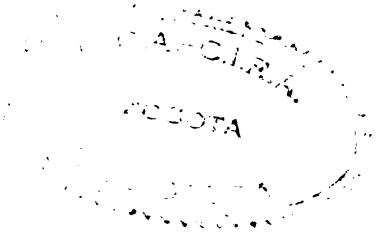
MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN

EXTENSION



Nº 1

FILOSOFIA DE EXTENSION

por

Joseph Di Franco

Servicios Regionales en Extensión

Publicado en Español e Inglés

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y CIENCIAS SOCIALES
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

Copias adicionales de ésta y otras publicaciones de los Servicios Regionales en Extensión pueden solicitarse a la oficina del Punto Cuarto (USOM) o escribiendo a:

Coordinador de Servicios Regionales

Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas

Turrialba, Costa Rica

Esta publicación ha sido preparada de acuerdo con el contrato firmado entre el Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la Organización de Estados Americanos (OEA) y el Instituto de Asuntos Interamericanos de la Administración de Cooperación Internacional (ICA) de los Estados Unidos.

Turrialba, Costa Rica

Enero de 1960

C O N T E N I D O

-.-.-.-.-.-.-.-.-.-

****

FILOSOFIA DE EXTENSION

por

Joseph Di Franco*

Al hablar de extensión, tendemos con demasiada frecuencia a pensar en términos de una disciplina profesional. Aunque en sí no es malo pensar profesionalmente, tomamos por sentado que lo único que necesitamos para ser profesionales es aprender la terminología, las reglas, y la filosofía de nuestras disciplinas respectivas.

La filosofía de extensión, sin embargo, no es abstracta. Es la fibra característica que poseen los individuos que constituyen la "disciplina" de extensión. Muchos de los que hemos decidido dedicar nuestras vidas al trabajo de extensión, nos damos cuenta muy pronto de que existen ciertas cualidades filosóficas que son indispensables en el extensionista, pues nos damos cuenta de que, si nosotros, como individuos, no adoptamos, creemos, y practicamos estas cualidades, el término "filosofía de extensión" no tiene ningún verdadero significado.

Pero, cuáles son algunas de estas cualidades?

Una de ellas es creer que las ideas deben ponerse en práctica para el bien de la humanidad. El "aprender por aprender" es como guardar los implementos bajo llave en un cofre fuerte. Hay que poner los conocimientos a trabajar.

---

* Líder del Proyecto de Educación de Extensión, Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas, Turrialba, Costa Rica.

Otra de las cualidades que como extensionistas debemos poseer es la de reconocer que hay que promover un proceso de ayuda mutua entre la gente para que se pueda difundir efectivamente los conocimientos técnicos. También debemos reconocer el hecho de que cada individuo tiene la capacidad de ayudarse a sí mismo -- y que en cualquier nivel social, la persona puede aprender a tomar decisiones por su propia cuenta.

Otra convicción que debemos tener es que no hay diferencias fundamentales en las capacidades intelectuales de ninguna raza o sexo. Lo que sí es indispensable para su progreso es que se les dé la oportunidad de adquirir una educación adecuada y que se les preste ayuda para que puedan aplicar los conocimientos adquiridos.

También podríamos tomar nota de algunas verdades más específicas que se han formulado a raíz de muchos años de experiencia en extensión y que son muy valiosas para el extensionista. Son las siguientes:

1. La educación es el método más eficaz de efectuar cambios de carácter permanente.
2. Extensión debe dar a la gente la oportunidad de escoger libremente y de participar voluntariamente. Asimismo, la gente participará mejor en aquellas actividades de extensión en que se apliquen procesos democráticos.
3. Extensión debe educar a la gente para que haga las cosas por sí misma; no debe ser un sistema arbitrario de hacerlo todo por ellos.

La educación que se lleve a cabo debe estar basada sobre hechos reales (resultados de investigación), aunque talvez el extensionista tenga que traducir e interpretar estos hechos para hacerlos comprensibles a la gente rural. Si los agricultores comprenden bien lo que se les ha enseñado, entonces pondrán sus conocimientos a trabajar.

Todas estas cualidades y convicciones deben llegar a constituir la filosofía básica del extensionista. Solamente cuando ocurra esto, podremos comenzar a ver el alcance que puede tener extensión. Solamente entonces podremos aplicar los principios de extensión para que tengan significado. Solamente entonces podrá el extensionista planear soluciones a los problemas que conlleva este tipo de ayuda a la gente rural. El extensionista no podrá considerarse como un profesional hasta tanto no crea y practique estas convicciones. Ni tampoco podrá él formularse un credo para su "disciplina" -- en otras palabras, una "filosofía de extensión" -- hasta tanto no crea y practique dichas convicciones.

Este será el caso en cualquier situación donde se quiera llevar a cabo una labor de extensión. El éxito que pueda obtener extensión en la América Latina estará siempre íntimamente relacionado con la calidad de los individuos que la componen. Por lo mismo, la calidad de la filosofía de extensión que se ha de aplicar está íntimamente relacionada con las convicciones de los extensionistas. Desafortunadamente, hay muchos extensionistas que no tienen una filosofía favorable para aplicar en su trabajo. Pero afortunadamente, hay muchos que sí tienen una filosofía de extensión que es buena y

sólida, y ellos son los que han de establecer los cimientos de la labor de extensión en la América Latina.

Cuando el extensionista comience a aceptar su "filosofía de extensión," también estará mejor capacitado para aplicar los principios de extensión. Los principios entonces llegan a ser más significativos, y, por consecuencia, a formar parte de la filosofía individual del extensionista.

Como resultado de experiencias en diferentes áreas del mundo, se ha desarrollado un conjunto de principios que hoy día son reconocidos como guías seguras para el extensionista. A continuación presentamos una lista resumida de estos principios:

PRINCIPIOS DE EXTENSION*

Un sistema de educación rural para adultos (con énfasis en el proceso de extensión), debe:

I. Basarse en condiciones existentes (en el nivel local, regional, y nacional).

II. Involucrar a la gente en acciones que promuevan su bienestar.

III. Desarrollar sus programas paulatinamente.

IV. Dirigirse principalmente a los intereses y las necesidades de la gente.

V. Emplear métodos democráticos.

VI. Mantener flexibles sus programas.

VII. Tener una comprensión adecuada de la cultura.

VIII. Utilizar líderes locales.

IX. Utilizar agencias existentes.

X. Utilizar especialistas expertos.

XI. Trabajar con todos los miembros de la familia.

XII. Elaborar programas de acuerdo con las necesidades de la gente rural.

XIII. Hacer una evaluación contínua de su labor.

XIV. Trabajar con todas las clases sociales.

XV. Mantenerse en línea con políticas nacionales.

XVI. Utilizar los recursos de la comunidad.

XVII. Ayudar a la gente a reconocer sus propias necesidades.

Estos principios en sí ayudan a aclarar algunos puntos importantes de la filosofía de extensión. Ninguna filosofía de extensión, sin embargo, puede ser efectiva si no se la pone en práctica. Ni tampoco puede ponerse en práctica efectivamente dicha filosofía si el extensionista no cree en las convicciones fundamentales que hemos citado.

---

* Joseph Di Franco, "A Collection of Principles and Guides." Comparative Extension Publication Number 4. New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. June, 1958. Página 9.

BIBLIOGRAFIA

1. Allahabad Agricultural Institute. Experiment in Extension: The Gaon Sathi. Bombay, India: Oxford University Press, 1956.

Una descripción vívida del proceso de extensión según se interpreta y aplica en el Instituto Agrícola de Allahabad, en Uttar Pradesh, India. El Instituto comenzó proyectos pilotos en extensión, en 400 comunidades vecinas, y preparó este libro como texto para ser usado en el adiestramiento del Gaon Sathi (literalmente: "el compañero aldeano"), para su trabajo de extensión en la India rural. Trae un apéndice que contiene una lista de preguntas sobre las materias presentadas en cada capítulo, para que el texto pueda usarse como guía en discusiones de grupo.

2. Bliss, Ralph K. The Spirit and Philosophy of Extension Work. Washington: Published jointly by Graduate School, United States Department of Agriculture, and the Epsilom Sigma Phi national honorary fraternity, 1952.

Este volumen presenta una reseña histórica del Departamento de Agricultura de los Estados Unidos, del desarrollo del ideal de extensión en la asociación de facultades de agronomía (Association of Land Grant Colleges), los métodos de extensión utilizados por las universidades para la difusión de conocimientos agrícolas, y del desarrollo del programa nacional de extensión en los Estados Unidos. Expone la visión de muchos de los pioneros de la labor de extensión, citando sus propias palabras, y resume y sintetiza por primera vez algunas declaraciones importantes sobre las políticas y la filosofía que han guiado a los servicios de extensión, tanto el federal como los estatales, através de los años.

3. Brunner, Edmund de S., and E. Hsin Pao Yang. Rural America and the Extension Service. New York: Bureau of Publications. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.

Una persona no familiarizada con la fase de educación adulta llamada extensión, podrá aprender de este libro sobre qué es extensión, cómo llegó a ser, y cómo se organiza el servicio de extensión. Los autores describen y evalúan el programa del servicio de extensión en los Estados Unidos.

4. Kelsey, Lincoln D., and Cannon C. Hearne. Cooperative Extension Work, 2nd edition. Ithaca, New York: Comstock Publishing Associates, 1954.

Este libro trata sobre extensión cooperativa -- sus objetivos, filosofía, y métodos. Se escribió para ser usado por estudiantes universitarios y posgraduados que se interesen en la extensión cooperativa. Es un texto bien organizado, con referencias sobre fuentes adicionales de información.

5. OEEC (Organization for European Economic Cooperation). Agricultural Extension Services in the USA. Paris: Report of a working party of European experts on farm advisory work, 1951.

Una historia concisa que da información general e histórica sobre los servicios de extensión de los Estados Unidos. Describe el trabajo de extensión que se lleva a cabo en varios estados, para mostrar las variaciones que hay. También trata sobre las políticas seguidas, los métodos empleados por el servicio de extensión de los Estados Unidos, y explica la organización del mismo. Es una referencia excelente para estudiantes extranjeros. Ya que este libro fue escrito por un comité de expertos extranjeros a los Estados Unidos, también ofrece una buena referencia para el estadounidiense que quiera ver cómo lo ven los demás.

JDF:bb
Noviembre de 1959
(ICA-1743-1-60.)

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

Nº 2

EVALUACION DE EXTENSION

por

Joseph Di Franco

Servicios Regionales en Extensión

Publicado en Español e Inglés

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y CIENCIAS SOCIALES
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

Copias adicionales de ésta y otras publicaciones de los Servicios Regionales en Extensión pueden solicitarse a la oficina del Punto Cuarto (USOM) o escribiendo a:

Coordinador de Servicios Regionales

Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas

Turrialba, Costa Rica

Esta publicación ha sido preparada de acuerdo con el Contrato firmado entre el Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la Organización de los Estados Americanos (OEA) y el Instituto de Asuntos Interamericanos de la Administración de Cooperación Internacional (ICA) de los Estados Unidos.

Turrialba, Costa Rica

Marzo, 1960

EVALUACION DE EXTENSION

por

Joseph Di Franco*

En cualquier empresa, el progreso o el mejoramiento se logra solamente si se evalúa el trabajo efectuado. En vista de que el extensionista trata siempre de progresar en su trabajo, él también debe preocuparse por evaluar su labor. Es mucho más difícil hacer una evaluación de un trabajo educativo que de una labor de naturaleza mecánica; sin embargo, también se puede evaluar el esfuerzo educativo. El educador que tiene éxito es aquél que reconoce esto y que lo aplica.

En realidad, todos hacemos evaluaciones en nuestra vida diaria. Nos formamos juicios y tomamos decisiones basadas en opiniones y observaciones de naturaleza evaluativa. Esto es muy necesario, y según ganamos experiencia, nos capacitamos mejor para esta evaluación, que podríamos llamar "evaluación informal."

Además de este tipo informal, hay la evaluación formal. El método formal de evaluación es un esfuerzo por ser objetivo y honrado y así poder obtener pruebas o hechos convincentes. Este procedimiento podría proveernos con hechos que sirvan para convencer a otros. Para efectuar este tipo de evaluación, hay que seguir ciertas reglas y procedimientos y aplicar ciertas técnicas especiales. La investigación científica es el grado más alto de este proceso formal.

---

* Líder del Proyecto de Educación de Extensión, Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas, Turrialba, Costa Rica.

Ahora al extensionista se le está exigiendo, más y más, que dé la "prueba científica" de que está cumpliendo con la tarea que se ha propuesto. Así, el extensionista encuentra que la evaluación es un proceso que le ayuda a mejorar sus programas educativos. Quizás éste sea el principal motivo por el cual el extensionista debe hacer evaluación en su trabajo.

Pero -- cómo proceder para hacer una evaluación? Al contrario de lo que piensa la mayoría, la evaluación no es algo que sólo el especialista pueda hacer. Pero sí es necesario que el extensionista tenga conocimiento de algunas técnicas especiales. Estas técnicas se relacionan con el procedimiento que se ha de seguir en la evaluación, y pueden expresarse en la forma siguiente:

1. Determine qué va usted a evaluar.
2. Determine quién puede suministrarle los datos.
3. Determine dónde puede usted obtener los datos.
4. Determine cómo puede usted obtener los datos.
5. Determine cómo puede usted obtener datos verídicos.
6. Determine cómo debe usted analizar los resultados.

En otra forma, podríamos resumir estos pasos así:

1. Determinación de objetivos.
2. Determinación de fuentes de evidencia.
3. Determinación de la muestra representativa.
4. Determinación de la metodología.
5. Elaboración de preguntas confiables.
6. Formulación de resultados.

Quizás sea necesario explicar más ampliamente cada uno de estos pasos.

I. Determine qué va usted a evaluar (objetivos).

Antes de que podamos efectuar una evaluación, necesitamos tener una noción clara de lo que queremos lograr. En extensión, nuestra meta principal es efectuar cambios en la gente. Por lo tanto, debemos tener una idea clara de exactamente qué cambios queremos lograr. En lugar de hablar simplemente de lo que estamos haciendo en extensión, debemos expresarnos en términos de los cambios que esperamos obtener en la gente. Por ejemplo:

1. Aprendieron las amas de casa a usar dietas balanceadas?
2. Aprendieron los agricultores a usar fertilizantes?
3. Aprendieron los jóvenes de los clubes juveniles agrícolas a usar procedimientos democráticos?

Las respuestas a estas preguntas reflejarían también sobre el éxito o fracaso de nuestra enseñanza. Pero nuestro propósito principal al formular estas preguntas es determinar los objetivos de manera que sean específicos, claros y precisos.

II. Determine quién puede suministrarle los datos (fuentes de evidencia).

Una vez que los objetivos de su enseñanza estén definidos, Ud. necesita saber quiénes le pueden suministrar los datos sobre lo que está logrando. Se supone que solamente aquellos que han sido expuestos directamente a sus esfuerzos de enseñanza puedan darle esta información.

Para determinar cuáles son estas personas, debemos pensar sobre los métodos de extensión empleados en cada caso. Una vez que usted haya constatado cuáles métodos específicos se han usado, seleccione a las personas que han participado. Por ejemplo:

Identifique el método de enseñanza usado	Identifique participantes
Reuniones	Sólo los que asistieron
Visita a la finca	Sólo los visitados
Demostración	Sólo los participantes
Programa de radio	Sólo los que escuchan
Giras (excursiones) a fincas	Sólo los que hicieron la gira

III. Determine dónde puede obtener los datos (muestra representativa).

Al identificar a las personas que nos pueden suministrar los datos, generalmente nos encontraremos conque nuestra lista es muy larga. Frecuentemente, el número de personas es demasiado grande para el tiempo de que disponemos para este trabajo. También puede suceder que las personas que queremos entrevistar se encuentren dispersos sobre una área geográfica demasiado extensa.

Todos sabemos que el ideal sería entrevistarlos a todos. Pero la experiencia ha probado que no necesitamos usar el grupo entero. Podemos usar una porción del grupo, siempre que ésta nos dé una muestra representativa. La técnica que se usa para seleccionar una porción representativa se llama "el muestreo al azar." La muestra al azar nos asegura de que cada individuo tenga la misma oportunidad de ser elegido. Usamos un procedimiento sistemático que garantiza la selección imparcial y al mismo tiempo da a cada persona una oportunidad igual de ser seleccionado.

Este muestreo al azar puede hacerse mediante el simple método de escoger cada nombre de por medio de su lista, así reduciendo el grupo a la mitad. O podríamos sacar cada tercer o quinto o sétimo nombre, etc., dependiendo del número con que podamos trabajar efectivamente. El método del muestreo al azar también puede emplearse para seleccionar áreas geográficas, siempre que las áreas en sí sean representativas.

IV. Determine cómo obtener los datos (metodología).

Esto significa que debemos decidir sobre el método que emplearemos para obtener la información. Hay tres medios que son los más usados para recoger la evidencia: 1) por lo que vemos; 2) por lo que sentimos; y, 3) por lo que oímos. Pero todos estos medios deben estar basados en cambios en la conducta de la gente. Podemos observar (ver) cambios y llevar un registro de ellos. Podemos hacer preguntas (entrevistar), o podemos pedir a la gente que llene cuestionarios.

Son muchos los factores que influirán en la selección del sistema que hemos de usar para obtener los datos o la evidencia. Por ejemplo, hay que pensar en el tiempo de que disponga la persona para hacer una evaluación, en el número de personas o contactos que significa, en la naturaleza y la complejidad de la evaluación, en la distancia que hay que cubrir, en el costo de los diferentes métodos, en la disponibilidad y condición de los medios de comunicación, etc.

Al considerar el método a usarse, también debemos establecer ciertos puntos de referencia que sirvan para establecer la evidencia o para medir cambios de conducta. Pero lo importante es que, cualquiera

que sea el método usado para recopilar datos, siempre debemos hacer un plan sistemático para llevar a cabo efectivamente nuestra tarea.

Debemos recordar, al recoger datos, que además de establecer quién puede suministrar la información útil, también es importante decidir quién puede obtenerla. No todo el mundo puede conducir una entrevista con éxito, o hacer preguntas diplomáticamente, aún cuando éstas se planean de antemano. No son todos los que dan buena impresión al entrevistado. Y no siempre es conveniente que el mismo extensionista haga esta parte del trabajo.

V. Determine cómo obtener datos verídicos (preguntas confiables).

Esta es quizás la única área en que podríamos decir que es indispensable tener experiencia profesional. No es fácil elaborar preguntas y afirmaciones que sean claras y libres de prejuicios. Con demasiada frecuencia caemos en el error de confeccionar preguntas que confunden al entrevistado o que influyen en las respuestas dadas. Las preguntas deben hacerse con el fin de obtener datos verídicos. No deben proveer claves ni deben tampoco inferir el tipo de respuesta que se espera. El mejor método para elaborar un conjunto de preguntas (ya sea para entrevistas o para mandar por correo) es obtener el asesoramiento de especialistas en este campo; los sociólogos son los que mejor pueden aconsejarnos en esto. Además de pedir consejo de otros, sin embargo, también es necesario que hagamos pruebas preliminares de los cuestionarios. Esto significa simplemente que ponemos las preguntas a la prueba, usándolas con gente similar a las personas de quienes esperamos recoger los datos requeridos.

Debemos tener cuidado de mantener nuestra lista de preguntas tan corta como sea posible para el éxito de nuestra evaluación. Generalmente tenemos la tendencia de agregar una o dos preguntas, pero debemos recordar que cada pregunta adicional requiere tiempo, tanto para obtener su respuesta como para tabularla, evaluarla, etc. De manera que la prueba preliminar del cuestionario también sirve para darnos una idea del factor tiempo.

Otro factor que debemos tomar en cuenta es el porcentaje de respuestas o devoluciones de cuestionarios que recibimos. Sucede, con demasiada frecuencia, que nosotros mismos tenemos la culpa de que un entrevistado no quiera colaborar, o que los cuestionarios enviados por correo no nos sean devueltos. Debemos recordar que entre más alto sea el porcentaje de cuestionarios completados, mayor validez tendrá la evaluación. Por otra parte, la evaluación no puede considerarse como válida con menos de un 60% de cuestionarios completados. Por supuesto, si fracasáramos, esto nos serviría para probar que el estudio no se ha hecho en el momento oportuno, o que era demasiado largo y complicado, o que no tenía verdadera utilidad. En fin, el fracaso podría ser debido a éstas o muchas otras razones que resultarían en una pérdida considerable de tiempo y trabajo. Y lo que nos perjudicaría aún más, es el hecho de que para hacer una evaluación futura, tropezaríamos con resistencia de la gente y nos sería difícil obtener de nuevo su colaboración.

VI. Determine cómo analizar los resultados (resultados).

En este aspecto la evaluación también toma valor. El tiempo, trabajo y dinero invertidos en la evaluación se justifican solamente si hacemos buen uso de la información obtenida. De manera que es de gran importancia que los datos recogidos sean clasificados, registrados y tabulados correctamente. Por supuesto, también debemos tener esto en mente al seleccionar la muestra y elaborar los cuestionarios. Debemos recordar que el trabajo se facilita si los datos pueden ser convertidos a porcentajes y promedios. Las preguntas que requieren opiniones y mucho trabajo escrito dificultan la tarea. Este tipo de preguntas debe hacerse únicamente para establecer el grado en que se puede confiar en la validez y utilidad de las preguntas de "sí" o "no" o las que se contestan con una marca o una "x" o las "preguntas de tachar."

Al hacer el resumen, es necesario, muy a menudo, hacer alguna interpretación de los datos. Ella debe reflejar los hechos verídicos, ya sea favorable o desfavorablemente. Pero lo importante es que al hacer el resumen, seamos honrados en nuestra presentación de los resultados. Y, sobre todo, debemos aprovechar los resultados obtenidos para desarrollar un mejor programa de extensión.

JDF:bb
Marzo, 1960

(ICA-1760-3-60.)

BIBLIOGRAFIA

1. Brunner, Edmund de S., and Yang, E.H.P. Rural America and the Extension Service. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. 210 p.

   Una persona no familiarizada con la fase de la educación adulta llamada extensión, podrá aprender de este libro sobre qué es extensión, cómo llegó a ser, y cómo se organiza el servicio de extensión. Los autores describen y evalúan el programa del servicio de extensión de los Estados Unidos.

2. Gallup, Gladys, et al. Evaluation in Extension. Division of Extension Research and Training, Federal Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture. Revised edition, 1959.

   Este manual da una explicación completa de los elementos y procedimientos que componen una evaluación de extensión. Esta es una edición corregida y aumentada de la que se publicó en 1956. Está dirigida al personal de extensión y a otros que se interesen en la evaluación de extensión. Es excelente como referencia y guía de enseñanza.

   Nota: La edición de 1956 ha sido traducida al español, con el siguiente título: Manual de Evaluación de Extensión. Traducción del boletín Evaluation in Extension, del Departamento de Agricultura de los Estados Unidos. Turrialba, Costa Rica, Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas, Editorial SIC. Publicación Miscelánea #16, 1957. 122 p.

3. Good, C.V., and Scates, D.E. Methods of Research: Educational, Psychological, Sociological. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954. 920 p.

   Un texto que trata sobre todos los aspectos del problema de la evaluación científica. Una buena referencia para estudiantes avanzados que estén llevando a cabo estudios científicos. No es para el lego.

4. Kelsey, Lincoln D., and Hearne, Cannon C. Cooperative Extension Work. 2nd edition. Ithaca, New York, Comstock Publishing Associates, 1955. 424 p.

   Este libro trata sobre extensión cooperativa -- sus objetivos, filosofía, y métodos. Se escribió para ser usado por estudiantes universitarios y posgraduados que se interesen en la extensión cooperativa. Es un texto bien organizado, con referencias sobre fuentes adicionales de información.

5. Sabrosky, Laurel K. Discussions: Evaluation Workshop. April 5-23, 1954. Aguas Buenas, Puerto Rico. Discussion VII, "How You Will Get the Information." United States Department of Agriculture, Federal Extension Service. Mimeographed ER & TI (1-59).

6. Sabrosky, Laurel K. Six Keys to Evaluating Extension Service. United States Department of Agriculture, Federal Extension Service. Bulletin PA 377, November, 1958.

7. Workshop for Extension Specialists: Program, Lecture Notes, and Group Reports. Ithaca, New York, Cornell University, April 17-28, 1950.

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

Nº 3

SUBJECT MATTER SPECIALISTS IN EXTENSION

Roles, Problems and Adjustments

by

Joseph Di Franco

Regional Services in Extension

Published in English and Spanish

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

For additional copies of this and other booklets and pamphlets from Regional Services in Extension, please contact U.S. Operations Mission headquarters or write to:

Coordinator of Regional Services

Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences

Turrialba, Costa Rica

This publication was prepared under the provisions of the Contract between the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the Organization of American States (OAS) and the Institute of Inter-American Affairs of the International Cooperation Administration (ICA) of the United States Government.

Turrialba, Costa Rica

June, 1960

SUBJECT MATTER SPECIALISTS IN EXTENSION

Roles, Problems and Adjustments

In the development of extension educational services, one of the important areas of work falls on the shoulders of the extension subject matter specialists. To support development and improvement in rural areas, it is very evident that there are three main areas of responsibility: (1) administration; (2) programming; and, (3) technical knowledge. All organizations must supply these basic elements. The administration is usually easily supplied and the county agents are immediately involved in programming and teaching. Eventually there arises a need for resource people who can keep up with the new knowledge to support the growing programs. As the field agent becomes involved in organizing and planning programs, he soon finds he is not up to date in all the fields in which he is called upon to supply information.

The agent must more and more depend upon technical specialists who spend full time at keeping informed in specific areas of technology. Many services at first depend upon the university professors and research men to support their educational programs. These men, however, already have full time jobs. At best they can only give limited time to extension, although they are very much interested in putting knowledge to work. Thus, there develops a definite need for another group of individuals to make the extension education services more efficient and up-to-date. These people are called subject matter specialists. And indeed they are specialists.

Much has been said about extension administrators and perhaps more about "extension agents," but relatively little has been said about subject matter

specialists. Perhaps it would be wise to present some information to help administrators and county agents involved in developing extension services to better understand the specialist's role in extension education. And perhaps some guides for helping specialists understand their responsibilities in supporting rural development programs are in order.

As indicated earlier, the three elements that make up extension education organizations are administration, programming (teaching), and subject matter (knowledge). To orient the specialist, we must help him understand the nature and purpose of the organization in which he will work. Within the organization, the specialist falls in the third category: subject matter. It is the specialist who provides the county agent with the technical information he needs. He becomes a vital link between the sources of new knowledge (experiment stations and research centers) and the extension agent. It is also a good qualification for the specialist to be involved in some on-going research connected with his particular technical field.

Before we discuss further the role and responsibilities of the specialist, it may be wise to give the subject matter specialist more information about extension education and the extension service organization.

Extension, in brief, is a fastly-developing educational effort designed to help rural people. Usually, in the early stages of organization, programs are planned to concentrate on improving agricultural production. This was true even in the United States. In most countries of the world, the majority of the people are engaged in farming, and there is a great need for increasing the food supplies and agricultural products. In most countries, there could be immediate increases if more of the knowledge already available for improving agricultural production were put to work.

The United States is an example of what can be done by putting knowledge to work in rural areas. Food production and agricultural raw materials are in surplus, with only approximately 12% of the population engaged in farming.

But how to put knowledge to work is the problem. Many people still think all we have to do is "tell" the farmer. This is not true, for "telling" people does not get the job done. It takes more than telling; it means demonstrating, proving, discussing, convincing, and helping people in order to put knowledge to work. This means educating people. Extension is a process for educating rural people.

The techniques and skills used in educating people have been modified and changed from the formal class or school procedure. To improve any society at any given time, you have to go out of the school to the people, where they are. Extension means to extend out, but one other element has been added, and that is a cooperative effort of helping people to help themselves. Agents or advisors responsible for the extending of knowledge have had to acquire new techniques and skills for working with people. This means developing new kinds of teachers, now referred to as county agents or rural advisors, etc.

Since we are dealing mainly with agricultural problems, these teachers must have an agricultural background. The best way to obtain agriculturists with new knowledge is to use agricultural college graduates. This is still true, even in areas of the world that have broadened extension education to include family life, health, sanitation, and rural youth. These agricultural graduates can also keep in touch with their schools and obtain additional information and knowledge that they can pass on to the people. As people demand more, they usually turn to governments for increased help. It

becomes necessary and logical that funds, regulations, and policies need to be developed to support a rural education program. The result is an organization designed to administer a service for and with the people.

Thus, in most countries we find a government-supported organization, closely allied with agricultural colleges and depending more and more upon new agricultural knowledge to make continuous advancement in rural improvement.

The more the influence of the educational activity increases, the better organized an educational system must be to serve the growing demands made upon it, and the better trained the individuals must be to do their increasingly complex job. As they become better trained, experts in different areas of the organization must be developed.

In analyzing the situation of the subject matter specialist within the extension organization, we find that the five major areas of adjustment in which he should direct his efforts are:

1. The subject matter specialist must become a part of the extension educational system.
2. The subject matter specialist must re-orient himself to new relationships without losing his professional contacts.
3. The subject matter specialist must learn to work with people outside his technical field.
4. The subject matter specialist must address farmers' problems to his technical field for solutions.
5. The subject matter specialist must promote technical knowledge and rural development that are in line with national policies and goals.

Let us examine these points more closely:

First, the agents are forced to become better teachers and develop better teaching skills and techniques. More and better administrators are needed to keep the organization running smoothly. More specific knowledge is needed in specific fields of agriculture, as the general improved practices are adopted. In addition to the teaching specialist, it becomes necessary to have subject matter specialists in livestock and crops. Then even in these general agricultural categories it becomes necessary to have a dairy specialist, swine specialist, poultry specialist, and others. And in highly developed agricultural areas it becomes necessary to have specialists within one field of agriculture, i.e., pathologists, entomologists, agronomists, and so on.

As the teacher broadens his influence and gains the confidence of the people, the demands upon his teaching services use more and more of his time. He must become increasingly dependent on administrators to keep his organization operating for him to work. He needs more resource people (subject matter specialists) to supply him with new knowledge. It even becomes necessary for subject matter specialists to teach the agents new skills and techniques in order for the teacher to pass on the new knowledge.

So in most countries we find an "Extension" organization under government support. This extension organization supports extension teachers who work in rural areas on programming and teaching. And as the program develops, subject matter specialists are needed and relied upon, to support the agents' teaching efforts.

