NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

COURSE CODE: AEM 711

COURSE TITLE: AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION, ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

Course Title   Agricultural Extension, Administration and

Supervision

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Course Developer/Writer   Mr.Awolumate Samuel

                                     National Open University of Nigeria, Nigeria.

                                     School Of Science and Technology

                                     Dept. Of Agricultural Extension and Management.

                                     e.mail: awolumatesam@yahoo.com

Course Editor   Dr N. E Mundi

Programme Leader   Dr. N .E Mundi

Course Coordinator   Mr. E .A Adams

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Introduction

Agricultural extension is taking a new dimension because of a global movement for reforming the national extension systems in developing countries that started late in the twentieth century.

Agricultural extension, administration and supervision is a special field of general agricultural extension of agricultural that will help you situate the subject among other developmental efforts and to appreciate the educational and scientific nature of the discipline. For extension practice to be effective and goal-oriented, extension practitioners must always keep in mind certain underlying principles of administration, supervision that must be carried out for effective extension work. Agricultural extension, administration and supervision is a two (2) unit credit degree course in the first semester course. It is available to all students offering post graduate diploma in Agricultural Extension and Management (AEM).

In Agricultural extension, administration and supervision, we study the concepts, principles and philosophy of Agricultural Extension, Planning Extension Programs and Technology Transfer in Agricultural Extension are also taught. There are also studies of the concept of monitoring of agricultural extension programmes; principles, guidelines and theories of extension organization and basic principle and guidelines of extension organisation.

It is in agricultural extension, administration and supervision that we learn about Personnel Management, guidelines of extension organization and management, criteria for departmentalization in extension organization, uses of extension organization structure and models of agricultural extension organization. Using the knowledge acquired in this course will lead to improved effective extension work, systematic administration and supervision that leads to achievement of organizational goals

What you will learn in this course

The course consists of units and a course guide. This course guide tells you briefly what the course is about, what course materials you will be using and how you can work with these materials. In addition, it advocates some general guidelines for the amount of time you are likely to spend on each unit of the course in order to complete it successfully.

It gives you guidance in respect of your Tutor-Marked Assignment which will be made available in the assignment file. There will be regular tutorial classes that are related to the course. It is advisable for you to attend these tutorial sessions. The course will prepare you for the challenges you will meet in the field of agricultural extension, administration and supervision

Course Aims

The aim of this course is not complex. The course aims to provide you with an understanding of agricultural extension, administration and supervision. It also aims to provide you extension and administrative principle personnel management that aids in accomplishments of agricultural extension organizational objectives.

Course Objectives

To achieve the aims set out, the course has a lot of objectives. Each unit has specific objectives which are included at the beginning of the unit. You should read these objectives before you study the unit. You may wish to refer to them during your study to check on your progress. You should always look at the unit objectives after completion of each unit. By doing so, you would have followed the instructions in the unit.

Below are the comprehensive objectives of the course as a whole. By meeting these objectives, you should have achieved the aims of the course as a whole. In addition to the aims above, this course sets to achieve some objectives. Thus, after going through the course, you should be able to:

i.   List five principles of agricultural extension, pointing out their implications and applications for effective extension work.

ii.   State the policies that can be adopted to resolve the various constraints for extension organisations.

iii. Explain the various steps the major steps in Planning Extension Programme?

iv.   Explain the concept of recruitment of extension personnel?

v.   Explain the meaning of extension training and development?

vi.   Explain the concept of recruitment of extension personnel?

vii.   Explain the meaning of training and development?

viii. Enumerate the three basic elements of system approach of modern understandings of the organization?

ix.   Define the concept of Organizational structure and the role of the sub-systems of organisational structure

x.   What are the guidelines for designing Organizational structure?

Working through the Course

To complete this course you are required to read each study unit, read the textbooks and read other materials which may be provided by the National Open University of Nigeria.

Each unit contains self-assessment exercise(s) and at certain points in the course you would be required to submit assignments for assessment purposes. At the end of the course there is a final examination. The course should take you about a total of 17 weeks to complete. Below you will find listed all the components of the course, what you have to do and how you should allocate your time to each unit in order to complete the course on time and successfully.

This course entails that you spend a lot of time to read. I would advise that you avail yourself the opportunity of attending the tutorial sessions where you have the opportunity of comparing your knowledge with that of other people.

The Study Unit

The study units in this course are as follows

MODULE 1 BASIC CONCEPTS OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION

Unit 1   Concepts, Principles and Philosophy of Agricultural Extension

Unit 2   Extension Programmes Planning

Unit 3   Concept of Monitoring of Agricultural Extension Programmes

MODULE 2 PRINCIPLE OF ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

Unit 1 Concept of Administration

Unit 2 Tasks and Levels of Agricultural Administration

Unit 3 Staff Supervision in Agricultural Extension

MODULE 3 PRINCIPLES, GUIDELINES AND THEORIES OF EXTENSION ORGANIZATION

Unit 1 Basic principle and guidelines of extension organisation

Unit 2 Organisational Structure

Unit 3 Theories of Agricultural Extension Organisation

MODULE 4 PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION

Unit 1 Extension Personnel Recruitment, Training, and Development

Unit 2 Staff Supervision in Agricultural Extension

Unit 3 Staff Performance Appraisals and Promotion

Presentation Schedule

Your course materials have important dates for the early and timely completion and submission of your Tutor-Marked Assignments and attending tutorials. You should remember that you are required to submit all your assignments by the stipulated time and date. You should guard against falling behind in your work.

Assessment

There are three aspects to the assessment of the course. First is made up of self-assessment exercises, second consists of the tutor-marked assignments and third is the written examination/end of course examination.

You are advised to do the exercises. In tackling the assignments, you are expected to apply information, knowledge and techniques you gathered during the course.

The assignments must be submitted to your facilitator for formal assessment in accordance with the deadlines stated in the presentation schedule and the assignment file.

The work you submit to your tutor for assessment will count for 30% of your total course work. At the end of the course you will need to sit for a final or end of course examination of about three hours duration. This examination will count for 70% of your total course mark.

Tutor-Marked Assignment

The TMA is a continuous assessment component of your course. It accounts for 30% of the total score. You will be given four (4) TMAs to answer. Three of these must be answered before you are allowed to sit for the end of course examination. The TMAs would be given to you by your facilitator and returned after you have done the assignment. Assignment questions for the units in this course are contained in the assignment file. You will be able to complete your assignment from the information and material contained in your reading, references and study units. However, it is desirable in all degree level of education to demonstrate that you have read and researched more into your references, which will give you a wider view point and may provide you with a deeper understanding of the subject.

Make sure that each assignment reaches your facilitator on or before the deadline given in the presentation schedule and assignment file. If for any reason you can not complete your work on time, contact your facilitator before the assignment is due to discuss the possibility of an extension. Extension will not be granted after the due date unless there are exceptional circumstances.

Final Examination and Grading

The end of course examination for Agricultural extension administration and supervision will be for about 3 hours and it has a value of 70% of the total course work. The examination will consist of questions, which will reflect the type of self-testing, practice exercise and tutor-marked assignment problems you have previously encountered. All areas of the course will be assessed.

Use the time between finishing the last unit and sitting for the examination to revise the whole course. You might find it useful to review your self-test, TMAs and comments on them before the examination. The end of course examination covers information from all parts of the course.

Course Marking Scheme

Assignment	Marks
Assignments 1 – 4	Four assignments, best three marks of the four count at 10% each – 30% of course marks
End of course examination	70% of overall course marks.
Total	100% of course materials

Facilitators/Tutors and Tutorials

There are 16 hours of tutorials provided in support of this course. You will be notified of the dates, times and location of these tutorials as well as the name and phone number of your facilitator, as soon as you are allocated a tutorial group.

Your facilitator will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress and any difficulties you might face and provide assistance to you during the course. You are expected to mail your Tutor Marked Assignment to your facilitator before the schedule date (at least two working days are required). They will be marked by your tutor and returned to you as soon as possible.

Do not delay to contact your facilitator by telephone or e-mail if you need assistance.

The following might be circumstances in which you would find assistance necessary, hence you would have to contact your facilitator if:

- You do not understand any part of the study or the assigned readings.
- You have difficulty with the self-tests.
- You have a question or problem with an assignment or with the grading of an assignment

You should endeavor to attend the tutorials. This is the only chance to have face to face contact with your course facilitator and to ask questions which may be answered instantly. You can raise any problem encountered in the course of your study. To gain much benefit from course tutorials prepare a question list before attending them. You will learn a lot from participating actively in discussions.

Summary

Agricultural extension, administration and supervision is a course that intends to expose you to underlying principles of administration, supervision that must be carried out for effective extension work. These expose you to the use of administrative and personnel management principles that are needed in day to day running of an agricultural enterprises.

Upon completion of this course, you will be able to answer questions such as

- Define the concept and principle of Agricultural extension and administration
- List five principles of agricultural extension, pointing out their implications and applications for effective extension work.
- State the policies that can be adopted to resolve the various constraints for extension organisations.
- Explain the various steps the major steps in Planning Extension Programme?
- Explain the concept of recruitment of extension personnel?
- Explain the meaning of extension training and development?
- Explain the concept of recruitment of extension personnel?
- Explain the meaning of training and development?
- Enumerate the three basic elements of system approach of modern understandings of the organization?
- Define the concept of Organizational structure and the role of the sub-systems of organisational structure
- What are the guidelines for designing Organizational structure?

Of course, the questions you will be able to answer are not limited to the above list.

Wishing you the very best luck.

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Unit 1 Concepts, Principles and Philosophy of Agricultural Extension

Unit 2 Planning Extension Programmes

Unit 3 Concept of Monitoring of Agricultural Extension Programmes

Unit 4   Agricultural Extension Policy Formulation

Module 2 Principle of Administration and Supervision

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Unit 2 Tasks and Levels of Agricultural Administration

Unit 3 Staff Supervision in Agricultural Extension

Module 3 Principles, Guidelines and Theories of Extension Organization

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Module 4 Personnel Management in Agricultural Extension

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Module 1 Basic Concepts of Agricultural Extension

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UNIT 1   CONCEPTS, PRINCIPLES AND PHILOSOPHY OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The concept of agricultural extension will help you situate the subject among other developmental efforts and to appreciate the educational and scientific nature of the discipline. For extension practice to be effective and goal-oriented, extension practitioners must always keep in mind certain underlying principles for effective extension work.

This unit is also devoted to issues on the concept of technology transfer and the various constraints for extension organisations

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define the concepts of agricultural extension

- state the basic principles agricultural extension

- explain the different constraints of technology transfer in agricultural extension

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Basic Concepts of Agricultural Extension

The term extension was first used in the United States of America in the first decade of this century to connote the extension of knowledge from the Land Grant Colleges to the farmers through the process of informal education

Extension is a function of providing need- and demand-based knowledge and skills to rural men, women and youth in a non-formal, participatory manner, with the objective of improving their quality of life. Maunder(1973) defined Extension as a service or system which assists farm people, through educational procedures, in improving farming methods and techniques, increasing production efficiency and income, elevating their levels of living and lifting their social and educational standards.

The function of extension may be applied to several subjects, both agricultural and non-agricultural, such as health. When it is applied to agriculture, it is called agricultural extension. Adams (1982) defined Agricultural Extension as assistance to farmers to help them identify and analyse their production problems and become aware of the opportunities for improvement.

Agricultural extension is primarily concerned with the following main aims:
i. the dissemination of useful and practical information relating to agriculture, including improved seeds, fertilizers, implements, pesticides, improved cultural practices, dairying, poultry, nutrition, etc.;
ii. the practical application of useful knowledge to farm and home; and
iii. ultimately to improve all aspects of the life of the rural people within the framework of the national, economic and social policies involving the population as a whole.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

i. Define agricultural extension?

ii. State the main aims of Agricultural Extension?

3.2 Basic Agricultural Extension Principles

The extension work is based upon some working principles and the knowledge of these principles is necessary for an extension worker. They should adhere to certain procedures that experience and empirical studies have shown to likely yield result. These are principles underlying effective extension work and they serve as pointer to whether a developmental effort is an extension programme or not. Some of these principles, as related to agricultural extension, are mentioned below.

i. Principle of interest and need.
Extension work must be based on the needs and interests of the people. These needs and interests differ from individual to individual, from village to village, from block to block, and from state to state and therefore, there cannot be one programme for all people.

ii. Principle of cultural difference.
Extension work is based on the cultural background of the people with whom the work is done. Improvement can only begin from the level of the people where they are. This means that the extension worker has to know the level of their knowledge, the skills of the people, the methods

and tools used by them, their customs, traditions, beliefs, values, etc. before starting the extension programme.

iii. Principle of participation.

Extension helps people to help themselves. Good extension work is directed towards assisting rural families to work out their own problems rather than giving them ready-made solutions. Actual participation and experience of people in these programmes create self-confidence in them.

iv. Principle of adaptability.

People differ from each other, one group differs from another group and conditions also differ from place to place. An extension programme should be flexible, so that necessary changes can be made whenever needed, to meet the varying conditions.

v. The grass roots principle of organisation.

A group of rural people in local community should sponsor extension work. The programme should fit in with the local conditions. The aim of organising the local group is to demonstrate the value of the new practices or programmes so that more and more people would participate.

vi. The leadership principle.

Extension work is based on the full utilisation of local leadership. The selection and training of local leaders to enable them help to carry out extension work is essential to the success of the programme. People have more faith in local leaders and they should be used to put across a new idea so that it is accepted with the least resistance.

vii. The whole-family principle.

Extension work will have a better chance of success if the extension workers have a whole-family approach instead of a piecemeal approach. Extension work is, therefore, for the whole family i.e. for male, female and the youth.

viii. Principle of co-operation.

 Extension is a co-operative venture. It is a joint democratic enterprise in which rural people co-operate with their village, block and state officials to pursue a common cause.

ix. Principle of satisfaction.

 The end-product of the effort of extension teaching is the satisfaction that comes to the farmer, his wife or younger ones as the result of solving a problem, meeting a need, acquiring a new skill or some other changes in behaviour. Satisfaction is the key to success in extension work. "A

satisfied customer is the best advertisement."

x. **The evaluation principle**.

Extension is based upon the methods of science and it needs constant evaluation. The effectiveness of the work is measured in terms of the changes brought about in the knowledge, skill, and attitude and adoption behaviour of the people but not merely in terms of achievement of physical targets.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Describe five basic agricultural extension principles

3.3 Technology Transfer in Agricultural Extension

The knowledge of agricultural system consists of four components: The technology generation, technology transfer (knowledge and input transfer), technology utilisation, and agricultural policy (Swanson, Sands, & Peterson, 1990).

The organisations that constitute the components, as well as others in the system environment influence each other in complex ways. Such publicly funded systems are established by governments to improve the conditions of life and well-being of rural and urban populations and to increase agricultural productivity.

i. **Technology generation** consists of planning, administration, and implementation of research activities that develop, assess, adapt, and test improved agricultural technology for farmers and other users. In the public sector, these tasks, as well as some dissemination works, are carried out by agricultural research organisations.

ii. **Technology transfer** further evaluates and adapts research outputs for users and then widely disseminates the knowledge and inputs to different target farmers of different categories, private companies, and so on. In many countries, government extension does both types of transfer, although the emphasis is on knowledge. Private organisations are also involved in both types of transfer, although farmer coverage is more limited and input transfer may play a bigger role.

iii. The **technology utilisation** component encompasses the users of the agricultural technology, mainly farmers. Users awareness, adaptation, and adoption of improved technology from various sources affect farm-level productivity and profitability and ultimately, economic growth at the national level. Interaction and feedback between users and research and transfer organisations improve cooperation and the relevance of technology.

iv. The *policy* component relates to government development goals and strategies, market and price policies, and the levels of resource investments in the system. It describes a set of laws relating to domestic agriculture and imports of foreign agricultural products. Governments usually implement agricultural policies with the goal of achieving a specific outcome in the domestic agricultural product markets. Outcomes can involve, for example, a guaranteed supply level, price stability, product quality, product selection, land use or employment.Various government bodies play a role in setting development policy. Technology development and transfer organizations are affected by the policy in fundamental ways. The division of generation and transfer tasks organizations and sectors differs from country to country, as does the nature of the policy and utilization components. However, the flow of technology can be mapped as it moves between or is influenced by organizations constituting the agricultural technology system.

Agricultural extension, whether public or private, operates in a context or an environment that influences the organisation, form, and content of transfer activities (Morris, 1991). The agricultural technology system context, in which government extension organisations operate, can be described under two headings: The macro-context factors and institutional factors.

A. **The macro-context factors:**

i. Agro ecological: Natural environment strongly influences extension planning and operations, Extension should respond to the technological needs of farmers in different agro-ecological zones. The variation represented by agro-ecological zones in a given country can be substantial. Differences in temperatures, rainfall, soil types, evapotranspiration, and so forth are reflected in the diversity of farming conditions and production systems. Extension planners face some difficult choices because of the need to respond to the diverse technology and information needs of farmers from many different zones and, at the same time, to satisfy a requirement for

extensive countrywide coverage of the rural population. For example, extension resource investments can be determined by farmer population concentrations, potential productivity of selected agro ecological zones, or a combination of both.

ii. Political-Economic: The political and economic environment affects extension in many ways. It is one of the most significant factors is a country's stage of economic development. Another is the level of government investment in public sector extension. This is influenced by the presence or absence of a structural adjustment programme, the degree of economic dependence on agriculture, and the proportion of the population economically active in agriculture as opposed to industry. The percentage of resource-poor smallholder farmers influences the type of technology to be transferred, particularly if government is concerned with the equitable coverage of all categories of farmers.

Politics has another infrequently identified impact on public extension organisations. Political shifts at the national level often result in changes in extension personnel, management, and programmes. High turnover of top managers undermines management experience and continuity in leadership. In addition, political unrest and war often make extension efforts impossible (Gustafson, 1994).

iii. Sociocultural: In many countries, sociocultural factors are leading constraints to the effectiveness of extension. Language differences and illiteracy can impede the communication of improved technology unless they are taken into account. The division of labour between the sexes can differ along cultural lines and influences the nature of farming systems in different regions. In many countries, the men are employed off-farm, leaving the farm operations to women. In extension organisations, under representation of women on the extension force means that the production responsibilities and needs of women at the farm level may not be adequately addressed.   Cultural differences among farmers, as well as differences in their resource endowments, also need to be taken into account. In particular, these are reflected in land-use strategies. Pastoral herders, for example, will require different types of subject-matter expertise, and extension workers will need to use different strategies to transfer technology to them than to permanent field agriculturalists. The resource endowments of different categories of farmers also affect technology adoption levels. Subsistence farmers adopt mainly low-cost technologies. For this reason, extension work

that focuses on cultural practices and affordable technologies may be more appropriate in countries with large numbers of resource-poor farmers.

iv. Policy: The policy component of an agricultural technology system can enable or limit extension in ways beyond the reach of extension managers. The principal areas of influence are price signals to farmers and decisions by government that affect public agricultural development organisations.

