of an innovation over time by the members of a social system. But the bell-shaped curve shows these data in terms of the number of individuals adopting each year, whereas the S-shaped curve shows these data on cumulative basis.

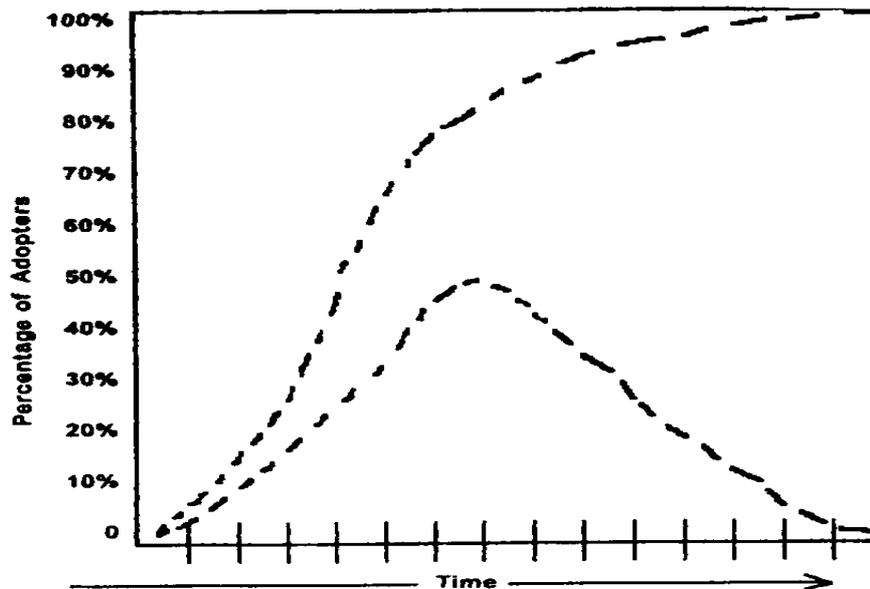


Fig.3.1 The bell shaped frequency curve and the S-shaped cumulative curve for adopter categories

The distribution of adopters over time closely approaches normality, and may be explained by the statistical concept of normal curve. The distribution of the adopters may be partitioned into five adopter categories by using the mean (\bar{x}) and standard deviation. The area lying to the left of the mean time of adoption minus two standard deviations includes 2.5 per cent of the individuals who are the first to adopt an innovation and are known as innovators. The next 13.5 per cent between the mean minus one standard deviation and the mean minus two standard deviations to adopt the new idea are called as early adopters. The next 34 per cent of the adopters between the mean date of adoption and minus one standard deviation are known as early majority. Between the mean and one standard deviation to the right of the mean are located the next 34 per cent to adopt the new idea, the late majority. The last 16 per cent to the right

of mean plus one standard deviation are the last to adopt the innovation the laggards. The five-adopter categories are conceptualized as ideal types and are presented in Figure 3.2.

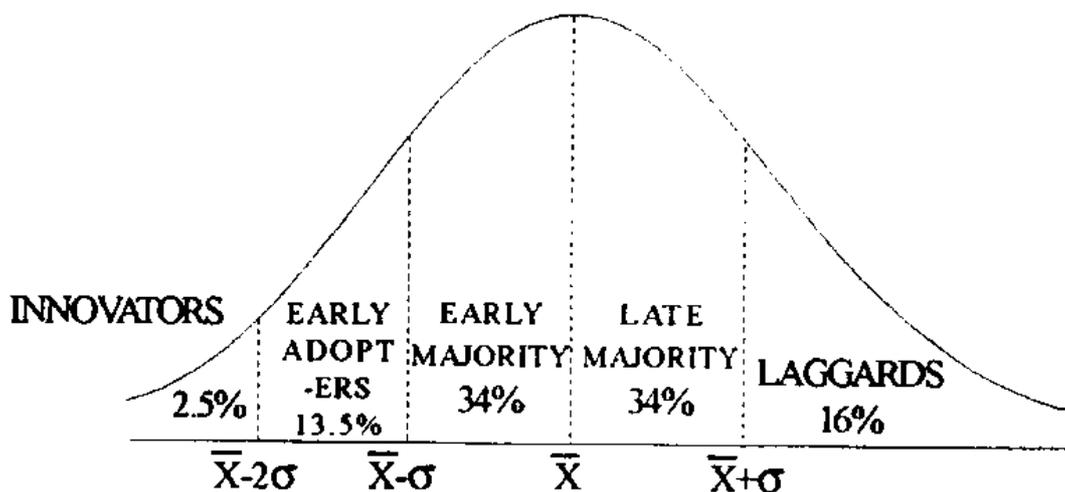


Fig. 3.2 Adopter categorization on the basis of innovativeness

The innovativeness dimension, as measured by the time at which an individual adopts an innovation, is continuous. However, this variable may be partitioned into five adopter categories by laying of standard deviations from the average time of adoption.