Secondly, many subject matter specialists are technical men already within the Ministries of Agriculture. And in some areas the subject matter specialists are newly appointed employees of the extension service. In Servicio programs, the subject matter specialists may be technicians from the United States or from other countries.

The problem of using subject matter specialists effectively is more than one of organization or of their original positions. This does add to the problem, but fortunately it is not the most serious aspect. The more serious problem is the relationship of the technicians to the extension educational efforts.

In newly developing extension education programs, the administrators usually are not able to provide the best answers, as they themselves are new. The agents or teachers are usually new men also, in a new organization attempting to do something new. Subject matter specialists then find that they must develop within the "new". This may be the first area of conflict. Usually subject matter specialists are older men, who are well qualified and have much prestige and experience in their field. No doubt that is why they were appointed subject matter specialists. However, they too are new in the sense that they are in a new role. They now are resource technicians for a new and expanding educational effort. Assuredly they know their topic, but they must also admit they need to know how to work effectively in this new effort. They must cooperate and help the administrators and the "teachers" to develop new policies, approaches, and ways of doing the job of extension. In most cases, they must learn to accept the secondary role of "supporting" the county agents. This may be hard for some to do, but it must be done. The

county agent must be the contact organizer on the rural level. He needs the counsel and advice from others, but he is responsible for his rural area. The subject matter specialist becomes all important in supplying the "ammunition" for this educational effort.

Conversely, too, the subject matter specialist must know when and how to divide his time in any particular area, as a county agent may demand too much time and let the subject matter specialist do too much of the teaching. Once the agent is pushed into the background and the subject matter specialist becomes too prominent in the teaching end, trouble follows. First the county agent no longer has the full respect and attention of his people and consequently his program suffers. Second, the subject matter specialist must spend too much time and energy in teaching. He must then do less and less with other agents and perhaps soon divorces himself from his technical field.

The subject matter specialist may find that he has to develop new lines of relationships. Whereas he was in a clearly defined position, he now works with a new government agency. Quite often he is called upon to explain his actions to his former professional colleagues. He can no longer give as much time to his former role, as he has new responsibilities. He will be away from his colleagues and he travels for extension. Many new relationships will demand cutting down time spent in former relationships. His professional colleagues may not approve of his new schedule, mostly because they do not understand or know about this new extension service. Thus the second problem for the subject matter specialist will be how to adjust to his changing relationships. This calls for tact and patience.

Another, or third, problem will be that of learning to work with colleagues outside of his technical field. He may need to use more layman's language, when passing on technical knowledge. Since extension education will be aimed at rural people, the use of technical knowledge depends upon the understanding the farmers have about the subject. This is a new role for most professional people. Usually as people become more experienced and professional, part of their growth is in conversing, writing and communicating in the technical and professional language of their areas of specialization. This is fine and necessary in one's career when working in a technical field. The subject matter specialist must still maintain this professional competence within his profession, but in his new role he now crosses into another professional field, extension education. He must be able to transfer knowledge between the two groups. This brings up a fourth problem area.

The reverse of transferring knowledge from his technical area to extension, he must learn to transfer rural people's problems (in his technical area) to his professional group. This may be harder to do than the reverse. First, the professional man usually is called upon to lead the way. Extension education, however, progresses successfully only at the rate in which it is aimed at the needs of rural people. Without question, agricultural technicians know about many of the needs of agricultural producers. Too often, however, they place them in a different priority than the farmer. Since it is necessary to gain the farmer's confidence and determination to put new practices into effect, the technical knowledge needs to be made available to fit his feeling of need. This is perhaps the hardest concept even for the professional teachers (county agents) to grasp. Yet this is

the essence of extension education. Experience has also proved that this approach is the fastest in the long run.

In connection with solving problems or helping to find answers to help solve farmers' needs, it becomes necessary for subject matter specialists to help agents help farmers to recognize their needs in a broader context. Oft-times individual farmers only see their own problems and they must be able to see themselves in the broader field of the community and the nation. This of course is education and part of the job of extension education.

Thus we come to another, or fifth, problem area. This is the ability to keep his technical efforts working for the benefit of farmers but within the scope of national policies. If he promotes agricultural technology without also seeing whether it contributes to the national effort, he may find he has done an injustice to the people he serves. And in this case he may also find himself out of a job. No man can easily help a cause by being eliminated. The place to solve problems is on the job. Here too he may find it necessary to help government officials see the necessity or effect his technical field may have in promoting national policies.

We have not mentioned, of course, some of the obvious qualities and qualifications a subject matter specialist should have. It is assumed that he is trained and competent. It is assumed that he must "take time" to keep himself well-qualified in his field. Here again the emphasis should be placed on the necessity for the subject matter specialist to take time to keep himself current in his field. Only he can keep himself qualified and competent. And of course he has a dual role. He must be competent in his

field of technology and must be competent in his role as subject matter specialist in the extension program.

We therefore must add that a good subject matter specialist will be judged on his ability to be informed in his technical field, to get along with his technical colleagues, to get along with his extension co-workers, to help farmers put knowledge to work, to promote national interests, and to help develop new policies of the newly developing educational effort called extension.

We could be facetious and say that for those who can't do this, there are others who will. It would be better, however, to say that the sooner we face the problems, and cooperatively work them out, the better everyone will be. This is true regardless of the person's relationship to the extension activities of a country, be he director, county agent, supervisor, subject matter specialist, politician, professor, researcher.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Brunner, Edmund de S., and Yang, E. H. P. Rural America and the Extension Service. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. 210 p.

2. Gallup, Gladys, et al. Evaluation in Extension. Division of Extension Research and Training, Federal Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture. Revised edition, 1959.

3. Reid, T.R., and Wilson, M.C. Functions and Activities of State Extension Specialists. United States Department of Agriculture, Extension Service Circular No 189, September, 1933.

4. Wilson, Meredith C., and Gallup, Gladys. Extension Teaching Methods. United States Department of Agriculture, Federal Extension Circular Nº 495, August, 1955.

5. Workshop for Extension Specialists: Program, Lecture Notes, and Group Reports. Ithaca, New York, Cornell University, April 17-28, 1950.

JDF:bb
June, 1960

ICA/EE-7-60

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

Nº 4

EXTENSION ORGANIZATION

For Administration and For Program Development

by

Joseph Di Franco

Regional Services in Extension

Published in English and Spanish

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

For additional copies of this and other booklets and pamhplets from Regional Services in Extensiom, please contact U.S. Operations Mission headquarters or write to:

Coordinator of Regional Services
Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences
Turrialba, Costa Rica

This publication was prepared under the provisions of the Contract between the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the Organization of American States (OAS) and the Institute of Inter-American Affairs of the International Cooperation Administration (ICA) of the United States Government.

Turrialba, Costa Rica

August, 1960

EXTENSION ORGANIZATION

For Administration and For Program Development

By

Joseph Di Franco

No discussion on administration and supervision can be complete without the recognition that there are two pahses of work in extension organizations, (1) administration, and (2) program development. Or to say it another way, an organization for administration is necessary in order to develop a framework within which a program can be developed. The existence of an extension service is predicated on the development of an educational program designed to help rural people. To do this educational job, and administrative organization is necessary. The framework administrative organization which defines the policies for permitting people to do extension work is easily described and is usually illustrated by a flow-chart or diagram showing the administrative relationships between the individual members of the organization. We are all familiar with these diagrams. They exist wherever formal organizations are created to carry out responsibilities. Government bodies, schools, factories, clubs, societies, etc., are all easily described by an illustration of the administrative chart.

Unfortunately, this administrative organization is too often accepted as the same for the job to be done, i.e., the education program in the extension organization. The administrative organization is not the same as the program development organization.

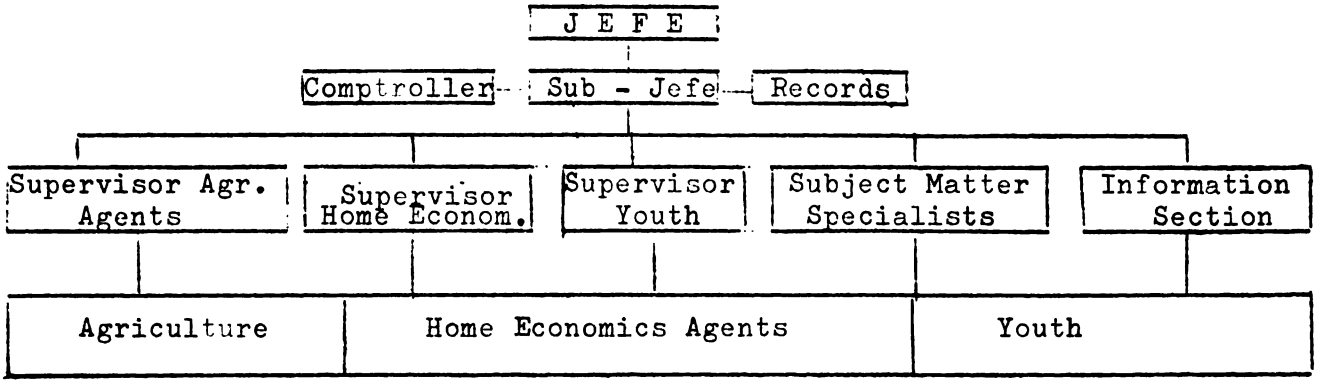
The purpose of the administrative organization is to define the relationships between the members of the institution for administrative

purposes. The roles and responsibilities for each individual in the development of the product (program) must be defined within this administrative framework. However, when we define the role and responsibilities in program development, in most instances the relationship and responsibilities are completely reversed.

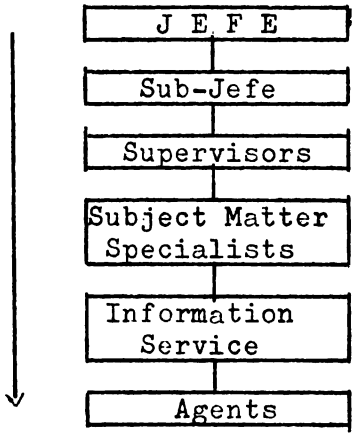
In newly developing extesnion organizations, I believe this concept of two organizations in one is often misunderstood; this is especially true where the administrative and "extension" personnel are often assigned their extension assignment without previous knowledge, experience or training. Many times for lack of available trained extension people, governments have had to appoint agricultural specialists or research technicians to the staff of his new organization called extension.

If we accept the idea that there are two organizations in extension, one for administrative purposes and one for program development, we can illustrate it by the following diagrams:

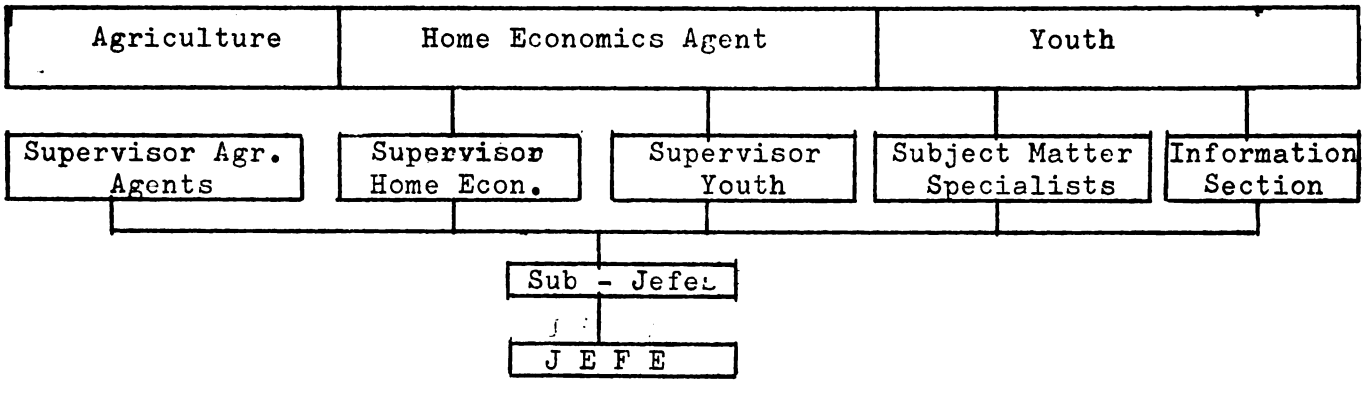
ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION



The directives and policies flow downward from the Director to his staff.



PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION



Programs should develop at the agents' level through their supporting resources, subject matter specialists and extension information section. Coordination of programs develops at the supervisory level and passes on to the Director.

Agents

Supervisor

Specialists

Information Section

Assistant Director

Director

Thus, every person has a certain position in the administrative organization and a different one in the program development organization. We could illustrate this another way:

EXTENSION ORGANIZATION

Administration	Program Development
Director	
Assistant	Director
Supervisors	
Specialists	
	Information Section
	Agents

With this kind of reference, we then are able to better define roles and responsibilities.

The Director has major responsibility in administrative duties. He interprets the regulations under which the service is created. He administers people. He sets up the controls and develops policies.

The Asistant Directors help the director carry out administrative duties and help coordinate programs.

The Supervisors have two nearly equal roles: first, administrative functions assigned to them by the directors; and, secondly, an equal responsibility to help agents in program development. They help agents understand the policies and regulations, help to provide liaison and contacts to resources needed by agents, try to determine needs of the agents in training and skills. They act as coordinators of programs in their areas of control.

The Subject Matter Specialists* have almost no administrative responsibilities, although they convey to agents interpretations of the regulations as they pertain to the specialists' roles, responsibilities and limitations. The specialists do play an important and major role in program development. Mostly they keep agents informed of their particular technical fields and their importance to the agents' area of work, and they stimulate program activities. After the agents have determined the programs for the year, the specialists give necessary support to the agents in carrying out the program. This includes training agents, developing demonstrations and bulletins, interpreting technical data, and assiting with actual teaching assignments.

---

* See: Training Materials in Extension #3: Subject Matter Specialists, Roles, Problems and Adjustments.

The InformatiOn Section is a supporting resource for all personnel in conveying to the public the program and accomplishments of the extension efforts. Perhaps the information section's greatest role is in providing teaching aids to support the agents' efforts. The information section must work with specialists in developing visual aids, bulletins and training materials for the agents' and farmers' use. Thus the importance of information in the program organization is a major one.

The agents have the most important role and responsibility in the development and execution of programs. They are at the farmer's level and they determine the program, based upon the needs of the people. Naturally their program must be in line with the policies and regulations that govern their organization. The program, if it is to be based upon the needs of the people, must be determined at the agents' level. Thus, we have two fundamental functions in any organization: (1) administrative (2) program development. All the personnel in the organization have dual roles. Future papers will be prepared covering in more detail the roles and responsibilities of the different extension personnel.

It is often hard to draw a line between administrative roles and program development roles. Each person does, however, have major responsibilities in one or the other. There is no question that agents have the responsibility for developing programs. The other persons give support to the agent by providing or supplying the atmosphere, training, knowledge or resources necessary for doing the best job possible.

This is a concept that needs to be understood by all extension workers as soon as possible so as to insure: (1) the development of an

administrative organization which permits agents maximum freedom and support for doing their job, and (2) a realization that administrators do not determine programs but asist agents in developing educational programs.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Apodaca, Anacleto, Enseñando al Agricultor. Telgucigalpa; Embajada Americana, 1954.

2. Baker, Gladys. The County Agent. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1939.

3. Brunner, Edmund de S., and E. Hsin Pao Yang. Rural America and the Extension Service. New York: Bureau of Publications. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.

4. Di Franco, Joseph. A Suggested Advisory Program for Rural Italy Unpublished Ed. D. thesis, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1958.

5. Guardia, Luis. The Extensión Service in Bolivia. Its Origin, Development, Accomplishments and Projections. Unpublished M. S. thesis. Cornell University. 1958.

6. Kelsey, Lincoln D., and Cannon C. Hearne. Cooperative Extension Work, 2nd edition. Ithaca, New York: Comstock Publishing Associates, 1954.

7. Law, Howard E. Extensión Agrícola. Principios Básicos y Métodos de Enseñanza. 3rd. revised edition. Caracas: Consejo de Bienestar Rural.

8. Mata, Edgar. The Extension Service in Costa Rica. Unpublished M. A. thesis, Cornell University, 1957.

9. Methods and Program Planning in Rural Extensión. Edited by J. M. A. Penders. International Agricultural Study Centre, Wageningen, The Netherlands, 1956.

10. Momford, Frederick B. The Land Grand College Movement. College of Agriculture, Bulletin #419. University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri, 1940.

11. National Extension Services of Selected Countries in the Americas. John Fenley, editor, Comparative Extension Publication #8, New York State College of Agriculture at Cronell University, 1959.

12. O. E. E. C. (Organization for European Economic Cooperation) Agricultural Extension Services in the USA. Paris: Report of a working party of European Experts on farm advisory work, 1951.

13. O. E. E. C. (Organization for European Economic Cooperation) Agricultural Advisory Services in European Countries. Paris: Report of a working party of experts on farm advisory work, 1950.

14. Ruíz, Cristóbal. The Extension Service in Ecuador, Its Past, Its Present Accomplishments, and Its Future. Unpublished M. A. thesis, Cornell University, 1958.

PREVIOUS PUBLICATIONS

Training Materials in Extension

#1 Extension Philosophy
#2 Evaluation in Extension
#3 Subject Matter Specialists in Extension. Roles, Problems and Adjustments.

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

Nº 5

ELEMENTS THAT CONTRIBUTED TO THE SUCCESS OF THE UNITED STATES COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

by

Joseph Di Franco

Published in English and Spanish

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

For additional copies of this and other booklets and pamphlets from Regional Services in Extension, please contact U. S. Operations Mission headquarters or write to:

Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences
Turrialba, Costa Rica

This publication was prepared under the provisions of the Contract between the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the Organization of American States (OAS) and the Institute of Inter-American Affairs of the International Cooperation Administration (ICA) of the United States Government.

Turrialba, Costa Rica
November, 1960

ELEMENTS THAT CONTRIBUTED TO THE SUCCESS OF THE UNITED STATES COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

by

Joseph Di Franco

INTRODUCCION

The United States has demonstrated that the process called Extension Education can contribute to improving agricultural production and improving rural living. Naturally, because of this success, it is used as a reference and example for those aspiring to duplicate a similar effort in their respective countries. The question often arises, however, as to what are the elements that helped or contributed to its success. Many, unfortunately, attribute the success in the United States rural educational program in extension to the fact that the United States is rich; it is big; it has great resources in agricultural colleges and agricultural experiment stations. All of these things are true, but these in themselves contributed only because of more fundamental reasons. These factors in themselves cannot insure success unless accompanied by some more basic truths. The author, in writing up a short history of the United States Cooperative Extension Service, as an Extension Advisor to a foreign country, realized that there were some factors that could be pointed to as definitely contributing to the success in the United States. He also realized that these are the kinds of factors that can be duplicated in other countries. Perhaps this information can be useful to planners, administrators and leaders responsible for developing rural educational organizations and programs of the extension type.

The elements* (according to the author's analysis) that contribute to the success and importance of the United States rural educational

---

* Di Franco, Joseph: "A Suggested Advisory Program for Rural Italy" (Ed. D. dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958. 116 pp).

organization called the Cooperative Extension Service are:

1. It is an educational organization.

2. It is equal in importance to the other two vital educational services - research and resident teaching.

3. It is supported by federal, state and local funds.

4. It has an important place in the United States Department of Agriculture, but is not dominated by that Department.

5. Each state is autonomous in its administration and organization of the advisory service in that state.

6. Emphasis is placed on the local level, with each county developing its own program.

7. It is attached to the Land-Grant colleges, which coordinate resident teaching, research, and extension teaching.

8. There is a two-way flow of ideas from the top down and from the field level upwards.

9. The latest methods of communication are exploited when found useful in getting the job done.

10. Democratic procedure is fundamental to its operation.

11. Use of lay leaders is one of the strongest aspects contributing to its extensive coverage of the rural areas.

12. The program is flexible so that it adjusts to changes.

13. The Service developed from one of improving agricultural production to serving the farm family as a unit. (Special programs for men, women and rural youth are still continued).

14. Training in technical agriculture and home economics are prerequisites for extension personnel. In-service training and refresher courses help them keep pace with new developments, research, techniques, skills and new responsibilities.

It is not sufficient to just point out these elements; it is also necessary to understand what they mean. Perhaps the following brief explanations will help the reader understand why these have been selected as important reasons.

1. <u>It is an Educational Organization</u>

The emphasis here is on the educational aspects. Fortunately, the United States Cooperative Extension Service has been able to resist attempts by government officials and other well-meaning leaders to add service responsibilities to the job of education. We all know that credit is a necessary and useful resource in agricultural development. However, in the United States the extension personnel helped create an awareness of need, and educated farm families on the use of credit, but did not become agents of credit or responsible for handling funds or credentials on behalf of credit institutions. Obviously, the job of handling credit as a service to farmers cuts down on the time extension personnel can devote to their educational program.

Most direct services to farmers, although extremely important, tend to make the extension agents become subservient to:

a. The limited number of farmers receiving the service

b. The demands and controls imposed by the regulations of the service itself, e.g. credit, collecting census data, carrying out land reform projects, marketing and transportation services, etc.

It is, however, a direct responsibility of extension personnel to be the educational link between these services and farmers. They can help farmers understand how such resources can benefit them and how they can be used in:

a. Increasing production.

b. Raising standards of living.

The extension service must be educational. This in itself is a full-time job. The United States Extension Service continues to build its success and prestige upon the fact it makes it a full-time educational job and it continues to resist attempts to have it do other jobs.

2. <u>It is Equal in Importance to the Other Two Vital Educational Services -- Research and Resident Teaching</u>.

Research here means both in the field of natural sciences and in the field of social sciences. Resident teaching refers to the formal in-school college academic training.

Although most countries throughout the world have colleges and universities and research (experiment) institutions, there has not always been a direct link between them. At least, in many instances, they have not always had equal importance. Certainly the importance of research as basic to learning and teaching cannot be disputed. This is accepted in most countries. Unfortunately, with the recent development of rural educational organizations, these "extension" organizations are not recognized by the two other long standing formal institutions, colleges and research stations. It is not our intention to elaborate on the why of this, but to emphasize that when these three forces:

a. Research

b. Resident teaching

c. Extension education

are put to work on an equal basis, all three programs benefit. They complement each other. In fact, as the United States story proves, each gains in importance and prestige. There is a need and a place for all three, but more important, it is obvious that each is related to the other. It is not a question of which organization is most important or which was established

first; each is important. Any one can do much to help people. Two of them can do more. All three working together make the greatest impact.

3. It is Supported by Federal, State, and Local Funds.

This is one aspect of the cooperative nature of the United States Service. Each political sub-division makes its economic contribution, which not only makes it a partner in supporting the service for its respective area, but also gives it the right to have its say in what it wants from this educational service. It becomes a people's program and not a government program. Or perhaps it is better to say that the people become involved in a program supported by their government - county, state and national. It is also an accepted idea that people who contribute to a cause appreciate and support it more than they do something extended to them as a "free" service.

4. It Has an Important Place in the United States Department of Agriculture, but is not Dominated by that Department.

It is only natural that the Extension Service, which has as its objectives:

a. To raise agricultural production
b. To raise the level of living of rural people,

be a unit within the Agricultural Department. This department which serves rural people, expands its usefulness and effectiveness by the addition of an educational organization that reaches every agricultural area of the United States. In turn, the technical services provided by the personnel of this Department backstop the educational extension service in meeting needs and solving problems of rural people.

The relationship is important. Most countries immediately assign

their extension services to the Ministry of Agriculture. The difference in the United States and the reason the United States relationship is unique, is that the Extension Service is autonomous in its operation and is not dominated by the Secretary (Minister) of Agriculture, or other political leaders. It has its own director, who submits his program and budget to the Secretary for administrative purposes only. Once the budget has been approved, the Extension Service is responsible for developing a program of education within the guidelines of the law. It is only responsible for reporting to the Department of Agriculture, but not necessarily subject to following any of the ideas and program proposed by the Department of Agriculture, unless it fits into the Extension Service's objectives and plans of work.

Another important feature is that the National Director of Extension is not subject to changes in political administration. Although cabinet members change with changes of presidents, the director does not. This permits a security and permanency that allow for long time program development and planning.

5. <u>Each State is Autonomous in its Administration and Organization of the Advisory Service in that State</u>.

This characteristic is a continuance of the previous one (#4). The idea of autonomy makes each level of the organization free to adapt itself to the conditions within its area of influence. If we think of this, we realize that this flexibility to develop independent programs gives it strength. All of us hear people say: "But in our country it is different. We have different habits, culture, crops, different seasons, etc." The same can be said about each state in the United States. Therefore, these differences (even if minor in nature) are taken care of by each state's autonomy to develop its own organization, relationships, and programs. Perhaps this feature has contributed the most

to the success the United States Extension Service now enjoys. This is why we emphasize the fact that we have 50 extension services in the United States. Truly each state is an autonomous unit. In reality we can also say we have 50 different extension programs.

6. Emphasis is Placed on the Local Level, With Each County Developing its own Program.

Just as we can truly say that there are 50 extension services in the United States, we can also say that we have 3,000+ extension education programs. Each county (under federal and state legislation), is responsible and must develop its own program. Each county meets its own needs and develops a program of work based upon the cooperative planning between the local agents and the farm families.

Certainly this permits an educational service to contribute to solving people's problems. This means a people's program at a level and rate they want it to be, not one designed by government or political bodies imposing programs that are resisted by people, because they are someone else's and not their own.

Most educators and extension workers readily agree that this is an important element in developing educational programs for rural people. However, local agents and people must be educated and given time to make this process of cooperation work. It is far easier for agents to look to their superiors for direction and programs rather than working with large numbers of people. Because program building with people requires time to develop, results are not forthcoming in the early years of new organization. Political leaders and extension people themselves too often want immediate results and try to speed up programs by imposing themselves on the people at a faster rate than people can be involved. There are many cases in many areas of the world where there is evidence of a top down kind of program

development. The failures far outnumber the successes when this happens. It is true that time waits for no man, but it is also true that men need time to develop.

7. It is Attached to the Land-Grant Colleges, which Coordinate Resident Teaching, Research and Extension Teaching.

In element #2, we recognized the importance of these three areas of work. But here we emphasize the fact that extension is attached to an institution of higher learning which immediately associates the extension service to an educational foundation. At the same time, it is an institution directly concerned with agriculture. By Federal Law, a Land Grant College has been established in each State. This law also makes it mandatory that it be an Agricultural Institution. These Land Grant colleges are the major force in the United States in developing agricultural leaders. With their major interest in agriculture, their sympathies and concerns are with rural people. The extension service naturally fits into this scheme of things. With the Land Grant colleges also dependent upon and associated with agricultural research to obtain new knowledge in technology and skills we have another strong link between these three necessary institutions.

It is a marvel to many that a political body such as the United States legislature should have created three separate institutions essential to the economic and social progress of its people. Perhaps not because the legislators created these institutions, (many other countries have done the same) but because they gave them autonomy, free from the pressures of political change. And in addition established a relationship of cooperation. A famous policy adopted by Cornell University which also includes the Land Grant College of Agriculture of New York State. This democratic feature has paid dividends. "Freedom with responsibility", freedom to organize and develop responsibility to put knowledge to work. Political bodies must

create institutions, but off-times they must withdraw from forcing their own ideas too rapidly upon people, regardles of their best intentions or superior knowledge.

8. <u>There is a Two-Way Flow of Ideas from the Top Down and From the Field Level Upwards.</u>

In previous elements we stressed the autonomy and freedom permitted at all levels of the organization and in program development. The National Extension Service is free from the United States Department of Agriculture. Each state is free to develop its own programs and administer its own organization. Each county has these same freedoms. This does not mean that all ideas from national leaders and administrators are rejected. Nor does it mean that there is no relationship between regional, state or national effort. In fact, many ideas do originate at higher levels -- just as research stations develop new knowledge and technology so do ideas originate from leaders. It is how these ideas are incorporated into the system. With security assured by autonomy from politics and other disrupting influences, leaders are recognized for ideas that come from study of factors from their broad training and experiences, from their position of knowing other areas and program. As the people learned that they did have freedom to develop their own programs to solve their own problems, they had greater faith in the people who made up their extension service. Naturally, the technologists and administrators had wider contacts and could help in unifying ideas and making use of resources to help solve needs.

The system of two-way flow means that as new technology is forthcoming, it is passed on to the farmers. Farmers in turn were able to pass on to their leaders their problems. Technologists and administrators were then working on problems of the people and the people were receiving new knowledge and utilizing

resources made available in this mutually beneficial cycle. It is true that we cannot now determine where the cycle starts, but it is one that permits national and state leaders to be partners with the people they serve.

9. The Latest Methods of Communication are Exploited when Found Useful to Getting the Job Done.

Fortunately, in the United States communications developed very rapidly. But more fortunately, these media were used to promote educational programs and not only to exploit people. (By exploitation we mean to advertise goods for sale, or propagandize for political purposes or only for recreational activities). Educators in the United States were foresighted enough in realizing the advantages of using all communications media to reach more people and to reach more people more effectively.

Extension itself means to extend something. We know it means to extend knowledge. The first extension people extended knowledge by using roads to go to the people. The spoken work was taken out of the class-room. The individual farm visits became group visits. Lectures became more easily understood by use of charts, pictures and other visuals. The radio made it possible to reach still more and to reach them more often. All of these media became tools to the extension man. Studies on how to use these communications media resulted in developing improved techniques. New knowledge is now transferred to people in many forms. The learning process and the teaching arts are sciences made more effective by more effective use of communications skills. New knowledge produces only when put to work. This means it must be transferred from those who discover new knowledge (research) to those who must put it to work (farm families). The "bridge" between the two is the extension service. The tools the extension people use are, of course, the

communication skills. Extension agents in the United States have benefited by:

a. Having opportunity to be trained in communication skills.

b. Having opportunity to use the extensive communication media.

10. Democratic Procedure is Fundamental to its Operation.

Naturally, a democratic procedure would be a system acceptable and preferred in a democracy. However, not all democracies permit or use democratic procedures. Even the United States has not always employed democratic procedure in all its educational programs in the past. The democratic process is oft-time considered too slow for action programs. The extension service, however, has proved the usefulness and advantage of using democratic procedures. Many now proved extension educational principles are based upon the fact that a democratic foundation exists. The principle of "involving people" takes on different meanings, depending upon whether a democratic procedure is implied, or an autocratic procedure is to be used. Obviously you can involve people in both instances. The same can be said for other principles,* i.e., "start where people are", or "an extension program must be based on needs of the people", "extension should serve all members of the family" to mention a few. All these, and others, depend upon an understanding and use of the democratic procedure as understood and practiced in the United States. The failure of many extension programs in other democratic countries may be due to their interpretation of what constitutes the democratic process.