- **Agricultural Development***:* Policy-making bodies of government set development goals and objectives such as achieving food security or surplus agricultural production to stimulate economic growth, or providing health care and education for rural development. It is the task of government extension organisations to help meet these goals by formulating subordinate objectives and strategies to achieve them.

- **Market Intervention***:* Governments set policies on consumer and producer commodity prices, subsidies for inputs, credit availability, import substitution, export earnings, food self-sufficiency, and natural resource management. These send direct and indirect price signals to farmers and influence their production decisions. High fertilizer prices, for example, cause farmers to use less of this input. Extension organisations should be aware of market signals to ensure that they are recommending technologies that meet farmers' current needs. They also require feedback from farmers to ensure the continued relevance of their activities.

v. Infrastructure: Infrastructure, particularly transportation, communication, and market facilities, affects both farmers and extension. The capacity to move people, inputs, and produce and to send and receive information influences extension activities and capacity. Market infrastructure itself can be lacking or inadequate.

- **Transportation***.* There may be many areas that cannot be reached by road, or transport vehicles may be in short supply. In either case, farmers under these conditions are difficult to reach with improved technology, and they will have problems transporting inputs and farm produce. For example, input supply outlets can be far apart, and excessive transport distances can make it difficult or impossible for traditional farmers to adopt improved technology.

- **Communication**. Communication infrastructure can impose additional constraints for extension organisations. Farmer access to mass media such as publications, radios, or television may be limited, thus reducing the options available to extension for communicating its messages. At the same time, extension itself may have little or no access to telephone and radio services for long-range communications. This can severely hamper its ability to organise and carry out field operations.

Two aspects of a country's media organisations, both print and audio-visual, affect the flow of extension messages to farmers (Mathur & Sinha, 1991). One is the attitudes and subject interests of media managers responsible for programming for rural audiences. The other is the organisational climate, especially morale. It is crucial that extension workers consider the capacity of mass media organisations (newspapers, magazines, radio, and television) as part of their strategies and plans for communicating with farmers.

B. Institutional factors:

The institutional context i.e. other institutional factors involved in activities related to agricultural extension are research and transfer, education and training, input supply, and credit.

Public agricultural extension organisations in most countries have the task of providing a two-way flow of improved technology and information between research and users, primarily farmers. They operate in an institutional environment that includes other public and private organisations active in agriculture. In particular, those other actors involved in generating and transferring agricultural technology must be examined and understood to improve extension's effectiveness and efficiency.

i. Research: Agricultural research organisations are extension's closest institutional partners in technology generation and transfer. While these functions are also undertaken by private organisations, public sector organisations have the task of generating technology relevant for all categories of producers and agro ecological zones. The way research is structured and organised, and the planning and management of research-extension linkages, can limit or enhance extension's effectiveness.

Agricultural research organisations in developing countries confront many problems (Oram & Bindlish, 1984; Idachaba, 1987). These include lack of financial resources, acute shortages of well-trained scientists, lack of farmer feedback to ensure relevance of research results, lack of

access to external sources of knowledge, inadequate research facilities and equipment, low staff morale, and inadequate operating budgets, staff incentives, and remuneration. Few of these can be addressed by extension managers, but they can impede the generation of technology, resulting in fewer research outputs for extension to transfer. An understanding of research's problems is an important step in planning extension activities and coordinating them with research.

Poor linkages between research and extension are major constraints in technology flow in many countries (Kaimowitz, Snyder, & Engel, 1990; Eponou, 1993). The linkage problems are of two basic types: those affecting feedback from farmers to research and extension and those relating to coordination and cooperation between research and extension. In both cases, extension managers can improve the situation by developing a linkage strategy and allocating responsibilities and adequate resources for linkage tasks.

ii. Education and Training: Educational organisations that train extension workers are important elements in the institutional context for extension. The work of universities and training institutes in particular has a significant impact on extension organisations. The content of their curricula as well as the numbers and qualifications of their graduates are limiting or enabling factors in any country. In many cases, communication between extension and education organisations is poor. As a result, extension commonly has staffing problems. It is not unusual for extension organisations to have posts that are either vacant or filled by personnel that are not qualified.

Inadequate numbers and qualifications of staff remain a difficult problem for public sector extension organisations. Salaries and benefits are rarely competitive with those of comparable private and public enterprises, resulting in low morale and high staff turnover. Education levels may be quite low, especially for farmer contact staff. The ability to attract and retain qualified extension staff is limited in most countries by civil service salary scales established by other agencies of government.

The situation can be improved by establishing staffing and training plans. The staffing plan should have the record of current human resources, identifies staffing gaps, and projects staffing needs over a specified time. The training plan identifies specific types of training (in-service and formal) required to fill skill gaps in human resources and to cover staffing needs for planned

operations. The additional step of coordinating training needs with the educational organisations is needed.

iii. Input Supply: Farmers need inputs to increase production, but access to these is often poor in less developed countries. While inadequate transport and marketing infrastructure are often at the root of the problem, there are certain aspects that can be addressed by extension.

- **Genetic Technology***: Among the major outputs of the technology generation subsystem is improved genetic material. New plant and animal varieties with higher yields or resistance to pests or diseases become available. However, farmers need to know when the variety is released, how it performs under farm conditions, and where to obtain seeds or breeding materials. Extension is responsible for disseminating this information through appropriate mass media and contact methods. But a common constraint on the flow of technology is the non availability of genetic materials. In some countries, extension is also involved in the multiplication and distribution of seeds. Establishing effective linkages with others involved in the process can also help ensure that genetic materials are available to farmers.

- **Agrochemicals and Other Inputs**: The performance of new varieties is often improved by, or even dependent on, the availability of agrochemical and other inputs at the farm level. Recommendations for fertilizer types and amounts suited to local soil conditions, for animal feed mixtures and practices, and for the control of plant and animal pests and diseases constitute an indispensable part of extension messages. Lack of access to this information and materials prevents yield maximisation, so extension organisations need to ensure that farmers are informed on availability and use. If access is limited because of external factors, extension should plan its campaigns accordingly, with attention given to low-input recommendations.

Private companies and non-profit organisations also provide advice to farmers on agrochemical and other input use. Extension organisations need to develop communication and coordination linkages with these actors because excessive use of agrochemicals can harm human health and the environment. Conservative recommendations and alternative approaches, such as integrated pest management, are in the interests of the public and can be promoted by extension through its farmer contacts and other linkages.

iv. Credit: Access to credit is one way to improve farmers" access to new production technology and increase productivity. Farmers' ability to purchase inputs such as improved seed and fertilizer is particularly important. If appropriate technology is available but not being used by farmers, then the way credit is handled by government may be part of the problem.

Understanding the credit context - government and bank policies, availability of credit, and the institutional relationships involved in its delivery - is important for extension. At a minimum, the existing credit situation should be examined so that factors affecting the adoption and use of technology can be identified. These include inequitable access to credit, insufficient amounts of it, and overlap of transfer activities due to credit institution involvement in extension work. The knowledge is useful for extension managers in targeting farmers and in coordinating extension objectives with credit institutions.

4.0 CONCLUSION
In this unit, you have been exposed to the concepts and the principles of agricultural extension, as well as the concept of technology transfer and the various constraints for extension organisations

5.0 SUMMARY
In this unit, you have learnt that in the context of agriculture, extension is the dissemination of useful and practical information relating to agriculture to improve all aspects of the life of the rural people within the framework of the national, economic and social policies involving the population as a whole. Extension organisation must adhere to certain underlying principles for effective extension work. The understanding of the components of technology transfer, the principles of agricultural extension and the various constraints for extension organisations are important for the extension workers to collaborate with agricultural research organisations and government to provide policies for technology generation, transfer of knowledge, and utilisation

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. List five principles of agricultural extension, pointing out their implications and applications for effective extension work.

2. Enumerate the four components of technology transfer

3. State the policies that can be adopted to resolve the various constraints for extension organisations

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 EXTENSION PROGRAMMES PLANNING

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2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main content

  3.1 Concept of Planning in Extension

  3.2 Major Steps in Planning Extension Programme

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7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

An extension programme is a written, annual working plan with specific objectives to be achieved for improved activities of a community within a specified time and place. Evaluation of the programme is carried out periodically throughout the period of its development, as well as convenient times when results can be assessed (monitoring), progress toward attaining programme objectives measured, and an appraised made of the efforts of extension workers, farmers and local leaders.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit you should be able to:

- explain the Concept of Planning in Extension
- Explain the major steps in Planning Extension Programme

3.0 Main content

3.1 The Concept of planning Extension Programme

According to Williams et al (1984), Plainning is a statement of situation, needs, problems, solutions (objectives), priorities and who is to do what, where and how the programme is developed by putting the work plan into effect.

Planning helps extension workers to determine priorities of the various tasks i.e. to put the first things first. It becomes easy to evaluate progress when as a result of planning; there is a definite statement of extension aims and intentions. Planning further encourages adequate preparation of extension activities/work. Proper planning enables the extension worker to determine his needs with respect to adequate staff equipment and funds to carry out its tasks. The planning of an extension programme is done on the basis of certain well recognized principles which should be clearly understood & followed by extension workers.

The main principles are:

i. The programme-planning should be based upon a careful analysis of a factual situation.
ii. In a good programme-planning, problems for action are selected on the basis of recognized needs.
iii. A good programme-planning determines objectives & solutions which are feasible & offer satisfaction.
iv. The programme should be permanent & flexible to meet a long-term situation, short-time changes, & emergencies.
v. A sound programme should have both balance & emphasis.
vi. A good programme has a definite plan of work.
vii. Programme-planning is a continuous process.

viii.   Programme-planning is a co-coordinating process.

ix.   Programme-planning should be educational & directed towards bringing about improvement in the ability of the people to solve their own problems individually and collectively.

x.   A good programme-planning provides for the evaluation of results.

3.2 Major Steps in Planning Extension Programme

The knowledge of the steps in planning viable extension programme is therefore important for an extension worker. The major steps include:

1.   **Collecting Facts:** This first steps is to collect and study useful fact about the areas. The fact could be in the forms of:

> a) **Natural things** e.g. soil, rivers, streams, general water supplies and other physical factors relating to fishing. The extension worker may obtain these facts by asking questions from the farmer folks and making reference to agro-geological surveys as well as land classification and usage plans. Such information enables the extension worker to determine how productive the area could become if utilized to the maximum of its potentials and to recommend appropriate farming systems.
>
> b) **The people:** The extension worker needs information about the number of people he has to plan for. He also needs to know:
>
>> • If the people are concentrated along water courses/road or evenly distributed over the whole area.
>>
>> • If there are areas of dense settlement and areas with a low density of population and what are the reasons for uneven distribution.

The extension worker should further find out:

> • The social and cultural factors which are likely to affect extension programmes. He should try to know if the community is composed of one or more tribes.

The following questions should further be addressed:

- What is the social structure?
- What things do people consider most important to them?
- Who are the decision makers?
- What social and culture-based barriers to fishery progress are obvious?
- Are there any taboos which could hinder an extension programme in fisheries?
- What is the attitude of the people to existing extension programme in terms of current technical advice.

The extension personnel collecting facts for programme planning should ask people how they like to learn about improved farming methods. This will assist the extension workers to determine the best approach to adopt in his teaching process. Rural people have expressed preferences for certain extension methods such as demonstrations. The farmer folks should also be asked what sort of information they want. This should help to expose particular problems that fisher-folks have about which they need advice.

C. **Technical information and extension services:** All the technical information should be gathered, and the subject-matter programmes prepared by the specialists and the guides for programme planning prepared by the extension officer studied. Technical information bulletins relating to local farmer and to experiments and field trials should be studied.

It is also necessary for the extension worker to know what other programmes, projects or activities are being carried out by the government or other organizations in the area and what effect they may have on his own programme. In particular, local programmes of community development or co-operative departments as well as development planned by local governments should be fully understood**.**

Methods of Collecting Facts:

Formal surveys may be necessary to find out facts about people and their attitudes. Such surveys frequently provide useful information about the economics of fish farm management, the use of family labor and capital. The purpose of collecting information from people is to help the

extension service to be of greater benefit to them. For the information to be a value it must be truthfully and accurately reported and personal opinions should not influence objective reporting. Speculations and guess work should not be a substitute for systematic surveys.

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Enumerate the facts needed by extension worker at the stage of fact collection?

2.   **Analyse Facts and Define the Problem**:

The next stage in the programme planning process after collecting facts is to properly analyse the facts collected. By analysing the facts collected, the problems could then be easily identified.An important way of determining problems is to consider national aims in production in relation to state and local government objectives and identify the barriers to attaining the aims and objectives.   Policies goals and objectives broadly put at the national level should address improved quality of life, improved economic and income levels, improved literacy rates, improvement in attitudes, skills and knowledge and self improvement for the farmers. All these should be considered in relation to community values and goals.   This implies citizen involvement and participation in problem identification so that planned programmes could have desired effects on the people.

In summary, at this stage, programme should meet three requirements:

•   National aims, usually expressed in terms of increased productivity.
•   Farmer needs social and economic advancement through more efficient and productive activities and for improved health and well-being of the workers.
•   Technical support which should be looked at as the wise utilization of resources in the area and appropriateness of the techniques involved must be reflected in fulfilling the needs of the people.

1. **Propose Solution:**

The third stage in programme planning for efficient system is to propose solutions to identified problems.   This implies carrying out workable feasibility study by carefully analyzing the situation arising from problems identified. The activities at this stage should include:

- Resource and inventory studies
- Information on production base
- Input supply, credit and marketing services
- Effectiveness of Extension service and training
- Socio-economic factors
- Research, infrastructures, organizational and management issues
- Evaluation of economic and financial resources.

At this stage, considering the above points, the extension programme planner should:

i. Consider all possible solutions to the problem without sticking to only the solution he already has in mind.

ii. Discard solutions which are outside the capacity or sphere of operations of extension workers e.g. subsides, credit operations or major land reorganization and development schemes. If there is keen local demand for action beyond the scope of the extension worker, this fact should be reported to superior officers.

iii. Determine the probable result of alternatives. Each solution and its probable results should be considered and the most desirable course chosen bearing in mind the following:

(a) Complexity of the solution: Simple solutions are likely accepted more readily than complex advice.

(b) General acceptability: Technically should solutions but which are not likely to be accepted should be discarded.

(c) Practicability: It is necessary to consider:

- Cost of the solution in terms of money and time.
- Personnel and supervision facilities available. Solutions that require specialists should be carefully considered before being put forward.
- Availability of equipment and materials.
- Capacity and knowledge of the farmers: Solutions to problems must be based on farmers" ability and knowledge. As men and

women do not have unlimited resources of labour, time and money. Solution must be suggested which fall within their resources. Extension programmes must therefore start where the people are. It should be noted that it may not be possible to find solutions to all problems. The most urgent problems that are likely to be solved successfully should therefore be given priority.

4. **Plan Programme/Project:**   After selecting the most desirable solutions, the next stage involves planning schedule of work and developing suitable programme/programme. Objectives should be stated in order of priority. The objectives should be written in clear, concise and direct language such that everybody concerned with the proposed programme can understand and apply.

The general objective may be followed by several specific working objectives. This involves breaking down the general steps which all concerned with the programme can easily comprehend.

Plans at this stage should be towards:

- Broad farming and rural development
- Integrated development
- Sound land use plans
- Sound plans
- Service administration
- Infrastructure development and man-power training
- Organization and supervision
- Local participation
- Effective extension strategies
- Marketing
- Monitoring and evaluation.

In the process of stating the objectives, the extension workers could also give a very short outline of how it is proposed to work toward achieving stated objectives.

5. **Plan of work, work calendar** (Developing programme at the implementation stage)

It is necessary at this stage to plan in detail how to work towards determined objectives. The annual plan of work states the objectives and then shows the means of attaining them. It is usual to prepare an outline plan of work for the year followed up with a work calendar prepared monthly.

Work plans and calendars should be prepared by the extension worker in cooperation with superior extension staff, specialists, local leaders and other relevant agencies, and ministries (Williams et al 1984, Bradfield, 1977). This consultation helps to gain support, necessary assistance and cooperation.

At this stage activities should be well scheduled with specific division of responsibilities.

The annual pan of work should be flexible and should give room for unexpected activities such as control of pests and diseases and environmental hazards. The extension worker should also plan for unexpected success arising from adoption of innovation. Activities to be planned for at this stage include:

- Staff recruitment and development
- Infrastructure coordination and development
- Movement of inputs
- Contact and training
- Public enlightenment and general information system
- General coordination and supervision
- Over all administrative management and accountability.

All these activities require judicious use of time and efforts. Valuable time and efforts should not be wasted unnecessarily.

4.0 Conclusion

In this unit you have been introduced to the concept of planning in Extension progrmme.

You also know the forms and methods of collecting facts during planning process. You have also learnt the major steps in Extension Programme Planning.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, you have learnt that proper planning enables the extension worker to determine his needs with respect to adequate staff equipment and funds to carry out its tasks. You also learnt that the knowledge of the steps in planning viable extension programme is therefore important for an extension worker. The major steps are facts collection, analyze facts and define problems, propose situation and plan programme/project.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

- Explain the various steps the major steps in Planning Extension Programme?
- Enumerate the forms and methods of collecting facts during planning process?
- State the activities required at the different stage Extension planning?

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UNIT 3 CONCEPT OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION MONITORING

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      3.2   Approaches to extension monitoring

      3.3   Principles of monitoring

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The Global Consultation on Agricultural Extension observed that monitoring and evaluation are important yet frequently neglected functions in most organizations (FAO, 1990).It is observed that in many cases the Monitoring and Evaluation units are weak and are limited to ad hoc studies. Frequently, these Monitoring and Evaluation units are abandoned when project funding terminates. Also, and evaluation often concentrate on problems, exposing weaknesses and failures of organizations rather been used in a positive manner to improve extension's performance and increase its efficiency. Therefore, it is often recommended that national extension systems should be strongly encouraged to establish and use monitoring procedures and

evaluation studies both to improve extension performance and to communicate the results of extension programmes to policy makers and clientele being served. Programme monitoring efforts combined with information from the accounting system will provide information about efficiency.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the concepts of monitoring and evaluation in Agricultural extension

- state all the basic agricultural extension monitoring principles

- state extension monitoring and evaluation indicators

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Basic Concepts of Monitoring and Evaluation in Agricultural Extension

The word "monitor" is derived from the Latin word meaning to warn, and "evaluate" stems from the word value.