3.3 Distinguishing characteristics of adopter categories

3.3.1 Innovators: (Venturesome)

These are the first people to adopt a new idea, much ahead of other people. They are very few in numbers, probably not more than one or two in a community.

Characteristics:

- a) Have larger farms.
- b) High net worth and risk capital.
- c) Willing to take risks.
- d) Usually not past middle age



- e) Generally well educated
- f) Have respect and prestige in progressive communities but not in conservative type of communities.
- g) Mentally alert and actively seeking new ideas.
- h) Their sphere of influence and activity often goes beyond the community boundaries.
- i) They have many formal and informal contact outside the immediate locality.
- j) They often by-pass the local extension worker in getting information from the originating sources, and may learn about new things even before he does. They sometimes manage to get samples of seeds or chemicals even before they are released for public use.
- k) They subscribe to many farm magazines and specialised publications.
- l) Other farmers may watch the innovators and know what they are doing but the innovators are not generally named by other farmers as "neighbours and friends" to whom they go for information.

3.3.2 Early Adopters: (Respectable)

Early adopters are a more integrated part of the local social system than are innovators. Whereas innovators are cosmopolites, early adopters are localities. This adopter's category, more than any other, has the greatest degree of opinion leadership in most social systems. The early adopter is respected by his peers. He is the embodiment of successful and discrete use of new ideas. And the early adopter knows that he must continue to earn this esteem of his colleagues if his position in the social structure is to be maintained.

Characteristics:

- a) Younger than those who have a slower adoption rate, but not necessarily younger than the innovators
- b) They are not the persons who test the untried ideas but they are quickest to use tried ideas in their own situations.

- c) Have large farms.
- d) Higher education than those who adopt more slowly.
- e) High income.
- f) They participate more in the formal activities of the community.
- g) They also participate more in government programmes.
- h) This group usually furnishes a disproportionate amount of the formal leadership (elected positions) in the community.
- i) They read papers and farm journals and receive more bulletins than people who adopt later.
- j) They may be regarded as community adoption leaders.

3.3.3 Early Majority: (Deliberate):

The early majority adopt new ideas just before the average member of a social system. The early majority interact frequently with their peers, but leadership positions are rarely held by them. The early majority's unique position; between the very early and relatively late to adopt make; them an important link in the diffusion process. The early majority may deliberate for some time before completely adopting a new idea. Their innovation-decision is relatively longer than that of the innovator and the early adopter

Characteristics:

- a) Slightly above average in age, education and farming experience.
- b) They take a few more farm journals and bulletins than the average.
- c) They have medium high social and economic status.
- d) Less active in formal groups than early adopters, but more active than those adopting later.
- e) In many cases, they are not formal leaders in the association
- f) They also attend extension meetings and farm demonstrations.
- g) They are most likely to be informal resources than early adopters and innovators, and so cannot afford to make hasty or poor decisions.



- h) They associate mainly with people of their own community.
- i) They value highly the opinions their neighbours and friends hold about them; for this is their main source of status and prestige.
- j) They are mostly mentioned as "neighbours and friends" from whom the majority of farmers seek information.

3.3.4 Late Majority (Skeptical):

The late majority adopt new ideas just after the average member of a social system. Adoption may be both an economic necessity and the answer to increasing social pressures. Innovations are approached with a skeptical and cautious air, and the late majority do not adopt until most other in their social system have done so. The weight of system norms must definitely favour the innovation before the late majority are convinced. They can be persuaded of the utility of new ideas, but the pressure of peers is necessary to motivate adoption.

Characteristics:

- a) Those in this group have less education and are older than the early majority.
- b) They form the major part of formal organisational membership, although they participate less in such formal groups.
- c) They take fewer leadership roles than the earlier adopters.
- d) They take and read fewer papers, magazines and bulletins, than the early majority.
- e) They do not participate in as many activities outside the community as do people that adopt earlier.

3.3.5 Laggards (Traditional):

Laggards are the last to adopt an innovation. They possess almost no opinion leadership. They are the most localite in their outlook of all adopter categories, many are near isolates. Decisions are usually made in terms of what has been done in previous generations. This individual interacts primarily with others who have traditional values. When laggards finally adopt an innovation, it may already have been superseded by

another more recent idea which the innovators are already using. While most individuals in a social system are looking to the road of change ahead, the laggards has his attention fixed on the rear-view mirror.