---

* A list of principles has been included in a previous paper prepared in this training materials series entitled "Philosophy of Extension"

11. Use of Lay Leaders * is one of the Strongest Aspects Contributing to its Extensive Coverage in the Rural Areas.

This system of using local leaders or lay leaders makes it possible for the approximately 10,000 extension workers (which includes administrators and supervisory staff) to extend services to every agricultural area and family that wants to participate. A system of direct aid or personal visits limits the number of families and the area covered to a very small percentage per extension workers. When we consider the size and population of the United States, we begin to realize that although 10,000 is a large number of extension workers, they could not hope to do the job so extensively if they were not supported by volunteer, unpaid local leaders. Certainly it takes time to build a program through leaders. They must be trained and backstopped by the agent. Certainly, too, agents must have faith that the local leaders can carry on certain training and liaison activities. Unfortunately, many extension agents' concept of a leader is of one who assists the agent, but only when the agent is present. Thus, the effect of multiplying an agent's service is nullified, because he must always be with his leaders when they "extend" skills or knowledge on behalf of the agent.

Another concept that must be changed is the belief that only educated people can teach others. It is the author's sincere belief that in Latin America, where there are:

a. Limited trained agricultural people available for extension.

b. Very small budgets for hiring or developing extension organizations,

the best way to extend these limiting factors is to work through local leaders. Perhaps too much emphasis is placed on references to principles, but again, using leaders is one way of "involving

* In the list of future topics for articles for the training materials series, we will cover definition, use and roles of lay leaders.

people", "starting where people are", and other such principles that are guides to doing successful extension education.

12. The Program is Flexible so that it Adjusts to Change.

Too often this characteristic in program planning implies a paradox. In program planning and development, we always emphasize planning and the idea of sticking to the plan. Then we say a program must be flexible. What is meant is that we must base a program on needs, organize our resources, and follow a plan that will help us accomplish our objectives. Flexibility means being able to change the program to meet the changing needs or to take advantage of changes in people so as to help them achieve their goals. Too often extension people think of a program as their program and not the people's. This causes the extensionist to resist changing the program or persist in carrying out plans that are no longer valid. As people learn to use the extension service and learn to contribute, they too gain new insights and appreciations. They are able to do more. They are able to evaluate their needs more realistically. Also true is that conditions change. New resources become available. All of these are good reasons for flexibility in programs and priorities for the benefit of helping those we serve. Perhaps we mean that vigilance and evaluation should be continous in order to be able to help people develop the programs that are best suited to their interests. Long-time goals, i.e., increasing production or raising levels of living, can be constant. The short-time goals may need to be flexible and change as we strive to achieve the long-time goals. Perhaps some short-time goals need to be discarded or modified, but this means being realistic, and, as proven in the United States is a strong element in developing success.

13. <u>The Service Developed from one of Improving Agricultural Production to Serving the Farm Family as a Unit. (Special Programs for Men, Women, and Rural Youth are Still Continued).</u>

In the United States, the main reason for starting an extension service was to extend technical knowledge in agriculture to farmers. At the turn of the present century, the United States was primarily an agricultural country. Most of the rural people were engaged in production and distribution of agricultural products, food, and fiber. There was a great need to increase agricultural supplies as well as to make farming more efficient, Agricultural supplies were needed to feed and furnish the industrial machinery that was developing. Efficiency was needed to release labor from agricultural pursuits for work in the industrial empire. These things happened. But as this efficiency developed, rural people were also able to aspire to higher standards and levels of living. New homes, equipment, facilities, better education for children, use of leisure time, etc., were new aspects of human welfare that began to occupy the families. As these new needs and problems changed, it was fortunate that extension was able to expand its educational program to include programs designed to help the people.

Farming is more than a business enterprise for the man; it is a family enterprise. What better reason than to include all members of the family in the problem of improving rural life, both in their vocation as well as their personal lives. Through the family approach, the entire rural population is involved in the process of learning and solving problems. Certainly the impact of 4-H Club work is recognized as preparing the future adults as cooperators and contributors to extension education efforts. The women's programs have contributed much in supporting agricultural production. As in most agricultural areas, the women participate directly and in most cases have responsibility for the small

enterprises, such as chicken and rabbit raising, gardens, etc. Since it is hard to separate the job of working for a living, and the job of living, in subsistence type agricultural areas, it is important to involve the whole family in extension education, and as the family business improves, each of the units, men, women, and youth, begins to have time for special interests of its respective group. Special programs and activities can then be developed. Today in the United States it is accepted and recognized that developing agricultural programs, home economics programs, youth programs, and family programs, have done and still do much for making extension education an important and significant force. It continues to be in ever increasing demand even though the United States is an industrial nation, and less than 10% of the population is involved in agricultural production.

14. Training in Technical Agriculture and Home Economics are Prerequisites for Extension Personnel. In-service Training and Refresher Courses Help them Keep Pace with New Developments, Research, Techniques, Skills, and New Responsibilities.

Not much needs to be said about the need for well trained agricultural extension agents. Technical agricultural knowledge is necessary and its importance is recognized in most countries. At an early stage, one of the minimum requirements for becoming an extension agent in the United States was to be a college graduate with a B.S. degree in agriculture. Today the same is true for home economists. It was soon learned that not everyone could teach new scientific methods just because he was a farm boy. So, too, it is erroneous to think that any woman can teach home economics without technical training just because all women know about raising families, taking care of homes, nutrition, etc., since these skills are natural to women.

We need to have technically trained people in agriculture and home economics because methods, techniques and knowledge change. This means good training at all stages, such as in-serving training to help extension agents keep up on these new developments.

In addition to technical training and competency, of course, they must learn how to teach and work with people. Basically the art of teaching people must be acquired before transfer of the new knowledge and skills can take place. This is the justification and need recognized by Agricultural Colleges to include social sciences and education as pre-requisites for their extension graduates.

B I B L I O G R A P H Y

BLISS, RALPH K. The Spirit and Philosophy of Extension Work. Washington, D.C. Published jointly by Graduate School, Department of Agriculture and the Epsilom Sigma Phi National Honorary Fraternity, 1952.

BRUNNER, EDMUND de S. & YANG, HSIN PAO. Rural America and the Extension Service. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1949. 210 p.

DI FRANCO, JOSEPH. A Suggested Advisory Program for Rural Italy. Unpublished Ed.D. thesis. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958.

_____. The United States Cooperative Extension Service. Comparative Extension Publication Nº 7. Ithaca, New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University, 1958. 31 p.

FENLEY, JOHN (Ed.). National Extension Services of Selected Countries in the Americas. Comparative Extension Publication Nº 8. Ithaca, New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University, 1959.

KELSEY, LINCOLN D. & HEARNE, CANNON C. Cooperative Extension Work. 2nd ed. Ithaca, N. Y., Comstock Publishing Associates, 1955. 424 p.

LAW, HOWARD E. Extensión Agrícola; Principios Básicos y Métodos de Enseñanza. Third revised edition. Caracas, Consejo de Bienestar Rural.

MOMFORD, FREDERICK B. The Land Grant College Movement. Columbia Missouri, College of Agriculture Bull. 419, University of Missouri. 1940.

O.E.E.C. (ORGANIZATION FOR EUROPEAN ECONOMIC COOPERATION). Agricultural Advisory Services in European Countries. Report of a working party of experts on farm advisory work. Paris, 1950.

TRUE, ALFRED CHARLES. A History of Agricultural Extension Work in the United States. Washington, D.C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1928. 220 p.

PREVIOUS PUBLICATIONS

Training Materials in Extension

#1 Extension Philosophy.
#2 Evaluation in Extension.
#3 Subject Matter Specialists in Extension.
Roles, Problems and Adjustments.
#4 Extension Organization
For Administration and for Program Development.

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

Nº 6

LOCAL LEADERS IN EXTENSION

By

Dr. Joseph Di Franco
Extensionist

Published in English and Spanish

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

For additional copies of this and other booklets and pamphlets from Regional Services in Extension, please contact U. S. Operations Mission headquarters or write to:

Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences
Turrialba, Costa Rica

This publication was prepared under the provisions of the Contract between the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the Organization of American States (OAS) and the Institute of Inter-American Affairs of the International Cooperation Administration (ICA) of the United States Government.

Turrialba, Costa Rica
April, 1961

LOCAL LEADERS IN EXTENSION

by

Joseph Di Franco

There seems to be a universal acceptance, on the part of extensionists of the principle that the use of leaders is part of the process of extension education. In a recent survey of a Latin American country with a decade of extension, it was found that almost every agent said leaders were a great help in carrying on extension work. However, many extension agents in newly developing extension services seem to have difficulty in using leaders. In response to the question: "who are your leaders?" the answers indicated that most agents considered appointed official as the principal leaders. We cannot say that all appointed officials -- political, religious, educational -- could not be extension leaders, but it is improbable that they are the only ones who can give the leadership necessary for an effective extension service.

The leader concept may be one of the major factors why some young extension organizations have not moved ahead as rapidly as they should.

To avoid future problems we must make sure we do not have the wrong concepts. We may all accept the principle that use of leaders is a good thing but it may be a good idea to clear up some of our misconceptions if they exist.

First let's go over some reasons why use of leaders is so important in Extension work:

1. Using leaders helps the agent to expand (extend) his educational service.

2. Rural people will more readily accept new practices when their leaders adopt them.

3. By "working through leaders", agents should have great contact with the people and better know their needs.

4. There is usually less disruption of the program when agents change if the leader approach is used effectively.

5. Using leaders helps to fulfill the Extension principle of involving people in the process of helping themselves.

These five reasons express the value or importance of using leaders. They may be also sufficient to help us clarify what an Extension leader is. Perhaps we can obtain an insight into the roles of leaders by analyzing these statements.

Once we know what is expected of leaders, assistance (training) can be given to the agents to help them more adequately select leaders, and to use them properly.

The first reason (mentioned above) for using leaders assumes that the Extension process is clearly understood by agents. Here again we may have misunderstood a fundamental concept and it logically follows that if the Extension process is misunderstood the agent may in good faith be mislead in his thinking on the kinds of leaders he needs to help him.

Administrators and supervisors especially need to make sure that all Extension agents understand the process of Extension. It is also the supervisors' responsibility to assist the agents to learn the educational process we call Extension. In fact the only way to know if an agent can do Extension, in spite of what he says, is to see him at work. Agents learn the process by doing it. This means a very close observation of new agents is necessary in order to help them develop and practice what we preach. It is in the first years of experience that Extension agents are made. It is also in the first year that an agent can take the time to start right with developing people. Too many start action programs instead of developing a process through or by which a program can be developed.

There are many reasons why new agents may start wrong. There are great pressure to "get on with the job". Many needs are visible and many are easily satisfied through direct contact and services. So the agent does get on with the job and is extremely busy rendering direct services and has less and less time to exploit leadership to help him do Extension. He also formulates his own idea of what Extension is and these bad habits are hard to break later.

When we look at the second reason given, that people more readily follow their own leaders, agents too often assume that political officials, clergy, teachers, officials of various organizations are the leaders of the people. These individuals are more often representatives of groups rather than leaders. In a society where public officials are usually appointed by politicians rather than elected, where teachers come from outside the community, where clergy may represent a religion rather than people, we must realize that many of them may not necessarily be leaders but instead may be representatives or symbols. They must become a part of a community and in time may become leaders. They have the same relationship to the community as the Extension agent. They may have some legal or traditional responsibility in which they may <u>control</u> groups rather than lead them. This "control power", however, is one that Extension can use to advantage in becoming established. In fact, Extension agents cannot start working without becoming accepted by these

formal community representatives. What we are saying is, that Extension must have acceptance by these legalized representatives because Extension, too, is another "power" within the community. The agents have to sell their programs and assure others that they will not usurp power from existing groups. Satisfied that Extension will not by-pass or displace them, many formal officials can do much to help Extension become established. Without this acceptance no Extension program can be initiated, however; with this acceptance agents still have to develop Extension programs. Thus, we see that formal community officials are helpful for Extension agents in order to become a part of the community and that Extension agents must work with them.

We now begin to infer that there are different kinds of leaders. These are: 1) formal community officials. 2) Un-official lay Extension leaders. There is also a place in the Extension process for using these different kinds of leaders. We have already discussed the relationship of Extension with the first group, "formal community officials", which is one primarily of public relations. The agent himself becomes one of these formal community "leaders" after he establishes himself. These formal leaders may become Extension leaders but usually this does not happen because formal leaders have full time jobs and responsibilities representing their own organization. The position of informal leader is one that is not easily acquired by appointment.

Let us turn to reason Nº 3, "through leaders agents have direct contact with people". We know that both, formal and informal leaders have direct contact with people. What we want is not contact alone but acceptance by people. All community officials have direct contact by right of their position. Not all officials, however, reach people. The old adage that you can lead a horse to water but you cannot make him drink, perhaps, expresses this best. Officials (Extension agents included) can contact people but cannot always get them to change, even when the change is beneficial for them. (Although they may use force or the power of their appointed position). Extension as we know is an educative and democratic process which does not order people to perform. How then can we reach people? We have to get them to accept or desire the change we propose. Usually, change accepted and practiced by the progressive people of a community who are doing a little bit better than their neighbors, i.e. the farmer who seems to stand out and get better results. These who lead in production and management, often are the progressive farmers and usually by example lead others to follow. This type of leadership may not be an active type role. He may not desire the leadership role or seek it intentionally, but he is the one people watch and of whom they ask questions. He is the one they wait for to make decisions. Usually he informally can pull individuals together and in effect he sways decisions of the group he is in. Thus if we can turn this leadership role to an active role in the Extension process we have a very effective resource to strengthen our position as agents of change.

Another important factor is the problem of program interruption with Extension staff changes. To help strengthen newly developing programs it has been proven that use of local leaders helps lessen the shock or disruption brought about by staff changes. In fact one major problem expressed by Extension administrators is how to continue effective program development when there is a shortage of trained staff and high rate of turnover. When the people become an active part of program planning and development and as leaders support the Extension staff, Extension can then have a method whereby people (leaders) can take over during a period when an agent is absent or new on the job. This also insures that the program is one of the people and not of the agents. A program is apt to change when there is a turnover of agents unless local leaders help plan the program.

Thus, we see the use of leaders supports another Extension principle which is "we should involve people to help themselves". This includes planning and execution of programs. This includes more active roles on the part of the recipients, the people. Leaders are also part of the community. There are many ways in which people can be involved but a proven and successful way is to use leaders to help their neighbors and friends. In this way, leaders become actively involved in promoting change. They can also be considered "agents" of change for they actually represent the Extension agent in demostrating and teaching and become a part of the Extension process.

Briefly we have presented some reasons why the use of local leaders are very helpful and beneficial in the Extension process. We have not, however, still clarified who are the leaders that we refer to or we should incorporate into the educational process.

Some clues are available if we think about why they are helpful. They are progressive individuals in the community. They are good farmers and good housewives. They are vitally involved in the activity in which change is to take place. They are full-time farmers, dairy men, coffee growers, housewives, etc. The potential leaders are not only active in farming but they look outward for resources to improve their productivity or level of living. They are also respected citizens who are willing to share their know-how. Usually they are not involved directly in an official capacity of the community. Holding an official or appointed position often limits their freedom of action, i.e., religious leaders or political officials. These kinds of leaders have their own full-time programs to take care of. Extension agents need to turn to farmers and housewives for his leadership assistance. Leaders must emerge from the same groups or class of people that the agents are trying to help.

The successful Extension agent is the person who can discover leadership within the community and successfully involve them in the process of education aimed at bringing about change. These voluntary informal leaders of the community give of their services to help their neighbors but without being paid for their services. They are known in Extension as voluntary lay leaders.

The successful Extension Service is one that includes in the training of agents and in their supervision the philosophy that use of local leaders is a part of Extension Education. It must also include training on where leaders are to be found and how to select and use them. And that in the program of training, there needs to be included training for local leaders; they too need to understand their roles and responsibilities. Part of this training should help newly developing agents to see the difference between using community officials to establish the right to work in a community (Public Relations) and using local people as leaders in the development and execution of an Extension program. Both are aspects Extension agents need to understand, learn and use.

B I B L I O G R A P H Y

BRUNNER, EDMUND DE S., AND YANG, E. HSIN PAO. Rural America and the Extension Service. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. 210 pp.

HAYES, WAYLAND J. The Small Community Looks Ahead. New York. Hartcourt Brace and Company. 383 Madison Avenue.

KELSEY, LINCOLN AND HEARNE, CANNON C. Cooperative Extension Work. 2nd. Edition. Ithaca, New York, Comstock Publishing Associates, 1955. 424 pp.

LAW, HOWARD. Extensión Agrícola. Principios Básicos y Métodos de Enseñanza. Tercera Edición Revisada. Caracas, Venezuela. Consejo de Bienestar Rural.

LOOMIS, CHARLES P, AND OTHERS. Rural Social Systems and Adult Education. East Lansing, Michigan State College Press, 1953.

PENDERS, J. M. A. (ed). Methods and Program Planning in Rural Extension. The Wageningen, The Netherlands. The International Agricultural Study Center, 1956.

SPICER, EDWARD H. (ed). Human Problems in Technological Change. New York. Russell Sage Foundation. 1952.

University of Puerto Rico, Agricultural Extension Service. A Public Relations Guide for Extension Work. Río Piedras, University of Puerto Rico, Agricultural Extension Service.

USDA. Extension Service Review. Monthly Publication. Washington, D. C.

PREVIOUS PUBLICATIONS

Training Materials in Extension

#1 Extension Philosophy

#2 Evaluation in Extension

#3 Subject Matter Specialists in Extension:
Roles, Problems and Adjustments.

#4 Extension Organization:
For Administration and for Program Development

#5 Elements that Contributed to the Success of the
United States Cooperative Extension Service

ICA/EE/145/61

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

Nº 7

A COLLECTION OF PRINCIPLES AND GUIDES

By

Dr. Joseph Di Franco
Extensionist

Published in English and Spanish

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

For additional copies of this and other booklets and pamphlets from Regional Services in Extension, please contact U.S. Operations Mission headquarters or write to:

Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences
Turrialba, Costa Rica

This publication was prepared under the provisions of the Contract between the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the Organization of American States (OAS) and the Institute of Inter-American Affairs of the International Cooperation Administration (ICA) of the United States Government.

Turrialba, Costa Rica
Mayo, 1961

A COLLECTION OF PRINCIPLES AND GUIDES*

by

Joseph Di Franco

The following material was revised into this condensed form by the original author Joseph Di Franco. The translation into Spanish from English was made in the Department of Economics and Social Sciences.

The original publication was a study made by Joseph Di Franco at Cornell University during his association with the Comparative Extension Education staff as Professor of Extension. The condensation of the original publication is aimed at providing resource training materials for Latin American Extension workers. The original publication includes more complete coverage of the information as related to list of principles and guides compiled from each of 27 separate professional sources.

The following list of 17 principles was compiled from reading of materials prepared by 19 professional people, and from special Committee or graph reprints.** These principles form a composit list made up from the authors interpretation. The order in which they appear also indicates the order of priority or importance stressed in the reading material used.

1. Rural Adult Education Should be Based on Conditions that Exist (Local, Regional, National).

2. Rural Adult Education Should Involve People in Actions that Promote their Welfare.

3. Rural Adult Education Should Develop Programs Gradually.

4. Rural Adult Education Should Aim Basically at People's Interest and Needs.

5. Rural Adult Education Should Use Democratic Methods.

6. Rural Adult Education Should Keep Programs Flexible.

7. Rural Adult Education Should Work Through Understanding of the Culture.

8. Rural Adult Education Should Use Local Leaders.

9. Rural Adult Education Should Use Existing Local Agencies.

---

* Condensed and translated from the Comparative Extension Publication Series # 4. New York College of Agriculture at Cornell University.

** See Bibliography.

10. Rural Adult Education Should Utilize Trained Specialists.

11. Rural Adult Education Should Work With All Members of the Family.

12. Rural Adult Education Should Make Programs as Broad as Needs of Rural People.

13. Rural Adult Education Should Evaluate Continuously.

14. Rural Adult Education Should Work With All Classes of Society.

15. Rural Adult Education Should Keep in Line with National Policies.

16. Rural Adult Education Should Use the Community Approach.

17. Rural Adult Education Should Help People Recognize Their Needs.

To better understand these briefly stated principles commentaries are added to stimulate discussion and thought.

WHAT THE EXPERTS SAY

1. Rural adult education should be based on conditions that exist (local, regional, national).

The situation that exists means taking into account all the forces that are present, and by utilizing these forces, gradually building the program and momentum necessary to arrive at the objectives.

To do this means to know what the conditions are. This is, perhaps, the first job of the educator. It means personal contact with, and thorough observance of, the environment, the people, the social structures, the economic status, the habits, the traditions, and the attitudes; in fact, everything about the area in which the job is to be done.

Too often, assumptions are too quickly made or opinions too hurriedly determined in trying to get-on-with the job. Taking time to learn about the environment is a very important part of the job.

2. Rural adult education should involve people in actions that promote their welfare.

Involvement of people in all of the activities of extension means involvement in planning programs, determining objectives, setting up plans of work, carrying on actions, and evaluating results. The extent or degree of involvement, of course, will vary and cannot be predetermined. But a sincere desire to involve the recipients of the service, and make efforts to permit their involvements must be accepted as necessary prerequisites to working in rural adult education. This kind of attitude

may even determine what the first phase in a program should be. People may need to be encouraged and educated, if you will, to this kind of a role.

Unless a rural educator accepts this philosophy, he will not be able to reach the long-time objective of helping people develop themselves so that they can carry on after he is gone.

3. Rural adult education should develop programs gradually.

Here again is an often repeated statement and one that receives almost immediate acceptance. And yet, this is perhaps the one that most of us stumble over. "What is gradually?", or "How long a time con one take?" are not easy questions to answer. Each and every situation warrants a different answer, but too often extension people wished they had gone more slowly or taken time to be sure they were not too far ahead of their people.

Even the experienced fall down in this area. We excuse ourselves or rationalize that we must get-on-with the job, by saying "We have superiors to answer to!", "We have reports to make!", or "We're on a limited contract assignment!". But, many problems and failures arise from going too fast before all facts are present, before the people have confidence in themselves or their extension leader, or before resources are available. We could go on and on with this list, but let's remember the above principle. It will not guarantee success, but may help eliminate failure.

4. Rural adult education should aim basically at people's interest and needs.

This is the one unique feature of adult education that usually stands on its own, and if correctly applied, usually leads to success. Most adult education courses are offered to fill demands expressed by people. Most hobby organizations are prime examples of the significance of this principle.

People are drawn together in world-wide organizations and across many barriers, real or imaginary, when united for common interests or needs. We do not have to spell out its importance. What we must do is emphasize its place in extension education. It is the essence of extension. This is the force that brought extension education into reality. Extension education was born because the available resources did not meet all the people's needs.

This organization or services can only survive when it serves people in this way. Whatever the original needs of the people, more needs develop so the job is never done. The United States Extension Service is a good example. It was originally organized to help promote agricultural production. Certainly this goal was reached, but has the Service been discontinued? No, it now serves as a vehicle for people to reach

other goals.

5. Rural adult education should use democratic methods.

The democratic principle of operation is found in some of the other principles mentioned. "Involvement of people", "sharing responsibilities", and "including everyone in the program", all are part of the democratic process. It is for this reason that this principle was stated in a majority of the sources studied. The importance of the democratic process must be realized if one is to apply the other principles as intended by the authors. In other words, understanding this principle will make many of the other principles better understood, and perhaps, more successfully applied.

This principle is also applicable in autocratic societies. Extension cannot operate for long, or successfully, if not permitted to follow democratic principles. It is my opinion that this is the real substance of extension education. The principle also points out some problem areas that need to be reckoned with before actual extension programs may be undertaken: the need to orient people to a democratic philosophy, the need to train local participants in democratic methods, and time to let the process prove its worth.

6. Rural adult education should keep programs flexible

This is another "universal principle" which may seem contradictory to our previous training. Usually we try to set our objectives, plan our work then follow our plan. There is no conflict, however, with this training and procedure. In a dynamic program such as working with rural people, we can never have all the facts first, nor can we start with all the people at the same level or place. Thus, we cannot make rigid plans or programs.

We do not start with an isolated group or set of circumstances, therefore, we must permit flexibility to compensate for changes that occur and must be reckoned with.

If this is a people's program, if we use democratic methods, if our plan is to promote the people's welfare, then this flexibility attitude must be built into the philosophy and operation. This does not mean drifting always with the wind. The ultimate objectives are the same, albeit one must change direction to compensate for the change in forces that affect the program.

A good sailor can still reach his home port (objective) in spite of opposing winds by tacking, adjusting the sails to take advantage of these same winds that prevent him from reaching his goal. It would be folly to determine his direct route and rigidly keep that course in spite of the changes in wind or current. He learns to utilize them. So too must the educator be able to make adjustments and utilize the forces that affect his program, be they good or bad.

7. Rural adult education should work through understanding of the culture.

This principle is very close to the principle of basing extension activities and programs on the situation. Part of the situation is the controlling forces that make people act the way they do. This importance of culture takes on significance when we go beyond this point and come to know the culture, so that ways and means may be found to help people bring about changes in their culture which are not in conflict, but build on their ways of thinking, acting and believing.

Thus, change becomes acceptable in more palatable doses, so to speak, and the problems are not aggravated by misunderstanding or lack of feeling for the people who are called upon to make their own decisions. Another aspect is the gulf or difference between the extension worker's culture and the culture in which he must work. Being in the same country or of the same nationality does not always mean that the individuals came out of the same cultural background. It is important for the extension worker to realize that he cannot assume that they are the same. He must, as part of his job, find out all he can and use this information in working with people.

One example of successful application of this principle is seen in the stories of technicians who have lived with the native people and learned the culture from within. Usually they become successful in working with their fellow men.

8. Rural adult education should use local leaders.

The use of local leaders is one of the unique differences between formal education practices and the extension education approach. Extension service development and expansion depends directly upon the speed and extent of involvement of local leaders.

The teacher-student relationship is almost nonexistent in successful extension programs; the county agent or extension worker spreads his talents by utilizing local leaders. The local leaders become his assistants and actual co-workers to the extent that they fulfill a role he would have to do himself. His contacts are multiplied, and his two-way flow of information is possible. He can and does serve more people, and he comes in direct contact with the rural areas he serves.

The extension worker's training and taletns are utilized to a greater degree because he does not expend his time and energies in jobs which less trained or less skilled people can help him do.

This is also another way of getting involvement of people, using democratic practices, working through the culture, and so forth. In fact, this makes it possible to do the complex and immense job of extension education.

9. Rural adult education should use existing local agencies.

Here again we find a principle that helps the extension worker to get-on-with the job, and in most cases, makes it easier. Organizations and agencies already have groups of local people who have been brought together for special reasons. These groupings, the leadership, and the interests can be utilized to make contacts and develop programs.

The use of local groups also would make for a faster way to learn who people are, what their interests are, and, perhaps, many clues and facts about the community (situation that exists). They would also help prevent making enemies of leaders who would resist intrusion of another organization in their community even though it does a job their organization does not do. It could also receive support from these agencies, if and when action is taken in extension activities.

Learning about the agencies and their role in a community or area also is one way for the extension educator to be more intelligent about the area he must work in.

10. Rural adult education should utilize trained specialists.

As is evident to those who are extension workers, they are expected to be informed on all phases of rural life. They must be able to help people by advising on almost any subject that comes out of their democratic involvement and development of people.

This is an impossible task! Not every extension worker can be an expert in all aspects of rural life. His job gets done, however, by being backed by specialists. Specialists who know their specialty thoroughly can first, help determine solutions to problems, and second, give information on skills required to overcome them.

The specialty of the extension worker is to organize, develop and carry out programs with the people he serves. The technical know-how is best provided by experts--specialists who are thoroughly versed in their subject matter area. The two make a cooperative team.

Many other advantages could be cited, but they would only emphasize the fact that each is able to contribute more to extension development in this way.

11. Rural adult education should work with all members of the family.

The same reasons that apply to Principle 14, may be referred to here. In rural areas, each member of the family is involved in the problems of earning a livelihood and of improving rural welfare. The rural family, especially in agricultural societies, is a working unit in the home and in the field. Everyone must have an opportunity to help make the decisions that affect the family welfare. This is true in both primitive and modern societies.

The extent of the involvement and program will vary in different places and at different times. The important factor, again, is the philosophy of opportunity for the individual members to avail themselves of the service. The extension workers must provide this opportunity and be ready to promote this interest and participation whenever possible. The extension service must not be caught short by failure to develop this kind of philosophy and action.

12. Rural adult education should make programs as broad as needs of rural people.

If we accept as a basic philosophy of extension education helping people help themselves, we must accept the fact that we mean in all things that the people must reckon with in improving their welfare. An agricultural leader may need to help improve the health of the families before they can tackle agricultural production problems. The health man may need to help improve their housing before his job is done. The social organizer may need to help them increase their income before they con "afford" the cost of a new recreation center, church, community hall, and the like.

The practical approach to helping people is to recognize that the various aspects of rural living cannot be spearated. The specialist is trained to work in isolated filds, but the family cannot.

The community development approach to helping rural people is an indication that this broader approach is being recognized by educators.

Extension education, perhaps, goes in cycles, usually tackling agricultural production, then the farm home and rural youth problems. But even in the United States, highly specialized as it is, the extension service helps rural families in all aspects of rural living and welfare.

13. Rural adult education should evaluate continuously.

To evaluate continuously means more than just looking backwards to see if progress is made. It means having a good basis for comparisons and an understanding of the situation and environments. It means both formal and informal evaluations. It means systematic recording of all these kinds of information. It also means evaluation from within and from without.

A thorough understanding of the importance of evaluation is necessary by the extension worker before the beneficial results of such actions take meaning for him. The same is true for the local leaders and the people. Constructive criticism and encouragement for improvement are valuable aids to any educational program if accepted and applied. Fortunately, some evaluation continuously goes on, and does help change the program. The important factor is to use this process as a tool in building an ever better program.