Concepts of Monitoring: Monitoring is a specialized, dynamic, semiautonomous, and institutionalized management resource. Monitoring helps to ensure the implementation of extension programmes in accordance with their design and takes into account the interests of various stakeholders. The definition of monitoring can be operationalized by establishing principles to follow; setting up a data collection system; establishing relationships among the monitoring unit, management, the extension staff, and extension's clients (farmers); and making appropriate use of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs)

Concepts of Evaluation: Evaluation is carried out in extension work to determine if the expected result in extension programme measures the effectiveness of personnel involved, methods used, and the extension programme as a whole. The evaluation of personnel is normally carried out by the job rating process. Evaluation is made possible by accurate recording and group reporting of extension activities. Evaluation of extension programmes is made possible and easier when the objectives of the programme have been clearly and concisely stated. Stating the objective in terms of the changes to be brought about in people as a result of the extension programme should

also be evaluated in terms of people reached, in terms of number and adoption level. According to Macdonald and Hearle (1984), evaluation should be carried out in three stages:

- Pre-evaluation: This is done before the programme starts in other to provide baseline data and guide the programme. The extension worker must consider what the programme is to achieve and what its objectives are.

- On-going evaluation: At the planning stage, the extension worker consider how regular the on-going evaluation. The baseline data is compared with the result to see whether the programme is succeeding or failing. Programme should be flexible for ease of amendment of plans if certain aspects are not working.

- Post-evaluation: This is carried out at the end of the programme. Evaluation at this stage is of greater depth than the on-going evaluation. Judgements of the effect on the people materially and in their behaviour are evaluated. Also at this stage, the overall effectiveness of the personnel involved, method used and the programme as a whole is evaluated. This ensures proper planning of future extension programme.

Fundamentals concepts of monitoring and evaluation

There are four concepts that are basic to monitoring and evaluation namely: Capability, effectiveness, efficiency, and impact. They correspond, respectively, to operational investment (e.g., investment in agricultural extension per farm family), operational efficiency (e.g., the number of visits, meetings, demonstrations, and trials, per extension worker), technical efficiency (e.g., the number of adopters, hectorage, output, and value added), and extension-induced changes (e.g., production, productivity, income, and income distribution) (Ruthenburg, 1985).

Capability, effectiveness, and efficiency fall in the monitoring domain. Impact falls in the evaluation domain.

- Capability is the command that extension has over physical, financial, and human resources, enabling it to serve its clients (the farmers). It is reflected by extension's outreach, intensity, technical competence, and physical and financial resources. Extension performance depends directly upon its capability.

- Effectiveness is defined by a handbook on productivity management as "the degree to which goals are attained" (Prokopenko, 1987). Agricultural extension has many goals such as social goals (e.g., farmer welfare) and economic goals (e.g., increased income).

- Efficiency in extension is usually measured by the rates at which farmers adopt recommended practices. Adoption rates of varying degrees of complexity can be conceived (Casley & Lury, 1982).

- Impact in extension can be measured by a simple indicator, like yield of a crop per hectare or by constructing simple productivity indices. Such indicators provide ultimate tests for the success of extension programmes.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- define the concepts of monitoring and evaluation in Agricultural extension?

- explain the three levels of evaluation according to Macdonald and Hearle (1984).

3.2 Basic Agricultural Extension Monitoring Principles

There are some principles spelt out by Misra (1997) necessary for proper monitoring of extension programmes. These principles include:

- Simplicity: Monitoring must be simple. A multifaceted or complicated monitoring system is self-defeating. The basic task of monitoring is to simplify the field-level complexity, sifting the more important concerns from the less significant.

- Timeliness: Monitoring must be well-timed. Timeliness is the fundamental nature in monitoring. Management requires input from the monitoring system so that timely action may be taken. Also, timeliness is closely related to the reliability of monitoring itself.

- Relevance: Monitoring must be appropriate. It must concern itself only with parameters which are relevant to programme objectives. This also ensures that monitoring does not generate information that is not used or is not usable by management.

- Reliability: Information provided through monitoring should be dependable. Management will rely on monitoring findings only if the information is believed to be reasonably accurate.

- Participatory Effort: Monitoring efforts should be contributory. Effort should be made to ensure participation by all concerned with extension, be they field-level personnel, subject-matter specialists, or extension's clients (the farmers).

- Flexibility: Monitoring must be bendable. It is reoccurrence in nature and gets habitual with the passage of time. These two characteristics should not, however, lead to rigidity.

- Action- *Oriented:* Monitoring should be action oriented. Monitoring often leads to action. Consequently, it should follow pragmatic approaches, keeping the requirements of extension's clients uppermost in view. Generating information for which there is no intended use should be diligently avoided.

- Cost-effectiveness: Monitoring must be cost-effective. Monitoring efforts cost money and time. It is therefore essential to make it cost-effective. While principles of simplicity, time-lines, relevance, and accuracy will lead to cost-effectiveness, computerization also can help to make monitoring more cost-effective by reducing staff hours in data processing.

- Top management oriented: Monitoring units should keep in mind the requisites of top management when designing and operating a monitoring system. Yet at the same time, monitoring must take into account the fact that those who provide information to the system also must benefit or the quality of the information provided will decline.

- Problem-Solving Oriented: Monitoring units represent focused activities. Monitoring is not merely concerned with the collection and analysis of data, but with diagnosing problems and suggesting alternative practical solutions.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- Describe ten basic principles necessary for proper monitoring of extension programmes?

3.3 Extension Monitoring and Evaluation Indicators

Indicators are variables that help to appraise changes in a given situation. They are apparatus for monitoring and evaluating the effects of an activity and the principal means by which a monitoring unit keeps track of extension's capability, effectiveness, and efficiency.

In extension monitoring, both the inductive and the deductive approaches are followed. In the inductive approach, a system of social, economic, and demographic statistics is created and a

wide range of indicators is developed on the basis of the statistics available. In the deductive approach, the areas of interest are first identified, and then requisite indicators are developed.

Extension monitoring indicators can also be grouped into two categories:

(1) Extension capability indicators, and

(2) Extension performance indicators.

Both should be generated by the monitoring unit

- **Extension Capability Indicators**

  Extension capability indicators must be monitored regularly not only to know the status of extension's capability at a certain point in time, but also to determine changes in it over time.

  These indicators should be calculated annually. They involve only desk work because they are based on in-house data. Example, Extension capability indicators test for example Competence, Intensity, and Equity

- **Extension Performance Indicators**

  Extension performance indicators reflect extension's operational and technical efficiency. They can be grouped into two categories namely extension effectiveness indicators and extension efficiency indicators.

There are different types of indicators, for example, development indicators, socioeconomic indicators, agricultural development indicators, and extension indicators. They range from general to specific concerns .The criteria for selecting indicators depend upon the purpose, resources, and time available. The following decisive factor is usually suggested:

- Simplicity: The indicator should be simple enough to be understood by non-specialists (FAO, 1988).
- Unambiguous definition: It should be clearly defined (Casley & Lury, 1982,; Casley & Kumar, 1987).
- Ready determination: The data can be obtained without undue difficulty (WHO, 1989). This is also referred to as "timely" (ACC, 1984) and "feasible" (FAO, 1988, p. 8;Gha, Hopkins, & McGranahan, 1988).
- Accurate measurement: The indicator should be measured accurately, which is often difficult when dealing with farming communities (Casley & Lury, 1982).

- Validity*:* The indicator should actually measure what it is supposed to measure (ACC, 1984; FAO, 1988; see also Gha et al., 1988).
- Relevance*:* It should be geared to the specific needs of decision makers (Petry, 1983) and be relevant to project objectives (ACC, 1984).
- Specify*:* It should reflect changes only in the situation concerned (WHO, 1989) and should measure specific conditions that the project aims to change (Casley & Kumar, 1987).
- Consistency*:* The value of indicators should stay constant so long as they are collected in identical conditions, no matter who does the collecting (Casley & Kumar, 1987). Indicators should be objective and verifiable (FAO, 1988).
- Sensitivity*:* Indicators should be sensitive to changes in the situation being observed (ACC, 1984). They should be sensitive enough to reflect changes in the phenomenon
- Prioritization*:* Indicators should be prioritized and a minimum feasible list prepared (Gha et al., 1988).

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have been exposed to the concepts and the principles of monitoring and evaluation in agricultural extension. You are also open to aspects to Extension monitoring and evaluation indicators.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that an effective agriculture extension system will need to establish and use monitoring procedures and evaluation both to improve extension performance and to communicate the results of extension programmes to policy makers and clientele being served. Evaluation should be carried out in three stages with the correct principles. The criteria for selecting indicators that help to appraise changes in a given situation depend upon the purpose, resources, and time available. Monitoring and evaluating the effects of an activity and the principal means by which a monitoring unit keeps track of extension's capability, effectiveness, and efficiency.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Enumerate the four concepts that are basic to monitoring and evaluation.
2. What are the decisive factors for the selection indicators for an Agriculture Extension project?
3. Explain seven benefits an extension organisation will achieve in carrying proper monitoring.

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UNIT 4 EXTENSION POLICY FORMULATION

CONTENTS

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      2.2 The Scope and Forms of extension policy

      2.3 Principal Issues that extension policy should address

      2.4 Extension policy formulation

3.0 Conclusion

4.0 Summary

5.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

6.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

A policy is typically described as a principle or rule to guide decisions and achieve rational outcome(s). The term is not normally used to denote what is actually done; this is normally referred to as either procedure or protocol. Whereas a policy will contain the 'what' and the 'why', procedures or protocols contain the 'what', the 'how', the 'where', and the 'when'. Policies are generally adopted by the Board of or senior governance body within an organization whereas

procedures or protocols would be developed and adopted by senior executive officers. A policy can be considered as a "Statement of Intent" or a "Commitment". For that reason at least, we can be held accountable for our "Policy".

Policies are typically promulgated through official written documents. Policy documents often come with the endorsement or signature of the executive powers within an organization to legitimize the policy and demonstrate that it is considered in force. Such documents often have standard formats that are particular to the organization issuing the policy. While such formats differ in form, policy documents usually contain certain standard components including:

- A purpose statement, outlining why the organization is issuing the policy, and what its desired effect or outcome of the policy should be.

- An applicability and scope statement, describing who the policy affects and which actions are impacted by the policy. The applicability and scope may expressly exclude certain people, organizations, or actions from the policy requirements. Applicability and scope is used to focus the policy on only the desired targets, and avoid unintended consequences where possible.

- An effective date which indicates when the policy comes into force. Retroactive policies are rare, but can be found.

- A responsibilities section, indicating which parties and organizations are responsible for carrying out individual policy statements. Many policies may require the establishment of some ongoing function or action. For example, a purchasing policy might specify that a purchasing office be created to process purchase requests, and that this office would be responsible for ongoing actions. Responsibilities often include identification of any relevant oversight and/or governance structures.

- Policy statements indicating the specific regulations, requirements, or modifications to organizational behavior that the policy is creating. Policy statements are extremely diverse depending on the organization and intent, and may take almost any form.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit you should be able to;

- Explain the concepts of extension policy

- state the scope and forms of extension policy

- enumerate the principal Issues that extension policy should address

- explain how extension policy should be formulated

3.0 Main Content

3.1 The Concept Extension Policy

The importance of extension policy was recognized by the FAO's Global Consultation on Agricultural Extension when it recommended that "all national governments should develop and periodically review their agricultural extension policy. This policy should include the goals of agricultural extension, the responsible agencies and personnel, the clientele to be served, the broad programmatic areas to be addressed, and other relevant guidelines." The consultation further recommended that "the FAO, in cooperation with the donor community, should engage in policy dialogue with national governments to stress the importance of agricultural extension in national agricultural development and the need to have an explicit, formally enacted, agricultural extension policy" (Swanson, 1990).

Policy makers in many developing countries view extension as a policy instrument to increase agricultural production, to achieve national food security, and, at the same time, help alleviate rural poverty. In addition, some economists view extension as a policy instrument that will contribute to human capital development and economic growth; therefore, resources allocated to extension are viewed as an economic investment which must produce competitive economic returns. To the practitioner, agricultural extension enhances and accelerates the spread of useful know-how and technologies to rural people. These activities are expected to lead to increased and sustained productivity, increased income and well-being of farm people, and to the promotion of national food security and economic growth. These objectives are to be achieved through non-formal education and training programmes and two-way technology transfer and

feedback systems where extension has an important contribution to make to agricultural and rural development.

3.2 Scope and Forms of extension policy

The Scope of extension policy: Agricultural extension policy is a part of national development policy in general and of agricultural and rural development policy in particular. Hence, agricultural extension is one of the policy instruments which governments can use to stimulate agricultural development (Van Den Van in Jones, 1986). Extension is very much a part of what Röling refers to as the agricultural development mix. He notes that extension is a weak instrument when it stands alone, but that it becomes powerful when combined with price incentives, input supply, credit, seed multiplication, and so forth (Röling in Jones, 1986). The Global Consultation on Agricultural Extension concluded that agricultural extension policy should be consistent with and supportive of national agricultural development policy and goals (Swanson, 1990).

Each country should have a comprehensive agricultural extension policy which provides for coordination with research, education, input supply, and credit and marketing systems, as well as some flexibility to reflect the dynamic nature of the agricultural sector. The policy should include the mission and goals for agricultural extension, the responsible agencies and personnel, the clientele to be served, the broad programmatic areas to be addressed, and other relevant guidelines. In developing national agricultural extension policies, representatives of all major groups of farmers should be directly involved and other relevant agricultural organizations should be consulted. "By pursuing a comprehensive policy," the Global Consultation noted, "countries can expect the extension system to contribute to increasing agricultural productivity and farm income, and to improving the quality of life of most rural farm households in pursuit of the general goal of growth with equity. In addition, such a policy should help maintain and conserve the natural resource base for sustained agricultural development and enhance food security" (Swanson, 1990).

Forms of extension policy: research is needed in classifying extension policies both in developed and developing countries, as well as in those countries in transition. There are three forms of extension policies

- **Provisional Extension Policies**

This is the most common form of extension policy in most developing countries. In the absence of more formalized extension policies, or at the time when the formally enacted policy has been suspended, a provisional or ad hoc policy comes into play. For example, Mozambique in the early 1980s did not have a national policy for agricultural extension. When the agricultural development policy shifted from a reliance on state farms to the involvement of small family farms, a provisional extension policy was formulated to provide farmers and the cooperative sector with improved training and technology. To develop and test this provisional policy, a UNDP/FAO-supported project assisted the government in defining a national agricultural extension policy and developing a programme of implementation.

- **Decrees and Proclamations**

Decrees and proclamations are policies issued by the head of state or by the executive officer of government. Generally, this approach does not go through the process of consultation and debate involving various stakeholders and beneficiaries. An example of this form of policy was the Brazilian government decree abolishing the national agricultural extension authority and transferring some of its functions and staff to the national agricultural research authority. Also, it empowered the state-level rural extension authorities to continue their respective programmes

3.3 Factors for Formulating Extension Policy

Factors that policy makers and support service agencies must address in formulating and implementing agricultural and rural development policy include population and environmental concerns

- **The Population Factor**

An important concern is the rapid population growth in many developing countries. This factor has a direct impact on the demand for food and other agricultural products, and it results in increased pressure on the land and other natural resources .These problems point to the need for more education and technical support to farm households, both to increase productivity and to preserve natural resources.

- **Natural Resources and Environmental Factors**

Population pressure and the demand for increasing food output are now commonly associated with the degradation, depletion, and pollution of soil, water, and other natural resources (Alexandratos, 1995). Numerous actions are required for a society to conserve, protect, rehabilitate, and manage its land, water, and other natural resources; therefore, extension has a central role to play in disseminating sustainable agricultural technology.

3.4 Extension policy formulation

There is no standard formula to be used in formulating agricultural extension policies. It should be noted, however, that most existing laws and policies on extension have been formulated by planners and policy makers in the ministry of agriculture and agriculture committees in the legislative branch of government. Normally, agricultural extension professionals from agricultural universities or from abroad are called on to provide advice and to assist in drafting extension legislation. A congressional hearing is normally conducted before extension legislation is finally enacted into law.

To be more relevant to the needs of farmers and other clientele, extension policy should be reviewed and formulated through a participatory approach. This process could be initiated by dedicated professionals from the public and private sectors, with the active participation of farmers themselves, the private sector, and local government representatives. A proposed draft extension policy that results from this participatory approach would have to be legitimized by the ministry of agriculture and then enacted into law by the congress or parliament. The advantage of this approach would be greater relevance to local conditions and acceptance by stakeholders at the field level.

As the Global Consultation on Agricultural Extension noted: "There are sometimes contradictions between national development policy and the interests of the vast majority of the rural poor who are engaged in agricultural production. Representatives of all major farm groups should be involved, both through formal mechanisms and informal consultations, in the formulation and execution of agricultural extension policy. Farmer involvement in policy formulation and periodic review is the most effective means of creating a 'demand driven'

national extension system" (Swanson, 1990).A well formulated extension policy should address the following Issues namely;

i. **Extension Mission and Goals** :

Although extension has a generic and universal meaning, its mission and goals may need to be adjusted according to national objectives and the context and stage of agricultural and rural development in a given country. Should the mission of extension be to promote agricultural development through technology transfer? Should it give higher priority to human resource development in rural areas, or should it promote sustainable agricultural and rural development? The extension mission should be reflected in the name of the organization, and the preamble for extension policy should be included in the law governing the country's extension system. This mission then should be reflected in a statement of goals and objectives that are agreed upon and assigned to extension in a supporting policy document. This document should be periodically reviewed by policy makers and representatives from stakeholder groups.

ii. **Extension Approach and Functions**

National extension systems can pursue one of several different extension approaches in implementing extension policy. Most extension systems in developing countries give primary attention to technology transfer, given national agricultural policies that emphasize increasing food production and achieving national food security. An example of a technology transfer approach would be the Training and Visit (T&V) Extension System that has been promoted by the World Bank through its lending programme. Although the U.S. extension system has been particularly effective in technology transfer, its main focus has been on increasing the skills and knowledge of rural farm families, who have become very effective consumers of agricultural technology. Therefore, the extension approach pursued by a country should reflect the mission of extension, and it will define the functions, programmes, and tasks that will be carried out by the extension staff.

iii. **Subject-Matter Coverage of Extension**

Broadly speaking, the subject matter of extension is implied in the mission statement and even in the title of the extension service. What differentiates between agricultural and

rural extension is the subject matter that the extension service will include in its programmes and the target groups to be served among the rural population. Very narrow subject-matter coverage such as promotion of food and cash crops and animal production may invite a costly proliferation of several specialized and uncoordinated extension initiatives. Broader subject-matter coverage such as promoting the entire farming system, sustain-able agricultural, and rural development leads to a more unified agricultural extension system. Another issue is whether the extension system should include socioeconomic and sustainable development messages.

iv. **Geographical Coverage**

Geographical coverage can be an important policy issue because of both political and cost implications. Most political leaders want their jurisdiction to be covered by an effective extension service; therefore, they must find a way to provide funds for extension programmes. If extension funding is to be provided by different levels of government (cost sharing), then the structure of extension must reflect these different sources of funding. Extension personnel will tend to be more responsible to those levels of government that provide extension funding. For example, if local governmental units provide some extension funding, then extension personnel will tend to be more responsive to the needs of farmers and political leaders within these local government units than they are if all funding comes from the national government. In short, having multiple sources of funding, especially from different levels of government, will increase the number of shareholders and result in an extension system that has a broader base of support and that is more responsive to stakeholders at the local level. On purely economic grounds, some economists believe that agricultural extension should be concentrated in those agricultural areas that are well endowed in terms of both human and natural resources and where the rural infrastructure is already developed.