Characteristics:

- a) Least education.
- b) Oldest people
- c) Participate least in formal organisations, cooperatives and government programmes.
- d) They hardly read farm magazines and bulletins.
- e) No opinion leadership

3.4 Attributes of Innovation and their influence in transfer of technology

3.4.1 Relative Advantage

The degree to which an innovation is perceived as better than the idea it supersedes. The relative advantage may have number of dimensions. For example, if a new technology or practice gives more yield or income or saves time, labour and cost: or has less risk than the existing one; it has more relative advantage. Multiple use of an innovation may be a form of relative advantage. For example, an equipment or material which may be used for a number of activities has more advantage than an equipment or material which can be used for a single purpose. The advantage of location for specific enterprises in specific areas, may provide some relative advantage. The innovations which have more relative advantage are likely to be adopted quickly. The degree of relative advantage is often expressed as economic profitability, social prestige, or other benefits. The nature of the innovation determines what specific type of relative advantage (such as economic, social and the like) is important to adopters, although the characteristics of the potential adopters also affect which sub dimensions of relative advantage are most important.

3.4.2 *Compatibility*

Compatibility is the degree to which an innovation is perceived consistent with the existing values, past experiences and needs of the receivers. An idea that is not compatible with the salient characteristics of a social system will not be adopted so rapidly as an idea that is compatible. Compatibility ensures greater security and less risk to the receiver and makes the new idea more meaningful to him. An innovation may be compatible (1) with sociocultural values and beliefs (2) with previously introduced ideas or (3) with client needs for innovations.

Several studies in India made a distinction between “physical” and “cultural” compatibility. Physical compatibility refers to the degree which a new idea or practice is consistent with existing practices relating to economic activities. The mould board plough, for example, was found physically incompatible by many West Bengal farmers because their bullocks were not strong enough to pull the ploughs which dug deep into soil to turn heavy sod. High yielding varieties of wheat have been found to be physically incompatible with their farming situation by farmers who do not have irrigation facilities or the capital to invest.

Cultural compatibility refers to the degree to which an innovation is consistent with the existing values, beliefs, habits and tradition in a social system. Innovations with obvious economic advantage are often reflected because they are found by farmers to be socially disadvantageous. The social advantage of an innovation is often measured in terms of its cultural compatibility.

3.4.3 *Complexity*

Complexity is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as relatively difficult to understand and use. Any new idea may be classified on the complexity – simplicity continuum. Some innovations are clear in their meaning to potential adopters others are not. Diffusion of an innovation which is too complex to communicate and to apply is slow. As has been described, the relative simplicity of plant protection chemicals in

terms of their use and application enabled them to be diffused rapidly in the village of Baraset region of West Bengal. It took them only ten years to be used by at least four-fifths of the farmers in the Baraset villages. On the other hand, the Japanese method of rice cultivation, a much more complex innovation, was adopted by a rather insignificant proportion of farmers in the same villages even though the innovations of both types were introduced in the region at the same time.

The complexity of an innovation, as perceived by members of a social system, is negatively related to its rate of adoption. That means higher the complexity of the technology, lower the rate of adoption in transfer of technology.

3.4.4 Trialability:

Trialability (divisibility) is the degree to which an innovation may be experimented with on a limited basis before deciding to adopt. New ideas that can be tried on the installment plan will generally be adopted more rapidly than innovations that are not divisible. Trialability of an innovation is important for its diffusion for several reasons. The feeling of insecurity associated with the adoption of something new and previously unknown is greatly minimized if it can be tried out on a small scale. The result of the trial, if successful, not only minimizes the risk and insecurity, it also gives the farmer the opportunity to evaluate the innovation in terms of its feasibility and applicability to his own situation.

Not all innovations, however, are easily trialable, plant protection chemicals, for example, are more trialable than the Japanese method of rice cultivation which has to be used in a relative large area of land even when tried out in a small scale involving a significant investment of land, labour, time and capital. Some innovations, such as a shallow tube well for irrigation, cannot be tried out at all. Adoption of new seeds and fertilizers are more, compared to new farm machinery, simply because seeds and fertilizers may be purchased in small units and tried. Whereas, purchase of a farm machinery, requires large investment and can not be tried in parts.

Earlier adopters appear to be more concerned about the trialability of an innovation than later adopters. The trialability of an innovation, as perceived by members of a social system, is positively related to its rate of adoption. Transfer of technology is faster with the technologies which can be demonstrable on small scale basis i.e. on trial basis.