Too often this matter of evaluation is assummed, but is ignored under the pressures of getting-on-with-the-job. And too often when evaluation is decided upon, there is not enough tangible evidence (reports, statistics, base line surveys) to get the most use of the efforts. Thus, the importance of the word "continuous".

14. Rural adult education should work with all classes of society.

Since extension education is basically a program aimed at rural people, it is for all classes in the rural area. To improve rural welfare means to help all segments of the society. If the program favors or ignores any segment or group, the results will be poorer by that degree. It does not mean that programs of work with certain segments will not be emphasized or take priority at different times. On the contrary, we must be practical, but the door must be kept open to all members of the society.

The extension worker must develop this philosophy to ensure that he is covering the needs of his people. He must encourage them to come to him, and they must feel they will be helped. Too often enthusiasm by one group or success in one program absorbs the attention and efforts of the extension staff. If, however, they realize their responsibility, they will find ways and means to help those that need attention the most.

15. Rural adult education should keep in line with national policies.

There is no need to elaborate on this principle. Chances are that no organization will be sanctioned if it is not in line with the ideas and opinions of national leaders. No program will get the necessary backing (usually funds) to operate if in conflict with national policies. This means in a sense, "starting where the country is" as a parallel to "starting where the people are" before we can get understanding and actions that will bring about the changes desired. This may even result in changes of national policy, but we must have approval before we can carry out any programs regardless of how beneficial they might be.

We must face the fact that educational organizations and programs are a part of the nation in which they serve. It is very important to keep abreast of national policies and also keep national leaders informed and up-to-date on what is going on. Many times misunderstanding and conflicts arise from not being informed. Usually both sides benefit when they are kept informed. Conflicts then are resolved by mutual efforts. The power to eliminate a service or force it to die rests with the leaders and policy makers.

16. Rural adult education should use the community approach.

This principle is significant when the emphasis is placed on the methods of extension operation. A close look at the statements by the experts emphasizes this aspect. This principle might be in partial conflict with some beliefs about extension but it bears out other principles such as: "works through understanding of the culture", and "work

with all classes of society". This indicates that one of the basic values of extension education is that it is broad and comprehensive in approach. Another is that it meets the needs of individuals that are common to others or fits into the pattern of living in the area it serves. It is based on the unit approach of the neighborhood, the community and the state. The experts have carried the unit approach to a higher level than originally thought necessary. Just as each member of a family is not an independent and separate entity in matters of rural family living, so must each family be reckoned with and identified as an important unit within a larger family, the community. Again, we see emphasis being placed on developing individuals and groups within the orbits in which they live and work.

Extension education, then, may encourage forces that resist individual changes to bring about group acceptance of changes in problems common to more people. Once this action proves successful, more individual needs may be attended to with less likelihood of conflict with family and community.

17. Rural adult education should help people recognize their needs.

Although in extension training circles this statement is often repeated, it was not a prominent statement in the experts list. Only three out of the 27 resources had reference to this extension responsibility. Perhaps the experts had implied this principle when making others, such as "basically aims at people's interests and needs" and "develops programs gradually". However, in trying to separate each statement and use it where the greatest emphasis seemed to be implied, only three were put in this category: In Latin America this principle no doubt has greater significance. Many agents must spend time in gathering accurate data to help farmers determine their real needs. Too many state their desires and not their real needs.

THIS THEY BELIEVE

The following professional resources were used in collecting data for compiling the composite list of principles. The authors are submitted for the reader's reference.

It must be remembered that these principles were lifted from more extensive materials. The authors were emphasizing specific "beliefs" relative to the occasion or topic they had in mind when these were written. It would be unfair to compare one list against the other except to see where they placed the emphasis.

Anderson, W.A. "Oriental Values and Technical Cooperation", paper presented at The Sixth Conference for Agricultural Services in Foreign Areas. Washington, D.C., October 17 - 19, 1955.

Brunner, Edmund deS. "Summary of the Conference", The Contribution of Extension Methods and Techniques Toward the Rehabilitation of War-Torn Countries. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Extension Service and Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, October 1945. (Conference held September 19-22, 1944).

Brunner, Edmund de S., and Yang, E. Hsin Pao. Rural America and the Extension Service. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1949.

Clark, Harold F. "What We Know about Helping People", Sixth Conference for Agricultural Services in Foreign Areas. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture. October 17-19, 1955.

Dean, J.O., and Derryberry, Mayhew. "Extension Experience in Public Health", The Contribution of Extension Methods and Techniques toward the Rehabilitation of War-Torn Countries. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Extension Service and Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, October 1945. (Conference held September 19-22, 1944), pp. 206-239.

Foster, George M. "Guidelines to Community Development Programs", Community Development, CD-6, Public Health Reports, Vol. 70, No. 1 Washington, D.C.: Seminar Document from Community Development Seminar, January 1955.

Frutchey, Fred P. Principles of Extension Teaching. Washington, D.C. Division of Extension Research and Training, Federal Extension Service, U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1943.

Hayden, Howard. "Moturiki---A Pilot Project in Community Development". The South Pacific Commission. London, New York, Oxford University Press, 1954.

Jans, Fred C. Extension Looks at Program Planning. Washington, D.C.: Federal Extension Service, U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Extension Service Circular 478. 1952.

Leagans, J. Paul. Some Principles or Guide Posts for Educational Leaders in Underdeveloped Communities and Regions. Prepared for use of students in Extension Education courses at Cornell University. 1954.

Miller, Paul E. "Basic Features Essential to an Effective Advisory Service", Development of the Agricultural Advisory Services in Europe Since 1950. Paris: Organization for European Economic Cooperation, May 1954.

Penders, J.M.A. "Principles to be Learned from Existing Agricultural Extension Services", Methods of Agricultural Extension, a Complete Report of Extension Training Conference. Wageningen, The Netherlands: International Agricultural Study Center, The Agricultural University of Wageningen, in collaboration with UN Food and Agriculture Organization and the U.S. Mutual Relief Agency. Conference held July 13-August 8, 1953.

Raper, Arthur F. "Self-Help and Point Four", Foreign Agriculture, Vol. 15, No. 6, 1951.

Russell, William F. (Chairman). Community Development, Summary Record. Washington, D.C.: International Cooperation Administration, report by ICA consultants based on observations of programs in the Philippines, Pakistan, India, Iran, Egypt, the Gold Coast (Ghana), Peru, Bolivia, Puerto Rico, and Jamaica. October 6, 1955.

Schlup, Lester. "Fourteen Basic Features of Cooperative Extension Work", The Spirit and Philosophy of Extension Work, by R.K. Bliss and others. Washington, D.C.: Graduate School of USDA and Epsilon Sigma Phi. 1952.

Spicer, Edward H. (Editor). Human Problems in Technological Change. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1952. Page 281.

Van Benkering, J.A. "Social, Economic, and Cultural Background of Agricultural Extension in Less Developed Countries". Methods of Agricultural Extension, A Complete Report of Extension Training Conference. Wageningen, The Netherlands: International Agricultural Study Center, the Agricultural University of Wageningen, in collaboration with UN Food and Agriculture Organization, and the U.S. Mutual Relief Agency. Conference held July 13-August 8, 1953.

Wilson, M.L. "Educational Principles", in The Spirit and Philosophy of Extension Work, by R.K. Bliss and others. Washington, D.C.: Graduate School and Epsilon Sigma Phi. 1952.

Yang, Hsin Pao. From lecture given at Conference, Methods of Agricultural Extension, A complete Report of Extension Training Conference. Wageningen, the Netherlands: International Agricultural Study Center, the Agricultural University of Wageningen, in collaboration with UN Food and Agriculture Organization, and the U.S. Mutual Relief Agency. Conference held July 13-August 8, 1953.

Caribbean Agricultural Extension Development Center. Report on Conference. Mona, Jamaica, B.W.I.: January 1955. (Conference held August 1954).

Food and Agriculture Organization (UN). "Training Rural Leaders, an FAO Study". Washington, D.C.: Second Printing, 1950.

Foreign Agricultural Service. Some General Principles or Hypotheses Regarding the Initiation of Agricultural Extension Programs in Underdeveloped Areas. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1954.

International Cooperation Administration. Methods of Introducing Ideas and Securing Actions. Washington, D.C.: Staff Development Branch, ICA, July 13, 1955.

Rockefeller Foundation. "Some Lessons in Nongovernmental Technical Assistance", from the Rockefeller Foundation Annual Report -- The President's Review, 1954.

The Salvadoran Extension Case Study. Some Principles Suggested and Questions Raised by the Salvadoran Extension Case Study. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Foreign Agriculture Service. 1955.

Committee Report. "India", The Contributions of Extension Methods and Techniques Toward the Rehabilitation of War-Torn Countries. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Extension Service and Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, October 1945. (Conference held September 19-22, 1944).

Committee Report. "Suggestions for More Effective Extension Work in the Balkans", The Contribution of Extension Methods and Techniques Toward the Rehabilitation of War-Torn Countries. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Extension Service and Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, October 1945. (Conference held September 19-22, 1944).

PREVIOUS PUBLICATIONS

Training Materials in Extension

#1 Extension Philosophy

#2 Evaluation in Extension

#3 Subject Matter Specialists in Extension: Roles, Problems, and Adjustments

#4 Extension Organization: For Administration and for Program Development

#5 Elements that Contributed to the Success of the United States Cooperative Extension Service

#6 Local Leaders in Extension

#7 A Collection of Principles and Guides

ICA/EE/153-61

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

TRADUCCION Nº 9

- C O O R D I N A C I O N -

LLAVE DEL EXITO DE UN SERVICIO DE EXTENSION EDUCATIVA

por

Dr. Joseph Di Franco
Extensionista

Publicado en Español e Inglés

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y CIENCIAS SOCIALES
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

Pueden solicitarse copias adicionales de esta publicación, dirigiéndose a la Misión de Operaciones de los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica (Punto 4) en cada país, o escribiendo a:

Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la O.E.A.
Centro Tropical de Investigación y Enseñanza para Graduados
Turrialba, Costa Rica

Esta publicación ha sido preparada de acuerdo con el contrato firmado entre el Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la Organización de Estados Americanos (O.E.A.) y el Instituto de Asuntos Interamericanos de la Administración de Cooperación Internacional (ICA) de los Estados Unidos América

Turrialba, Costa Rica
Agosto, 1961

COORDINACION -- LLAVE DEL EXITO DE UN SERVICIO DE EXTENSION EDUCATIVA

Por

Joseph Di Franco

Muchos teóricos de extensión tienen conflictos entre sí por el simple hecho de no comprender el proceso total de extensión.

A manera de ejemplo podemos mencionar una lamentable situación que se presenta corrientemente entre el personal de extensión educativa, los especialistas, la gente de información y los administradores. Las malas relaciones entre cada uno de estos grupos se excusan a diario diciendo que esto obedece al desarrollo normal del servicio de extensión. A pesar de lo que se diga para justificar lo apuntado, la eficiencia y eficacia del servicio se entorpecen por esta situación. Es menester analizar el caso y tratar de mejorar la comprensión entre estos grupos para así evitar que el problema se haga más serio. Realmente esta dificultad no debería existir, pero existe, y sabemos que suprimirla ayudaría mucho a que el servicio de extensión se desarrolle y sirva mejor para el propósito que fue creado.

Cuáles son las razones fundamentales que han promovido la situación apuntada? La primera parece ser que cada grupo compuesto por agentes, especialistas, informadores, administradores, representan áreas especializadas de trabajo. Esto es, cada grupo tiene sus propios objetivos, adiestramiento y filosofías, a pesar de que todos ellos tienen, por lo general, las mismas metas que alcanzar. Cada parte del cuerpo humano tiene una función que cumplir, una construcción física diferente. Sin embargo, el conjunto constituye un solo organismo. Podríamos decir que algunas de estas partes son más importantes que las otras? Ciertamente que ha habido hombres que han podido seguir viviendo con el cuerpo incompleto. Pero no podemos negar que un hombre que disponga de todas sus partes orgánicas, trabajando coordinadamente, está físicamente mejor capacitado que aquel que carece de algunas de ellas.

En la misma forma es necesario que todos los componentes de extensión existan y aprendan a funcionar conjuntamente. La coordinación no es algo que ocurre de repente; debe ser planificada y puesta en práctica, siendo un proceso que puede ser aprendido. Por qué, entonces, aparece ese separatismo entre todas estas partes? Un análisis de las posibles causas podrá ayudarnos a evitar este problema.

Una de las diferencias básicas existentes entre los grupos se deriva del tipo de adiestramiento recibido por cada uno de ellos. A los educadores en extensión se les enseñanlas ciencias sociales y el proceso de aprendizaje, llamado enseñanza o educación. Son especialistas en el arte de estimular y ayudar a la gente a aprender.

Los especialistas o sean aquellos que han sido adiestrados en técnicas determinadas, dedican la mayoría de su tiempo a las plantas y animales. Son verdaderos expertos en su especialidad y su contribución al bienestar general es positivo. Los especialistas en información han sido educados en el uso de símbolos (palabras escritas o hablada, tonos, acción conjuntà y dibujos) y en las maneras como el hombre usa estos símbolos para intercambiar informaciones y conocimientos.

Los administradores tienen como tarea principal dirigir todas estas funciones. Organizar a la gente en tal forma que cumplan con la ley y acaten los reglamentos, dando así lugar a la formación de política a seguir en determinados aspectos. Son los guardianes del presupuesto, debiendo determinar su distribución. Algunas veces olvidan que deben crear un ambiente favorable para lograr el máximo rendimiento y por consecuencia puede ser que terminen por construir un imperio en vez de un programa bien coordinado.

Todas estas unidades especiales de extensión entran en conflicto cuando uno de estos segmentos cree ser el más importante. La confusión se hace mayor cuando algunos de los grupos deja de comprender tres

facetas fundamentales:

1. Cuáles son las metas de extensión?
2. La importancia que tienen los demás, para el servicio mismo.
3. Cuál es el papel que realmente desempeña cada grupo dentro de la organización?

Cada parte del servicio requiere estar plenamente familiarizada con la organización total del Servicio y debe saber la misión que cada una debe desempeñar a fin de alcanzar los objetivos.

Otro factor que contribuye a la falta de coordinación en las organizaciones de extensión, de creación reciente, es la escasez de líderes bien adiestrados para desempeñar cargos de responsabilidad. Estas personas, influidas por su propia educación e intereses, están perturbando, sin querer, el equilibrio necesario en el proceso de extensión. Tratan de hacer lo que pueden, usando sus propias ideas y opiniones, y esto puede no siempre conducir a la coordinación debida.

Entran pues en conflicto varias fuerzas:

1. Los educadores de extensión que creen que ellos saben trabajar mejor con la gente.
2. Los especialistas que creen saber mejor los conocimientos que requiere la gente.
3. Los especialistas en información que piensan que saben mejor cómo "comunicar" ideas y conocimientos.
4. Los administradores que creen saber mejor cómo manejar todos los asuntos
5. Los profesionales que no han recibido adiestramiento en el proceso de extensión.

Cada uno de ellos trata de aplicar los métodos que cree que son los correctos. Es obvio, sin embargo, que esta actitud no conduce al esfuerzo de cooperación total que se requiere. Por otro lado, es evidente que si esta gente lograra hacer realidad esta cooperación

tendría un gran impacto en cualquier sociedad donde trabajara.

Es a cada miembro del servicio de extensión y muy especialmente a aquellos encargados de adiestrar al extensionista a quienes cabe la responsabilidad de ayudarlo a comprender el papel y responsabilidad que atañe a cada uno de ellos. Todos los instructores y consejeros de extensión tienen la responsabilidad de ayudar al personal de extensión a hacer un esfuerzo coordinado, dentro de los límites de sus recursos humanos disponibles, para formar el personal y apoyar los programas de extensión.

Cuando adiestramos personal en una habilidad o técnica debemos procurar que adquiera al mismo tiempo el conocimiento necesario para que pueda hacer uso eficaz de los conocimientos que adquiera. Con ello queremos decir, ayudarlo a encauzar sus esfuerzos hacia un propósito coordinado, rompiendo así las influencias provenientes de esfuerzos aislados.

Aun en los Estados Unidos se han presentado y se siguen presentando algunas veces, los mismos problemas al adiestrar las diferentes partes componentes de extensión, hacia un sistema educativo coordinado. En la actualidad el sistema de extensión es reconocido como una institución madura y próspera, con muchos servicios auxiliares. Pero olvidamos que el agente fue instructor, especialista, informador y hasta administrador. Con el desarrollo se hizo necesario ensanchar las áreas de trabajo y las especialidades con el fin de ayudar al agente local. Actualmente estas unidades de apoyo para el agente local están por lo general autosostenidas y sus habilidades han alcanzado un alto nivel. Afortunadamente, al tiempo que estas últimas se desarrollaban, extensión pudo incorporar cada una de las partes en un cuerpo completo y organizado.

Es lógico pensar que al mismo tiempo que un organismo de extensión y sus programas se desarrollan, se ha de ensanchar más el campo de trabajo y que asumirá características más especializadas.

Debemos adiestrar técnicos, pero sólo como un medio de llevar a cabo más realizaciones en programas de educación para adultos de los cuales ellos son parte. Ayudar a crear un mejor entendimiento y coordinación debe ser parte integral en el propósito de educarlos. Hacer menos que esto, sería injusto para estos futuros especialistas. Las habilidades y aptitudes que logremos desarrollar en ellos serán clara expresión de su pericia. Las habilidades y aptitudes son necesarias para el desarrollo del bienestar rural.

El proceso educativo de extensión sólo podrá ayudar a la población rural por medio de un esfuerzo coordinado y unificador. El éxito de extensión requiere de los recursos y habilidades coordinadas que nos ofrezcan los especialistas en educación, en comunicaciones, en materias especializadas y en administración. Estos requisitos son las partes componentes especializadas que, al coordinarse, logran dar forma a un programa educativo que producirá un gran impacto e influencia. No podemos permitirnos el lujo de establecer un servicio con propósitos menores.

PUBLICACIONES ANTERIORES

Materiales de Enseñanza en Extensión

1 Filosofía de Extensión

#2 Evaluación de Extensión

#3 El Especialista en el Servicio de Extensión: Su Papel, sus Problemas y su Adaptación

#4 Organización de Extensión. Para Administración y para Desarrollo del Programa

#5 Elementos que Contribuyen al Exito del Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos

#6 Los Líderes Locales en las Labores de Extensión

#7 Un Conjunto de Principios y Guías

#8 Prerrequisitos para el Progreso de la Agricultura Tierra, Capital, Trabajo y Conocimientos

ICA/EE/185/61

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

Nº 10

THE UNITED STATES COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

by

Dr. Joseph Di Franco
Extensionist

Published in English and Spanish

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y CIENCIAS SOCIALES
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

For additional copies of this and other booklets and pamphlets from Regional Services in Extension, please contact U.S. Operation Mission headquarters or write to:

Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the O.A.S.
Tropical Center for Research and Graduate Training
Turrialba, Costa Rica

This publication was prepared under the provisions of the Contract between the Inter American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the Organization of American States (OAS) and the Institute of Inter-American Affairs of the International Cooperation Administration (ICA) of the United States Government.

Turrialba, Costa Rica
August, 1962

FOREWORD

Professor Di Franco reflects in this interesting historical review the development of extension work in the United States. History serves its greatest purpose in helping develop patterns and procedures for the future. Unfortunately it is difficult in writing a history to discover the many wants, needs and desires of the people who live during these periods, and who participated in the many discussions which lead up to the development of an institution such as the Extension Service. It must also be remembered that the Extension Service in the United States struggled for many years in the processes of developing its philisophy, its current program and its present organization. This document attempts to reflect some of this early thinking and philosophy which found its way into the early creation and development of extension. To the extent that an interpretation can be made to people of a widely varying background and whose experiences have been very different, this history should be useful. It should help the architects of extension design an educational service in parts of the world where the idea is new.

It should also be borne in mind that in the development of a service of this kind the judgment and thinking of thousands of people becomes interwoven in the fabric of the resulting organization and its philosophy.

C.M. Ferguson
Director,
Federal Extension Service

PREFACE

The purpose of this bulletin is to provide a brief but comprehensive treatment of the development of extension education in the United States. Although the history of our extension service has been fully documentated and is available elsewhere, visitors and extension education students from other countries need a quick overall picture of our development. This bulletin is intended for such a reference, and is not to be considered a substitute for other documents that go into complete detail.

In addition to telling the United States' story, it is Professor Di Franco's desire to relate the similarity of problems faced in the United States to those in other countries. The philosophies described here, that have permeated the thinking and growth of extension education, should be of assistance to extension workers everywhere.

The text is from "A Suggested Advisory Program for Rural Italy", Joseph Di Franco, Ed. D. Dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958, pp. 34-68.

Cornell University, Ithaca, New York
November 1958

John M. Fenley
Editor

CONTENTS

The United States Cooperative Extension Service

By

Joseph Di Franco

Today there is no other rural advisory service more widely known throughout the world than the United States Cooperative Extension Service. This has been brought about in the last decade, mainly as a result of the intensive activities and extensive programs of the United States economic aid organizations. Since the end of World War II, rehabilitation efforts of most organizations, national and international, governmental and private, have taken on extension-type characteristics. There was an obvious need to speed up production of food and fiber. There was a need to develop rural areas. Since the United States extension service had demonstrated an overwhelming success in this direction, it was called upon to loan trained personnel to help other countries to help themselves. Fortunately, the organization was large enough to provide extension staff members to do this. The United States extension service has played, and must continue to play, an important role in training, consulting and helping other advisory services. It is not the intent at this point to discuss the merits or demerits of United States' aid in foreign efforts.

Unfortunately, too many foreign extension workers think of the United States system as having spontaneously come into existence. This is not true, It, too, had growing pains. Extension people outside of the United States who are envious of the American organization should not be discouraged. They should be informed and shown that the present United States system is the result of many factors and forces affecting its growth.

This happens in any program development even though the elements and factors do not happen in the same sequence or over the same period of time.

Often too much is told about the organization and not enough about the importance of the program. An organization is essential to carry on a program. However, the program has much to do with the kind of organization that is developed.

HISTORY — ORIGIN AND GROWTH

The United States Cooperative Extension Service is still very young. It came to life formally in 1914[1] and is ever-changing. With all of its success, it continues to shape and reshape itself to meet the responsibility of "helping people to help themselves".

Although the organization came into existence in 1914, the seeds of an extension service were planted in Europe many years before America was discovered. The fact that human beings learned to live in groups and began to build a world of men, necessitated such adult activities as are expressed in modern-day organizations.

It is important to remember that the United States system was developed from the same beginnings as similar organizations with which it is now cooperating.

The first record of "extension activity" in the North American continent was in 1621 when an Indian called "Squanto" demonstrated how to plant maize (corn) to the first white settlers. This is the first agricultural extension event recorded that pre-dates the present county agent system in the United States.

The instructions of the Indian were taken down by Rev. Bradford and recorded in the colonists' records:

---

1 Passage of the Smith-Lever act. Basic law passed by Congress which provided government support and set the stage for extension work in the United States.

"My good friends, the time for the planting of Maize has come. The geese have left the river and the bay for their summer home in the Northland. The robin and his mate have returned from the Southland and are nesting in the trees. The earth is warm and the moon but a shadow in the heavens. The first early flowers of spring have faded and the violets, bluebells and sweet williams scent the air. The giant oak has begun to unfurl its leaves. By these signs and many others, my father and my father's father have learned to know the proper time for the planting of maize has arrived." [2]

This act by a native American helped make possible the survival of a small band of pilgrims. These survivors developed into a nation of over 170,000,000 people. They fused two old cultures into a new one. This is an excellent example of educational processes at work. This then may be the difference between the old world approach and the new — to take the best techniques and through education purvey this information to those who can use it. Many other examples of such education in the development of the colonial period of expansion can be found. For example, it was the first president of the United States, George Washington, who exemplified our present county agent. He was an agriculturist who continually demonstrated to others new methods and techniques. His experiments on his own farm became examples for many to follow.

2: National Association of County Agricultural Agents, The Story of Squanto, a leaflet presented to newly appointed county agents. (Chicago: National Association of County Agricultural Agents).

He constantly influenced his neighbors and friends by talking about problems of soil, crops, and livestock.

The earliest formal organization that helped develop agriculture in the New World was established in 1785 at Philadelphia.[3] Known as "The Society for Promoting Agriculture", its main function was the dissemination of agricultural information. Historical accounts point to many other prominent individuals and organizations that did similar service.

Agricultural societies developed rapidly after 1785, but it was not until 1811 that the first real contribution to actual farming was made by a society. The Berkshire Agricultural Society of Massachusetts under the direction of Elkana H. Watson, developed an agricultural fair. Today's local, county and state agricultural fairs demostrate the vast interest and exteht to which this activity has affected the rural scene. These first fairs offered educational features, and the pattern is followed today in fair activities by such events as agricultural speakers, 4-H demonstrations, educational exhibits and models.

The organization of other state societies led to the founding of the United States Agricultural Society in 1852. The new nation was growing rapidly, and agriculture was still the leading enterprise. The nation's economy depended on agricultural expansion to increase production in food and fiber.

---

3 Alfred C. True, A History of Agricultural Extension Work in the United States (Washington, D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1928), p. 3.

This, of course, necessitated continuous concern with improving farm practices through greater efficiency and an improved agricultural economy. A step in this direction was the National Agricultural Society. It was very influential and played a most important part in the establishment of the United States Department of Agriculture.

The development of agricultural educational activities was not a spontaneous thing. It was a gradual expansion with the times. There developed a need for providing people with information and techniques to help them keep pace with agricultural expansion. The demands of a fast-growing nation for food and fiber were only the multiplied demands and concerns of individual families.

Another example of how this need was met was the founding of the National Grange in 1867. As the "Patrons of Husbandry", it was the first national organization for farm families, and is still active today. Although this organization was classified as a secret lodge, it encouraged its memebers to join not as individuals, but as family groups. This also was an indication of the times. Farming was of necessity a family enterprise. It was a vocation as well as a way of life.

The Grange tied the members together with their major interest — farming. It also promoted another mutual interest — education in the art and science of agriculture. This organization was a great force in the development of courses taught at agricultural colleges. The courses were directly allied with the interests and needs of the farmers. It is now recognized by many that this was an important factor in the development of the Cooperative Extension Service in the agricultural colleges.

It is a credit to the early settlers of the United States that they had an enthusiasm and yearning for education. Schools were the main objective after the church. The first churches were even used to house the first scholars. Thus, the people and their leaders continually brought pressure to bear and participated in demands for higher educational institutions. Without trying to trace the history and development of the colleges and universities, it should be mentioned that the same forces which influenced the expansion of the new country, developed the educational system of equal opportunity for all.

In 1862, the Morrill Act, often called the Land-Grant Act, was passed by Congress. This act came in the time of stress and chaos of the Civil War, and created an equal opportunity for each state to set up an educational institution to be governed by the people of the state, and to include branches of learning related to agriculture. Again this reflects the times and the desires of the people. Federal land was granted to each state, and an annual amount of $5,000 promised for each state institution of agriculture established. These institutions became the present day land-grant colleges.

It was in this same year (1862) that Congress also created the United States Department of Agriculture. The purpose and function of this department was to acquire useful information about agricultural subjects and disseminate this information throughout the land.

There were then two sources from which the people of the United States might gain information and knowledge — land-grant colleges and the Department of Agriculture.

These organizations were to become more effective and useful, however, when still another system was developed to extend their educational services. This agency was called the Cooperative Extension Service. It is necessary to amplify a bit to show how the pressure of the times led to the creation of this service.

All of the information, skills and practices brought to the new world by the various immigrants were not in themselves sufficient for farmers to make a living. It was necessary to improvise, compromise, and even by trial and error, find solutions to cope with the problems of opening a new land. No matter how sure or educated a man, how wealthy or successful he had been in the past, how individualistic he was or wanted to be, he had to find solutions to new problems. More significantly, he had to seek out or invent new ideas, tools, habits, and friends. This proved a great legacy which has developed into a fundamental characteristic, or what has become known as "the American way".

This characteristic made possible the creation and acceptance of agricultural colleges and governmental agencies. Their success can be attested to by the fact that the United States developed into one of the richest, most progressive and efficient agricultural areas in the world. This is true only because the agricultural agencies after being created continued to serve the needs of the people that created them.

This also explains why it was only a short time before it became evident that experimentation was a vital function of educational institutions.

Since this was true, the United States Congress (the sounding board of the people) passed the Hatch Act in 1887, providing every land-grant college with funds and directives to establish permanent expermental farms, later called experimental stations.

Although the colleges were circulating information to many, they were limited in what they could do. Much was done by individual professors of agriculture who visited farms or worked with cooperative farmers to determine what methods or practices were giving best results.

Some institutions were more progressive in attitude and became increasingly involved in extension programs. This involved decisions on policy administration, and, of course, funds with which to carry on the job. The extension idea opened up a new area in the educational field.

With the development of the agricultural experiment stations, much new information was made available to farmers by the colleges. The farmers, in turn, began to look to these people for information, and the demands of individuals soon made it necessary to work with larger groups. The Chautauqua movement, and later the Farmers Institutes, were the result of this demand. These events also became major social activities of that era. This social factor is another element that contributed to the rapid growth of the extension service movement.

Recognized leaders of the day began to travel and make speeches or hold panel discussions on agricultural subjects. This informal activity became an effective way to disperse knowledge. It was only natural that teachers and professional men from the colleges were included and helped extend knowledge from the formal institutions of education.

At the turn of the century, records show that formal extension activities were being carried on by agricultural colleges. Among these were Cornell University, Pennsylvania State College and Iowa State College. Colleges had to expand their extension activities. Experimentation programs kept growing in size and number. They had more information to offer. There were increased demands by groups of people for speakers. The time had arrived for organized and cooperative action to meet again the demands of the people.

Independently, the colleges began to meet this need by sending staff members out in increasing numbers. This led to the establishment of extension departments, or to giving individuals the responsability of supervising extension activities. Such titles as "extension department" and "superintendents of agricultural college extension" began to appear. More colleges and universities became involved in extension activities. Committees in various organizations began to focus attention on this national trend.

The creation of a committee on extension work by the association of American agricultural colleges and experiment stations in 1905 added impetus to the movement. This same committee three years later recommended that extension work of the land-grant colleges was of sufficient magnitude and importance to be raised to the same level as research and resident teaching. They recommended that the three phases of educational activity be coordinated. This was perhaps the one most significant move toward making the extension service a permanent and successful organization.