However, to concentrate extension resources on larger, better educated, commercial farmers who frequently control the best land resources in a country will not lead to broad-based agricultural development. Furthermore, the use of only economic criteria in allocating extension resources may result in further degradation of soil and water resources as resource poor farmers continue to exploit marginal land without using

appropriate farming practices. Finally, investing in resource poor farm families may increase their technical, management, and leadership skills, thereby enabling them or their children to move into higher paying, nonfarm jobs.

v. **Clientele or Target Beneficiaries**

A common criticism of extension services in developing countries is their neglect of the vast number of small-scale farmers in favour of fewer numbers of large farmers, or the very limited attention given to women farmers. This is a policy issue because of its implications for the mission and goals of extension, the priorities for technology generation by research, the cost-effectiveness of extension, and the sociopolitical goals of growth with equity and poverty alleviation. The inclusion of women and rural youth in agricultural extension programmes is generally recognized in terms of their numbers and contribution to farming. Worldwide, an estimated 51 per cent of the active population in agriculture are women. In Africa, women's participation in food production is as high as 76 per cent (FAO, 1990) in some areas. In 1995, there were an estimated 1.5 billion rural young people between 15 and 29 years of age, 1.3 billion of them in less developed countries. Given that rural youth may account for up to 60 per cent of the population in developing countries, should they be specially recognized for their crucial role in achieving sustainable agricultural and rural development across the coming generation of farmers?

vi. **Organizational Issues**

The extension organization embodies different aspects of an extension system, and it provides the management framework for the extension service. This is a policy issue because it affects the scope, magnitude, and structure of the extension system, including factors such as control, cost-effectiveness, and the impact of the extension service. There are four different forms of extension organization namely:

1. *Centralized organization.* Examples include the Department of Agricultural Extension in Thailand and Bangladesh, the Agricultural Extension Bureau of South Korea, and AGRITEX in Zimbabwe. In this form of organization, the national extension office manages and controls extension programme activities and resources at the regional, district, subdistrict, and village level. Clientele participation and feedback in programme planning are generally limited.

2. *Decentralized organization.* Examples of this form of extension organization are the agricultural extension systems in Brazil, Canada, India, Nigeria, and the Philippines. These systems have almost an invisible national or federal extension office, in that extension programming, management, and the control of activities and resources are vested with state or provincial governments.

3. *Cooperative type of extension organization and funding.* The distinguishing feature of this form of extension organization is the cooperation or partnership between the national, state or provincial, and local governments in funding, programming, and managing the activities and resources of extension. In the United States, extension is a joint undertaking of the U.S. Department of Agriculture (Federal Extension Service), the state land-grant universities, and the county governments. In Japan, extension is a joint undertaking of the national government and the prefectural government. In China, agricultural extension is a cooperative undertaking of the central, provincial, prefecture, and county governments. Cooperative programming, management, and support are demonstrated at the County Agro-Technical Extension Centre (CATEC), where normally 20 per cent of funding comes from the central government, 30 per cent from the provincial government, and 50 per cent from the county government.

4. *Pluralistic forms of a national extension system.* This is an emerging form of extension organization in many countries, but it is not yet reflected in national extension policy. This structure appears to occur in those countries where the need for extension services is widespread and/or where the public agricultural extension organization can no longer satisfy its clientele because of resource and management problems. As a consequence, many publicly and/or privately funded organizations, including nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), are beginning to conduct agricultural extension programmes. Publicly funded extension organizations may include the crop, livestock, and horticulture departments of the ministry of agriculture, state-funded agricultural colleges and universities, and commodity boards. Privately funded organizations may include rural development-oriented NGOs, agrobusiness firms (contract extension), and farmer organizations, including cooperatives and commodity associations. Generally, the geographical, subject-matter, and clientele coverage and the standard of work for each of these different organizations are not known. Also, these separate efforts are generally not well coordinated. For contemporary policy making in extension, it would be advisable that a roster or "map" of all the publicly and privately funded extension programmes be established and

a national extension policy formulated that would recognize this multiplicity of extension funding and programmes, and then to study the feasibility of a policy that would promote integration of the agricultural extension system.

- **Extension Staffing Issues**

By the nature of the mission and work that an extension system carries out, its worth to society is largely reflected by the quality and number of the technical and professional staff in the organization. For a national programme of extension, the human resource question that policy makers and extension managers are confronted with is: Given the mission, scope of the work, and available resources, what type of qualifications and how many extension staff should be employed by the extension system? Part of this staffingmatrix includes other questions: What should be the proportion of subject-matter specialists to field extension workers? What should be the proportion of field extension personnel to the number of farmers, farm households, or other target groups? How should extension staff be deployed, how often should they be transferred, and what incentives should be provided in order to ensure that they work closely with all groups of farmers?

- **Extension Funding**

The most difficult and challenging policy issue facing extension today is to secure a stable source of funding. With the widespread trend to cut government budgets, including structural adjustment programmes, many policy makers have the impression that public extension is both expensive and a drain on the government's limited resources. At the same time, studies carried out in both developed and developing countries indicate that the returns to extension expenditures are high. Therefore, policy makers should examine this issue carefully in deciding what level of public funding is necessary to support extension in relation to the needs of farmers in the country.

The issue of funding extension continues to be the most difficult policy issue faced by extension. This issue is complicated by the increased demand for more extension services on the part of increasing numbers of farm households who have fewer land and water resources. Furthermore, extension is being called to integrate sustain-able development messages into its extension programmes. This results in "working with less to do more."

- **Stability**

A good extension policy promotes extension system stability, yet allows sufficient flexibility to reflect the dynamic nature of the agricultural sector. Extension should not be rigid; rather, "It should be responsive to all major groups of farm people and sufficiently inclusive to allow public, private, and non-governmental organizations to contribute fully to the agricultural development goals of the country" (Swanson, 1990). Frequent organizational changes within extension, such as being transferred from one government agency to another, directly impact the organization's effectiveness. Such instability is costly in that trained staff are poorly utilized and opportunities for improved productivity are forgone.

4.0 Conclusion

Lessons from the past can serve as a guide to the future in formulating relevant and useful extension policy in developing countries. Extension policy should include the following: (1) name of the extension system, (2) mission and goals, (3) intended clientele, (4) geographic coverage, (5) the dominant extension approach to be followed, (6) general subject-matter coverage, (7) institutional and organizational framework, (8) how extension will be financed, and (9) provisions for review and accountability within the extension system.

5.0 Summary

The ultimate test of extension policy is the impact that extension is having on the productivity of all major groups of farmers, including their incomes and quality of life. In addition, extension should be evaluated by its contribution to sustainable agricultural development. To extension policy makers, managers, specialists, and professional staff, the following checklist might prove useful: (1) Is extension policy developmental with a long-term vision? (2) Does it foster innovativeness and creativity on the part of the extension staff, and does it have more provisions for facilitating, rather than controlling, their work? (3) Does it foster stakeholder participation and confidence in the extension system? (4) Does it attract sustained financial support from government through the support of stakeholders and beneficiaries? (5) Does it follow appropriate procedures and methods to perform its responsibilities efficiently and effectively? and (6) Does it have reasonable provisions for accountability through periodic reviews?

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

- What factors will an Agricultural organisation considers in the Formulation of Extension Policy?

- Briefly explain the scope and the forms of extension policy?

- Enumerate and discuss the issues a well formulated extension policy should address?

7.0 References/Further Reading

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Module 2 Principle of Administration and Supervision

Unit 1 Concept of Administration

Unit 2 Tasks and Levels of Agricultural Administration

Unit 3 Staff Supervision in Agricultural Extension

Unit 1 Concept of Administration

CONTENT

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main content

      3.1 Concept of Administration

      3.2 Characteristics of Agricultural Administration

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6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

    1.0 Introduction

Administration is the management of the affairs of a business especially the planning and control of its operation. It is the guidance, leadership and control of the efforts of groups of people or individuals toward some common goals. It is basically a social technique which skillful administrator in an enterprise needs to succeed. Along these, they also require technical knowledge and capital to execute all the transactions, especially human and material resources.

For any type of social system to exist, viable and profitably, administration has a lot of role to play. Although the structures of different social system differs, but the methods of tackling their problems remains the same.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit you should be able to,

- explain the concept of Agricultural Administration.

- enumerate the characteristics of Agricultural Administration.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Concept of Agricultural Administration

Administration is usually connected with organizing, selecting executives or personnel, establishing plans, measuring results, coordinating, controlling and delegating activities. Ogunbameru (2001) defined administration as giving direction and making decisions, formulating policies and plans, implementing the formulated policies and plans and monitoring them; maintaining inter personal relationships with others such as subordinates, those at the same level or peers, in other sectors, departments, organization and superiors or super-ordinates using management techniques for planning, executing and evaluation of operatives; and providing administrative services such as clerical accounting, financial (FAO, 1979).

Administration involves the creation and maintenance of an environment in which individual employees work together in groups towards the accomplishment of organizational goals. Hardaker (1971), defined administration as forming balanced judgment, which for making rational decisions. A good administrator therefore implies acting with purpose, imagination, foresight and common sense.

Administration can also be seen as the act and science of getting result through employees. It is the marshalling or effective utilization of men, money, materials and methods (the four "M" of administrations).

Agricultural administration is essentially the guidance, leadership and the control among all the clients of agriculture related activities (Ekpere, 1976). Efficient agricultural administration

requires professionally trained and well-informed people. The chief role of the programme manager, managing director or director is to get results by effectively directing the work of other members of staff. To achieve this lofty role, the manager or administrator must adhere to the philosophy that hinges on:

1.   respect for the worth and dignity of the individual employees;

2.   faith in the employees" ability to make rational decisions;

3.   maintain moral and spiritual values in inter-personal relationships;

4.   shared and collective responsibility for common goal of the organization;

5.   respect for the dignity of labour; and

6.   promotion of the emotional, physical and psychological health of all employees, regardless of their tribe, religion, sex and political leaning.

Dealing with people, however, presents many complexities due to the differences in personalities, attitudes or emotional levels, learning styles, communication skills and technical competencies. Despite all these differences, the mission object of managers is to get the task accomplished. Additionally, managers are supposed to motivate employees to perform their responsibilities better (Culpan, 1986). The programme manager must masterfully work towards employees" satisfaction to achieve organizational goals.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What are the viewpoints that must be adhered to for the manager or administrator to achieves organizational goals and has employees" satisfaction?

3.2 Characteristics of Agricultural administration

Chief executives must constantly capitalize on the following characteristics of an effective and efficient agricultural administration, including, among others:

1. Agricultural administration demands an efficient organization of the available manpower and physical resources with a view to ensure the greatest amount of goods for the largest number of people, in the least possible time and with minimum amount of energy.

2. A good agricultural administration always endeavours to be readily available and ever willing to solve the problems of the people as soon as they are brought to the notice of its personnel. It is also one of the tasks of agricultural administration to bring awareness among the people about the problems not readily perceived by them and to sensitize them to foresee their problems and be effective in resolving them.

3. Agricultural administration operates through understanding rather than dogmatic pressure, through building confidence by offering assistance in helping the workers at the successive lower levels.

4. Agricultural administration allows enough freedom to its officials to discharge their responsibilities both efficiently and effectively. For this purpose, powers are delegated to the maximum extent and centralization of the administration is kept to the barest maximum. A good agricultural administrator is therefore ever willing to render assistance to anyone who needs it and is always there to set a good standard of service and cooperation, i.e. leadership by example.

5. Agricultural administration helps to create and maintain an efficient organization manned by well trained and qualified personnel with the proper bent of mind and aptitude so as to convey the latest technology and scientific innovations to the people speedily in such a manner that the people can put them into practice.

6. Decentralization drives up the functions of decision and authorization to the top management it leaves action, when decided upon, to be carried out by the subordinate authority.

7. Coordination involves some supervision over the work of units, components, departments or divisions, but effective administration ensures that supervision does not lead to friction nor does it retard the growth of the lower level local authorities.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have been exposed to the concepts and philosophy of agricultural extension Administration as well as the Characteristics Agricultural Administration must constantly be capitalized on for an effective and efficient agricultural management.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that for any type of social system to exist, viable and profitably, administration has a lot of role to play. This is done as the organization engages in organizing, selecting executives or personnel, establishing plans, measuring results, coordinating, controlling and delegating activities. It is also clear that administrator must adhere to certain philosophy to get the task accomplished despite many complexities due to the differences in personalities, attitudes or emotional levels, learning styles, communication skills and technical competencies.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. State six philosophies a manager will employ to get the task accomplished despite many complexities due to the differences in personalities, attitudes or emotional levels, learning styles, communication skills and technical competencies.

2. Define the term Agricultural administration

3. What are the various qualities required for efficient agricultural administration?

4. State seven characteristics of agricultural administration

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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Unit 2 Tasks and Levels of Agricultural Administration

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    3.2 The different levels of Agricultural Administration

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1.0 Introduction

Agricultural extension administration is not uniquely different from the basic practices of administration.   In essence, it is the application of the latter, using the basic agricultural knowledge. The human, physical and even material resources involved are the same. However,

Ekpere (1990), broadly defined Agricultural Extension as "the discipline which seeks to develop professional competencies essential to the operation of a system of services which assist rural people through educational programmes of improved farming methods and techniques, increased production efficiency and income, level of living and achievement of a more fulfilling rural life".

2.0 Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define the strategic task agricultural administration

- state the different levels of agricultural administration

3.0 Main content

3.1 Strategic Task/Responsibilities of Agricultural Administration

The essential tasks of administration are the major functions performed by administrators. Thus, to analyze what an administrator does is to know the "what" and "how" of administration. This is involved in the following five basic processes of administration: planning, organizing, assembling resources, supervising and control. The major activities under each process are highlighted below:

1.   **Planning**
   (a)   Clarification of objectives
   (b)   Establishment of policies
   (c)   Mapping of programmes and campaigns
   (d)   Determining specific methods and procedures
   (e)   Fixing day-to-day schedules
   (f)   Survey the environment
   (g)   Forecast future situation
   (h)   Evaluate proposed actions
   (i)   Revised and adjust the plan in the light of control of results and
          changing conditions
   (j)   Communicate throughout the planning period.

2.	**Organizing**

(a)	Identify and define what to be done.

(b)	Break work down into duties.

(c)	Group duties into positions.

(d)	Define position requirement.

(e)	Group positions into manageable and properly related units (departments).

(f)	Assign work to be performed, accountability and extent of authority.

(g)	Revise and adjust the organization in the light of control, results and changing conditions.

(h)	Communicate throughout the organizing process.

3.	**Assembling Resources i.e Staffing**

(a)	Determine the human resources required.

(b)	Recruit potential employees.

(c)	Select from the recruits

(d)	Train and develop the human resources assembled

(e)	Revise and adjust the quantity and quality

(f)	Communicate throughout the staffing process

4.	**Supervising**

This includes motivating, directing coordinating, evaluating, etc. through:

•	Giving directions that will give desired results.

•	Issuing good instructions

•	Following up instructions

•	Explaining reasons for actions taken

•	Motivating personnel

•	Harmonizing and coordinating programmes and policies

•	Devising effective means of communication

•	Instilling dominant objectives

•	Encouraging informal contacts

•	Coordinating via supervision.

5.   **Controlling**

    (a)   Set standards at strategic points

    (b)   Set standards for individual responsibility and note deviations.

    (c)   Concentrate on important activities

    (d)   Use integrated budgets.

    (e)   Concentrate on exceptions

    (f)   Observe personally

    (g)   Design reports for action

    (h)   Take corrective action

    (i)   Balance control structure.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Highlighted the major activities involved in the basic processes of administration

3.2 Different levels of Agricultural Administration

It should be noted that agricultural administration is in three hierarchies or levels, namely:

- the top management level;
- the middle-management level; and
- the operating lower-management level.

The top management level is concerned with planning, coordination and liaison with other organizations and agencies in the community. The middle management level is involved in overseeing performance and controlling activities that move the organization towards the determined goals and objectives. While the operating lower-management level, the largest group of managers in the organization is essentially supervisory; this level of management ensures that employees follow procedures in work situations.

In whatever level or hierarchy one belongs to, it is imperative to function effectively. To do this, a manager must: lay emphasis on getting jobs done on time; think ahead; discuss ideas, procedures and alternatives with others; and make provision to cope with the unexpected changes.

A good administrator is a [person who allows the group to achieve its goal with a minimum expenditure of resources and efforts with the least interference with other worthwhile activities. In other words, good administrators, managers or businessmen must be able to convert resources into goods and services timely and cheaply. Also, administrators are people who possess outstanding ability in the particular activity they are directing. But it is important to note that administrative skill is different from technical proficiency in the operations being managed administrative ability is a distinct skill.

From experience, it is observed that a person managing the affairs of a club, business or operation is usually or sometime a previous star in that type of activity. For example, a football club director or manager must have been a good star player before, etc. However, this may not always be the case. In other cases, it is observed that administrative skill is something different from technical proficiency in the operations being managed. All that is required is a basic grasp of the administrative processes. Nonetheless, a technical experience and administrative skill will make a far better manager than the one with the latter alone.