3.4.5. Observability:

Observability is the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible/observable, demonstrable and communicable to farmers. The results of some ideas are easily observed and communicated to others, whereas some innovations are difficult to describe to others. The observability of an innovation as perceived by members of a social system, is positively related to its rate of adoption. The visible impact of an innovation facilitates its diffusion in the social system.

For example, the results of dusting and spraying against pest attack on crops are not only immediate but also clearly observable and demonstrable. The usefulness of plant protection chemicals is thus easily communicable to farmers. Application of balanced fertilizers in crop plants has almost always been recommended to the farmers. In practice, farmers generally use more of nitrogenous fertilizers. It is because, the effect of nitrogenous fertilizer is very obvious in the eyes of the farmers – the plants ‘jump’, the leaves turn green, whereas, the effect of balanced fertilizers by the farmers, which is more profitable in the long run, requires high level comprehension, which may be brought by intensive training and communication.

3.4.6 Predictability

Predictability has also been perceived as an attribute of innovations. Predictability refers to the degree or certainty of receiving expected benefits from the adoption of an innovation. Subsistence farmers are often very cautious when making adoption decisions, because crop failure or substantial reduction in output due to failure of agricultural innovations to achieve expected production goals, can result in loss of

meager landholdings and starvation of the family. Under such conditions farmers are reluctant to adopt any technology or technique which introduces a higher level of uncertainty into the operation of the farm enterprise

It may be generalized that the attributes relative advantage, compatibility, trialability, observability and predictability of an innovation, as perceived by the members of a social system are positively related to its rate of adoption. The complexity of an innovation as perceived by the members of a social system is negatively related to its rate of adoption.

3.5. Factors influencing adoption of innovations

3.5.1 Personal Factors

1. Age: Elderly farmers seem to be somewhat less inclined to adopt new practices than younger ones. (However, the findings of several Indian studies do not support the existence of a negative relationship between the age and adoption)

2. Education: More than eight years schooling is almost always associated with higher adoption rates than lesser amounts.

3. Psychological characteristics:

- a) Exposure to reliable sources of farm information may create a state of rationality which in turn predisposes an individual to the adoption of new practices
- b) A mentally flexible person has higher adoption rates than one with mental rigidity.
- c) Some people are found to be more prone to change than others

4. Values and attitudes (cultural characteristics):

- a) Values found to be positively related to farm practice adoption rates are: a desire by farmers and their wives for a high school or college education for their children, a high emphasis on science and material comfort, and also wide contacts within and beyond the community.
- b) A high emphasis on traditionalism, isolationism, and security (e.g., owning farm free of debt) has been found to be negatively associated with adoption of improved practices.



3.5.2 Situational Factors

1. The nature of the practice: The speed with which adoption will take place is partly dependent on the nature of practice itself.

A) Complexity: Generally speaking, the more complex a practice and the more change it requires in the existing operations, the more slowly it will be adopted.

- a) **A simple change:** A change in materials and equipment only, without a change in techniques or operations (e.g. new variety of seed)
- b) **Improved practice:** Change in existing operation with or without a change in materials or equipment (e.g., change in rotation of crops)
- c) **Innovation:** Change involving new techniques or operations (e.g., contour cropping)
- d) **Change in total enterprise:** e.g., from crop to livestock farming

B) Cost: Those practices, which cost little, seem to be adopted more rapidly than those, which are more expensive.

C) Net returns: Those practices which yield, the greatest marginal returns per rupee invested, and in the shortest time seem to be adopted most readily.

2) Farm income: High farm income nearly always is associated with high adoption level.

3) Size of farm: Size of farm is nearly always positively related to the adoption of new farm practices

4) Tenure status: Adoption scores are usually higher for owner cultivators than for tenant cultivators.

5) Level of living: Since successful farm practice adoption is instrument in providing the means for supporting a higher level of living a positive correlation between the two would be expected and is generally found.

13.5.3 Social Factors

Community standards and social relationships provide the general framework wherein the process of change occurs, and they account for the differences between one community (or group) and another.

1) *Social values:*

In some groups and communities, people place a higher value upon material gains and money than they do in others. In some other groups; changes in farming are encouraged and expected, prestige is attached to the adoption of new ideas and techniques. In others, more value is placed upon tradition and little freedom is allowed for the individual to deviate from the group's pattern in adopting innovations.

If the adoption of new practices goes contrary to the established customs and traditions of the people, the innovator may be ridiculed or lose prestige.

The extent to which changes are adopted depends on the values and expectations of the group and upon the extent to which the individual is expected to conform. Where there is great emphasis on maintaining traditions and values rooted in the past, change occurs more slowly. On the other hand, where emphasis is upon individualism and personal success, change occurs more rapidly.