The Farmers' Institutes contributed much to the growth and expansion of the extension movement. As mentioned earlier, the first institute activity was started in Massachusetts in 1863. At the turn of the century, all states but one were sponsoring farmer or agricultural institutes.

These institutes were public community meetings programming an invited speaker or speakers, usually supplied by the state college of agriculture, and sometimes by the federal Department of Agriculture. Discussions covered various farm and homemaking subjetc. Some form of entertainment, music, reading or short skits were also included in these institute sessions of one, two, or more days duration. They were held once or twice a year. A local committee was responsible for organizing, publicizing and carrying out this community activity. Funds for institute sessions were usually provided by the state college from public revenues. It is important to note that these institutes were family affairs. There were programs and discussions relative to the farm home and problems of the farm family, as well as to agricultural subjects. It has always been difficult to separate the business of farming from farm family living. It is a family operation and the living a farm family derives from the business is dependent on the extent the family unit cooperates and lives the business of farming.

These institutes were also enjoyable social events as were most meetings in which the farmer and his family participated. This socializing factor was incorporated into the extension system meeting

The Farmers' Institutes affected all rural people whether or not they actively participated. They were of sufficient importance that state funds were appropiated to support them. State funds were soon supplemented by federal financial support.[4] Perhaps it is enough for our purpose to state that the Institute was an excellent device for agricultural colleges and universities to use in their first attempts at extension work. The Institute idea spread the entire lenght and breadth of the nation and did much to disperse information to rural people. Through this arrangement, farmers were able to provide impetus and pressure for the creation of a service that would help them help themselves.

The colleges continued to expand and provide more services through various extension activities to the limit of their resources. In some colleges, it even became necessary to appoint a staff member to spend full time at this new program. True relates in great detail the growth of the individual state colleges in this area of endeavor. In the period 1910-1914, great strides were made, but the demands were more than the colleges could meet. Pressures built up and became problems to the educational institutions invloved in these "extension" programs.

More and more staff time was needed to meet this demand. More individuals were assigned responsibilites for this off-campus work. More personnel was needed. More and more administrative problems had to be met. Along with all this was the ever increasing need for more money to take care of the expanding educational program.

---

4 Alfred C. True, A History of Agricultural Extension Work in the United States, 1785-1923. (Washington D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1928), p.3.

Since this was happening in some degree to colleges throughout the land, it took on the aspects of a national movement. The colleges turned to state legislatures for more funds and aid. The states in turn looked to federal sources for support. Precedent had been set by the federal legislation which created the land-grant colleges[5] and the agricultural experiment stations[6]; the former for resident instruction and the latter to bolster resident teaching. It was becoming evident that the extension arm of the colleges and experiment stations was the weak area of the educational program in the United States.

In 1914 the Smith-Lever Act was passed and the extension movement blossomed into life. This bill provided the backing of the federal government for a movement that represented the collective thinking and efforts of many people over a long period of time. The bill takes on great significance when we realize that it made possible the United States extension service as a cooperative service among federal, state and local government; plus a cooperative service of land-grant colleges (resident teaching), experiment stations (agricultural research), and extension (rural out-of-school education).

The foundation laid down by the Smith-Lever Act cannot be overemphasized. It clearly states that this service is to be educational to be tied to and on an iqual level with the educational and research institutes. It provided equal opportunity for all areas of the nation to develop this service and, most important, made it a people's program.

5 : The Morrill Act of 1862 establishing land-grant colleges in all states.
6 : The Hatch Act of 1887 establishing experiment stations.

This is not to imply that government participation in education is always a good thing. However, this is an example of governmental participation without having the recipients of the service lose control, or of having the service become dominated by government intervention or bogged down by red tape.

After the passing of this public law in 1914, great advances in organizational development took place. It grew even beyond the expectations of the leaders of this movement and reached every area of the United States. Today, all forty-nine states and Hawaii have extension services. Each state's program is administered trhough the land-grant college of that state. Every county in the United States is covered by the respective state extension staff. Every state has a director of extension. The Federal Extension Service is a division of the United States Department of Agriculture. Its function is to do work on a national level that cannot be done by the states. It advises and cooperates with, but does not control, the state organizations. Its main function is to support the states in such areas as research, national publicity, coordination, administration of federal funds, regional problems, publications and visual aids.

The actual extension picture in the United States is not that of one extension service, but of forty-nine extension services. Perhaps it can be said that every county in the United States has its own extension organization and its own program. This concept is one that many American extension technicians have not realized. Visitors must not be condemned for lack of understanding on this point. Some United States extension personnel themselves have never found need to look deeper into a situation than their own county or state.

When extension people were called to do "missionary" work abroad, they represented the United States extension service; but in fact, each one actually represented only the area from which he had come. This state freedom is very important and perhaps it is the most significant factor in the successful development of the three thousand odd county extension services that make up the United States extension service. Freedom to adopt, adapt, improvise, develop, explore and reject ideas, methods and advice was the real strength that build the present-day system. This does not mean that there were no failures. There were many, but the successes by far outnumbered them.

Another factor, of course, was the freedom of individuals to carry out their responsabilities. This is a useful method when applied properly. The greater the involvement, the greater will be the spread of responsability for the success or failure that occurs. As the people became involved in the development of a program, it became their program, not the program of the agent or administrator. Very few serious failures occur under this kind of procedure. Perhaps this statement should be qualified by saying that few agents are failures when this philosophy is sincerely believed and honestly implemented.

At this point, it should be emphasized that this puts upon the shoulders of the county agent (Person working at local level)[7] a great responsability for carrying on the educational service.

---

7 This would be comparable to village level worker in India, Inspector of Agriculture in Italy, etc.

The guidance of these agents and the training they receive are important to prepare and back them in their efforts to work with people, but they are secondary to their roles as field workers. A good adviser can still help people in spite of lack of proper administration or training. Good administration and training alone do not suffice if the field worker does not have the proper philosophy or freedom to work with 1 people.

To return to the early development of the United States extension service, it must be remembered that there were individuals attracting attention to new methods of helping farmers. Dr. Seaman A. Knapp was one such man. He is considered by extension historians to be the "father" of extension methods. Sr. Knapp was responsible for giving great impetus to a new method of teaching still considered basic to extension education. This method was called "demonstration". He expanded the kind of thing our Indian friend Squanto did in 1621.[8] After Dr. Knapp resigned as president of Iowa State College, he became involved in promoting a farm development project. In his own words , "To get the job done, we resorted to demonstrations". This meant subsidizing a few farmers to work under his supervision. These demonstrations proved that farms were paying propositions under proper management. Dr. Knapp, in getting a job done (selling farmland), became an advocate of the demonstration method. This led him to accept an appointment with the United States Department of Agriculture in 1902. The job was to supervise a few demonstration farms in the south.

8: See page 8

Dr. Knapp did not approve of the government operation of these farms because the farmers did not have the opportunity for active participation.

The result was that he proposed a community demonstration farm to be operated by a farmer chosen by the community. The Porter "Community Demonstration Farm"[9] in Texas backed by a guarantee from the Chamber of Commerce against loss, and under the supervision of Knapp, was started in 1903. It proved successful and received the acclaim of many farmers throughout the nation.

In the same year, because of an invasion of the boll weevil, a cotton emergency developed. Cotton growers called for federal help. Techniques at the Porter demonstration farm seemed to be one answer to the problem. The Secretary of Agriculture made funds available to Dr. Knapp for establishing small cotton demonstration farms to show that cotton could be grown profitably despite the boll weevil, if improved methods were used.

To carry on this project, special agents were appointed to the demonstration farms to instruct and advise the operators. Other farmers who wished information could become cooperators and receive instructions by mail. The success of this program is now history. The following year (1904) seven thousand farmers were acting as demonstrators in three states with twenty-four agents fully employed. By 1908 eleven states, with one hundred fifty-seven agents employed were carrying on the work started by Dr. Knapp.

9: Edmund deS. Brunner and E. Hsin Pao Yang, Rural America and the Extension Service. (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949) p.9

Dr. Knapp was also the first to work through boys and girls to reach adults. A few clubs started experimentally in 1907 (also on a demonstration basis), have expanded into today's world renowed 4-H club program. This program now reaches nearly every county in the United States. Many other countries are trying to develop similar youth organizations.

Aside from Knapp's prestige, the success of his extension activities received favorable support from farmers, agricultural colleges and state and federal government. The favorable attitude that existed throughout the nation, could end only in a bid for formal recognition and support. It was not a question of creating a new agency, but of an expansion of existing efforts to meet the needs of rural people.

The climax was reached with the passage of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914. This bill was the result not only of the thinking of Senator Hoke Smith and Representative Ashbury Lever, but also of the accumulated thinking and experience of the land-grant colleges. After the passage of the bill, the third leg on the "educational stool" brought stability to the rural educational program. Research, resident teaching and now the extension of educational facilities was made available to the great bulk of the nation's population. The development and experiences that brought the extension service into being, was the pattern that was to give it sustained life and importance.

This pattern can be described in this way: first, probing research; second, discovering the needs of the people; third, marshalling resources; fourth, sharing of responsibility; fifth, demonstrating the new procedure; sixth, making knowledge available to all who desire it; seventh, obtaining support from leaders; eight, letting the program sell itself; ninth, providing organization to support the program; tenth, evaluating and adjusting to new methods and techniques. Training and rapid expansion came later.

The development after 1914 was phenomenal, and yet perhaps, inevitable. The pressures and forces in this new democracy were still shaping the system. Rigidity had not set in, so conditions were favorable for this educational service to expand. Surely the leaders did not visualize the giant that would emerge from the infant they were fostering. It is fortunate that they were thinking not in terms of what could be, but of what should be. Concerned with doing a job, they built a sound foundation for the future.

After 1914, the extension service had a legal identity. Although today it seems that the development was fast and great, there were significant periods which materially affected its growth. It was not all easy, nor was it uniform throughout the nation.

Brunner and Yang[10] break down the period 1914 to 1945 into four phases: (1) World War I, (2) industrial prosperity and agrarian discontent, the 1920's, (3) The "Great Depression", (4) World War II. A fifth phase, the post-war period, can now be added.

10: Edmund deS. Brunner and E. Hsin Pao Yang, Rural America and the Extension Service (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949)

The statement made by Brunner and Yang in this connection still applies. They said, "The important national and world forces and events of these periods exerted great influence upon extension, which in each period altered its program to meet the changing educational needs of rural America". This statement points up another of the strong threads that are the essence of the United States extension process. Its ability to adjust to and meet the challenge of the times is a basic element that must be incorporated into rural educational efforts.

In World War I, the challenge was to increase agricultural production. This was an emergency period and programs and plans had to be changed with a realignment of priorities. It can be said that the original goal of helping rural people improve their situation still applied. It was logical to furnish leaders to help rural people adjust to a national crisis. It was an arm of government that promoted national policy and considered the individuals' problems. Each is an important element affecting the other.

Helping rural families meet the emergency increased the confidence that farmers and government officials had in the extension service. This confidence, in turn, helped the organization grow and obtain increased moral and financial support. Thus we see that when the extension service has as its goal a sincere desire to help, and puts it into practice, its rewards and both (1) increased support and (2) greater demands upon its services.

The second period was the agricultural depression of the early 1920's.

This was the aftermath of World War I when farmers were encouraged to produce more. Many extended themselves too far, going into debt to expand their operations. The profitable agricultural years came to an end. During the adjustment period from war-time production to peace-time production, a rural crisis developed. Many thousands of farmers were unable to weather the storm. Foreclosures were taking place so rapidly that it became a national crisis.

Again extension agents were contacts for both government agencies and farmers. The agencies used extension agents to carry out government recommendations and to obtain information needed by the government. Farmers used the agents for help in making adjustments, organizing for action and for passing along the needs of the rural population.

The extension organization again was flexible enough to change its program emphasis from more production to more efficient production, better markets, making rural living more self-sufficient, improving rural conditions to keep the farmer on the farm. The emphasis also changed from dealing with individuals to dealing with community groups.

The educational job became broader than originally anticipated. Programs in child care, home beautification, recreation, and public affairs became of major importance. The job demanded new techniques and new approaches, but again it was done through mutual efforts. The extension service and the people continued to probe and solve the problems together.

The use of local leaders was not only natural, but a necessity. This made it possible to provide the most help for the most people. The county agents, through leaders, were able to multiply their contacts and offer demonstrations and information to many. Brunner and Yang report that as early as 1923, over 182.000 persons in the United States were serving as local leaders, contributing half a million days of unpaid labor.[11]

The extension service continued to grow in spite of a shortage of available funds. It gained in favorable reputation. There was more and more demand for full-time agents and programs.

The agricultural picture in the late 1920's was changing for the better, but unfortunately the economic depression came with devastating force. This was another national crisis affecting every individual and family in the land. The needs of the rural population again changed, and happily, the extension service met the challenge.

It was during this period that this educational organization proved its adaptability and importance. As an educational system, it was called upon to help rural people understand and use government agencies. The success of these governmental programs depended upon farmer participation. They meant the farmer had to know and understand the programs. Farm families had a line of communication through the extension service. The county agents were usually advisers to all county organizations. They participated in almost all programs and became the educational arm for federal and state agricultural activities.

11: Ibid.

The pressures on the extension staff became almost too much, taxing them to the limit. Although each county worked out its own problems, it became necessary for state and federal agents to clarify the roles of extension personnel. Extension was then able to prevent itself from becoming a regulatory service. Its educational role was re-emphasized. This was a significant turning point and an important factor contributing to the success of the United States system. It could well have been absorbed during emergencies or changed to become a government agency carrying out controls, regulations, and enforcement. It was able to demonstrate the importance of a free agency, locally controlled, taking care of the educational needs of the people. It, in fact, was a necessary function that helped regulatory agencies carry out their responsabilities.

The degree of participation, the points of emphasis and the role of the county agent varied considerably throughout the land. This variety added to its usefulness because it was able to serve local interests under local conditions. It became a device whereby national objectives were implemented or accepted locally under conditions favorable to that environment, culture, or society. This bridge between local objectives and national objectives helped both causes to advance. Actually, a mutual objective encompassing both interests became obvious. Extension became important and became a vehicle where by rural people and government leaders teamed up together.

Throughout this decade, the expansion of the extension service reached every rural county in the United States. Theoretically, it was in contact with every farm family.

Its coverage was intensified with greater demands for home demonstration agents and for full-time young people's agents (4-H Club work.). The needs of every family member were thus being met by professional people who could spend full time at the job. The emphasis was broadening still more from the original idea of concentration on food production to helping farmers improve all aspects of rural living.

The ideas and activities that came out of this economic depression period were many and varied. The freedom of operation and utilization of collective thinking were two valuable features that made this possible. This, in turn, made for a national effort by rural people of literally lifting themselves by their own "bootstraps". A most important fact was that it became a united effort inspired and promoted by individuals for the common good.

One example of the extent to which extension educational activities were carried was the interest and participation in public affairs discussions. This was a far cry, indeed, from emphasis on agricultural productivity.

The fourth phase, as mentioned by Brunner and Yang, was the next national emergency, World War II. At this time, the extension service was a going institution, but again it became involved in the great demands for food and fiber. Emergencies demand immediate action and adjustment. The extension service once again had to change gears. Because of its past experiences, it did not fall short, It had not been permitted to become stale, nor had it been side-tracked by growing for the sake of organization alone. Since it was a locally controlled organization, it took up the new challenge at that level. Local programs and efforts are needed before national objectives can be obtained.

In this case, the objective was to win the war.

This time added pressures were brought to bear. Part of the extension service force was depleted to meet demands for man power for armed services. The people had come to expect expanded cooperation and participation from the extension service. They looked to it for information and leadership. They had been led by experience to expect no less. Government leaders and organizations turned to it for more assistance. They, too, had past experience in the past that showed them the importance of this grass-roots educational system. "See your county agent" became an often repeated slogan.

Some of the demands on the extension service again called for efforts that had no precedents. The farm labor program is one example. With a manpower shortage and productivity geared to an all-time high, labor had to be imported, not from cities which were in competition for farm labor, but from other countries such as Mexico, Puerto Rico and Jamaica. Utilization of men, women and children from non-farm sources, training and placement, housing and transportation, health and even recreation were some of the problems that extension workers helped to solve. They even became involved in the utilization of war prisoners to harvest perishable crops.

The extension service also helped relocate farm families when their lands were bought up for war industries and munitions centers. Helping make surveys, counseling with families and government representatives, advising military manpower draft boards to

avoid extreme depletion of agricultural producers, and encouraging non-farm people to produce victory gardens, were other fields of endeavor for the agents. They sponsored programs in farm and home safety, organized and executed scrap drive collections of old farm machinery, paper and rags sorely needed for the war machine. All of these things and more, were done with very little being dropped from their normal program of extension.

This kind of expansion was possible because of greater utilization and participation of rural leaders. The use of leaders not only made it possible to carry on extension activities, but provided a network of communication that literally covered the United States. A man and woman in each neighborhood became an extension of the extension service. They received guidance, training and materials from the extension agents, but in fact, carried the bulk of the programs to sucessful completion of their own efforts.

PRESENT STATUS

As the pressure of war eased, many emergency projects became less used, but the potential of this educational system reached a new high. It could and did adapt to meet the new crisis, and fortunately, as crises go, this one too, passed into history. This led into the post-war period. It, too, brought new pressures to bear and called for new adjustments.

The war had not only uncovered new areas of need within the United States, but uncovered new areas in the international scene. The United States was no longer able to divorce itself from the problems of other countries. Just as the United States, in time of war, had to rally its war machine to help its allies, it now had to rally its economic and educational machinery to help all nations in need.

The story would be too long at this point to show how and why the extension service was propelled to the forefront in this unprecedented effort to help not only allies but former enemies. The problems of most other countries were rehabilitation and need for increased food production. Since most countries were predominantly agricultural, most problems stemmed from needs of rural families.

The largest adult educational system that existed in the world was the United States extension service. Its effectiveness in promoting increased agricultural productivity had been proven. It had a history of adaptability and flexibility in serving rural families.

Itwas a peoples' service that administered to local needs. It was a government agency that used educational processes. Its fundamental motive was to help people, not to build an organization. These are but a few of the obvious reasons that extension personnel in the ten years following World War II were called upon to help almost every country on the face of the earth. The programs and activities were as varied as the individuals involved. Many mistakes were made, but the successes outweighed the failures.

Many countries now have some form of extension or rural advisory service. Most of them, if not all, were patterned after the United States system to some degree. Just as the influence of the French, Spanish and English colonial systems in centuries past affected foreign countries, now the rural education system of the United States is having its effect. Literally hundreds of perons have been exposed to rural advisory work " a la United States". Just as the original idea has changed in the United States from 1914 to 1956 to serve rural people, so too the United States system needs to change if it is to serve various cultures.

The United States has forty-nine extension services and, some would say, three thousand separate county extension services. Therefore, it is natural that each country develop its own advisory service patterned to meet the needs of its own rural population. Most important, the advisory service should continue to develop and adapt itself to meet the changes that will occur as the rural people change.

The United States extension service is larger that ever, serving more people in spite of the decline in agrucultural producers to the lowest national percentage in the world, with only eleven percent of its population engaged in producing food and fiber[12]. It is in another period of adaptation. The extension service is helping its people make changes necessary to meet the needs of a new kind of rural population. The rural scene itself is changing. Urban people are moving to suburban and rural areas. They have problems of adjustment and again the word is being passed, "See your county agent". If history continues to repeat itself, the county agents will meet this new challenge and continue to help people in solving their own problems.

They continue to serve poeple at the local level. This helps make a better local situation, better states and in turn a better nation. A better nation in turn can make a significant contribution to a better world.

12: Based on United States Agricultural Census, 1955

SUMMARY OF FACTORS INFLUENCING ITS OPERATION

In summary it appears that the elements that have contributed to the success and importance of the United States rural educational organization called the Cooperative Extension Service are:

1. It is an educational organization.

2. It is equal in importance to the other two vital educational services -- research and resident teaching.

3. It is supported by federal, state and local funds.

4. It has an important place in the Department of Agriculture, but is not dominated by that department.

5. Each state is autonomous in its administration and organization of the advisory service in that state.

6. Emphasis is placed on the local level, with each county developing its own program.

7. It is attached to the land-grant colleges which coordinate resident teaching, research, and extension teaching.

8. There is a two-way flow of ideas from the top down and from the field level upwards.

9. The latest methods of communication are employed when found useful in getting the job done.

10. Democratic procedure is fundamental to its operation.

11. Use of lay leaders is one of the strongest aspects contributing to its extensive coverage of the rural areas.

12. The program is flexible so that it adjusts to changes.

13. The service developed from one of improving agricultural production to serving the farm family as a unit (Special programs for men, women, and rural youth are still continued).

14. Training in technical agriculture and home economics are prerequisites for extension personnel. In-service training and refresher courses help them keep pace with new developments, research, techniques, skills, and new responsibilities.

These are a few of the factors that seem obvious when one seeks reasons why the United States extension service has developed the way it has. From these factors, one could begin to develop some useful guides or principles. As a matter of fact, many persons have already done so. These guides and principles are useful only if understood.[13]

One of the most significant ideas that comes out of this is that in the development of the United States extension service there are aspects that can be adapted to help solve similar problems in foreign lands. Some of them would be:

1. The emphasis on education and the development of an educational organization.
2. Permission of staff members to assume responsibility and build the program by encouraging others to contribute to the program.
3. Permitting this educational organization to develop so that it fulfills the needs and conditions of the people it serves. The program would vary in many areas with the development of democratic actions and collective thinking.
4. Participation by the people in all phases of program development.

There are others that could be mentioned, but the purpose is not to advise that there is a definite formula to success.

13: See list of principles in appendix.

The purpose is to show that the growth and development processes evolve from a philosophy of education for all. To serve people, it is necessary to have them participate, help them catalogue their needs, work out a program to take care of these needs, and permit flexibility in program and objectives.

The United States did not have everything in its favor. The professional people and available manpower for staffing the extension service were less ready and perhaps had fewer resources and experiences than many in foreign countries facing the same development today.

The United States had perhaps one other factor in its favor when it started with a relatively clean slate. Many foreign countries have to overcome the past or "clean the slate" because they are hampered by positions and organizations that already exist, and claim priority in this field of operation. Their philosophies and, in most cases, their regulations need changing. The United States system today is no different in this respect than any other. It, too, needs to be on the alert that it does not permit itself to become inflexible and stifle ingenuity and imagination in meeting the changes and demands that will occur.

The call to duty in foreign countries in perhaps one of the best things that could have happened for the future of the United States extension service. Its personnelwas permitted to flex its muscles in foreign cultures and environments. It found there are some things it cannot do. It shook itself out of its self-satisfied position. It gained vitality by being called upon to extend itself to meet a new challenge. The vital essence of this educational service is that it seeks out new challenges and helps people to overcome the obstacles.

In the early development of the United States extension service, the professional people who became involved in this educational venture also "learned by doing". There were no pre-trained personnel available in the specific sense of being trained for extension. This almost total freedom from pre-conceived notions gave rise to the practice of freedom with responsibility. Individuals who found ways to get the job done became leaders, but there was a great area of trail and error experimentation. A dynamic organization needs to have built within its framework room for this kind of freedom and experimentation. The staff must keep in close contact with the situation and the programs must be built for the conditions that exist. It must divorce practice and theory.

The philosophy upon which an organization is built, whether intended or accidental, is probably the most important factor contributing to success or failure of an adult educational program. It becomes a guide for those who must administer and carry on the program. It will need constant interpretation and explanation to those who become involved. It is the foundation upon which a successful program can be developed.

Development of American Agriculture and the Cooperative Extension Service

1776	Signing of the Declaration of Independence.
1785	A Society for Promoting Agriculture organized in Philadelphia.
1785-1800	Several northern states and South Carolina organized state agricultural societies.
1789-1797	The first president of the United States, George Washington.
1796	President suggested to Congress the establishment of a National Board of Agriculture.
1801-1809	The third president, Thomas Jefferson, skilled agriculturist and vitally interested in agricultural development.
1811	The Berkshire Agricultural Society (Massachusetts), established agricultural fairs -- sale of farm products, competitive exhibitions, programs in agricultural education.
1824-1836	Agriculture began to demand a place in government .
1826-1856	Popular and agricultural education, rural issues become prominent.
1839	First agricultural appropriation, Agriculture Division, established in patent office.
1852	Organization of the United States Agricultural Society, 23 states and territories were members.
1854	Farmers' Institute started by Massashusetts State Board of Agriculture. During the next 50 years Farmers Institutes became the principal means of reaching rural people with agricultural information.
1854	First Entomologist employed.
1862	Bureau of Agricultural Economics started with division of statistics.
1862	The Morrill Act established land-grant colleges.

1863	Division of Entomology Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine established.
1867	The Grange (Patrons of Husbandry) was formed.
1884	Bureau of Animal Industry established.
1887	The Hatch Act established experiment stations.
1891	Forestry work started.
1894	Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics first appropriation.
1895	Bureau of Dairy Industry established.
1896	Rural Free Delivery of mails stared.
1900-1913	Club work with rural boys and girls developed in many states.
1901	Bureau of Plant Industry established.
1902	National Farmers Union organized.
1903	Teaching by demonstrations started by Seaman A. Knapp.
1903	Community domonstration farms established in Texas.
1904	Farm demonstrations on boll weevil control started in Texas. 24 special agents assisting Dr. Knapp
1905	U.S. Forest Service established.
1906	First county agent employed in Texas.
1908	157 agents in 11 states.
1910	450 agents in 455 counties.
1911	580 agents at work.
1913	Home domonstration work had its beginning.
1914	Smith-Lever Act coordinated extension work nationally.
1916	Farm Credit Administration established.
1916	Federal Farm Loan Act.
1917	Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act.
1920	American Farm Bureau Federation organized.
1923	Agricultural Credit Act

1928	Capper-Ketcham Act, expanded extension work.
1933	Farm Credit Act.
1933	Agricultural Adjustment Act.
1935	Bankhead-Jones Act, expanded extension work
1935	Soil Conservation Service established.
1935	Rural Electrification Administration established.
1935	Farm Security Administration established.
1938	Federal Crop Insurance Corporation established.
1945	Production and Marketing Administration established.
1945	Bankhead-Flanagan Act, expanded extension work
1953	Congress amended Smith-Lever Act. "....and subjects related thereto....". Added to definition of extension work as "the giving of instruction and practical demonstration in agriculture and home economics".
1955	Extension Law (Public Law 360)--Rural Development Act -- provided appropriation for cooperative extension to give "assistance and counseling to local groups in appraising resources for capability of improvement in agriculture or introduction of industry designed to supplement farm income" and to do this "in cooperation with other agencies and groups".

APPENDIX

Principles of Extension Education *

Rural Adult Education (with emphasis on the extension process) should:

1. Be based on conditions that exist (local, regional and national.
2. Involve people in actions that promote their welfare.
3. Develop programs gradually.
4. Aim basically at people's interests and needs.
5. Use democratic methods.
6. Keep programs flexible.
7. Work through understanding of the culture.
8. Use local leaders.
9. Use existing agencies.
10. Utilize trained specialists.
11. Work with all members of the family.
12. Make programs as broad as needs of rural people.
13. Evaluate continuously.
14. Work with all classes of the society.
15. Keep in line with national policies.
16. Use the community approach.
17. Help people recognize their needs.

---

* From DiFranco, Joseph, A Collection of Principles and Guides, Comparative Extension Publication Nº 4, New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University, July, 1958

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bliss, Ralph K. The Spirit and Philosophy of Extension work. Washington: Published jointly by the Graduate School, United States Department of Agriculture and the Epsilon Sigma Phi National Honorary Extension Fraternity, 1952.

Brunner, Edmund deS. and E. Hsin Pao Yang. Rural America and the Extension Service. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.

Kelsey, Lincoln D., and Cannon C. Hearne. Cooperative Extension Work, 2nd edition, Ithaca, New York: Comstock Publishing Associates, 1954

National Association of County Agents. The Story of Squanto. A leaflet presented to newly elected agents. Chicago: National Association of County Agricultural Agents.

True, Alfred C., A History of Agricultural Extension Work in the United States 1785-1923. Washington D.C.; United States Government Printing Office, 1928

PREVIOUS PUBLICATIONS

Training Materials in Extension

#1 Extension Philisophy

#2 Evaluation in Extension

#3 Subject Matter Specialists in Extension: Roles, Problems, and Adjustments.

#4 Extension Organization: For Administration and for Program Development.

#5 Elements that Contributed to the Success of the United States Cooperative Extension Service.

#6 Local Leaders in Extension

#7 A Collection of Principles and Guides.

#8 Pre-Requisites to Progress in Agriculture, Land, Labor, Capital, Knowledge.

#9 Coordination - The Key to Successful Extension Education Service

ICA/EE/204/62

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

EE/22/62

TRADUCCION

Nº 11

P R O G R A M A C I O N

PARTE DEL PROCESO DE EXTENSION

por

Dr. Joseph Di Franco
Extensionista

Publicado en Español e Inglés

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

Pueden solicitarse copias adicionales de esta publicación, dirigiéndose a la Misión de Operaciones de los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica (Punto 4) en cada páis, o escribiendo a:

Departamento de Economía y Extensión
Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la O.E.A.
Centro Tropical de Investigación y Enseñanza para Graduados
Turrialba, Costa Rica

Esta publicación ha sido preparada de acuerdo con el contrato firmado entre el Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la Organización de Estados Americanos (OEA) y el Instituto de Asuntos Interamericanos de la Agencia de Desarrollo Internacional (AID) de los Estados Unidos de América

Turrialba, Costa Rica
Noviembre, 1962

PROGRAMACION - PARTE DEL PROCESO DE EXTENSION

Joseph Di Franco

- - - - -

Planeamiento de Programas

Para descubrir las necesidades

Para planear medidas sistemáticas

- o -

Todo el proceso de Extensión está fundamentalmente encaminado a producir cambios. Este proceso educativo consiste, principalmente, en ayudar a la gente a mejorar sus condicones de vida. En otras palabras, está basado en las necesidades de la población rural. Con el objeto de poder prestarles ayuda, nosotros (los extensionistas) debemos concretar en qué consisten esas necesidades.

Muchas de esas necesidades pueden ser evidentes por si mismas, y tener conciencia nosotros de ellas, tales como la necesidad de aumentar la producción de alimentos, de mejorar la vivienda, de mejorar la salud, etc., a tal punto que podemos llegar a preguntarnos "por qué esperar?", y pensar en comenzar de inmediato a solucionar esos problemas. Es aquí donde debemos tomar muy en cuenta el elemento principal del proceso de Extensión: La gente misma debe reconocer y tener conciencia de sus necesidades y sentir interés en encontrar los medios para satisfacerlas. Un cambio básico, sin plena comprensión de parte de los interesados, no sería permanente.