According to Culpan (1988), administration is the "what" and "how" of government or any institution, formal or informal. The "what" is the subject matter, the technical knowledge of a "field" which enables the administrator to perform his tasks. The "how" is the techniques of management, the principles according to which cooperative programmes are carried out successfully.

In general, the essence of administration is the ability of the administrator to plan large projects, "wield together" the organization for their accomplishments, keep the organization functioning smoothly and efficiently to achieve the goals agreed upon well within the allotted personnel, time and resources available and without doing all the work himself.

The effectiveness of administration would increase, provided:

1.   Consultation procedures are followed to mobilize the best ideas of the staff,

2.   Responsibility and authority are essential ingredients of an effective administration. Responsibility is accountability that can be assigned, but should not be delegated. However, responsibility cannot exist without authority.

3. Authority is given to make decisions, and adjust whenever necessary. A person without authority has no power to make decisions and should not be held responsible for whatever goes wrong.

Responsibility to so many authorities usually leads to conflict. To resolve this, the individual should identify "who" is responsible for "what" and to "whom". However, it was advocated by President D. W. Calward that delegation of responsibility must go with the delegation of authority and freedom to act.

4.0 Conclusion

In this unit, you have been exposed to the essential tasks of administration. You also learnt rule of thumb for increased effectiveness of agricultural administration. The three hierarchies or levels agricultural administration was also highlighted.

5.0 Summary

Agricultural development efforts could have yielded better results, but the executors of the programmes involved appear to be lacking in adequate administrative capability. Hence Agricultural Extension Administration and Supervision courses designed for would-be agricultural workers is very essential. Elements of administrative processes were defined and explained. Finally, the five basic administrative processes: planning, organizing, assembling resources (personnel), supervising and control were classified, and briefly annotated.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

- What are the step agricultural administrators would take to increase the effectiveness of administration to achieve organizational goals?
- State the three hierarchies or levels agricultural administration and their various roles in the organization.

7.0 References/Further Readings

Culpan, R. 1986. Use of Video Case Production in Teaching Organizational Behavior. Proceedings of the Eastern Academy of Management. p. 112.

Ekpere J.A (1976): "Action Research in Participatory Rural Development: The Case of Badeku, Nigeria." Development. 2-3 1987. pp. 115-120.

Unit 3 Staff Supervision in Agricultural Extension

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      3.3 Qualities of a good supervision

      3.4 Supervisors Checklist

      3.5 Functions of Extension Supervisors

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

Supervision is an important administrative function in any organization. The organizational goals can only be achieved easily if there is a designated officer(s) who would oversee and direct the affairs of other extension staff in their activities. This function is important because staff selection and the training given to equip the staff for good performance could be useless if their activities are not properly coordinated and the staff not adequately motivated and appraised (evaluated). Without supervision, there will not be orderliness, delegation, coordination, motivation, evaluation. Everybody will be doing what he or she likes and nobody will be held responsible for anything done wrongly. Finally, the organizational goals will not be achieved.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you are expected to be able to:

1.   Explain the concept of supervision;

2.   State the conditions necessary for effective supervision;

3.   State the qualities of a good supervision.

4.   enumerate the functions of Extension Supervisors

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Concept of Supervision

Supervision is the art of working with a group of people over whom authority is exercised in such a way as to achieve their greatest combined effectiveness in getting work done. There is provision of leadership, guidance, control and delegation of authority, which are all necessary for the satisfactory attainment of the organizational goals. It involves helping subordinates to greater competency and growth. The supervisor defines standards and regulates rewards and punishments. He interprets government policies, coordinates all activities including budgeting and the physical facilities put in place.

Ogunbameru (2001), defined supervision in the agricultural extension service as the coordinated approach to provide guidance, direction and support to a subordinate staff in his work performance. It is a process by which workers are guided to carry out duties with increasing satisfaction to themselves, to the people with whom they work and to the agency for which they work.

Supervision, according to Dahama (1976) is selecting the right person for each job: arousing in each person an interest in his work and teaching him how to do it; measuring and rating performance to be sure that teaching has been fully effective; administering correction where this is found to be necessary and transferring to a more suitable work or dismissing those for whom this proves ineffective; and finally fitting each person harmoniously into the working group – all

done fairly, patiently and tactfully, so that each person is caused to do his work skillfully, accurately and completely.

By good supervision, we can motivate people to do better extension work, and this is the aim of defining the term supervision so that we may be able to enlist a few factors that improve supervision in the light of helping extension workers to motivate. As people differ in their attitudes and behavior, the supervisor has to try many factors so that the persons he supervises may be handled in a better way.

In all the above cases, supervision is best performed in an atmosphere of good will and mutual cooperation on the part of all the people involved.

3.2 Conditions Necessary for Effective Supervision

This is basically the condition or situation that should prevail before effective supervision can take place.

(i)   A clear understanding of the objectives and the roles of a supervisor in the organization.

(ii)   Must have the authority to carry out the responsibilities or functions of the organization.

(iii)   Must have democratic supervisory ability whenever the situation arises.

(iv)   Cooperatively shared ideas, experiences and efforts between supervisor and supervisee must exist.

(v)   The supervisor and his team must have a common insight, understanding of the objectives, goals and acceptable of the teamwork pattern to supervision.

(vi)   Vertical and horizontal communication between the supervisor and his supervisees must exist.

(vii)   There must be opportunities for creative thinking and self-expression by those being supervised.

(viii)   Opportunities for practicing the tasks for which one is being supervised, comprehensive and systematic evaluation activities whenever necessary must be possible.

Self-Assessment Exercise

 List six Conditions Necessary for Effective Supervision

3.3 Qualities of a Good Supervision

This is somehow similar to conditions necessary for supervision, but differs from it in that these are the characteristics that the supervisors themselves must possess for effective supervision. They are:

(i)   Vitality and endurance.

(ii)   Intellectual capacity; knowledge and intelligence.

(iii)   Decisiveness and objectivity.

(iv)   Sense of responsibility.

(v)   Persuasiveness

(vi)   Recognition of individual differences.

(vii)   Avoiding imposing orders.

(viii) Drive, forcefulness, stability.

(ix)   Supervision is a co-operative activity. It takes place through shared ideas, efforts and experience of all staff members. Cooperation provides opportunity for the growth of the supervisor as well as the growth of the employee.

(x)   Supervision is creative and not prescriptive. It provides opportunity for originality and self-expression.

(xi)   Supervision substitutes leadership for authority – opportunities are provided for co-operative formulation of policies, plans and goals.

(xii)   Supervisor should maximize responsibility and minimize authority.

(xiii)   Supervisor should not try to impose his own work, habits, style or tempo on the workers under his supervision. He must have a „feel" for the behavior of the people.

(xiv)   Supervisor should be sensitive to the opinions of others. He should think „with" rather than „for" the workers. Discussion should pass up through the line of communication.

(xv)   Supervisor should inform the workers under him about changes in work affecting them.

(xvi)   Supervisor should try to develop the abilities and skill of those under his supervision.

(xvii)   Supervisor should give clear, but general instruction. He should seek to tell extension agents in clear and concise fashion, what is expected of them and then let the workers work out details.

(xviii)   Supervisor should be consultative in approach, e.g. What do you think about this? Rather than "do this or do that" approach.

(xix)   Supervision should provide a sense of security and an opportunity for mutual understanding.

(xx)   Supervisor should avoid favouritism.

(xxi)   Supervisor should avoid reprimanding, correcting or checking in public.

(xxii)   Supervisor should work with the employees in helping them to overcome their obstacles.

It should be noted that no single person ever possesses all these qualities of supervision. However, the supervisor should be aware of these basic qualities and use the accompanying principles to implement a democratic supervisor role in his job setting.

3.4 Supervisors' Checklist

If you are a supervisor, try to give candid and objective answers to the following questions, which serve as a summary of qualities of a good supervisor.

- Are my personal habits above reproach?
- Do I have a good knowledge of the work to be done?
- Am I dependable?

- Do I keep my word?
- Am I sincere?
- Do I accept responsibility?
- Is my personal appearance exemplary?
- Do I assume authority when necessary?
- Am I a good teacher?
- Am I a good listener?
- Do I express myself well?
- Do I accept criticism?
- Do I use common sense?
- Am I loyal to constituted authority?
- Do I know the organizational goals, policies and plans?
- Do I make decisions when necessary?
- Do I try to improve myself from time to time?
- Am I adaptable to change?
- Am I courteous??
- Am I approachable?

(Ogunbameru, 2001).

3.5 Functions of Extension Supervisors

The functions of Extension supervisors includes the following :

1. Induction of new workers into the service

2. Training of extension workers on the job particularly on the normal routine operation and standards on the what, how, and when to do things effectively.

3. Train extension worker on how to serve and develop leaders, contact extension officers, training the trainers which result into a multipliers effect

4. Assigning extension workers in modifying and improving known extension teaching methods

5. Assisting extension workers and farmers to achieve better programme and planning

6. Coordinating the duties of extension workers with those of subject matter spectialists (SMSs) and other extension staff.

7. Supervisors assist extension workers to determine progress and accomplish much through evaluation

8. Supervisors motivate and arrange opportunities for professional improvement of extension agents very often because the formal in-service training is no longer in practice.

9. Supervisors assist in coordinating or planning of relevant research on extension problems

4.0 Conclusion

At the end of this unit you were exposed to the concept of supervision, and the conditions necessary for effective supervision. You were also taught the various factors affecting supervision and the qualities of a good supervision

5.0 Summary

Supervision was defined as the process by which workers are helped by designated officers to achieve greater competence, heights, and growths in the individual. Only superior officer(s) can supervise subordinates.   It is rare for a group of peers to be supervised by one of them. Supervisors" roles include decision making, planning, organizing, guiding, counselling, coordinating, motivating, delegating and evaluating, the supervisor must have clear understanding of the objectives of the organization, and his authority backed up with responsibility and must be democratic in order to be successful. A good supervisor should also be firm, diligent, intelligent, decisive, not bossy, fair to all, etc. A list of the qualities of a good supervisor was provided.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

- Define the concept of supervision?
- Why is it necessary to study supervision?
- What are the qualities of a good supervisor?
- What are the factors affecting supervision?

7.0 References

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Module 3 Principles, Guidelines and Theories of Extension Organization

Unit 1 Basic principle and guidelines of extension organisation

Unit 2 Organisational Structure

Unit 3 Theories of Agricultural Extension Organisation

Unit 1 Basic principle and guidelines of extension organisation

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1.0 Introduction

An organization is the formal structure of authority through which works of sub-division are arranged, defined, coordinated and executed to achieve their objectives. Another school of thought defined organization as a combination of the necessary human beings, materials, tools, equipment, working space and apparatus brought together in a systematic and effective

coordination to accomplish some desired objectives (Dahama, 1976). From the above, organization implies an establishment consisting of people of different cadres, each carrying out his or her own activities so that the group"s objectives are attained.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit you should be able to

- explain the Concept of extension organisation.

- enumerate the guidelines of extension organization and management

- state the criteria for Departmentalization in Extension Organisation

- State the principle of extension organization

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Concepts of Extension Organization

Extension organization means how the agency or department which is responsible for extension function organizes itself for performing their task. An extension programme administrator can be defined as the person who is vested with formal authority over an organization or one of its sub units. He or she has status that leads to various interpersonal relations, and from this comes access to information. Information, in turn, enables the manager to devise strategies, make decisions, and implement action (Mintzberg, 1988). Organization can also be defined as the rational assessment of a situation and the systematic selection of goals and purposes; the systematic development of strategies to achieve these goals; the marshalling of the required resources, the rational design, organization, direction, and control of the activities required to attain the selected procedures (McNeil & Clemmer, 1988). Managers typically engage in a large number of discrete activities each day, and the average number of activities appears to increase at lower levels of management. The activities, however, are usually very brief in duration (Mintzberg, 1973).

To carry out their responsibilities, managers need to obtain recent, relevant information that exists in books, journals, and people's heads who are widely scattered within and outside the organization. They have to make decisions based on information that is both overwhelming and incomplete. In addition, managers need to get cooperation from subordinates, peers, superiors, and people over whom they may have no formal authority. Factors that affect managers include level of management, size of the organizational unit, function of the unit, lateral interdependence, crisis conditions, and stage in the organizational life cycle.

Despite all these demands and constraints, managers do have some alternatives. They have a choice in what aspects of the job to emphasize and how to allocate their time. Generally managers are engaged in four types of activities: 1) building and maintaining relationships, (2) getting and giving information, (3) influencing people, and (4) decision making. Managing people effectively in extension programmes is a skill that requires constant planning and development.

Extension organization is also concerned with the optimum attainment of organizational goals and objectives with and through other people. Extension management organizations are characterized by many strategies, wide spans of control, democracy, and autonomy. Their management practices cannot be reduced to one standard set of operating guidelines that will work for all organizations continually. However, all managers of professional organizations face the same challenge: to manage one's time, objectives, and resources in order to accomplish tasks and implement ideas (Waldron, 1994).

Managers of extension organizations are painfully aware of the need for revision and development of the new skill sets held by today's high performers. If change is not handled correctly, it can be more devastating than ever before. High performers reflect, discover, assess, and act. They know that a new focus on connecting the heads, hearts, and hands of people in their organization is necessary. Astute managers know what needs to be done but struggle with how to do it. Quite often they prefer to consider themselves as teachers or communicators rather than managers. This results in under-utilization of the increasing amount of literature on management theory and practice. The root of the problem is implementation. They must learn how to motivate others and build an efficient team. More formally defined, management is the process by which people, technology, job tasks, and other resources are combined and

coordinated so as to effectively achieve organizational objectives. A process or function is a group of related activities contributing to a larger action.

3.2   Guidelines of Extension Organization

The procedures by which Management functions are based on a common philosophy and approach that center on the developing and clarifying mission, policies, and objectives of the agency or organization; establishing formal and informal organizational structures as a means of delegating authority and sharing responsibilities; Setting priorities and reviewing and revising objectives in terms of changing demands; Maintaining effective communications within the working group, with other groups, and with the larger community; Selecting, motivating, training, and appraising staff ; Securing funds and managing budgets; evaluating accomplishments and being accountable to staff, the larger enterprise, and to the community at large (Waldron, 1994b).

The Extension organization functions listed above can be categorized by using the acronym POSDCORB (Bonoma & Slevin, 1978, from Gulick & Urwick, 1959):

· **Planning:** outlining philosophy, policy, objectives, and resultant things to be accomplished, and the techniques for accomplishment

· **Organizing:** establishing structures and systems through which activities are arranged, defined, and coordinated in terms of some specific objectives

· **Staffing:** fulfilling the personnel function, which includes selecting and training staff and maintaining favorable work conditions?

· **Directing:** making decisions, embodying decisions in instructions, and serving as the leader of the enterprise

· **Coordinating:** interrelating the various parts of the work

· **Reporting:** keeping those to whom you are responsible, including both staff and public, informed

· **Budgeting:** making financial plans, maintaining accounting and management control of revenue, and keeping costs in line with objectives

1. Planning

Planning is the key management function of any extension worker. It is the process of determining in advance what should be accomplished, when, by whom, how, and at what cost. Regardless of whether it is planning long-term program priorities or planning a two-hour meeting, the planning aspect of management is the major contributor to success and productivity. Stated simply, "If you don't know where you are going, then you won't know when you have arrived!" Planning is the process of determining the organization's goals and objectives and making the provisions for their achievement. It involves choosing a course of action from available alternatives.

Planning is the process of determining organizational aims, developing premises about the current environment, selecting the course of action, initiating activities required to transform plans into action, and evaluating the outcome. The types of planning that managers engage in will depend on their level in the organization and on the size and type of the organization. Generally there are four major types of planning exercises: strategic, tactical, contingency, and managerial. Strategic planning involves determining organizational goals and how to achieve them. This usually occurs at the top management level. Tactical planning is concerned with implementing the strategic plans and involves middle and lower management. Contingency planning anticipates possible problems or changes that may occur in the future and prepares to deal with them effectively as they arise (Marshall, 1992). Managerial planning is usually considered as microlevel planning. It helps in combining resources to fulfil the overall objectives of the extension organization.

A needs assessment may initiate a need for developing a plan. The planning process begins with the creation of a philosophy that consists of statements describing the values, beliefs, and attitudes of the organization. Its mission statement is a proclamation of its purpose or reason for being. After the philosophy and mission statements have been established, various goals and objectives are defined. Goals are usually general statements that project what is to be accomplished in the future. An objective is a concrete statement describing a specific action. Policies are predetermined guides to decision making; they establish boundaries or limits within which action may be taken. Managers are related to policy formation in two ways. First, they play a crucial role in implementing organizational policies that have been established by higher

management. Second, they create policies within their departments as guides for their own work groups. Procedures outline the series of steps to be followed when carrying out a designed policy or taking a particular course of action. Rules are used to provide final and definite instruction. Usually they are inflexible.

Planning is designing the future, anticipating problems, and imagining success. In short, planning is essential for anyone who wants to survive. The functions of organizing, leading, staffing, and budgeting are means of carrying out the decisions of planning. Everyone is a planner - a planner of meals, of work time, Of vacations, of families. Formal planning, however, distinguishes managers from non-managers, effective managers from ineffective managers. Formal planning forces managers to think of the future, to set priorities, to encourage creativity, to articulate clear objectives, and to forecast the future in terms of anticipated problems and political realities.

The following are types of planning

a) **Long-Range Planning** Long-range planning is vitally important in that it focuses attention on crucial future issues which are vitally important to the organization. It involves studying societal trends and issues, surveying current and anticipated learners' needs, and being aware of long-term research directions and changes in technology. Many extension workers may think that such management is beyond their level of authority, control, or involvement.

They may feel that such management is the prerogative of the director, the deputy minister, or the president. However, while senior levels of management must be involved, those who implement the objectives resulting from long-range planning should also be involved.

b) **Strategic Planning** Strategic planning has been defined as that which has to do with determining the basic objectives of an organization and allocating resources to their accomplishment. A strategy determines the direction in which an organization needs to move to fulfill its mission. A strategic plan acts as a road map for carrying out the strategy and achieving long-term results. Occasionally a large gap exists between the strategic plan and real results.

To boost organizational performance, people must be a key part of the strategy. A stronger, more capable and efficient organization can arise by defining how its members

can support the overall strategy Strategic planning is different from long-term planning. Long-range planning builds on current goals and practices and proposes modifications for the future. Strategic planning, however, considers changes or anticipated changes in the environment that suggest more radical moves away from current practices. When doing strategic planning, the organization should emphasize team planning. By involving those affected by the plan, the manger builds an organization wide understanding and commitment to the strategic plan (Flemming, 1989). The elements of strategic plans include:·

- Organization mission statement – What

- Strategic analysis – Why

- Strategic formulation – Where

- Long-term objectives implementation - When and How

- Operational plans - When and How

Changes are essential to better position the extension organization and focus on client needs and moving forward in rural development and sustainability programmes. The strength and resilience of the traditional rural and farm population and the trend towards a decentralized society with more and more urbanites moving to the country suggest that successful rural communities will depend on people's ability to change, to adapt, and to work toward a better future.

In the 1990s, facilitating farmer participation is a major extension activity (Chambers, 1993). Reorganization provides a framework for longer-term commitment to rural development. Organizations and sub units are being encouraged to put work teams in place to ensure that each sector integrates staff and services into a cohesive, focused business unit. Consultation and participation are believed to be essential for the successful development and implementation of organizational goals and objectives. Each work team is asked to develop an effective process for discussion of major challenges and opportunities facing the organization, if possible, over the next decade. Updated strategic plans are then developed. These plans form the framework for focusing organizational resources on the most strategic areas by using a staged approach. Updated plans are then implemented by work teams at all levels of management.

Work-team objectives include:

1. Involving all levels of staff in consultation.

2. Designing and implementing a process to develop-goals and objectives for the organization and unit; a strategic process for the next five to ten years.

3. Defining and clarifying organizational structures and identifying functions, customers, and service delivery models

4. Identifying changes and staged approaches needed to move from the current situation to what will be required over the next three to five years

5. Identifying and recommending priorities for policy and programme development

6. Incorporating goals for expenditure reduction, service quality improvement, workforce management, accountability, technology, and business process improvement

7. Stating the start date and first report date

c) **Managerial Planning** If long-range planning can be linked to "macro," then managerial planning can be linked to "micro." Managerial planning is the implementing of the strategic plan; it is the combining of resources to fulfil the overall objectives and missions of the organization. Managerial planning focuses on the activity of a specific unit and involves what needs to be done, by whom, when, and at what cost.

The strategic planning process serves as an umbrella over the management planning process which deals with the following:

1. Establishing individual goals and objectives

2. Forecasting results and potential problems

3. Developing alternatives, selecting alternatives, and setting priorities.

4. Developing associated budgets

5. Establishing personnel inputs

6. Establishing specific policies related to the unit

7. Allocating physical resources

8. Appraising how the management unit has succeeded in meeting its goals and objectives

d) **Decision making**

Closely related to both strategic and managerial planning is the process of decision making. Decisions need to be made wisely under varying circumstances with different amounts of knowledge about alternatives and consequences. Decisions are concerned with the future and may be made under conditions of certainty, conditions of risk, or conditions of uncertainty. Under conditions of certainty, managers have sufficient or complete information and know exactly what the outcome of their decision will be. Managers are usually faced with a less certain environment.

They may, however, know the probabilities and possible outcomes of their decisions, even though they cannot guarantee which particular outcome will actually occur. In such cases, there is a risk associated with the decision and there is a possibility of an adverse outcome. Most managerial decisions involve varying degrees of uncertainty. This is a key part of a manager's activities. They must decide what goals or opportunities will be pursued, what resources are available, and who will perform designated tasks. Decision making, in this context, is more than making up your mind. It consists of several steps:

Step 1:	Identifying and defining the problem
Step 2:	Developing various alternatives
Step 3:	Evaluating alternatives
Step 4:	Selecting an alternative
Step 5:	Implementing the alternative
Step 6:	Evaluating both the actual decision and the decision-making process

Managers have to vary their approach to decision making, depending on the particular situation and person or people involved. The above steps are not a fixed procedure, however; they are more a process, a system, or an approach. They force one to realize that there are usually alternatives and that one should not be pressured into making a quick decision without looking at the implications. This is especially true in the case of nonprogrammed decisions (complex and novel decisions) as contrasted to programmed decisions (those that are repetitive and routine).

One of the most difficult steps in the decision-making process is to develop the various alternatives. For example, if one is involved in planning a workshop, one of the most crucial decisions is the time, format, and location of the workshop. In this case, one's experience as well as one's understanding of the clientele group greatly influence the selecting of alternatives. Often decision trees can help a manager make a series of decisions involving uncertain events. A decision tree is a device that displays graphically the various actions that a manager can take and shows how those actions will relate to the attainment of future events. Each branch represents an alternative course of action. To make a decision tree it is necessary to: (1) identify the points of decision and alternatives available at each point, (2) identify the points of uncertainty and the type or range of alternative outcomes at each point, (3) estimate the probabilities of different events or results of action and the costs and gains associated with these actions, and (4) analyse the alternative values to choose the next course of action.

In extension, the decision-making process is often a group process. Consequently, the manager must apply principles of democratic decision making since those involved in the decision-making process will feel an interest in the results of the process. In such a case, the manager becomes more of a coach, knowing the mission, objectives, and the process, but involving those players who must help in actually achieving the goal. The effective manager thus perceives himself or herself as the controller of the decision-making process rather than as the maker of the organization's or agency's decision. As Drucker (1966) has pointed out, "The most common source of mistakes in management decision-making is the emphasis on finding the right answer rather than the right question. It is not enough to find the right answer; more important and more difficult is to make effective the course of action decided upon. Management is not concerned with knowledge for its own sake; it is concerned with performance."

2. Organizing

Once strategic planning and management planning are implemented, organizing to get the job done is next. Organizing is the process of establishing formal relationships among people and resources in order to reach specific goals and objectives. The process, according to Marshall (1992), is based on five organizing principles: unity of command, span of control, delegation of authority, homogeneous assignment, and flexibility. The organizing process involves five steps: determining the tasks to be accomplished, subdividing major tasks into individual activities,

assigning specific activities to individuals, providing necessary resources, and designing the organizational relationships needed.

In any organizing effort, managers must choose an appropriate structure. Organizational structure is represented primarily by an organizational chart. It specifies who is to do what and how it will be accomplished. The organizing stage provides directions for achieving the planning results. There are several aspects to organizing - time, structures, chain of command, degree of centralization, and role specification.

- **Time Management**

Managers must decide what to do, when, where, how, and by or with whom. Time management is the process of monitoring, analysing, and revising your plan until it works. Effective planning is a skill that takes time to acquire. It is difficult to implement because you have no one but yourself to monitor how effectively you are using your time. Everyone has the same amount of time - 168 hours per week. How that time is managed is up to the discretion of each person. One extension agent joked that he was so busy taking time management courses, he had little time left to manage. Effective time management involves philosophy and common sense. Time is not a renewable resource - once it is gone, it is gone forever. To function effectively, managers have to be able to prioritize and replace less important tasks with more important ones. Most of us work for pay for only 1,800 hours per year. Effective and efficient time management encourages us to achieve and be productive while developing good employee relations.

Goals should be specific, measurable, attainable, realistic, and timely (SMART). Once the goals are known, it is important to think about how they can be achieved. Effective time managers facilitate planning by listing tasks that require their attention, estimating the amount of time each task will take to complete, and prioritizing them - deciding what tasks are most important to do first and numbering them in rank order. It is essential to know what is crucial and what is not. Some activities have relatively low levels of importance in completing a given task. By planning ahead, managers can decide what to do and take the time to come up with ideas on how to do it. They can make their own list of steps to eliminate or reduce time wasters. Maintaining a daily "To Do" list with priorities attached and maintaining a daily, weekly, monthly, and yearly diary is helpful. Managers should analyse their daily activities to see which are directed toward results

and which are simply activities. They could learn how to manage meetings more effectively since considerable management time seems to be wasted in non- directional formal meetings.

3. Staffing

A key aspect of managing an adult and extension enterprise is to find the right people for the right jobs. Much of one's success as a manager is related to appropriate human resource planning, regardless of whether it is the hiring of a secretary or an instructor for a particular work-shop. The staffing function consists of several elements:

1. Human resource planning - how many staff resources, with what backgrounds, and at what cost can be considered for objectives implementation?

2. Recruitment - how does one proceed to find the person with the appropriate mix of education, experience, human relations skills, communications skills, and motivation? An important component of the recruitment process is writing the job description. The description must be exact and specific but sufficiently general to solicit interest among potential candidates. The nature of the job, scope, authority, and responsibilities form the core of the job description. Indications of preferred educational background as well as salary range must also be included. In times of high unemployment, one can always expect several dozen applications for any one opportunity for employment. This leads to the next task of staff selection.

• Staff Selection

The process of staff selection involves evaluating candidates through application forms, curriculum vitae, and interviews and choosing the best candidate for the specific job responsibility. One can even have a list of criteria and a score sheet for each individual. Even then, successful hiring is often a very intuitive act and involves some degree of risk.

As a means of giving some structure and design to the staffing process, the following guidelines are useful (dark, 1973). Each job interview should be characterized by:

1. A clear definition of the purpose of the interview
2. The presence of a structure or general plan
3. The use of the interaction as a learning experience in a pleasant and stimulating atmosphere
4. The creation and maintenance of rapport between the interviewer and interviewee
5. The establishment of mutual confidence

6. Respect for the interviewee's interest and individuality by the interviewer

7. An effort to put the interviewee at ease

8. The establishment and maintenance of good communication

9. The willingness to treat what is being said in proper perspective

10. The just treatment of each interviewee

- **Staff Orientation**

This is the process of formally introducing the selected individual to the particular unit, to colleagues, and to the organization. The selected person should be aware of the mission and objectives of the unit, the nature of responsibilities and level of authority, the degree of accountability, and the systems and procedures followed to accomplish the tasks associated with the job. A motivated individual will simply ask for such things as personnel manuals, administrative procedures handbooks, and aims and objectives statements. Such orientation tools should be available.

4. Directing

At one time there was a management emphasis on "directing" in the directorial (autocratic) sense, but in recent times, the concept of directing has become more congruent with leading than with pushing. Thus today, directing is more related to leading and leadership styles. Leadership in this context means the process whereby a work environment is created in which people can do their best work and feel a proprietary interest in producing a quality product or service.

McGregor (1960) proposed that managers might assume that employees are motivated in one of two ways. His dichotomy was labelled theory X and theory Y. Theory X relates to traditional management whereby managers assume that they must control, coerce, and threaten in order to motivate employees. Theory Y, the opposite of theory X, suggests that employees want to do challenging work, that they are interested in accepting responsibility, and that they are basically creative and want to be involved in policy development and objective setting. Today, theories X and Y don't really sound very revolutionary; the problem is that management styles and employee motivation do not fit easily into two theoretical labels. As a result, additional theoretical labels (e.g., theory Z) are being developed.

5. Coordinating

This important stage consists of interrelating the various parts of the work. It involves coordinating the various job roles and responsibilities of yourself and other staff, of your unit and other units within the same organization, and of your unit with the broader community.

There are two forms of coordination: (1) vertical reporting to your supervisor(s) and to your staff, and (2) horizontal reporting to your colleagues and your management team. Adult and extension educators are usually involved in very complex organizations such as governments, colleges and universities, and boards of education. Because of the size of the organization, the increasing demands for public accountability, the many government regulations and policies, the increasing competition among providers of adult education opportunities, and the changes in technology, it is essential that the coordinating role be given top priority.

How, then, can effective coordination be accomplished?

· Coordination needs professional, competent leadership, a democratic style that leads to trust, open communication, and ease of information flow.

· Coordination needs a constant definition and communication of mission and objectives that are understood by all managers.

· Coordination, to be effective, must have open, two-way channels of communication.

· Coordination involves a sharing atmosphere as well as commonly agreed on direction. Because effective coordination requires cooperation and communication, the meeting technique is still the most effective format for assuring the interrelationships among the various job responsibilities.

In recent years, formal systems of community coordination of adult and extension education activities have been developed. Such councils of continuing education provide more than just a network of workers but in fact lead to discussions of community needs, agency priorities, and an agreement as to who is going to look after what. Such voluntary coordination does not eliminate competition; it focuses on the multiway flow of information.

6. Reporting

This function, closely related to the coordinating function, consists of keeping those to whom you are responsible informed as to what is going on. It is essential that competent managers keep the information flowing, especially in this age when there is so much information being

transmitted in so many forms. The reporting function is more than preparing an annual report, quoting statistics, and informing your staff of current developments. The reporting function is almost an evaluation function since it compares how you are doing with what you set out to do. It reviews your objectives and determines to what extent you are meeting your objectives. It consists of more than course numbers or annual statistics, but relates programme direction, policy changes, refinement in objectives, and changes in structures and priorities. It also uses the vertical and horizontal flows of information as presented previously.

One of the key elements of the reporting function is the annual report. Such a report gives you the opportunity to summarize programmes, projects, and activities and to provide statistics as well. Such a report can be used as a public information document by having it distributed to other adult education agencies in the community, to your senior levels of management, to your own managers, to your colleagues, and to the press. In addition, it will prove to be a valuable document to satisfy the requests you receive asking about your programme activities.

7. Budgeting

This management function includes fiscal planning, accounting and revenue, and expense controls. Budgeting requires specific planning, a thorough understanding of objectives and future programmes, a sixth sense of economic conditions and realities, and a hunch for predicting the unpredictable.

In many cases, an organization specifies the budget system being used. It could be based on (1) historical data (what you had last year with variations for the coming year); (2) 0-based data where the budget is created and justified on a line-item basis according to programmes and priorities; (3) an MBO system - management by objectives whereby specific objectives are funded; and (4) a PERT system - programme review and evaluation technique - where each programme is reviewed and assessed according to its contribution to specific goals. These are only a few of the budgeting systems in use. However, the key elements of any budget system consist of (1) determining what line items are necessary in terms of objectives; (2) in line with policies, determining the financial amounts for each line; (3) determining overhead, surplus, and/or profit margins; (4) determining anticipated revenue from fees, grants, gifts, contracts, etc.; (5) drafting a budget with specific amounts and justifications; and (6) discussing and making adjustments to produce a working budget.

The budget then becomes a guide which, however, may always be in a state of change. The budget process is not in a vertical something that one does only once a year; it is a continual process of regular review and possible revision. One should always be checking to see how one is doing compared with how one anticipated doing.

Budget management, then, consists of three parts: (1) budget determination - allocating revenue according to priorities and by line items; (2) budget accountability - how well the anticipated budget matches reality; and (3) using a +, 0 - notation in answering the questions and by placing the notations in the boxes on the chart. In this way, one can get a picture of the predominant types of management modes currently being used. While this may be useful in describing what is, it could be even more useful in describing what could be. It is also useful in providing some clues as to possible areas of role conflict - the scholarly research model would likely collide with the competent practitioner model (Waldron, 1994a).

Structure is the basis for many modern business organizations because we live in a structured society, although the concept of structural rigidity and hierarchy is now being challenged by a more educated, creative, and intrinsically motivated workforce. The structural approach shows graphically that the organization has a distinct physical shape or form provided by an internal form. A competent manager in this system is able to solve problems, to figure out what needs to be done, and then enlist whatever support is needed to get it done. This approach is favored by traditional, hierarchical, job-specific, uncreative organizations.

3.3 Criteria for Departmentalization in Extension Organization

Many organizations group jobs in various ways in different parts of the organization, but the basis that is used at the highest level plays a fundamental role in shaping the organization. There are four commonly used bases.

I. **Functional Departmentalization.**

Every organization of a given type must perform certain jobs in order do its work. For example, key functions of a manufacturing company include production, purchasing, marketing, accounting, and personnel. The functions of a hospital include surgery, psychiatry, nursing, housekeeping, and billing. Using such functions as the basis for

structuring the organization may, in some instances, have the advantage of efficiency. Grouping jobs that require the same knowledge, skills, and resources allows them to be done efficiently and promotes the development of greater expertise. A disadvantage of functional groupings is that people with the same skills and knowledge may develop a narrow departmental focus and have difficulty appreciating any other view of what is important to the organization; in this case, organizational goals may be sacrificed in favor of departmental goals. In addition, coordination of work across functional boundaries can become a difficult management challenge, especially as the organization grows in size and spreads to multiple geographical locations.

II. **Geographic Departmentalization**.

Organizations that are spread over a wide area may find advantages in organizing along geographic lines so that all the activities performed in a region are managed together. In a large organization, simple physical separation makes centralized coordination more difficult. Also, important characteristics of a region may make it advantageous to promote a local focus. For example, marketing a product in Western Europe may have different requirements than marketing the same product in Southeast Asia. Companies that market products globally sometimes adopt a geographic structure. In addition, experience gained in a regional division is often excellent training for management at higher levels.

III. **Product Departmentalization.**

 Large, diversified companies are often organized according to product. All the activities necessary to produce and market a product or group of similar products are grouped together. In such an arrangement, the top manager of the product group typically has considerable autonomy over the operation. The advantage of this type of structure is that the personnel in the group can focus on the particular needs of their product line and become experts in its development, production, and distribution. A disadvantage, at least in terms of larger organizations, is the duplication of resources. Each product group requires most of the functional areas such as finance, marketing, production, and other functions. The top leadership of the organization must decide how much redundancy it can afford.

IV.   Customer/Market Departmentalization.

An organization may find it advantageous to organize according to the types of customers it serves. For example, a distribution company that sells to consumers, government clients, large businesses, and small businesses may decide to base its primary divisions on these different markets. Its personnel can then become proficient in meeting the needs of these different customers. In the same way, an organization that provides services such as accounting or consulting may group its personnel according to these types of customers.