Nos encaramos entonces, no únicamente con el problema de exponer sus necesidades a la gente, sino también con el problema de hacer que adquieran conciencia de tales necesidades.

Además, en muchos lugares son tantas las necesidades que nos vemos forzados a establecer prioridades. El Servicio de Extensión no está capacitado para atacar todos los problemas a un mismo tiempo. Tampoco la gente puede resolver todos sus problemas a la vez. Y, aunque así quisieramos hacerlo, es imposible. La educación, tal como la conocemos, es un proceso de suma lentitud para producir cambios. Corrientemente, sin embargo, es el cambio más permanente.

Atacar primero el problema más evidente puede conducir a un fracaso, si este problema es producido por otras condiciones que se deben mejorar primero. Por ejemplo, los misioneros han acabado por comprender que avanzaban más en la conquista de su fines si comenzaban por ayudar a la gente en sus problemas de salud y de suministro de alimentos. Así también en Extensión hemos comprendido que aconsejar el uso de fertilizantes (una manera obvia de aumentar la producción), sólo producía otros contratiempos -- Quién va a suministrar los fertilizantes? quién puede comprarlos? Qué sucede a las otras convicciones de la gente? En realidad, existen otras cosas de mayor y primordial importancia.

Otro paso importante en el proceso de Extensión es que, en todas las actividades de los extensionistas, la gente debe tomar parte. De qué otra manera podría realmente educarse? Conocemos y aceptamos el principio fundamental de que las gentes deben estar convencidas de que lo que hacen es importante para ellas mismas. Esta es una de las tareas más difíciles que los extensionistas deben cumplir. Demasiados extensionistas creen que con la organización de un comité involucran a la gente. O les parece que por el hecho de invitarlos a una reunión los están también interesando. Esto es participación, pero no necesariamente implicación. Implicación significa que, en la formación de un comité o en la asistencia a una reunión de Extensión, la gente participa activamente en las decisiones que se adopten. Debe, en realidad, haber puesto algo de su parte en la decisión tomada y jugar un papel definitivo en las actividades dirigidas a la solución de problemas.

Esto demanda tiempo, paciencia y habilidad. Todo extensionista que ha llegado a alcanzar éxito, posee estas cualidades. Este es el elemento que hace de la educación de extensión una profesión. Trabajar con la gente requiere adiestramiento, No todo el mundo puede ser maestro o extensionista.

El descubrimiento de las necesidades tiene dos aspectos: (1) el agente debe recopilar datos y hacer observaciones; (2) debe obtener la colaboración de la población en la evaluación de los hechos y las observaciones. En otras palabras, determinar las necesidades que requieren la atención del extensionista y de la gente, y asignarles prioridades.

Luego, naturalmente, sigue la acción necesaria para solucionar los problemas. De nuevo es preciso que, si el cambio tiene éxito, sea aceptado por la gente. Para ayudarlos a aceptar los cambios deben estar convencidos de la necesidad ee las acciones que den por resultado la solución de sus problemas. Deben creer que algo puede hacerse para resolverlos y comprender las medidas que se tomen para su solución. Esto significa que deben participar en el planeamiento de tales medidas, y que se les debe tomar en cuenta a la hora de planear la acción correspondiente. Significa adiestrar a la gente en métodos y habilidades que les ayudarán a alcanzar los fines deseados. En Algunas ocaciones será necesario que el extensionista les aliente; en otras tendrá que tener en cuenta sus limitaciones; lo más importante, sin embargo, es que debe guiarlos. Debe estar en posesión de un plan, que debe ser metódico.

Un plan metódico significa: un anteproyecto, estudio, evaluación y organización. Esto no ocurre por sí mismo. Aunque no existe la seguridad de que el mejor plan conducirá al éxito, sabemos que la mayoría de los programas que lo alcanzan se basan en un buen planeamiento.

La necesidad de un plan metódico es también otra de las razones por la cual la educación de extensión requiere adiestramiento, y por la que no todos pueden ser buenos extensionistas.

Los conceptos de programación y de desarrollo pueden ser aprendidos. Lamentablemente, la mayoría de los conceptos son muy simples y a menudo parecen sumamente elementales. Muchos nos inclinamos a proceder precipitadamente sin haber aprendido ni dasarrollado las habilidades necesarias para una programación efectiva.

No debemos culpar únicamente a los agentes si sus programas son ineficientes. La culpa debe recaer en los administradores y supervisores y, en muchos casos, en los especialistas y consejeros. Puede ser que esto sea un poco injusto, pero se recalca el hecho de que, a menudo, trasmitimos ideas y recomendaciones sobre educación de extensión sin cerciorarnos de que los extensionistas que supervisamos hayan aprendido y comprendido los conocimientos prácticos de Extensión. Sin su comprensión y entendimientos no pueden ponerse en práctica esfuerzos contructivos de programación.

En realidad, creo que los agentes de Extensión de mayor éxito aprenden a planear metódicamente en el campo, después de algunas experiencias malogradas. Necesitamos ayudar a esta gente a adquirir experiencia antes de que cometan demasiados errores.

El Servicio de Extensión debe programar en forma adecuada para determinar las necesidades de sus agentes y a la vez desarrollar un plan metódico que les ayude a resolver sus problemas. Si los administradores y supervisores, con sus actos, implican a los agentes en

(1) Recolección, tabulación e interpretación de datos,
2) Estudio de la situación
3) Discusión de las necesidades reales
4) Determinación de prioridades
5) Elaboración de un plan metódico para remediar las necesidades
6) Ayuda en la ejecución del plan
7) Evaluación periódica de su progreso
8) Revisión de objetivos y metas a la luz de nuevas circunstancias,

Los agentes "aprenden haciendo". Practican los métodos y habilidades. Aprenden el significado real de los conceptos de programación. Aprenden a trabajar con la gente.

Quizás podemos agregar un argumento de peso en pro de la programación metódica. Un plan desarrollado conjuntamento con la gente se convierte en plan de ellos, no en plan del agente. Ayudarán más a convertirlo en un éxito. Planeado únicamento por el agente, puede correr el riesgo de ser desdeñado por la gente a la que debe ayudar. Y si fracasa, a quién debe culparse? Al agente, por supuesto -- fue su idea, su programa. Pero, si se trata de un plan y de un programa de la gente, tendrán que compartir los fracasos.

En contra de la mayoría de las opiniones, Extensión no es fácil; pero, pocas experiencias son más gratas que ayudar a la gente a ayudarse a sí misma.

---ooOoo---

PUBLICACIONES ANTERIORES

Materiales de Enseñanza en Extension

No. 1 - Filosofía de Extensión

2 - Evaluación de Extensión

3 - El Especialista en el Servicio de Extensión: Su Papel, Sus Problemas y Su Adaptación.

4 - Organización de Extensión - Para Administración y para Desarrollo del Programa

5 - Elementos que contibuyen al Exito del Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos

6 - Los Líderes Locales en las Labores de Extensión

7 - Un Conjunto de Principios y Guias

8 - Prerrequisitos para el Progreso de la Agricultura - Tierra, Capital, Trabajo y Conocimientos

9 - Coordinación - Llave del Exito de un Servicio de Extensión Educativa

10 - El Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos

---ooOoo---

AID/EE/225/62

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

EE/9/63 Nº 12

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EXTENSION EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

by

Dr. Joseph Di Franco
Extensionist

Published in English and Spanish

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA • Turrialba, Costa Rica.

For additional copies of this and other booklets and pamphlets from Regional Services in Extension, please contact U.S. AID Mission headquarters or write to:

Department of Economics and Extension
Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the O.A.S.
Tropical Center for Research and Graduate Training
Turrialba, Costa Rica

This publication was prepared under the provisions of the Contract between the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the Organization of American States (OAS) and the Institute of Inter-American Affairs of the Agency for International Development (AID) of the United States Government.

Turrialba, Costa Rica
October, 1962

FOREWORD

It is unfortunate that two schools of thought have grown from present-day efforts to assist in rural development. One is centered around extension education, and the other around community development. While the proponents of either of these two methods of rural development should feel pride and definitely have a high espirt de corps for their group, the fact remains that both groups have the same basic purpose - better life, better homes, and better opportunities for mankind.

With these thoughts in mind, Professor Di Franco here analyzes and compares extension education and community development, and presents a careful scrutiny of their similarities and dissimilarities in four major aspects. Employing direct quotations from noted authorities in both camps, he closely examines the entire makeup of the two processes.

After showing what others have said on the matter, Professor Di Franco then draws his own conclusions about the real significance of the whole movement of which both processes are part. His conclusions are based on many years of experience in extension both in the United States and abroad, and his three years of direct relations with groups of Comparative Extension Fellows at Cornell, who have come from different parts of the world. His discussion should prove valuable to those earnest individuals in both extension education and community development who are trying to delineate and work toward common goals.

John M. Fenley
Editor

Cornell University, Ithaca, New York
October, 1958

CONTENTS

Difference between Extension Education and Community Development

Joseph Di Franco

Throughout the world in recent years, two distinct approaches to rural development have emerged: extension education and community development. People everywhere are taking sides and promoting one over the other. They claim that one is better than the other, depending, of course, on which one they are more familiar with. This argument is disturbing to many of us in rural education, because we see so much effort wasted in struggling for supremacy. Too much energy is drained away from the real job of helping people to help themselves; in other words, from getting on with the job of education.

Perhaps it is time to look at the two approaches to make a realistic comparison. Too often proponents of one argue heatedly that the other is only doing what their own approach has been doing. But are they doing the same? Are they actually one and the same thing? Do they differ? What makes the difference? These are the kinds of questions we should be able to answer. Perhaps it is time to make some comparisons.

As a basis for constructive discussions and as a resource for those who may want to know more about these two approaches, the following facts are presented. Four categories have been selected for comparison:

A. Objectives
B. Process
C. Form (Organization)
D. Principles

From published materials, the author has selected the quotations that are included. A conscientious effort has been made to draw from these statements comparisons to determine the similarities or dissimilarities between extension education and community development. At the end of the four category comparison, an overall conclusion is drawn.

Before reading the author's comparisons the reader should:

1. Draw his own conclusions as to similarities and differences.
2. Add from his reading (perhaps some favorite author) other quotations in each category.

COMPARISON OF RELEVANT FACTORS

Objectives

Extension Education

1. "Its fundamental objective is the development of the people".[1]

2. "The Costa Rican Extension Service was created for the purpose of improving agriculture and helping to elevate the Costa Rican people". [2]

3. "Its purpose is still the same as these men (Seaman Knapp, A.C. True, W.S. Spillman, C.B. Smith) conceived it - the development of individual initiative among the men and women who have clung to the soil of America!". [3]

4. "...the first organized system of education designed and operated to teach people where they live and work, how to do a better job of what they are doing". [4]

5. "Your mission is to solve the problems of poverty, to increase the measure of happiness, to add to universal love of country the unusual knowledge of comfort, to harness the forces of all learning, and to be useful and needful in human society." [5]

Community Development

1. "C.D. is a technique for stimulating organized self-help undertaken through the democratic process. Obviously one of the objectives is to stimulate "self-help projects." [1]

2. "Community Development is a process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community with its active participation and the fullest possible reliance upon the community initiative". [2]

3. "The C.D. program has as its main objective to develop more than five hundred thousand village communities by methods which will stimulate, encourage, and aid villages themselves to do much of the work necessary". [3]

4. "Its objectives are to help people find the methods to organize self-help programs, and to furnish the techniques for cooperative action on planes which the local people develop to improve their own culture".[4]

5. "The objective of C.D. is to assist each village in planning and carrying out an integrated multi-phased family and village plan directed toward increasing agricultural production, improving existing village crafts and industries, providing minimum essential health facilities for children and adult education programs, providing recreational facilities and programs, improving housing and family living conditions, and providing programs for village women and youth".[5]

6. "Its objectives are to stimulate the desire and to furnish the knowhow for joint action on plans mutually arrived at".[6]

In looking at the preceding comments, can we see any major differences? To the author it seems that there are some distinct differences. Even with these relatively few statements, taken at random, there seems to be a difference in emphasis.

Dissimilarities:

Extension Education	Community Development
1. Emphasis on the individual	1. Emphasis on cooperation
2. Education aimed at individual development to obtain economic and social improvement.	2. Education aimed at groups of individuals to work collectively to obtain economic and social improvement.
3. Has as its main theme the individual's needs.	3. Has as its main theme the communities' needs.
4. Emphasizes decision making for change by individuals and families.	4. Emphasizes decision making by groups and representatives of groups.

Similarities:

1. To improve social and economic development.
2. Tackles the problem at the people's level.
3. Basically an educational approach.
4. Recognizes that people need help if they are to help themselves.
5. Designed to extend knowledge to rural people.
6. Aimed at bringing about change.

PROCESS

Extension Education

1. "Extension education is perhaps the key process, particularly in an underdeveloped region, for giving farmers confidence in themselves and confidence in public programs for agricultural development".[6]

2. The title itself indicates an accepted fact - Extension Education is an educational process.

3. "An extension program should unfold rather slowly and easily rather than explode". [7]

4. "Democratic method has been succesful and should be encouraged". [8]

5. "Extension Education for agricultural development and improving rural welfare is a key process for the most effective means of education for freedom". [9]

Community Development

1. "The process of C.D. has two stages: first, development within the groups themselves as members become more knowledgeable people, more friendly and cooperative and more able to conduct the business of the group. And second, development in the community at large as the characteristics develop within the groups influence the conduct of the members in their homes and in their neighborhood". [7]

2. "...the people of the community must be involved in the program from the very beginning". [8]

3. "...the basic problem of increasing village living standards is educational in character". [9]
"C.D. workers must let villagers tell us what their problems are before prescribing solutions". [10]

4. "Community action has necessarily to be cooperative action" "...the essence of community action, as that of cooperation, is that it is action taken by each for all and all for each". "...community development is the substance of the functioning of a healthy and free democracy". [11]

5. "A process which commits people to plan and work together, often with assistance from outside the group. Inherent in this self-help process is a developing ability to initiate new methods as well as to transmit ideas from one area of activity to another..." [12]

6. "Group development tends to be slow, and community development even slower..." [13]

Dissimilarities:

In reading about the process of extension education and community development, no dissimilarity seems to exist.

Similarities:

1. Both are educational processes.
2. Both are democratic processes.
3. Both are involvement processes — involvement of rural people.
4. Perhaps we can add that extension education and community development, being educational, democratic, involvement processes, of necessity are relatively slow processes.

FORM (ORGANIZATION)

Extension Education

1. "The U.S. Extension Service is a cooperative arrangement between the land-grant institutions and the U.S. Department of Agriculture". "The Cooperative Extension Service is a branch of the land-grant college system extended to include cooperatives with people in the respective countries".[10]

2. "The organization of the U.S. Cooperative Extension Service is unique. It establishes a cooperative relationship between agencies of Federal and State governments and these in turn enter into cooperation with County government....there is a large amount of autonomy at State and County levels".[11]

3. There are four general types of extension organization recognized by seminar groups (Comparative Extension Education) at Cornell University. These are:
   a. Extension through educational systems. Power rests with educational institutions, as in the United States.
   b. Straight line administration from Ministry of Agriculture. Power rests with Ministry.
   c. Cooperative approach through participation of more than one ministry of government. Power divided between ministries.

d. Extension through agricultural societies. Power rests with agricultural society.

Community Development

1. "But different communities have different needs and for this reason community development may take many different forms".[14]

2. "...what a community development program can do is to provide the organization of village abilities and community effort by which the agriculturist, sanitary engineer and his fellow technicians can accomplish their basic objectives..."[15]

3. "The obvious need for help from other ministries and departments as the program has developed is leading to various experiments at cooperative combination of staff."[16]

Dissimilarities:

Extension Education	Community Development
1. Extension is an educational arm of Government, usually through educational institutions or other government departments.	1. Community development is usually a direct government approach to straight line organization.
2. Emphasizes an organization that either carries out educational services directly or transmits knowledge from other resources to people.	2. Emphasizes the coordination of service agencies by a working team made up of representatives of different services.

Extension Education	Community Development
3. Usually represents a transfer of responsibility from administering government organization to another "educational" group.	3. Usually a tight control held by a government administering agency to cut across participating governmental departments: a. to recognize and include the various departments that must provide service, b. to eliminate departmental reluctance to participate.
4. Permits cooperation between departments, agencies.	4. Forces departments and agencies to participate.
5. Essentially a "branch" of the Department of Agriculture.	5. Essentially a branch of government serving several departments of the government.
6. Not directly involved in promotion of local units of government.	6. Tied into promotion of local units of government.

Similarities:

1. A government sponsored and supported organization.

2. An organization emphasizing cooperation.

3. Permits a great flexibility in types of organization to do the job.

PRINCIPLES

In this category selections have been made from statements found relating to the specific area per se, extension education or community development. It is understood that we are really dealing with rural education, and it is difficult to discriminate too closely. We must, however, follow through if we are to compare the emphasis even if in practice the distinction is not so clear cut.

Extension Education

1. Through the brief history of extension work, general principles of education have been applied and tested. Some of these which have been found to have more or less general application in most sections of the United States are here briefly described.

   a. Principle of Cultural Differences. Different cultures require different approaches.

   b. Principle of Cultural Change. With its growth and development extension has changed to meet cultural changes among the people.

   c. Principle of Cooperation. The basis for its operation is the cooperative agreements made between the U.S. Department of Agriculture, the State Agricultural Colleges, the County Governments, and the rural people themselves.

   d. Grass-rrots Principle of Organization. Groups of rural

people in local communities sponsor extension work.

e. Principle of Interests and Needs. Extension work is a system of voluntary education. Beginning with them (the rural people), with their experience and their customs, the local extension worker helps them to change their ways in desirable directions.

f. Participation Principle. Learning by doing.

g. Adaptability Principle in the Use of Teaching Methods. No one teaching method is effective under all situations. The use of teaching methods must have flexibility.

h. Leadership Principle. Training of voluntary leaders in the work they do is essential to good extension work and is done by the county agents and the subject matter specialists from the college.

i. Principle of Trained Specialists. They are the connecting link between research and practice.

j. Satisfaction Principle. As rural families observe satisfactory results of extension work, they look to it for more help.

k. Whole-family Principle. Although extension work among (a family) farmers, farm women, and young people appears to be separate at first glance, there is much overlapping and integration in the family approach of extension work.

l. Evaluation Principle. It is necessary to determine the teacing results in an unbiased way. The results are used to improve procedures before they are carried out on a wider scale.

m. Principle of Applied Science and Democracy. Freedom of thought and the unbiased objective approach of the scientist establish facts used in the solution of problems.[12]

2. The Report of the Thirty-third Annual Extension Conference in Colorado 1947 gives the following additional characteristics of program planning:

a. It is based on the needs of the people.
b. It is comprehensive in scope.
c. It is flexible.
d. It is an educational process.
e. It starts where people are.
f. It requires capable local leadership.
g. It makes use of technical and research information.
h. It seeks maximum local participation in the effort to help people help themselves.[13]

3. There are four great principles upon which the Extension Service (U.S.) proceeds; namely, 1) the citizen is the sovereign in the democracy, 2) the home is the fundamental unit of civilization, 3) the family is the first training group of the human race, and 4) the average farm is endowed with great resources and facilities.[14]

Community Development

1. (A cultural anthropologist suggests that examination of technological development programs of the past 20 years reveals certain empirically derived principles which have stood the test of time and which, if followed in setting the limits of community development programs will greatly increase the chances of success.)

   a. Know the culture in which work is to be done.
   b. Select the site of operations with extreme care.
   c. Pay first attention to the selection of the program staff.
   d. Regardless of long-range hopes, start with a simple project that shows obvious results in a short time.
   e. Take advantage of the pragmatic nature of people.
   f. Don't ask people to do anything they fear may threaten their already narrow margin of material security.
   g. Think in terms of the economic and social potential of the community — not in terms of an ideal program.
   h. Aim at integrated, broad programs. [17]

2. Three principles which seem to be intimately related to community development wherever it is operating efficiently are:

   a. All aspects of improvement must be dealt with simultaneously.
   b. The people of the community must be involved in the program from the very beginning.
   c. The basic problem of increasing village living standards is educational in character. [18]

3. a. Community development must start at the point where people consider their own individual and community needs and methods of solution.

b. Community development involves the recognition by individuals and communities that they can help themselves in the solution of their problems. (This involves recognition that they can help themselves regardless of the economic or social situation in which they find themselves.)

c. Community development involves an understanding by individuals and communities of the source and use of technical services within and without its community.

d. An outside group must demonstrate from the beginning its genuine desire to secure the full participation of the group it seeks to stimulate into self-help and ultimately to transfer its responsibility to the group.
(The Director of the mission in Egypt said that the single greatest problem was that for so long the villagers had been imposed upon that they could not believe people were extending a hand to help.)

e. There must be mutual understanding and acceptance of the role of the helper and helpee. (This is a two-way street. If they both do not understand, the process does not function.)

f. The community development process can initiate with any group.

g. In assessing total needs within an individual area, assistance often is required by the people concerned to give them an informed basis by which to judge priority needs in the light of resources available to them.

h. In so far as existing institutions will serve the purposes, they should be used rather than creating new ones. (This is particularly important in underdeveloped countries with limited resources.)

i. Existing social and educational institutions can greatly facilitate the process of community development by utilizing their resources for instruction, service and research in the solution of community development problems.

j. To insure common understanding of the principles and practice of community development, there must be an adequate training program.

k. Governments can greatly facilitate the possibilities of community development by erecting an appropriate legal, administrative and financial structure and by providing a continuity of leadership.
(This was so clearly demonstrated in two countires. In one it was done with great care and skill, and in the other no attention was given to it at all.)

l. Community development is greatly facilitated by the degree of understanding and support it receives on the part of those in positions of responsibility and authority at all levels.

m. There must be an effective planning and coordinating unit independent of any functional service to insure that all the disciplines involved, i.e., agriculture, education, welfare, health, make a balanced contribution to the program.

n. The growth and spread of community development is directly affected by the successful use made of all forms of communication with the people who are and should be concerned in the process.

o. Community development is greatly affected by the quality of the personnel recruited and selected for its operations. Adequate compensation and recognition must be made a part of any effective system of selection.

p. There is an inherent danger to the processes of community development where the officials involved have both coercive and educational responsibilities. (We could cite a number of instances such as in India where in some states the Collector of Revenue is also the Development Commissioner.)

q. The effectiveness of community development is dependent in large part upon the degree to which it involves the family in its processes. This is particularly true in cultures where great emphasis is placed on the family as an economic and social unit.

r. The extension of community development is directly related to the nature and vitality of the participation of all of the people involved in the process.

s. The test of the effectiveness of community development processes is reflected by the degree of change in the attitude of people as shown by changes in the way of living. This will result in a greater recognition of the dignity of the individual, participation by women and children, and a greater degree of integrity in relationships. 19

Dissimilarities or Similarities of Principles

Analyzing the differences or similarities between the principles or guides relating to extension education and community development is almost an impossible task. The major and obvious reason is that both approaches (extension education and community development) are interdisciplinary in nature. The principles of the various disciplines make up the basic principles of both approaches. Good educational principles, psycological principles and all the behavioral sciences apply. In both approaches the basic effort is educational and concerned with dealing with people, to involve them in activities to bring about desired changes.

We can also add that principles are relative and not necessarily fixed in importance or in sequence. It is true that at any given time or place we may need to adhere to certain principles. Generally, however, it is also true that all of the principles are important.

In this connection we might add the experience of the author in trying to develop a set of universal principles for Comparative Extension Education. After an extensive search, seventeed principles were formulated from the "experts of rural education". It became a useless task to keep the lists from experts in extension separate from those in community development. Some listed relatively few, others, many. The emphasis varied from individual to individual, but in the final tabulation, the 27 experts' lists ended up in seventeen separate principles. These composite principles would apply equally in either extension education program or community development programs.

We can conclude that in comparing principles there is no difference of any consequence in the overall approach when both are basically concerned with helping people help themselves.

We must be conscious, however, that in minor details and at different stages of development of programs, there are differences.

One is in the approach to the organizational development of the group that is responsible for carrying out the rural education program.

Another is in the degree of training the personnel involved in the program had or will give prior to carrying out their responsibilities.

Perhaps all we are saying is, there are no differences in the principles that apply, only in their relative importance at any given time or place. An understanding of them and their significance is more important than their strict application across the board.

CONCLUSIONS

As we look at the overall comparison of community development and extension education we immediately see that there are more similarities than dissimilarities. This is not surprising if we realize that we are talking about working with people through education in both instances. The differences come from the philosophy and organization. Perhaps we can compare this to the various factors of religion where people and their faith are basic. The differences appear in what people believe and how the church should conduct itself. Actually, on closer examination there is a great deal of similarity.

The specific differences in community development and extension education are in their respective objectives and in the form in which the job is to be done. But these differences too are only of emphasis as to what comes first. Extension education places the emphasis on the individual for improving rural conditions for all people. Community development places emphasis on the cooperative or group action for improving the rural conditions for the benefit of its individuals.

When we look at the form, it shows that extension education is a more indirect government approach to helping people help themselves. Community development, on the other hand, is a more direct government approach to involve people in helping themselves.

We can add that perhaps extension education aims at bringing about change by emphasizing decision making for change by individuals. c Community development emphasizes decision making by groups or representatives of groups.

The Two Approaches

Both want to bring about change in individual behavior. Community Development is directly tied into promotion of local units of government. It is directly concerned with developing social organizations. Extension Education is concerned with and hopes to improve social organizations, but does not attack the problem at this level.

We may also look at extension education as being more highly specialized in that it concentrates on agricultural production and home economics. It concerns itself with, but is not entirely responsible for, other areas of family welfare such as health, fundamental education, public utilities, and so forth. In these things they cooperate with other individuals and agencies who are directly responsible for the promotion and improvement of these services.

Community development, on the other hand, is directly responsible for attacking all elements of human welfare, be they agricultural production, housing, public utilities, fundamental education or credit, to name a few. In this respect we might assume that in underdeveloped areas of the world, community development may well be the first stage in helping people develop. When they begin to demand and understand how to use social organizations to promote their own welfare, specialized and more concentrated service organizations will be needed. In this second stage, one would find extension education services, health units, public utilities, credit agencies, formalized education, political groups and even additional ministries and departments.

Knowing whether there is an actual sequence of stages does not help those responsible for developing underdeveloped areas if they are already involved in extension education or community development. To be realistic, to understand the merits of and promote both approaches, is more important.

Certainly underdeveloped countries looking for "tools" to create a better atmosphere for their people cannot afford the time necessary to debate which tool is better, but must learn how to use them more effectively, and perhaps, as in India, begin to adapt the tools to different situations.

In both community development and extension education the inter-disciplinary factor is important. The social science as well as the more specific subject-matter fields have a place in the scheme of things. In fact, they are an integral part of these activities and have a direct bearing upon their success.

They are both important enough that underdeveloped countries should invite and sponsor both approaches. Care should be exercised more in preventing clashes of personalities than programs. The right atmosphere and the right individuals involved in either community development or extension education, or both, is of great importance.

Of less importance are the worry and conflict over who should be doing the job of rural development and, we might also add, who should get the credit. There will be enough credit for all — actually, the success of one will help promote the other.

REFERENCES

Extension Education

1. Kelsey, Lincoln D and Cannon C. Hearne. Cooperative Extension Work. Ithaca, N.Y. : Comstock Publishing Associates, 1955. p. 1

2. Mata, Edgar. Director, Costa Rica Extension Service. "The Extension Service in Costa Rica". (M.A. Essay, Cornell University, 1957) p. 27

3. Warburton, C.W., Director, USDA Extension Service, and R.K. Bliss, Editor. "Twenty-five Years of Extension Work Under the Act of May 8, 1914". The Spirit and Philosophy of Extension Work. USDA, 1952, p. 260.

4. Davis, P.O., Director, Alabama State Extension Service. "Extension Work, Past, Present, and Future". (Talk given at Polytechnic Institute), Alabama, 1940. p. 269.

5. Knapp, Seaman, President, Iowa State College, 1884. "Farmers Cooperative Demonstration Work". (Considered teacher and originator of this early movement and forerunner of the Agricultural Extension Service.) p. 38

6. Mosher, Arthur T., Professor, Extension Education. (Lecture to Extension Seminar) Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. 1956.

7. U.S. Department of Agriculture, FAS. Some General Principles Regarding the Initiation of Agricultural Extension Programs in Underdeveloped Areas (Mimeographed).

8. Brunner, Edmund DeS. "The Contribution of Educational Methods and Techniques Toward the Rehabilitation of War-Torn Countries". Summary of Conference. (Conference Report) Washington D.C., September, 1944. pp. 19-22.

9. Mosher, A.T. op. cit.

10. Kelsey, Lincoln D. and Cannon C. Hearne, op. cit. p. 41

11. Statement by a group of Extension Directors at the Administrative Workshop, Madison, Wisconsin, 1947.

12. Frutchey, Fred. P. Principles of Extension Teaching. Washington, D.C. (Division of Extension Research and Training), USDA, Federal Extension Service.

13. Jans, Fred C., Field Agent, U.S. Extension Service. "Extension Looks at Program Planning". Extension Service Circular Nº 478, USDA, 1952.

14. Martin, O.B., Director, Texas State Extension Service, and R.K. Bliss, Editor. "The Spirit and Philosophy of Extension Work". The Foundation of Extension Work. Washington D.C., 1952. p. 129

Community Development

1. Community Development Seminar. (Mimeographed Report) Washington D.C., 1949.

2. Social Progress Through Community Development. U.N., E/CN, 5/303/Rev. 1 St./SOA/26, November 1955. p. 6

3. Taylor, C.C., Critical Analysis of Indian Community Development Progress (Mimeographed Report) June 1954. p. 3

4. Community Development Bulletin, Nº 2 "How of Community Development". (ICA Publication) September 1956. p. 67

5. Ensminger, Douglas, Ford Foundation Representative to India. "A Guide to Community Development". New Delhi, India, 1957. p. 2

6. Miniclier, Louis, Chief, Community Development Division, ICA.

7. Batten, T.R. "Group Work and Community Development" Community Development Review. ICA Nº 5, June 1957, p. 5

8. Badeau, John S., President, N.E. Foundation. (An Address Given at the Community Development Conference, Bangkok, Thailand) March 1956.