3.4 Extension Organization Principles

Every Organization has principles upon which their actions are accomplished. These are foundational bases for the conduct of such activities. There are many principles of management. They are flexible, not absolute and must be useable regardless of changing and special conditions. Principles in Organization are essential truths. They are what are taught to be truths at a given time explaining relationships between two or more sets of variable, usually an independent variable and a dependent variable. Principle could be descriptive or predictive but not prescriptive. They describe how one variable relates to another that is, what all happen when these variables interact. They do not prescribe what people should do. The following are some of the commonly used principles:

i.   **Division of work:**
     This is the specialization that economist consider necessary for efficiency in the use of labour. Division of work stems from the assumption that breaking down the work into smaller units of activities will help individuals to better focus on them as well as enable them to develop more skill in doing such activities

ii.   **Authority and Responsibility:** Authority is the power inherent in a position. It is a combination of official factors, deriving from the manager,,s position and personal factors. This is a mix of intelligence, experience, moral worth; past service etc. Responsibility arises from authority. It has to do with what he uses the authority to accomplish.
     Every manager must understand that he is not in position for any other reason but to ensure compliance to rules and regulations vis a vis accomplishment of

organisational goals. He must hence use the power invested in that position maximally.Discipline is a respect for agreements, which are directed at achieving obedience, application, energy and the outward marks of respect. Discipline requires good superiors at all levels implying that those who will discipline must have a high moral justification for doing so. Discipline also requires that rules and regulations of the system are made explicit for all to know.

iii. **Unity of command:** Employees should receive orders from one superior officer only. Thus, employees will be directly responsible to one superior officer per time. This will help prevent clash of instructions.

iv. **Unity of Direction:** This principle informs that each group of activities with the same objective must have one head and one plan. It relates to the organization of the body corporate,,rather than to personnel. Though it does not mean all decision should be made at the top.

v. **Subordination of Individual to General Interest:** This refers to the submission of individual agenda and plan to the interests and welfare of the organization. Individuals must be ready to sacrifice their own ideas and interest to that of the organization. This will enhance commitment and reduce interference of individual beliefs, perception etc with organizational goals or other workmates. Nevertheless, when the two are found to differ, management must reconcile them.

vi. **Remuneration:** This principle advocates that remuneration and methods of payment should be fair and commensurate to services rendered. It should also affect the maximum possible satisfaction to employees and employer.

vii. **Centralization:** This refers to the extent to which authority is concentrated or dispersed. Some agricultural extension organizations command more influence from management giving organisation a strong management style ready to face emergencies. Nevertheless, this style reduces and inhibits staff initiative and participation in management, which could also have detrimental consequences.

However, individual circumstances will determine the degree that will give the best results.

viii. **Order:** This principle ensures a place for everything and everyone. There must be materials and social order. People and resources must be organized/ well arranged to prevent chaos.

ix. **Human Relations**

The principle of human relations implies such terms as respect, courtesy, kindness, consideration, trust, open mindedness and sincerity in dealing with people especially farmers and researchers that Extensionists deal with daily.

x. Adaptation

This principle reminds the Extension manager to be adaptable to the change if it must ensure its utility or relevance to the society.

4.0 Conclusion

Extension Organizations constantly encounter forces driving them to change. Because change means doing something new and unknown, the natural reaction is to resist it. Extension programme managers must overcome this resistance and adopt innovative and efficient management techniques to remain high performers. They must improve their personal, team, and cultural management skills if they hope to adapt themselves to a changing world. Overwhelmingly, current management wisdom touts the goal of getting decisions made as low down in the organization as possible.

The basic idea is that since people closest to the work are likely to know the most about solving problems in their areas, they should be involved in the decisions concerning those areas. An added benefit is that they are more motivated if they have some control over their work and over their own destinies.

There is still considerable discussion as to whether management is an art or a science, a philosophy or a skill. No one sustainable model can holistically encompass all management situations and environments.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, you have been able to learn about Extension organization which is the how agency or department which is responsible for extension function organizes itself for performing their task. Extension Organization guidelines which is the procedures by which Management functions was also treated in details. You also were exposed to the criteria for departmentalization in extension organization. Finally, in this unit, you have been taken through the crucial principles of organization, which include centralization, order, remuneration, subordination of general interest to individual interest and unity of direction, division of work, authority and responsibility, discipline and unity of command.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

- List the work-team objectives strategic planning in extension management

- How can effective coordination be accomplished?

- Enumerate the sequence of steps in decision making in extension management?

- What are elements of staffing function in Agricultural extension management?

- Discuss four principles of management that you have learnt.

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UNIT 2 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF EXTENSION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main content

       3.1 Concepts of Organizational Structure

       3.2 Uses of Extension Organization Structure

       3.3 Models of Agricultural Extension Organisation.

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

 Every organization to be effective must have an organizational structure. But what is an organizational structure? It is the form of structure that determines the hierarchy and the reporting structure in the organization. It is also called organizational chart. There are different types of organization structures that organizations follow depending on a variety of things; it can be based on geographical regions, products or hierarchy. To put it simply an organizational structure is a plan that shows the organization of work and the systematic arrangement of work.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit you should be able to

          •   explain the concepts of organizational structure state

- identify types of extension organization structure

- state the uses of extension organization structure

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Concepts of Organizational Structure

The term organization has been defined as a specific configuration of structure, people, task and techniques. *Structure* describes the form of departments, hierarchy and committees. It influences the organization's efficiency and effectiveness. *People* refers to the skills, attitudes and social interaction of the members of the organization. *Task* refers to the goals of the individual and the organization. *Techniques* refers to the methodical approach used to perform tasks. Organizational structure thus refers to the institutional arrangements and mechanisms for mobilizing human, physical, financial and information resources at all levels of the system.

Organization is also defined as a system incorporating a set of sub-systems. These sub-systems are related group of activities which are performed to meet the objectives of the organization. Organization has been viewed differently by numerous theorists. However, all definitions usually contain five common features:

- composed of individuals and groups of individuals;

- oriented towards achieving common goals;

- differential functions;

- intended rational coordination; and

- continuity through time

Structure

Structure is thus an integral component of the organization. Nystrom and Starbuck (1981) have defined structure as the arrangement and interrelationship of component parts and positions in an organization. It provides guidelines on:

- division of work into activities;

- linkage between different functions;

- hierarchy;

- authority structure;

- authority relationships; and

- coordination with the environment.

Organizational structure may differ within the same organization according to the particular requirements.

Structure in an organization has three components:

- *Complexity,* referring to the degree to which activities within the organization are differentiated. This differentiation has three dimensions:

- *horizontal* differentiation refers to the degree of differentiation between units based on the orientation of members, the nature of tasks they perform and their education and training,

- *vertical* differentiation is characterized by the number of hierarchical levels in the organization, and

- *spatial* differentiation is the degree to which the location of the organization's offices, facilities and personnel are geographically distributed;

- *Formalization* refers to the extent to which jobs within the organization are specialized. The degree of formalization can vary widely between and within organizations;

- *Centralization* refers to the degree to which decision making is concentrated at one point in the organization

Designing organizational structures

An **organizational structure** consists of activities such as task allocation, coordination and supervision, which are directed towards the achievement of organizational aims. It can also be considered as the viewing glass or perspective through which individuals see their organization and its environment.

When a work group is very small and face-to-face communication is frequent, formal structure may be unnecessary, but in a larger organization decisions have to be made about the delegation

of various tasks. Thus, procedures are established that assign responsibilities for various functions. It is these decisions that determine the organizational structure.

An organization can be structured in many different ways, depending on their objectives. The structure of an organization will determine the modes in which it operates and performs.

Organizational structure allows the expressed allocation of responsibilities for different functions and processes to different entities such as the branch, department, workgroup and individual.

Organizational structure affects organizational action in two big ways. First, it provides the foundation on which standard operating procedures and routines rest. Second, it determines which individuals get to participate in which decision-making processes, and thus to what extent their views shape the organization"s actions.

Some important considerations in designing an effective organizational structure are:

- *Clarity* The structure of the organization should be such that there is no confusion about people's goals, tasks, style of functioning, reporting relationship and sources of information.

- *Understanding* The structure of an organization should provide people with a clear picture of how their work fits into the organization.

- *De-centralization* The design of an organization should compel discussions and decisions at the lowest possible level.

- *Stability and adaptability* While the organizational structure should be adaptable to environmental changes, it should remain steady during unfavourable conditions

3.2 Types of organizational structure

The structure of the organization can be traditional (bureaucratic) or modern (organic), according to needs. Organizations can have simple to complex structures, depending upon organizational strategies, strategic decisions within the organization and environmental complexities

The traditional organizational structure is mechanistic and characterized by high complexity, high formalization and centralization. The classical organization structure designs are simple,

centralized, bureaucratic and divisionalized. Modern organizational designs include project organization, matrix design and adhocracy design.
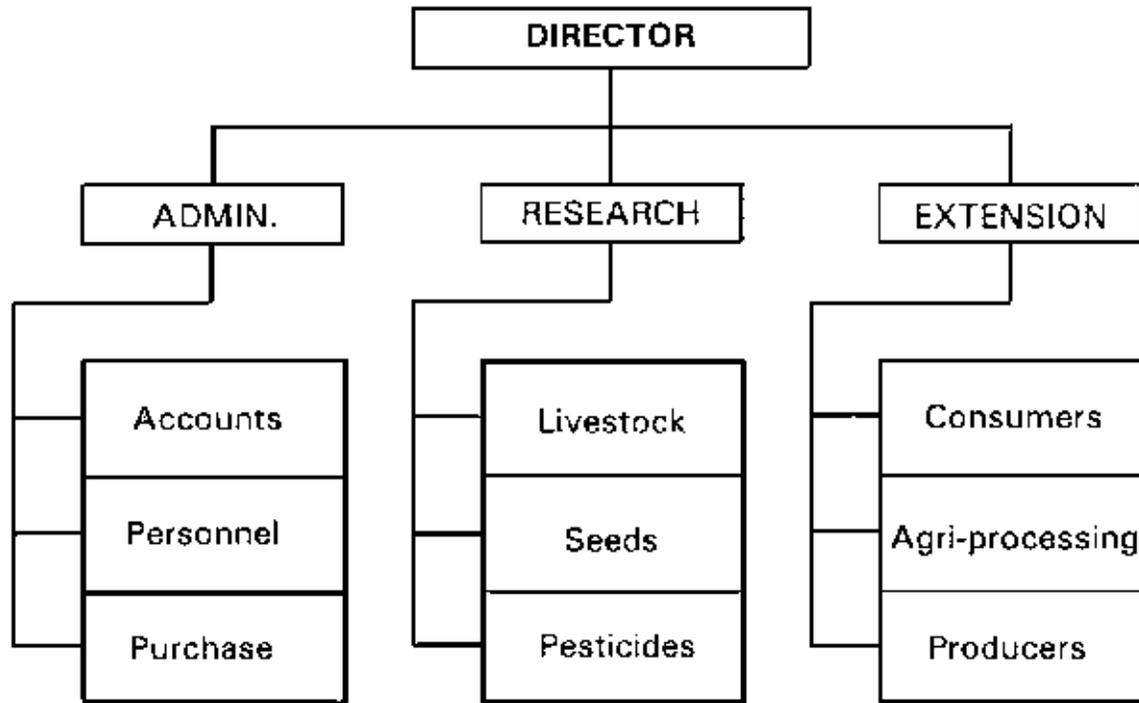
i. Classical organizational structure

In a simple centralized organizational structure, power, decision making authority and responsibility for goal setting are vested in one person at the top. This structure is usually found in small and single-person-owned organizations. The basic requirement of a simple centralized structure is that it has only one or two functions, and a few people who are specialists in critical functions. The manager is generally an expert in all related areas of functions and is responsible for coordination. Thus, the organization has only two hierarchical levels. However, this structure has to become more complex for growth, diversification or other reasons.

ii. The Bureaucratic Organization

In large organizations and under well-defined conditions, organization structure may be bureaucratic. The essential elements of a bureaucratic organization are:

- the use of standard methods and procedures for performing work; and
- a high degree of control to ensure standard performance

Figure 1 illustrates a bureaucratic organizational structure.

DIRECTOR

ADMIN. | RESEARCH | EXTENSION

Accounts	Livestock	Consumers
Personnel	Seeds	Agri-processing
Purchase	Pesticides	Producers

**Figure 1. Bureaucratic organizational structure**

There are two types of bureaucracies. They are standard and professional bureaucracy. Standard bureaucracy is based on efficient performance of standardized routine work. Professional bureaucracy depends upon efficient performance of standardized but complex work. Thus, it requires a higher level of specialized skills. The structure of standard bureaucracy is based on functions, large technical staff and many mid-level managers. In contrast, professional bureaucracy has few mid-level managers

iii Modern organization designs

Modern approaches to organizational design include project, matrix and adhocracy types.

- **Project design** Project design is also called the team or task force type. It is used to coordinate across departments for temporary, specific and complex problems which cannot be handled by a single department. This design facilitates inputs from different areas. Members from different departments and functional areas constitute a team, in which every member provides expertise in their area of specialization. Such a structure

generally coexists with the more traditional functional designs. An illustration of project type of the organizational structure is given in Figure 2.
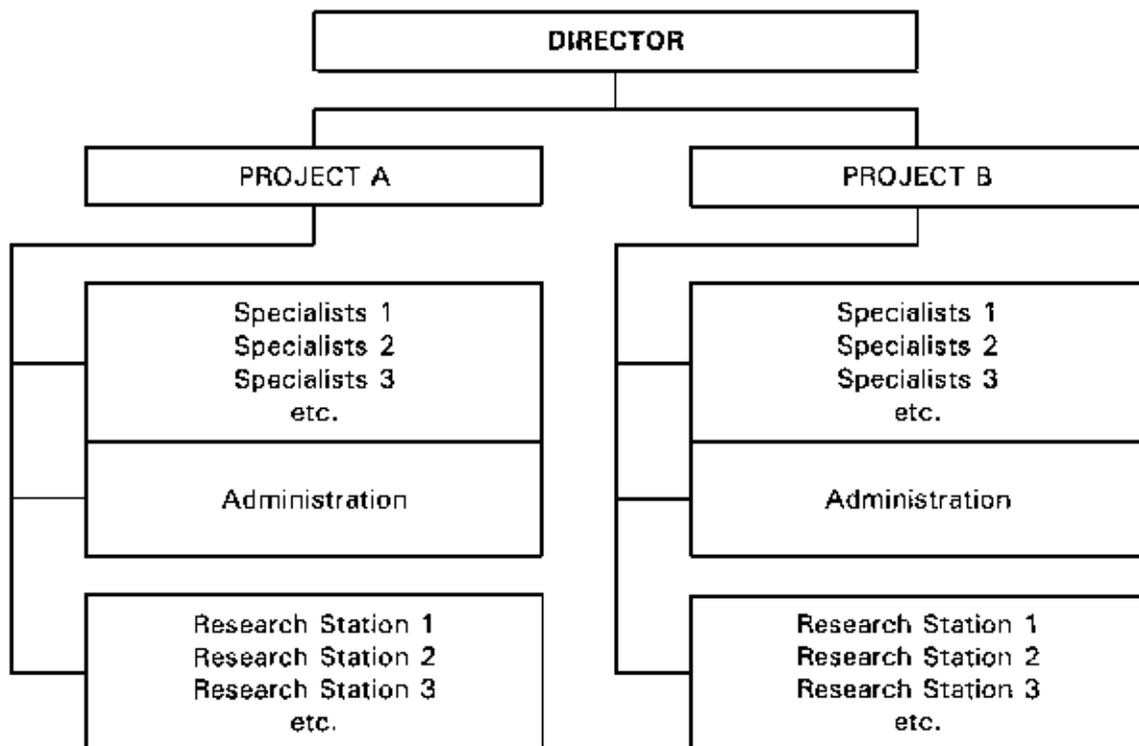
Figure 2. A Project-type organization

- **Matrix Organization**

The matrix design blends two different types of designs, namely project and functional organizational designs. Since the project type of organizational design is not considered stable, the matrix design attempts to provide permanent management structures by combining project and functional structures. The main advantage of this combination is that the matrix design balances both technical and project goals and allocates specific responsibilities to both. Technical goals refer to how well work is done, while project goals relate to issues such as type of work to be done and its costs.

Figure 3 shows a very simplified matrix organization design in which department heads have line authority over specialists in their departments (vertical structure). Functional specialists are assigned to given projects (horizontal structure). These assignments are made at the beginning of each project through collaboration between appropriate functional and project managers

Matrix organizations are not without their problems:

- Responsibility and jurisdiction are not clearly defined in matrix organizations. Bosses are also not clearly identified. Consequently, matrix organizations could lean towards chaos and disorder, and even lead to power struggles unless power between line and project manager is skilfully balanced.

- Within the organization, matrix organizations may encourage the formation of cliques since all decisions are made in a group. This could reinforce group loyalties and create inter-group conflicts.

- Matrix organizations need more human resources, particularly during initial periods. This means higher overheads and increased expenditure.

- Matrix organization forms are usually found at the lower level of the organization.

Adhocracy

Adhocratic structures are also called 'free form' or organic organization structures. They stress managerial styles which do not depend upon formal structures. They are well suited for complex and non-standard work and rely on informal structures. An adhocratic structure is flexible, adaptive and organized around special problems to be solved by a group consisting of experts with diverse professional skills. These experts have decision making authority and other powers. The adhocratic Structure is usually small, with an ill-defined hierarchy. Such a design is suitable for high technology and high growth organizations where an arranged and inflexible structure may be a handicap. Figure 4 illustrates an adhocratic type of organizational structure.
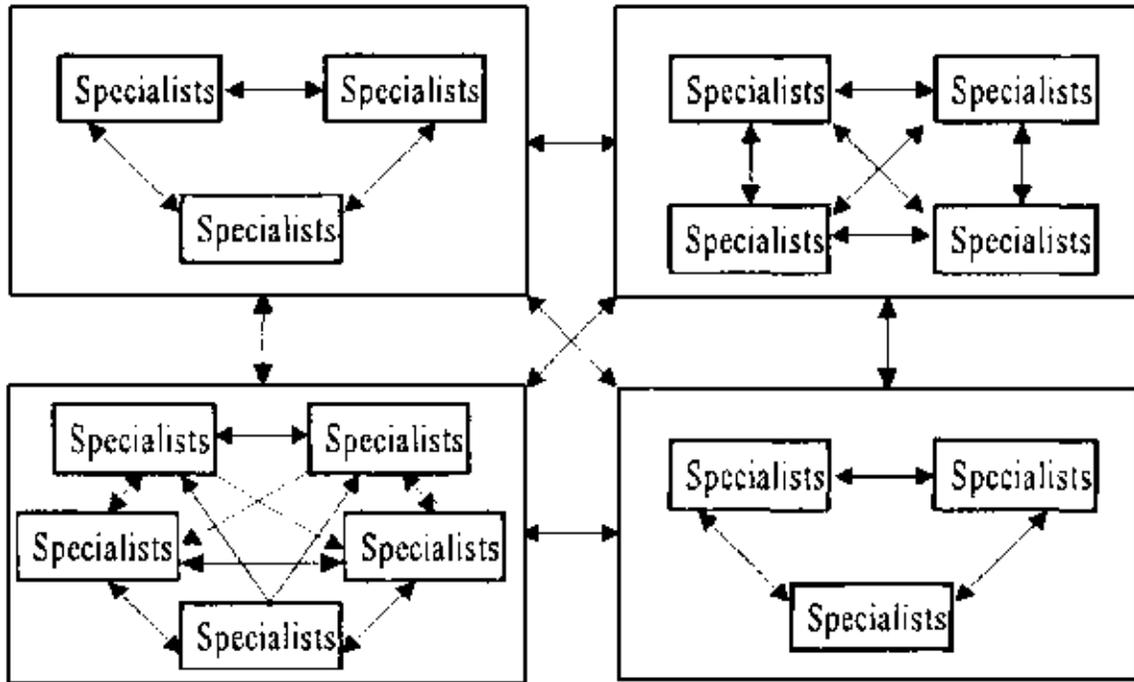
Figure 4. Adhocratic organizational structure

Choosing the organizational structure

Organization design is a continuous process. While a simple design is needed for simple strategies, complex designs are necessary when organizational strategies involve complex interactions.