9. Ibid.

10. Public Health Division. "Interchange of Ideas and Information". ICA Health Summary. March 1956

11. Karve, D.G. "Cooperation and Community Development" Kurukshetra. (Anniversary Number) October 1957.

12. Witte, Earnest F., Director, Council on Social Work Education. Community Development Review. Nº 4. Washington, D.C.: Community Development Division. ICA March 1957. p. 37

13. Batten, T.R. Report of the European Seminar on the Principles and Praciteces of Group Work. Leicester, England: UNTAA/SEM/1956/ Rep. 1 July, 1956. pp. 79-88.

14. _____ "Group Work and Community Development, Review Nº 5". Washington D.C.: ICA, June 1957. p. 5

15. Badeau, John S. op. cit.

16. Turner, J. Sheldon, Social Welfare Advisor, USOM/Iraq. "Community Development in Burma".

17. Foster, George M. "Guidelines to Community Development Programs" CD-6, Public Health Reports, Vol. 70, Nº 1 Community Development, Washington D.C. : Seminar Document from Community Development Seminar.

18. Badeau, John S. op. cit.

19. Witte, Earnest F., Executive Director, Council of Social Work Education, New York, N.Y. (Report of his team's recognition of certain basic principles that guide self-help programs. Given at the Community Development Conference, ICA, U.S. Chamber of Commerce Building, Washington D.C.) Washington, D.C.. October 1955.

PREVIOUS PUBLICATIONS

Training Materials in Extension

#1 Extension Philosophy

#2 Evaluation in Extension

#3 Subject Matter Specialists in Extensión: Roles, Problems, and Adjustments

#4 Extension Organization: for Administration and for Program Development

#5 Elements that Contributed to the Success of the U.S. Cooperative Extension Service.

#6 Local Leaders in Extension

#7 A Collection of Principles and Guides.

#8 Pre-requisites to Progress in Agriculture, Land, Labor, Capital, Knowledge

#9 Coordination - The Key to Successful Extension Education Service.

#10 The United States Cooperative Extension Service.

#11 Program Building, part of the Process of Extension

ICA/EE/218/62

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

Nº 13

AGRARIAN REFORM AND EXTENSION EDUCATION

By

JOSEPH DI FRANCO
Extensionist

(Published in English and Spanish)

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

For additional copies of this and other booklets and pamphlets from Regional Services in Extension, please contact U.S. Operations Mission headquarters, or write to:

Department of Economics and Extension
Tropical Center for Research and Graduate Training
Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the O.A.S.
Turrialba, Costa Rica

This publication was prepared under the provisions of the Contract between the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the Organization of American States (O.A.S.) and the Institute of Inter-American Affairs of the Agency for International Development (A.I.D.) of the United States Government.

Turrialba, Costa Rica
April, 1963

AGRARIAN REFORM AND EXTENSION EDUCATION

- Joseph Di Franco -

-o-

Much has been said and more will be said about the need and importance of ways and means of bringing about Agrarian Reform.

Agrarian Reform is too often thought of as land reform. Naturally, land is a basic ingredient in any agricultural process. Unfortunately, too often land reform becomes an end in itself and not a means by which necessary changes are made. In fact, too many of use become so enthusiastically in love with the idea of land reform that we forget the past and future in trying to work out today's problems.

The problems of redistribution of land and reforms necessary to make for maximum production and efficient use of land and labor have been with us throughout history. One of the major reasons for war has been that of acquiring more land and resources. Very few nations in modern times have really solved the dilemma of living within man-made national boundaries as populations increase.

Redistribution of land is only one of a series of reforms necessary to bring about a better balance between man and the natural resources available. However, land and people are the most visible elements; therefore, it is easy to fall into the idea that what is needed is a law and scheme to move people, re-allocate land by re-dividing and aportioning it. Immediately it becomes obvious that there is not enought land and too many people. Of course this was the original problem, but in the pressure of time and with the miracle of laws it was forgotten until the actual action of moving people started.

At this point those responsible for making "land reform" a success became more concerned with executing the ideas rather than thinking of people. As the situation gets worse, leaders become frustrated and resort to the old adage that you can't please all the people and that most people don't know what is good for them anyway. This leads to actions by force and, of course, eventually political and social changes are necessary to "satisfy" the people. Of such things revolutions are born, political schemes are developed and autocratic governments come into power.

This has happened many times over and yet we have not found a better approach to agricultural reform. It is my opinion that most agrarian reform programs fail because not enough attention is given to the other most important ingredient in the agricultural processes: people. Oh, yes, the immediate reaction is that this is not true. Isn't the whole idea to improve the situation for the people, especially rural families? Isn't this the main focus of the need and concern for agrarian reform? Of course it is. But it is my contention that after we pass the initial stage of stating why we need reforms the people are forgotten in the planning, development and operation of the reform program.

I think there is sufficient evidence to bear this out in the high percentage of failures.

It is not my intention to propose reform plans. It is my intention to draw attention to the people and how they can help in the problems that confront them as well as their political leaders. In fact, it is very obvious that before we can have agrarian reform it is necessary to have people reform. Or to say it another way, before we can bring about successful changes in agriculture we need to bring about changes in people. Professors would say it still another way: before we can bring about family and national welfare we must bring about economic, social and political changes. Of course, here again we get into a dilemma as to which one first; common sense dictates that we need changes in all aspects of human endeavor at the same time.

But how do we accomplish this as the world becomes more complex with exploding population, diminishing natural resources, increasing political units and more rigid man-made boundaries?

One way is through science: the development of new means of production, better seeds and livestock, use of scientific techniques and skills, more attention to maintaining and conserving natural resources.

Another way to attack the problem is through control of population: birth control and migration.

Another way is to redistribute the labor force by creating industrial machines to use labor to produce commodities needed by all and for developing an agricultural industry that produces more than it can use, therefore having food and fiber to trade for industrial products.

Another way is to create international agreements and alliances for trade; in effect this is more than trade of material goods, but a way of bridging national boundaries that prohibit movement of people by exporting (trading) labor in one country for goods in another.

But no matter what way, plan or approach is made, be it economic, social or political, they all involve people. And, unless a way is found to effectively involve the people, the results expected will only be temporary or will not be forthcoming.

The business of involving people has and is the main responsibility and objective of Extension Services. This educational institution can and must play an important role in involving people in making "reform" programs work. It is their business to change people through educational means.

If we accept the assumption that before you have economic, social, political or agrarian reforms we must have people's attitudes and opinions change, then education is an important and necessary element.

Since the reform programs deal directly with the adults, an educational organization and program must be developed for them. Extension

Education is a process that has proven successful in meeting this challenge. In fact, in some areas of the world Extension organizations are given a prominent place in developmental programs and projects. The prestige of Extension in the United States is based upon the fact that it is recognized as being a contributing factor to rural reforms and agrarian successes. It is also a major means through which people are educated to the facts necessary to changing them so that they become interested to the point of involvement in the planning, development and executing of the economic, social, political and agrarian reforms. Thus we have a partnership of the masses of people working with their economic, social and political leaders to develop and execute national programs aimed at solving problems. This is done through educational processes. Extension is one of these processes.

---ooOoo---

Previous Publications

TRAINING MATERIALS IN EXTENSION

No. 1 - Extension philosophy

2 - Evaluation in Extension

3 - Subject matter specialists in Extension: Roles, problems and adjustments

4 - Extension organization: For administration and for program development

5 - Elements that contributed to the success of the United States Cooperative Extension Service

6 - Local leaders in Extension

7 - A collection of principles and guides

8 - Pre-requisites to progress in agriculture: Land, labor, capital, knowledge

9 - Coordination: The key to successful Extension Education Service

10 - The United States Cooperative Extension Service

11 - Program building: Part of the process of Extension

12 - Differences between Extension Education and Community Development

---ooOoo---

AID/EE/238/63

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

TRADUCCION Nº 14

LA NATURALEZA DE EXTENSION

"Cambiar a la Gente"

por

JOSEPH DI FRANCO
Extensionista

(Publicado en Español e Inglés)

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

Pueden solicitarse copias adicionales de esta publicación, dirigiéndose a la Misión de Operaciones de los Estados Unidos de Norteamerica (Punto 4) en cada país, o escribiendo a

Economía y Ciencias Sociales
Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la O.E.A.
Turrialba, Costa Rica

Esta publicación ha sido preparada de acuerdo con el contrato firmado entre el Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la Organización de Estados Americanos (O.E.A.) y el Instituto de Asuntos Interamericanos de la Agencia de Desarrollo Internacional (A.I.D.) de los Estados Unidos de America.

Turrialba, Costa Rica

Septiembre, 1963

LA NATURALEZA DE EXTENSION

"Cambiar a la gente"

- Joseph Di Franco -

Uno de los objetivos de extensión agrícola es lograr cambios en la gente. Cuando se adoptan nuevas prácticas agrícolas y se aprenden nuevas destrezas, y se ponen en práctica, se puede decir que la finalidad de ayudar a la gente se ha logrado. Muy a menudo, sin embargo, muchos extensionistas no se dan cuenta de que antes de que una práctica o destreza se aprenda, la gente misma debe cambiar. Debe tener nuevas actitudes. En consecuencia, deben efectuarse cambios dentro del individuo mismo que le permitan aprenden o adoptar una nueva práctica.

Muchas veces las personas que enseñan ponen demasiado énfasis en las destrezas y prácticas que ellos desean que adopte la gente. Saben que los nuevos conocimientos son importantes ya que mediante ellos la gente va a aumentar sus ingresos, a mejorar su nivel de vida, o a contribuir más a la sociedad. Sin embargo, los instructores se sorprenden cuando la gente no adopta estas nuevas prácticas que les serían beneficiosas. Cuando esto ocurre es por que el personal de extensión no ha logrado primero los cambios necesarios dentro del propio individuo. Aquí es donde se hace necesario el maestro, el agante rural, u otro agente de cambio, cuyo adiestramiento comprende dos aspectos: (1) adiestramiento para saber trabajar con la gente a fin de lograr los cambios necesarios dentro del individuo; (2) conocimiento de la tecnología, las prácticas y las destrezas que él espera que adopte la gente. De los dos aspectos el primero es el más importante.

La tarea primordial del maestro es saber trabajar con la gente y ayudarla. El segundo aspecto puede ser complementado contando con la ayuda de otros técnicos y expertos. Si el maestro es experto en el primer aspecto, importa poco si él mismo da las demostraciones o bien ocupa a otros para darlas.

Los educadores de extensión también deben ser expertos en trabajar con la gente. Este requiere un adiestramiento especial el cual demuestra por sí mismo que la educación de extensión no puede llevarla a cabo cualquier persona. Así como la agricultura no es tan fácil como se ve, la extensión agrícola es más difícil de lo que parece.

En Latinoamérica se está desarrollando un grupo especializado de educadores de adultos que emplea el proceso educativo de extensión. Se les llama a estos individuos "extensionistas", o "Agentes de extensión". Todos los países tienen ahora algún tipo de programa nacional o estatal que dispone de agentes de extensión que son responsables de la educación de adultos que habitan las zonas rurales. Esta educación de adultos rurales no tiene que ver nada con la escuela regular ya que su participación es puramente voluntaria. Sus 50 años de existir en el Hemisferio Occidental es realmente una historia singular. No requiere ser repetida aquí. Basta con decir que es el movimiento individual de educación de adultos más grande del mundo. La mayoría de los países están tratando de poner en práctica un programa de educación para adultos rurales. De todas partes se reciben solicitudes para el envío de consejeros, consultores, demostradores, etc., que pueden ayudar a promover tales programas. Los Estados Unidos, que son líderes en este campo, proveen la mayoría de este liderazgo. Aunque en Latinoamérica se está desarrollando

un buen cuerpo de extensionista expertos bien adiestrados, el suministro no es aún lo suficientemente adecuado para llenar la demanda.

Desde que la extensión agrícola ha demostrado su éxito en los Estados Unidos, muchos extensionistas latinoamericanos han tratado de adoptar o adaptar algunos de los conceptos y principios desarrollados por el Servicio de Extensión de los Estados Unidos. Pero aunque esto parezca simple, las dificultades de seguir esos conceptos y principios han sido demasiado grandes al ponerlos en práctica. Algunos administradores de extensión y otros, han cambiado la organización, esperando poder llevar a cabo la labor. Muchos han abandonado los programas originales y han comenzado de nuevo con pequeños proyectos experimentales.

En todos los casos, se ha hecho evidente que el mayor tropiezo se debe a la falta de personal debidamente adiestrado. No se ha puesto el debido énfasis en un adiestramiento adecuado. Se han probado desesperadamente toda clase de métodos para adiestrar a la gente en el trabajo de extensión pero este esfuerzo ha sido muy pequeño y muy rápido. En la mayoría de los casos ya existen expertos agrícolas y con conocimientos técnicos que pueden ser transferidos a los agricultores para que aumenten su producción. No es la falta de tecnología agrícola pues, el factor limitante, sino la falta de gente adiestrada en las destrezas de la enseñanza. Debe darse énfasis en este aspecto a fin de lograr éxito en los esfuerzos educacionales de extensión agrícola. Hasta que no exista equilibrio en el adiestramiento de extensión, la mayoría de los programas no podrán tener éxito.

Los principios básicos de extensión y educación deben ser comprendidos, tanto por los administradores de los programas, como por los agentes que son los que los llevan a cabo. Esto significa que todo el personal, desde los administradores, hasta los agentes de extensión, deben adiestrarse debidamente. La educación de extensión requiere de "expertos". Expertos en educación de adultos, en todos los niveles. La educación de extensión, parte del proceso de extensión, está creando un nuevo grupo profesional que será cada día más prominente.

La posición, éxito y adelanto de la educación de extensión en Latinoamérica depende de aquellos que son responsables de la misma. Todos los que estén dentro de ella deben actuar y pensar como profesionales, ya que deben ser profesionales si esperan contribuir a su desarrollo. Este desarrollo significa que la población rural, en todas partes, se beneficiará con los maestros extensionistas que saben trabajar con y por la gente a la que sirven, que le ayudan a cambiar las destrezas y prácticas de su vocación, sus aspiraciones, sus creencias y las actitudes hacia su vocación y su modo de vida. Este es un reto tremendo y una gran responsabilidad que se plantea a los que laboran en extensión agrícola.

PUBLICACIONES ANTERIORES

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN EXTENSION

Nº 1 - Filosofía de Extensión

2 - Evaluación de Extensión

3 - El Especialista en el Servicio de Extensión: Su papel, sus problemas y su adaptación

4 - Organización de Extensión - Para administración y para desarrollo del programa

5 - Elementos que contribuyen al éxito del Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos

6 - Los Líderes Locales en las Labores de Extensión

7 - Un Conjunto de Principios y Guias

8 - Premequisitos para el Progreso de la Agricultura: Tierra, Capital, Trabajo y Conocimiento

9 - Coordinación - Llave del éxito de un servicio de Extensión Educativa

10 - El Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión en los Estados Unidos

11 - Programación: Parte del Proceso de Extensión

12 - Diferencias entre Extensión y Desarrollo de la Comunidad.

13 - Reforma Agraria y Educación de Extensión

AID/EE/250/63

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

EE/31-63
TRADUCCION Nº 15

ENSEÑANZA versus APRENDIZAJE

por

JOSEPH DI FRANCO
Extensionista

(Publicado en Español e Inglés)

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

ENSEÑANZA versus APRENDIZAJE

- Joseph Di Franco -

Todos los que estamos dedicados a la enseñanza hemos aceptado una responsabilidad que por su naturaleza, nos hace inmiscuirnos en la vida de otras personas. En todos los países se han creado leyes para proteger a la gente de la intromisión de los demás. Existen multas y castigos para los que cometen esta clase de interferencia. Sin embargo, a los maestros se les permite inmiscuirse, no sólo en la vida de los adultos, sino tambien en la de los niños. Por supuesto, que este tipo de intromisión tiene un propósito benéfico. Aceptamos este papel que desempeña el maestro como algo que da una utilidad positiva. De no ser así, existirían reglamentos contra esto.

Pero nosotros, como maestros, ¿comprendemos realmente nuestro papel de interferencia, beneficio y responsabilidad? En mi caso debo admitir que no había reparado mucho en todo esto, aunque sí, había aceptado los aplausos que se le suelen rendir a la profesión. En la mayoría de los casos creo que los maestros consideran la enseñanza como un trabajo que requiere cierto esfuerzo necesario para justificar el salario que devengan. Esfuerzo para ser puntuales, para presentarse en un lugar determinado, para cumplir detalles administrativos, para hacer los informes que se les pidan y para asistir a un mínimo de actos sociales, necesarios a la posición, a la organización y a la comunidad, Además, hay clases rutinarias que atender, ciertos deberes y actividades necesarias para completar el programa de enseñanza del año. Pero ¿dónde estaba el proceso de aprendizaje en todo esto? Aprendieron verdaderamente nuestros estudiantes, o juzgamos la calidad de nuestra enseñanza por el número

de reuniones efectuadas, los discursos que hicimos, la cantidad de capítulos que cubrimos de un libro, o el número de días que hemos enseñado?. ¿Logramos algún cambio beneficioso en la mente de nuestros pupilos o dimos por sentado que ese cambio se operó al completarse el programa o proyecto en que estamos laborando?

Creo que se hace necesario comenzar por el principio y darnos cuenta cabal de la misión que representa ser maestro cuyo fin es producir cambios beneficiosos en la gente, o como también se suele expresar, "ayudar a la gente a aprender".

El Proceso de Aprendizaje

Se ha hablado mucho del proceso de aprendizaje, llegándose siempre a la conclusión de que éste tiene lugar en el aprendiz. Pero antes de que una persona pueda aprender debe:

1. Notar algo
2. Desear algo
3. Hacer algo
4. Conseguir algo

Expresando esto en otras palabras, podríamos decir que los pasos que se deben seguir en el proceso de aprendizaje incluye:

1. Conciencia
2. Necesidad
3. Acción
4. Satisfacción

Todo buen maestro toma en consideración cada uno de estos pasos. Sin embargo, la fórmula no es del todo precisa, como tampoco todas las situaciones que se presentan en la enseñanza son iguales.

Pero a pesar del tiempo, del lugar y las personas que toman parte, el aprendizaje no ocurre si el estudiante no experimenta esas fases.

Los agentes de extensión, o maestros que trabajan con adultos, tiene los mismos problemas. Deben poner mayor esfuerzo en su trabajo de enseñanza ya que lo hacen dentro de un proceso educativo que no es compulsorio e incluye estudiantes o participantes voluntarios. En extensión, el objetivo que se persigue es lograr cambios en el individuo. Pero antes de que una nueva destreza, práctica o idea sea aceptada, deben antes rechazarse destrezas, prácticas o ideas antiguas.

Las prácticas e ideas viejas deben pues ser reemplazadas por nuevas. Por ello debe ser convincente el énfasis que se pone en la motivación del individuo a fin de que éste actúe en la forma que deseamos. Una vez motivado, estará mejor dispuesto a actuar. El agente de extensión podrá tener éxito solamente cuando haya logrado esto. Debemos admitir que extensión pone todos sus esfuerzos por motivar a la gente, pero desdichadamente muchos extensionistas se detienen una vez que han llegado a este punto. A menos de que el individuo experimente satisfacción como resultado de sus nuevas actividades, no podrá el extensionista afirmar que ha tenido éxito. Existe aún el peligro de que el individuo rechace la nueva idea, destreza o práctica y retorne a los procedimientos antiguos. En otras palabras, puede haber ocurrido la enseñanza, pero no el

aprendizaje. Para que la enseñanza tenga el éxito deseado, el individuo debe experimentar un cambio permanente. No es suficiente que el maestro se dé por satisfecho con sólo presentar los conocimientos; debe preparar a sus pupilos de manera que noten algo, quieran algo, hagan algo, actúen y obtengan satisfacción personel en ello.

El maestro tiene que desempeñar dos papeles definidos:

1. Preparar al que enseña, y
2. Presentar conocimientos.

Muy a menudo los maestros fallan en la ejecución de uno y otro. Los fracasos en la enseñanza casi siempre se deben a que el maestro no toma en cuenta a los estudiantes o no está seguro de los hechos que presenta (conocimientos).

En el proceso de la enseñanza los agentes de extensión tienen una mayor responsabilidad ya que deben vivir junto a sus "estudiantes".

El futuro del agente depende del éxito que tengan aquellos que aprendieron con él, no en lo bien que él crea haberles enseñado.

Los educadores de extensión necesitan estudiar y hacerse diestros en el arte de la enseñanza. Esto es, en el arte de preparar a la gente y de presentar los conocimientos en tal forma que puedan ser aprendidos. Sin embargo, no deben concentrar toda su atención en el arte de la enseñanza si al hacerlo se descuida el objetivo principal: que solamente la gente que experimenta cambios deseables y permanente en su forma de vida, son los que realmente han aprendido algo.

Publicaciones anteriores

1. Filosofía de Extensión
2. Evaluación de Extensión
3. El Especialista en el Servicio de Extensión: Su papel, sus problemas y su adaptación
4. Organización de Extensión - Para administración y para desarrollo del programa
5. Elementos que contribuyen al Exito del Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos
6. Los líderes locales en las labores de Extensión
7. Un conjunto de principios y guías
8. Prerrequisitos para el progreso de la agricultura: Tierra, Capital, Trabajo y Conocimientos
9. Coordinación: La llave del éxito de un servicio de Extensión Educativa
10. El Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos
11. Programación: Parte del Proceso de Extensión
12. Diferencias entre Extensión y Desarrollo de la Comunidad
13. Reforma agraria y Educación de Extensión
14. La Naturaleza de Extensión - Cambiar a la gente

AID/EE/253/63

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

EE-2/64 Nº 16

TRADUCCION FEB. 1965

COMO ORGANIZAR A LA JUVENTUD RURAL EN EXTENSION

por

JOSEPH DI FRANCO
Extensionista

(Publicado en Español e Inglés)

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

Pueden solicitarse copias adicionales de este publicación, dirigiéndose a la Misión de Operaciones de los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica (Punto 4) en cada país, o escribiendo a:

Economía y Ciencias Sociales
Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la O.E.A.
Turrialba, Costa Rica

Esta publicación ha sido preparada de acuerdo con el contrato firmado entre el Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la Organización de Estados Americanos (O.E.A.) y el Instituto de Asuntos Interamericanos de la Agencia de Desarrollo Internacional (A.I.D.) de los Estados Unidos de América.

Turrialba, Costa Rica
Junio, 1964

COMO ORGANIZAR A LA JUVENTUD RURAL EN EXTENSION

-Joseph Di Franco-

Uno de los principales movimientos que tienen lugar en América Latina es la expansión y el interés creciente en labores de clubes juveniles rurales. En la última década se han organizado muchos clubes. Se esta pidiendo al personal nacional de extensión que dedique más y más tiempo al trabajo con jóvenes rurales. De hecho, muchos países tienen ahora Comités Nacionales de Clubes Juveniles Rurales para respaldar la labor de estas organizaciones juveniles.

Siempre que tiene lugar un crecimiento rápido se presentan ciertos problemas que a menudo tienden a demorar el movimiento. Uno de estos problemas, en el trabajo con la juventud, es la necesidad de obtener líderes locales y adiestrar a personas para que sean líderes y al personal de extensión para que hagan uso de estos líderes.

Todos conocemos las razones que existen para hacer uso de líderes locales. Es obvio que un agente puede ampliar sus servicios trabajando con líderes cooperadores. Sin esta ayuda, el agente de extensión se ve limitado en lo que pueda hacer en cuanto a trabajo de clubes. Contando con líderes, no hay limitación verdadera. Esto significa que es necesario adiestrar líderes para que ayuden al agente de extensión a dirigir las actividades juveniles. Está de más decir que también el extensionista debe ser adiestrado para que trabaje a través de y con líderes locales.[1] En América Latina, por supuesto, no hay suficientes personas que hayan tenido experiencia con el trabajo de clubes juveniles rurales o que entiendan el papel que desempeña un líder de club juvenil rural. Quizás esto constituye un problema menor dentro de 10 años, a medida que los socios de clubes juveniles se hagan adultos y se

---

1: Véase Material de Enseñanza en Extensión, # 6 "Los líderes locales en las labores de Extensión" para mayor explicación sobre líderes rurales.

conviertan en líderes. En la actualidad, sin embargo, la mayoría de los líderes disponibles son personas sin adiestramiento y sin experiencia.

Con respecto a socios, contamos con los niños y jóvenes elegibles, dispuestos y capaces, con un poco de estímulo, de participar en trabajo de clubes juveniles rurales. Es injusto, sin embargo, organizar clubes sin seguridad suficiente de contar con líderes. Como hemos dicho, los agentes de extensión se ven limitados en sus esfuerzos si no cuentan con otros que les ayuden. En otras palabras, es necesario organizar a los adultos de una comunidad antes de organizar a los jóvenes.

Demasiados agentes han organizado clubes que funcionan muy bien únicamente mientras cuentan con el liderazgo personal de un adulto. Podemos preguntar, "Es justo esto para otras comunidades y otros niños que no pueden disponer de este servicio personal?"

Pero, cómo podemos movilizar líderes para la juventud? El proceso involucra la organización tanto de los adultos como de los jóvenes de una comunidad. Todos sabemos que sin apoyo de la comunidad es imposible organizar clubes. De manera que el primer paso es hacer del conocimiento de la comunidad los fines, beneficios, objetivos, etc., del interés de extensión en la juventud. Los dirigentes comunales y los adultos deben comprender y saber qué es el trabajo de clubes antes de lograr que permitan a sus hijos participar en él. Es en este punto donde el agente debe hacer hincapié en las necesidades de contar con asistentes (líderes) y explicar cómo trabajará a través

de ellos. Naturalmente el agente guiará, ayudará y adiestrará a estas personas para que sean líderes eficaces; sin líderes no pueden existir clubes.

Después de informar a la comunidad y obtener reacción favorable de los líderes comunales, es necesario encontrar adultos o jóvenes mayores interesados en ayudar en la labor de clubes. Estos "líderes" deben también ser personas aceptables a la comunidad. El agente de extensión debe entonces trabajar con estos "voluntarios" para asegurar que comprendan lo que se espera de ellos.

Cuando el agente y un líder se ponen de acuerdo, es hora de que el líder busque a los jóvenes, los interese en la labor de clubes y organice el grupo. El club pertenece a la comunidad y no a extensión. Siempre debe estar orientado hacia la comunidad. De esta manera, la responsabilidad es compartida por el servicio de extensión y la comunidad. Que el liderazgo local sea parte de la comunidad también contribuye a que sea fácil mantener la responsabilidad en la comunidad y obtener su apoyo. Si un club fracasa, no necesariamente refleja un fracaso de extensión, ya que el agente de extensión puede volver a organizar el trabajo con los jóvenes rurales a través de otro líder. Como a menudo ocurre, si el agente es la única persona responsable, el club decaerá cuando sea trasladado el agente.

El énfasis debe recaer en la organización de los adultos para asegurar el éxito del trabajo de extensión con la juventud. El crédito del éxito que obtengan las actividades juveniles auspiciadas por la comunidad, pertenece a ésta (naturalmente, el servicio de extensión compartirá este éxito). A medida que la comunidad gana en prestigio,

se harán mayores demandas al servicio de extensión pero también será posible compartir más ampliamente las responsabilidades con los adultos de la comunidad.

El principio de extensión que dice "Ayudar a la gente a ayudarse a sí misma", también se aplica al trabajo de clubes juveniles rurales, en forma natural, porque el trabajo con clubes juveniles rurales es parte del proceso de extensión.

Paso para el Desarrollo de Clubes Juveniles

1. El agente debe obtener el respaldo de la comunidad.
2. Atraer a los adultos que estén interesados,
3. Educar a los adultos en cuanto a su responsabilidad como líderes .
4. Lograr que los líderes atraigan a los jóvenes y padres de éstos que se interesen en el trabajo de clubes.
5. Educar a los jóvenes sobre los fines, objetivos, y ventajas del trabajo de clubes.
6. Que los adultos líderes organicen los clubes.
7. Que los adultos líderes, con ayuda de los agentes de extensión, desarrollen programas juveniles.
8. Implementar el programa juvenil.
9. Mantener informada a la comunidad sobre el programa, los logros y los éxitos de los clubes.
10. Solicitar recursos adicionales necesarios para el programa juvenil pero únicamente según los jóvenes y los adultos progresen con el programa.
11. Extender el programa juvenil rural a medida que se adiestren más líderes y que los líderes estén mejor adiestrados.

Publicaciones Anteriores

1. Filosofía de Extensión
2. Evaluación de Extensión
3. El Especialista en el Servicio de Extensión: su papel, sus problemas y su adaptación
4. Organización de Extensión - para administración y para desarrollo del programa
5. Elementos que contribuyen al éxito del Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos
6. Los líderes locales en las labores de Extensión
7.
7. Un conjunto de principios y guías
8. Prerequisitos para el progreso de la agricultura; Tierra, Capital, Trabajo y Conocimientos.
9. Coordinación: La llave del éxito de un servicio de Extensión Educativa.
10. El Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos
11. Programación: Parte del proceso de Extensión
12. Diferencias entre Extensión y Desarrollo de la Comunidad
13. Reforma agraria y Eduación de Extensión
14. La Naturaleza de Extensión - Cambiar a la gente
15. Enseñanza vs. Aprendizaje
16. Como Organizar a la Juventud Rural en Extensión

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

EE-1/65 Nº 18

TRADUCCION

RESPONSABILIDADES DE ADULTOS ANTE LA JUVENTUD

por

JOSEPH DI FRANCO

EXTENSIONISTA

(Publicado en Español e Inglés)

DEPARTAMENTO DE ECONOMIA Y EXTENSION
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica.

Pueden solicitarse copias adicionales de esta publicación dirigiéndose a la Misión de Operaciones de los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica (Punto IV) en cada país, o escribiendo a:

ECONOMIA Y CIENCIAS SOCIALES
Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la O.E.A.
Turrialba, Costa Rica

Esta publicación ha sido preparada de acuerdo con el contrato firmado entre el Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la Organización de Estados Americanos (O.E.A.) y el Instituto de Asuntos Interamericanos de la Agencia de Desarrollo Internacional (A.I.D) de los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica.

Turrialba, Costa Rica
Enero, 1965

RESPONSABILIDADES DE ADULTOS ANTE LA JUVENTUD

by

Joseph Di Franco

Sociólogos, Psicólogos, Educadores, Líderes Juveniles así como Jueces de Tribunales Juveniles y algunos padres de familia comprenden que la juventud necesita mucho más en la vida que las necesidades básicas de alimentación, vestuario y abrigo. Desafortunadamente no podemos decir que hemos encontrado esas necesidades fundamentales para todos los jóvenes de todos los lugares. No obstante, en muchos lugares del mundo en donde se les provee de alimentos, vestuario y abrigo adecuado, estamos flaqueando gravemente al ver que en este mundo moderno y avanzado la juventud está recibiendo atención en otras necesidades básicas. Como un ejemplo de nuestro fracaso en la interpretación de las necesidades básicas de la juventud, no tenemos sino que fijarnos en el aumento de delincuentes juveniles en países como Gran Bretaña y los Estados Unidos. Es en estas áreas adicionales de necesidades básicas, en donde estamos fallando.

Cuáles son estas necesidades básicas? Antes de mencionarlas, es importante que mencionemos algunos hechos fundamentales.

Debemos recordar que en este mundo el ser humano es una criatura superior. Actualmente es superior sólo por una razón y ésta es por que hemos sido dotados de una capacidad especial de poder asimilar los conocimientos y darles una aplicación útil. Esta habilidad nos distingue de todos los demás seres vivientes de la tierra. Pero es únicamente cuando usamos esta habilidad, lo que nos hace sentir que hemos sido criados a un nivel superior que el de los animales. Por consiguiente, si hemos de permanecer superiores a ellos, debemos de emplear esta habilidad. Este aspecto mental y espiritual de la persona requiere tanta subsistencia como el aspecto físico. "No solamente de pan vive el hombre"; esta es una verdad fundamental y vuelvo a repetir, que esta es la razón por la cual los seres humanos son distintos a todas las otras criaturas de Dios. Por lo tanto, reconozcamos estas necesidades y hagamos algo por ellas.

El interés desarrollado y las investigaciones sobre la relación del hombre con su medio y con aquellos que han estado interesados en analizar las relaciones básicas de los seres humanos, resultó en el desarrollo de las Ciencias Sociales. Los científicos sociales han identificado necesidades sociales y básicas que son tan importantes como las necesidades físicas. Estas necesidades sociales básicas son las siguientes:

a) La necesidad de pertenecer a un grupo

b) La necesidad de ser reconocido como un individuo dentro del grupo

c) La necesidad de realizar algo

d) La necesidad de tomar parte en alguna actividad

e) La necesidad de seguridad

Pueden ser explicadas de otra manera; el hombre necesita de:

a) Compañía

b) Liderazgo

c) Disciplina

d) Logros

e) Reconocimiento

f) Acción

La opinión del autor (asi como de muchos otros) es que la juventud de hoy encontrará un camino para satisfacer estas necesidades básicas sociales de una u otra forma; por ejemplo, la delincuencia es el resultado desafortunado de un camino torcido.

En el pasado, la mayor parte de la juventud satisfizo estas necesidades dentro de los grupos familiares. Los grupos familiares estuvieron bastante ayudados en esto, por las clases y grupos de la comunidad. Las sociedades se han desarrollado y la civilización moderna ha evolucionado debido a que gradualmente el hombre ha ido satisfaciendo sus necesidades físicas. Ha aprendido a dominar el medio en que vive, a producir sus propios alimentos, a adaptarse a sí mismo a áreas geográficas a pesar de los extremos que existen. Por lo tanto se establecieron centros o ciudades y gradualmente naciones y ahora estamos acercándonos al concepto de un solo mundo, mientras que las naciones se unen para dar un máximo beneficio a todos los seres.

No obstante, al quedar libres nosotros mismos de los problemas tratados y de la ansiedad y necesidad de

satisfacer las necesidades físicas, hemos creado una situación que ahora nos deja tiempo para dedicarnos a otras actividades personales y sociales. Al reducir el número de horas requeridas para proveer alimento, abrigo y vestuario nos queda tiempo "libre" para que las familias y comunidades individuales puedan dirigirse hacia otro objetivo.

No necesito detallar los cambios en patrones familiares, ni los cambios en los patrones sociales, ni tampoco las tremendas adaptaciones que se han venido llevando a cabo en las sociedades en esta época moderna. Cada cual se preocupa por manifestar estos cambios, y además de eso, casi todos nosotros estamos atrapados dentro de estos ajustes. Basta decir que estos cambios van cada vez más en aumento y por supuesto, cada miembro de la sociedad está afectado en una u otra forma. Los jóvenes y las futuras generaciones de la sociedad son aquellos que serán los más afectados. Nuestros jóvenes reflejan la sociedad actual. Nuestra preocupación es si ellos llegan a ser buenos ciudadanos. Nuestra responsabilidad por lo tanto debe ir más allá no solamente para satisfacer las necesidades básicas físicas, sino aquellas que

se refieren a las necesidades básicas sociales. Por que como se ha dicho anteriormente, se satisfacieron estas necesidades en una forma u otra.

Algunos dirán, porqué preocuparnos si ellos lo logran. Es aquí donde los adultos, padres y ciudadanos tenemos una responsabilidad. Debemos de estar seguros de que ellos recibirán la satisfacción de estas necesidades como resultado de los buenos consejos de una persona adulta. Donde falta la ayuda de adultos, la forma en que los jóvenes cumplen sus necesidades sociales, los lleva a separarse de los adultos y los hace antisociales y consecuentemente malos ciudadanos en ciertas ocasiones y hasta parásitos sociales en casos extremos.

Las necesidades básicas son aquellas mismas necesidades expresadas anteriormente, pero ya que la juventud representa a personas en crecimiento, estas necesidades son esenciales e importantes durante esta fase del desarrollo.

Necesidades Básicas de la Juventud

Compañerísmo (pertenecer - sentido de familia)

Seguridad (liderazgo - dirección)

Disciplina (premio)

Logros (contribuir)

Acción (algo para hacer)

La juventud satisfará estas necesidades de una forma u otra. Cuando hay unión entre las familias, parte de estas necesidades son satisfechas; ellos dirigen sus energías hacia actividades útiles y llegan a ser ciudadanos importantes.

Cuando los jóvenes no encuentran unión entre las familias, ellos buscan y tratan de encontrar su propia compañía. A menudo estos escapes a través de actividades independientes no siempre contribuyen a metas provechosas. Las personas jóvenes que se dejan solas encuentran malas compañías; las cuales los hacen malos ciudadanos y muy a menudo parásitos en comunidades. Por ejemplo, pandillas juveniles, no conformistas y delincuentes.

Cuando los jóvenes no tienen a nadie que los guíe ni a quien respetar, desarrollan actitudes y prácticas contrarias como una forma de protección para la propia satisfacción. Forman barreras hacia los adultos. Se niegan a recibir ayuda de sus padres, de trabajadores sociales y de voluntarios. Hacen todo lo contrario a los deseos e intereses de los adultos. Desarrollan una actitud negativa hacia la sociedad en donde no les importa nada ni nadie.

Los grupos guiados por adultos dedicados al liderazgo, satisfacen las mismas necesidades e impulsos. Buscan a los adultos y tratan de imitarlos.

Aquellos que tienen sus mentes ocupadas activamente y dirigidas constructivamente, aceptan puestos de responsabilidad en la familia, en la comunidad y en el país. Aquellos que no tienen sus mentes dirigidas constructivamente, usan medios físicos para ganar reconocimiento, individualmente o en grupo y casi nunca llegan a ser miembros responsables de su familia, de su comunidad, ni de su país.

Un grupo desea llegar a ser parte del mundo adulto. El otro trata de ignorar el mundo adulto y construírse el suyo propio. Podríamos citar algunos ejemplos para ilustrar lo dicho. En una manera general, los muchachos de campo, activamente ocupados y siendo parte de la empresa rural familiar, trabajando y viviendo juntos, llegan a ser ciudadanos aceptables. Esto se puede comparar al desarrollo de la delincuencia infantil que es el resultado de la desunión, de la independencia y de una vida familiar distinta como sucede en las grandes ciudades en donde cada miembro de la familia desarrolla su propi. interés, determina sus horas de trabajo, etc.

La organización del Club 4-H considera muchas de las empresas sociales en trabajos de grupos y desarrolla habilidades para trabajar en conjunto en una dirección constructiva. Los niños de las ciudades también buscan un grupo o compañero; pero sin guía y respaldo, ellos no pueden sino orientarse hacia pandillas, juegos destructivos o un desafío a la sociedad. Los jóvenes de la ciudad que se asocian a los "scouts" u otros grupos similares que son supervisados y con actividad planeada en grupos, satisfacen sus necesidades y las canalizan en orientaciones constructivas.

Parecería obvio a todos los adultos que se debe hacer algo más, pero parece también obvio que la actitud que se desarrolla en el hogar, determina bien pronto la dirección que el niño seguirá. Cuando fracasa el hogar, la sociedad debe hacerse cargo, pero generalmente es demasiado tarde.

Cómo podemos los adultos satisfacer este desafío? Mucho se está haciendo pero aún necesitamos más ayuda de los maestros, de los trabajadores sociales, de los líderes y de los padres. Obviamente no hemos hecho lo suficiente.

AID/299-65

Publicaciones Anteriores

1. Filosofía de Extensión
2. Evaluación de Extensión
3. El Especialista en el Servicio de Extensión: su papel, sus problemas y su adaptación
4. Organización de Extensión - para administración y para desarrollo del programa
5. Elementos que contribuyen al éxito del Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos
6. Los líderes locales en las labores de Extensión
7. Un conjunto de principios y guías
8. Prerequisitos para el progreso de la agricultura; Tierra, Capital, Trabajo y Conocimientos
9. Coordinación: La llave del éxito de un servicio de Extensión Educativa
10. El Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos
11. Programación: Parte del proceso de Extensión
12. Diferencias entre Extensión y Desarrollo de la Comunidad
13. Reforma Agraria y Educación de Extensión
14. La Naturaleza de Extensión - Cambiar a la gente
15. Enseñanza vs. Aprendizaje
16. Como Organizar a la Juventud Rural en Extensión
17. Factores que no contribuyen a la eficiencia o efectividad del trabajo de Extensión en América Latina

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

EE/2/65 Nº 19

TRADUCCION

IMPORTANCIA DE USAR A LA GENTE RURAL COMO LIDERES EN EL DESARROLLO RURAL

por

JOSEPH DI FRANCO

EXTENSIONISTA

(Publicado en Español e Inglés)

Economía y Ciencias Sociales
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica

Pueden solicitarse copias adicionales de esta publicación dirigiéndose a la Misión de Operaciones de los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica (Punto VI) en cada país, o escribiendo a:

ECONOMIA Y CIENCIAS SOCIALES
Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la O. E. A.
Centro de Enseñanza e Investigación
Turrialba, Costa Rica

Esta publicación ha sido preparada de acuerdo con el contrato firmado entre el Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la Organización de Estados Americanos (O.E.A.) y el Instituto de Asuntos Interamericano de la Agencia de Desarrollo Internacional (A.I.D.) de los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica.

Turrialba, Costa Rica
Septiembre, 1965

IMPORTANCIA DE USAR A LA GENTE RURAL COMO LIDERES EN EL DESARROLLO RURAL

Joseph Di Franco

La mayoría del personal profesional de extensión han aceptado el principio de que los líderes locales son importantes para el desarrollo rural. Parecen haber dos maneras de pensar en relación con el uso de líderes locales:

1. Extensionistas que creen que los líderes locales deben usarse principalmente como demostradores;

2. Aquellos que en forma idealista creen que los líderes locales deben en primer término ser maestros que instruyan a otros.

La mayoría de los individuos que tienen una u otra forma de pensar, sin embargo, tienen las mismas críticas generales de que los miembros de las familias rurales no están capacitados ni suficientemente educados para ser demostradores o maestros. Piensan que la tarea de demostrar y enseñar debe ser dejada a los profesionales.

Quienes piensan de esta forma están totalmente errados. Los agricultores o personas de la localidad rúral que actúan como líderes, o aquellas que por una u otra razón son escogidos

para ayudar a los agentes de extensión, pueden ser demostradores y maestros eficaces porque proceden del mismo núcleo que extensión está tratando de influir. Es un hecho que no son profesionales y esto mismo es lo que los hace ser efectivos y un medio importante los extensionistas deben usar para trasmitir conocimientos y destrezas a sus semejantes.

Cuando una comunidad es fundamentalmente analfabeta, un analfabeto puede constituirse en agente catalizador para inducir cambios. Una persona instruida debería estar en mejores condiciones de ser eficaz pero esto no siempre es cierto, aun cuando sea un individuo respetado en el grupo. Unicamente puede serlo si comprende el problema y las limitaciones de los analfabetas. El profesional, por consiguiente, debe ser capaz de realizar la labor con el material disponible. El no profesional también hace esto, pero lo hace así porque actúa en la única forma que conoce. Al actuar de esta manera, sin embargo, es mucho más convincente y eficaz con sus vecinos y familiares.

Con demasiada frecuencia, cuando un individuo adquiere mayor educación o mayores destrezas, se convierte en una persona

diferente. Se aparta un poco del grupo que desea servir. Se requieren mayores esfuerzos y habilidades para mantener una posición efectiva dentro del grupo. Un joven agricultor que va a la ciudad o a la universidad se coloca en una posición separada de sus amigos y vecinos. Cuanta mayor experiencia, tanto más profesional.

Todos hemos oído comentarios sobre el atleta o músico profesional, como por ejemplo: "Por supuesto que es bueno; practica ocho o más horas al día". "Si yo tuviera tiempo para practicar, yo también sería bueno".

Lo que queremos decir es que si quisiéramos, podríamos nosotros también ponernos en otra posición. No lo hacemos principalmente porque no tenemos el empuje, el interés o, en algunos casos, nos vemos limitados físicamente. Pero, cuando la persona común y corriente puede obtener resultados sin demasiado esfuerzo adicional, siempre debe dársele el empuje o un incentivo necesario. Esto generalmente puede hacerse mejor utilizando individuos del grupo que se asemejen al grupo con el que deseamos trabajar. A estos individuos no debe dárseles oportunidad de usar la excusa de que son diferentes (implicando que quienes

están demostrando o enseñando son diferentes).

En el curso normal de la vida, los niños se enseñan unos a otros. Las amas de casa intercambian ideas, habilidades y prácticas. Los agricultores trasmiten unos a otros prácticas que desarrollan la agricultura. Sin embargo, el procedimiento normal no avanza rápidamente y, por períodos largos, tiende a perpetuar las mismas ideas, habilidades, conceptos y prácticas. (Es en esta forma que se desarrollan las "culturas".) El grupo tiende a ser cerrado y comienza a imponer limitaciones a través de las costumbres. En consecuencia, necesitamos romper el patrón del grupo para permitir que penetren nuevas ideas y nuevos conceptos. (Esto se llama progreso.)

Una persona extraña al grupo puede hacer impacto y lograr cambio. Sin embargo y hablando relativamente, para cambiar a los grupos se necesitarían tantos individuos "adiestrados" o profesionales (agentes de cambio) como grupos haya.

Muchos países carecen de esta fuente de fuerza humana para hacer la labor. Recurrimos a leyes, edictos y hasta planes grandiosos como reforma agraria, colonización, planificación rural, olvidando a menudo a los individuos que han de ser

afectados en el desarrollo de los planes.

Hasta que la gente no participe en la provisión de liderazgo local, la mayoría de los planes están condenados a fracasar. Por consiguiente, allí donde se hace uso de líderes locales como parte integral del plan para producir cambios, se prevén éxitos. Sólo cuando comenzamos a dudar de las habilidades de los líderes es que nos vemos en dificultades. A veces el profesional avanza mucho más que los líderes y en esta forma los pierde, de manera que comenzamos a decir que los líderes tienen limitaciones.

Naturalmente tienen limitaciones pero ello es también razón de que pueden ser eficaces. Pertenecen al grupo. Porque son miembros del grupo, serán eficaces si tomamos en cuenta las presiones a que se ven sometidos. Se ven atrapados entre dos fuerzas:

1. Tratar de seguir siendo aceptables a su propio grupo; y
2. Tratar de efectuar cambios en el patrón normal del grupo.

En efecto, los líderes locales pueden ser eficaces demostradores y maestros. Al hacer una cosa contribuyen a la otra. Debiéramos preocuparnos menos de sus conocimientos de psicología, sociología, dinámica de grupos. Estos son conocimientos que el profesional debe tener. Lo que necesitamos es utilizar al grupo y su composición natural. Usando el grupo tal como es podemos hacer o inducir cambios efectivos y duraderos. Debemos mantener al líder local contento y relacionado con su grupo. Si lo cambiamos con demasiada rapidez o muy drásticamente, lo separamos del grupo y esto resulta en cambio menos eficaz.

Si nosotros, como extensionistas, podemos aprender a aceptar este concepto, estaremos en posición de utilizar las fuerzas internas que pueden producir cambio. A través del uso adecuado de los líderes se eliminan limitaciones para el desarrollo rural.

B I B L I O G R A F I A

BRUNNER, EDMUND DE S. & YANG, E. HSIN PAO. Rural America and the Extension Service, New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. 210 p.

GALLUP, GLADYS. Training Neighbors Leaders. Extension Service Circular # 397. U.S.D.A. Washington D.C., Nov. 1942

HAYES, WAYLAND J. The Small community looks ahead. New York, Hartcourt Brace and Company. 383 Madison Avenue

JONES, EARL y otros. Community needs and Leadership patterns in Jamaica. Inter American Institute of Agricultural Sciences (IICA). Turrialba, Costa Rica. Julio 1963.

KELSEY, LINCOLN & HEARNE, CANNON C. Cooperative Extension work. 2a. edición. Ithaca, New York, Comstock Publishing Associates, 1955. 424 p.

LAW, HOWARD. Extensión Agrícola. Principios básicos y métodos de Enseñanza. Tercera edición revisada. Caracas, Venezuela. Consejo de Bienestar Rural

LOOMIS, CHARLES P. y otros. Rural Social systems and adult education. East Lansing, Michigan State College Press, 1953.

PENDERS, J. A. M. (Ed.) Methods and Program Planning in rural extension. Wageningen, Holanda. Centro Internacional para Estudios de Agricultura, 1956.

SPICER, EDWARD H. (ed.) Human problems in technological change. New York, Russell Sage Foundation. 1952

UNIVERSIDAD DE PUERTO RICO, Servicio de Extensión Agrícola. A Public relations guide for extension work. Rio Piedras, Universidad de Puerto Rico, Servicio de Extensión Agrícola.

USDA Extension service review. Publicación mensual. Washington, D.C.

Publicaciones Anteriores

1. Filosofía de Extensión
2. Evaluacion de Extensión
3. El Especialista en el Servicio de Extensión: su papel, sus problemas y su adaptación
4. Organización de Extensión - para administración y para desarrollo del programa
5. Elementos que contribuyen al éxito del Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos
6. Los líderes locales en las labores de Extensión
7. Un conjunto de principios y guías
8. Prerequisitos para el progreso de la agricultura; Tierra, Capital, Trabajo y Conocimientos
9. Coordinación: la llave del éxito de un servicio de Extensión Educativa
10. El Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos
11. Programación: parte del proceso de Extensión
12. Diferencias entre Extensión y Desarrollo de la Comunidad
13. Reforma Agraria y Educación de Extensión
14. La Naturaleza de Extensión - Cambiar a la gente
15. Enseñanza vs. Aprendizaje
16. Como organizar a la juventud rural en extensión
17. Factores que no contribuyen a la eficiencia o efectividad del trabajo de Extensión en América Latina
18. Responsabilidades de adultos ante la juventud

MATERIALES DE ENSEÑANZA EN
EXTENSION

EE/4/65 Nº 20

TRADUCCION

UNA LABOR POR REALIZAR

por

Joseph Di Franco
Extensionista

(Publicado en Inglés y Español)

Economía y Ciencias Sociales
INSTITUTO INTERAMERICANO DE CIENCIAS AGRICOLAS
DE LA OEA - Turrialba, Costa Rica

Pueden solicitarse copias adicionales de esta publicación dirigiéndose a la Misión de Operaciones de los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica (Punto IV) en cada país, o escribiendo a:

ECONOMIA Y CIENCIAS SOCIALES
Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la O. E. A.
Centro de Enseñanza e Investigación
Turrialba, Costa Rica

Esta publicación ha sido preparada de acuerdo con el contrato firmado entre el Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la Organización de Estados Americanos (O.E.A.) y el Instituto de Asuntos Interamericanos de la Agencia de Desarrollo Internacional (A.I.D.) de los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica.

Turrialba, Costa Rica
Noviembre, 1965

UNA LABOR POR REALIZAR

Joseph Di Franco

¿Qué desean los latinoamericanos que realicen sus Servicios de Extensión? El fin primordial de Extension debiera ser desarrollar a la gente y las regiones rurales. América Latina es todavía predominantemente agrícola. El mejoramiento de la producción agraria, en consecuencia, es un aspecto muy importante que requiere atención. El aumento de las cantidades de alimentos y fibras es esencial para soportar la expansion demográfica e industrial.

Además de incrementar la producción de alimentos y fibras, existe también la necesidad de retener a la gente en el campo. La industria latinoamericana está creciendo pero todavía no alcanza un ritmo suficiente para absorber el aumento de población. El desempleo es aún relativamente alto, como lo indican los bajos salarios y jornales que se pagan en todos los niveles económicos. Una migración demasiado rápida del campo a la ciudad agravaría esta situación. Las ocupaciones rurales, sin embargo, deben proveer ingresos adecuados. Es un hecho aceptado que mayores ingresos en las áreas rurales estimulan la expansión. Los ingresos de subsistencia que predominan en las áreas rurales no contribuyen gran cosa a la prosperidad nacional.

Estas necesidades parecen obvias, pero cuál es el verdadero objetivo que esconden estas necesidades? Para personas serias de América Latina, consiste en desarrollar una población educada para satisfacer los intereses nacionales. Un interés nacional de importancia es proveer un mejor nivel de vida para la población. Si esto se realiza, no elevará a las naciones latinoamericanas a una posición más prominente entre las naciones del mundo? La gente que puede ver por sí misma contribuye mucho al desarrollo mundial.

Los servicios de extensión pueden contribuir al desarrollo de la gente. Las metas principales en Extensión, por consiguiente, son primero ayudar a la gente a mejorarse a sí misma y a sus semejantes urbanos a niveles más altos de vida y segundo, estimular a la gente a promover el bienestar nacional. Esto significa que todos los ciudadanos deben interesarse y tomar parte.

Se presenta ahora la pregunta de la naturaleza de este esfuerzo. Muchos dirigentes importantes de América Latina han expresado en una u otra forma que muchos problemas y dificultades pueden vencerse mejorando o expandiendo el sistema de educación agrícola. Muchos otros están de acuerdo en que la labor se realiza mejor por medio de la educación de la población. Esto significa que las escuelas tienen un papel preponderante en esta responsabilidad. El trabajo que las escuelas están realizando, en su mayor parte lo realizan bien. No hay discusión sobre el hecho que los programas formales de educación deban expandirse. Sin embargo, para lograr mayor impacto necesitamos también prescribir un programa de educación de adultos. La educación de adultos, especialmente de la población adulta rural, es otra tarea grande. Hay necesidad de dos sistemas educativos que puedan utilizarse. Uno el tipo de programas escolares formales y el otro, el de programas extraescolares. Ambos se complementan.

Es interesante observar que aquellas naciones que van a la vanguardia en facilidades para educación formal tambien ocupan lugar preeminente en la educación extraescolar. Las tareas educacionales son diferentes y requieren enfoques distintos, diferentes programas y aun personal diferente. Sin embargo, ambos son trabajos educativos.

En el caso de la educación extraescolar, podemos preguntar: educación para quién? Ya se ha dicho que debe ser educación para ayudar a la población rural a contribuir al bienestar nacional. Este problema nacional está compuesto de los problemas colectivos de sus ciudadanos individuales. Parte de la tarea, por consiguiente, es averiguar cuáles son las necesidades de la población rural.

Muchas de esas necesidades son evidentes. Con demasiada frecuencia, sin embargo, los interesados no contemplan estas necesidades en el mismo grado de prioridad. Muchas veces las necesidades de la gente rural según las ven los funcionarios de gobierno son diferentes de las necesidades que dicha gente considera importantes. Aun cuando ambos grupos pueden estar en lo correcto, esto conduce a conflictos y es causa de que algunos funcionarios gubernamentales se vean en problemas. Siguen adelante prefiriendo imponer un programa de educación. A estos individuos se les aconseja cuatela.

Viene al caso una analogía. Por ejemplo, la mayoría de los padres tienen presentes los mejores intereses de sus hijos. Les proveen oportunidades de aprender para el día en que no puedan estar juntos. ¿Qué ocurre en una familia donde el padre toma todas las decisiones? Sus hijos se limitan a cumplir órdenes, pero son incapaces de tomar decisiones en casos de emergencia o cuando quedan solos. El padre que maneja los recursos económicos en forma muy estricta y sin dar participación a la familia, encuentra que la familia complota contra él y contra cada uno para obtener más. Esta clase de padre debe regir por fuerza y no por respeto. No se duda de su sinceridad. Por el contrario, él puede imponer sus decisiones a los miembros de su familia porque se interesa en ellos. Lamentablemente, sus métodos le anulan.

La gente que tiene interés o participa en alcanzar algo no sólo trabaja por ello sino que ayuda a protegerlo.

Por ejemplo, proveer nuevas casas para quienes viven en tugurios a menudo resulta en sólo un alivio temporal antes de que se desarrolle un nuevo tugurio. Después de todo, cuando la nueva casa se hace vieja, alguien provee mejor vivienda. La gente generalmente no respeta la propiedad porque no es propia. ¿Por qué cuidar de ella? ¿Quién sabe quiénes han de beneficiarse en el futuro, ya que no es de ellos? Esto conduce a pensar que estas gentes son estúpidas, inútiles y deplorables. Sin embargo, al individuo al que se le da oportunidad de ganar o construir una casa con su propio esfuerzo, no sólo trata de mejorarla sino que la cuida. En este caso no se considera estúpido o inútil.

Esto indica que la educación debe ser parte integral de cualquier programa o proyecto destinado a ayudar a la gente a mejorarse. Se requiere educación que incluya la participación de gentes que tienen problemas. Esta educación debe ser para y con la gente de las zonas rurales.

Antes de tratar de discutir más ampliamente la clase de educación que se requiere, es preciso pensar cuáles son las necesidades de la población rural latinoamericana.

Ya se ha dicho que hay escasez de comodidades mínimas. En gran parte de América Latina, las gentes viven al día. Muchos viven en un nivel de subsistencia. Es evidente que aún en las regiones rurales hay necesidad de aumentar la cantidad de alimentos y fibras para suministrar una dieta balanceada más adecuada y para proveer

mejores condiciones de vida. Aquí es donde se presenta la necesidad de mayor apoyo tecnológico básico. Pero la tecnología debe ser llevada a la gente, a la que debe ayudarse a poner estos conocimientos a trabajar.

Muchos líderes dicen que la mejor manera de incrementar la producción agrícola es proveyendo mayor crédito, más mano de obra, equipo, etc. Estos servicios son necesarios. Por otro lado, de qué sirve el crédito si los agricultores no saben cómo ponerlo a funcionar? ¿De qué sirve la investigación agrícola si los agricultores no pueden interpretarla y aplicarla? ¿De qué sirven las cooperativas si los agricultores no conocen sus responsabilidades? ¿De qué sirve el gobierno si los ciudadanos no lo respaldan? Todos estos servicios se hacen mucho más importantes a medida que las gentes rurales saben cómo usarlos para progresar. Esto es índice de una necesidad de mayor educación; de un proceso educativo que ayude a la gente a ayudarse a sí misma.

Esto también significa que la población rural necesita ayuda; un proceso educativo no tiene lugar por sí mismo; es preciso que alguien inicie ese proceso.

La gente necesita ser estimulada. Requieren una actitud mental adecuada, atención especial y asesoramiento. Debe mostrárseles el camino y ayudárseles a desarrollar la habilidad de pensar. Necesitan ser capaces de hacer decisiones. Nuevamente repetimos, esta es una tarea básicamente educativa. Los Servicios de Extensión de América Latina deben aceptar esta responsabilidad y encontrar la forma de que la gente participe en este proceso educativo. Los gobiernos latinoamericanos deben suministrar a la población una oportunidad educativa para ayudarla a ayudarse a sí misma. Los Servicios de Extensión deben satisfacer las expectativas de su gobierno y de la gente a la cual sirven. Y, por supuesto, la gente debe tener oportunidad de mejorarse a sí misma y contribuir al mejoramiento de su país.

En lo anteriormente expuesto poco es nuevo. Constituye únicamente otra tentativa de fortalecer el punto de la labor principal a desarrollar para alcanzar el progreso es la educación. Que los Servicios de Extensión pueden respaldar y acelerar el progreso proveyendo oportunidades de educación para los adultos de las zonas rurales.

AID/EE/362/65

Publicaciones Anteriores

1. Filosofía de Extensión
2. Evaluaciones de Extensión
3. El Especialista en el Servicio de Extensión su papel, sus problemas y su adaptación
4. Organización de Extensión - para administración y para desarrollo del programa
5. Elementos que contribuyen al éxito del Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos
6. Los líderes locales en las labores de Extensión
7. Un conjunto de principios y guías
8. Prerequisitos para el progreso de la agricultura; Tierra, Capital, Trabajo y Conocimientos
9. Coordinación - la llave del éxito de un servicio de Extensión Educativa
10. El Servicio Cooperativo de Extensión de los Estados Unidos
11. Programación: parte del proceso de Extensión
12. Diferencias entre Extensión y Desarrollo de la Comunidad
13. Reforma Agraria y Educación de Extensión
14. La Naturaleza de Extensión - Cambiar a la gente
15. Enseñanza vs. Aprendizaje
16. Como organizar a la juventud rural en extensión
17. Factores que no contribuyen a la eficiencia o efectividad del trabajo de Extensión en América Latina
18. Responsabilidades de adultos ante la juventud
19. Importancia de usar a la gente rural como lideres en el desarrollo rural.

FECHA DE VENCIMIENTO

TC_VI-68			
10/8/68			
X-22-69			
VII-11-69			

35867 TIP. GUERRA FORMA 4-A

Materiales de enseñanza en Extensión.

Di Franco, Joseph

FECHA	PRESTADO A
I 15/72	G. Estaña Paloma Farta

Di Franco, Joseph

Materiales de enseñanza en extensión