The choice of any type of organizational design should be in consonance with the organizational requirements, strategy and environment. The simple centralized and bureaucratic organizational design based on functional departmentation focuses on work and is thus better suited for getting work done efficiently. The team or project type of organizational design is appropriate where inputs from several functional areas are required. The divisional structure is appropriate if performance and results are to be assessed. Matrix and adhocratic designs focus on coordination and relationship

Self-Assessment Exercise

What are some of the important considerations in designing an effective organizational structure?

3.3 Uses and **Various Forms of Extension Organization Structure**

Uses of Extension Organization Structure: Organizational structure helps to define and clarify lines of responsibility and authority to facilitate full mobilization of talents, and to maintain efficient reporting system. It is also to identify possible bottlenecks situations. The structure should be flexible, modifiable, explicit and subject to continuous adaptation as conditions warrant.

Other uses are:

(a)   It is a useful tool for presenting or representing the overall set-up of the organization to anybody or group at a glance.

(b)   It describes positions, roles, functions and activities of the staff and shows their inter-relationships in the organization.

(c)   It facilitates control, coordination, delegation, motivation, staff appraisal, budget preparation and execution and even general supervisory roles.

(d)   Communication channels are well laid out both vertically and horizontally.

(e)   It leads to healthy rivalry because each unit can compare with others and aspire to be equally remunerated and productive.

(f)   It can lead to rapid growth because some units can expand rapidly and thus become autonomous.

(g)   It prevents overlaps or gaps in functioning

Various Forms of Representing Organizational Structure

1.   Ladder or Pyramid Type

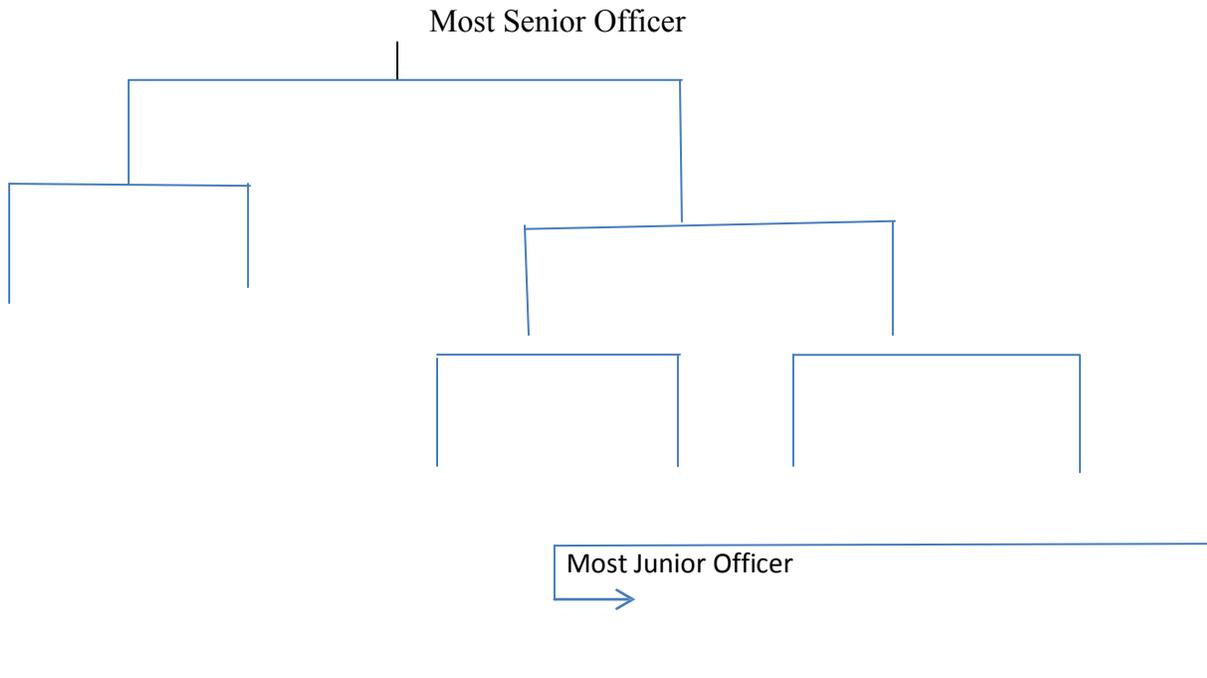This is the most popular shape of representing organization structure. Seniority is from top to bottom.

Most Senior Officer

Most Junior Officer

Figure1: Ladder or Pyramid Type

2.   Conical Type

Members of Director

Management

Senior Staff

Intermediate Staff

Junior Staff
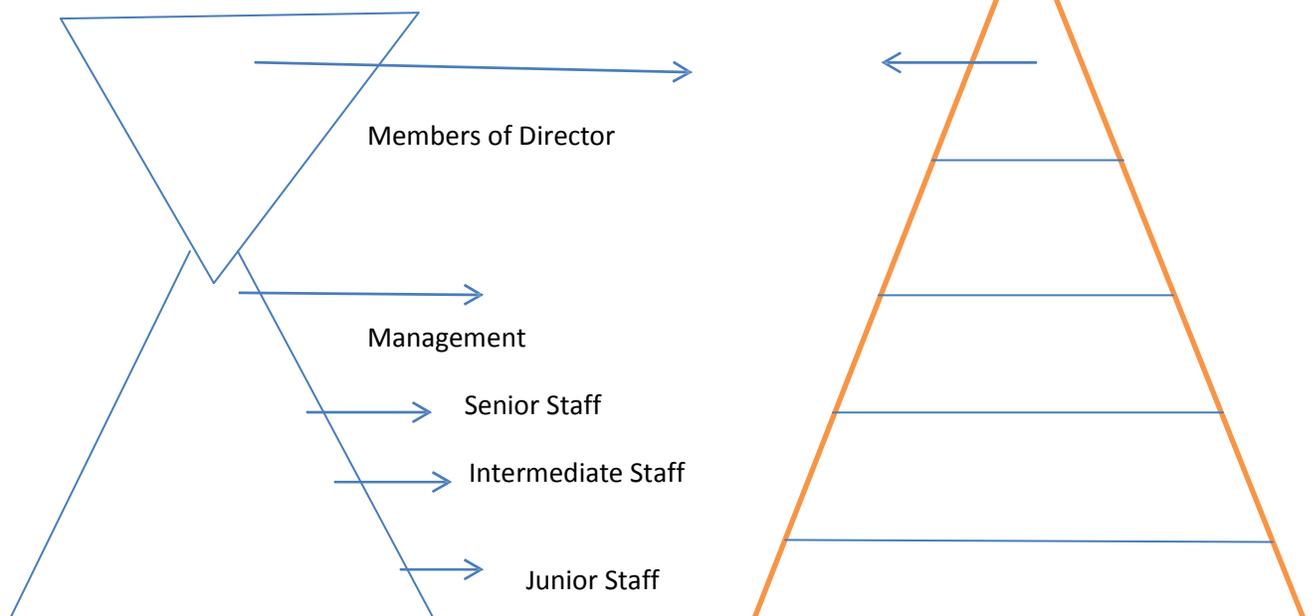
Figure 2: Conical Type

The conical type is like a cone divided into horizontal segments. Each segment represents a particular department. Also seniority is from top to bottom.

3.   Pie-Chart Type

In this type, the whole circle represents the entire organization. Each segment proportionally represents the class or department in the organization.
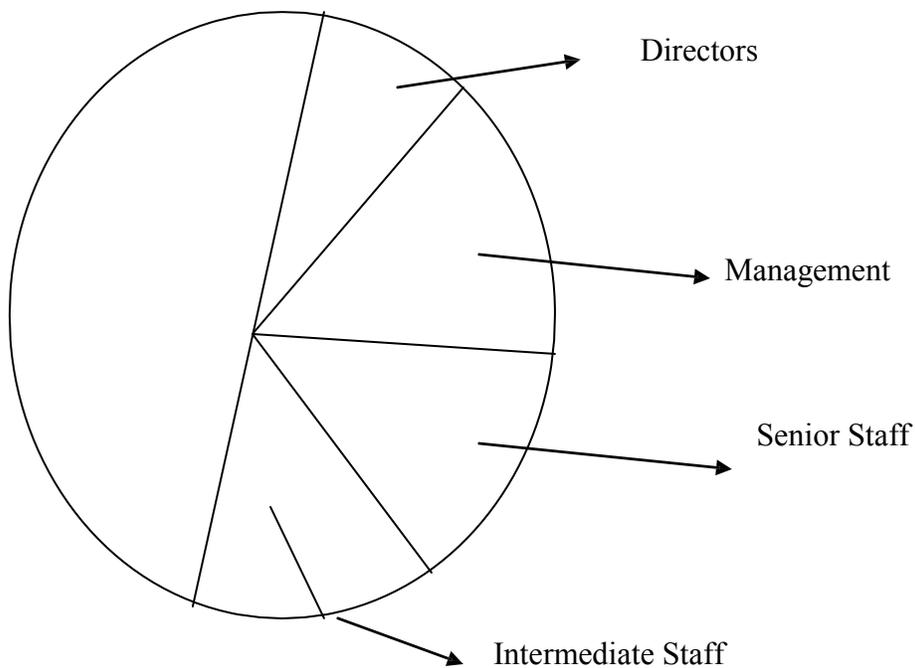

Figure 3: Pie-chart Type

It is the comparative size of different departments that is emphasized in this structure. Seniority would be determined from the labels.

4.   The Spore Type

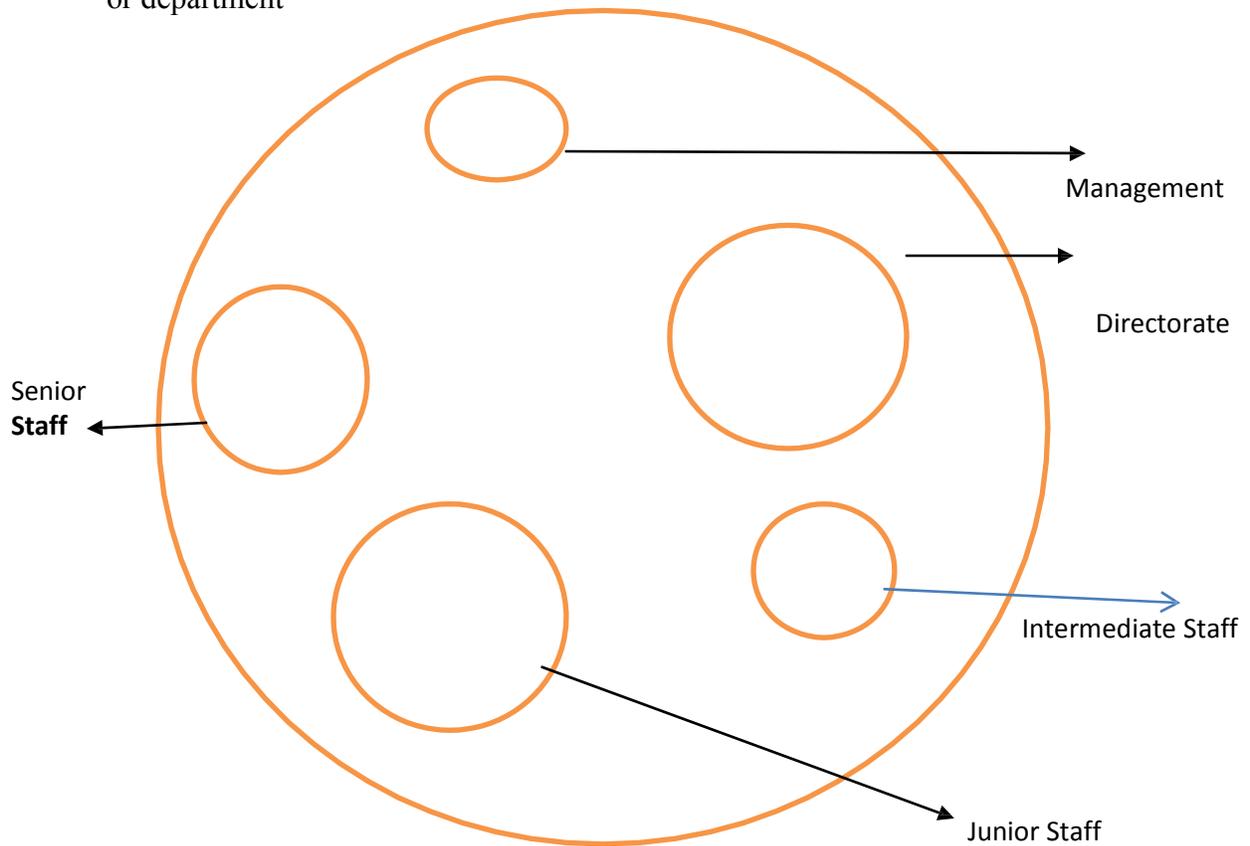Here again, the whole circle represents the organization. The spores represent each unit or department

Figure 6.4: Spore Type

As in the case of the Pie Type, it emphasizes proportions of the different departments, while the labels show the seniority.

5.   **Hydra Type**

This is similar to the ladder or pyramid type in that it shows hierarchical position of the entire staff, except that the most senior is at the extreme left while the most junior is at the extreme right.
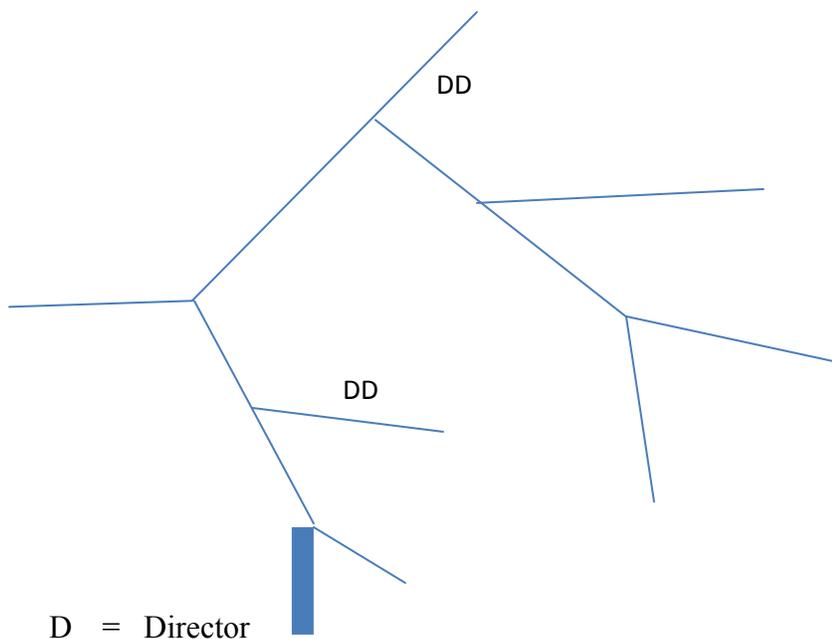
D   =   Director
DD =   Deputy Director
M   =   Messenger or lowest staff member
Figure 6.5: Hydra type

4.0 **Conclusion**

At the end of this unit you have learnt the concepts of organizational structure, the Various Forms of Representing Organizational Structure and their Uses.

5.0 Summary

Organizational structure is a plan that shows the organization of work and the systematic arrangement of work. The sub-systems of organisational structure are related group of activities which are performed to meet the objectives of the organization. Structure refers to as the

arrangement and interrelationship of component parts and positions in an organization. It provides guidelines to the institutional arrangements and mechanisms for mobilizing human, physical, and financial and information resources at all levels of the system.

Organization has three components and the structure of the organization can be traditional (bureaucratic) or modern (organic), according to needs.

The choice of any type of organizational design should be in consonance with the organizational requirements, strategy and environment. Organizational structure helps to define and clarify lines of responsibility and authority to facilitate full mobilization of talents, and to maintain efficient reporting system

There are various forms of representing organizational structure. These are ladder or pyramid type, conical type, pie-chart type, the spore type, and hydra type of organizational structure.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

- Define the concept of Organizational structure and the role of the sub-systems of organisational structure

- What are the guidelines for designing Organizational structure?

- Describe the three components and functions of organization structure?

- With the aid of diagrams enumerate the various forms of organizational structure?

7.0 References/Further Readings

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http://www.buzzle.com/articles/type-of-organizational-structures.html

Unit 3 Models of Agricultural Extension Organisation

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1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main content

       3.1 Classical organization theories

       3.2 Modern organization theories

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5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

Organizational theories which explain the organization and its structure can be broadly classified as classical or modern.

Classical organization theories (Taylor, 1947; Weber, 1947; Fayol, 1949) deal with the formal organization and concepts to increase management efficiency. Taylor presented scientific management concepts, Weber gave the bureaucratic approach, and Fayol developed the administrative theory of the organization. They all contributed significantly to the development of classical organization theory.

3.0 Objectives

By the end of this unit you should be able to :

- Define the classical organization theories

- Explain the modern organization theories

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Classical organization theories

Taylor's scientific management approach

The scientific management approach developed by Taylor is based on the concept of planning of work to achieve efficiency, standardization, specialization and simplification. Acknowledging that the approach to increased agricultural productivity was through mutual trust between management and Extension workers, Taylor suggested that, to increase this level of trust,

- the advantages of productivity improvement should go to Extension workers,
- physical stress and anxiety should be eliminated as much as possible,
- capabilities of workers should be developed through training, and
- the traditional 'boss' concept should be eliminated.

Taylor developed the following four principles of scientific management for improving Agricultural productivity:

- *Science, not rule-of-thumb* Old rules-of-thumb should be supplanted by a scientific approach to each element of a person's work.
- *Scientific selection of the worker* Organizational members should be selected based on some analysis, and then trained, taught and developed.
- *Management and labour cooperation rather than conflict* Management should collaborate with all organizational members so that all work can be done in conformity with the scientific principles developed.
- *Scientific training of the worker* Workers should be trained by experts, using scientific methods.

Weber's bureaucratic approach

Considering the organization as a segment of broader society, Weber (1947) based the concept of the formal organization on the following principles:

- *Structure* In the organization, positions should be arranged in a hierarchy, each with a particular, established amount of responsibility and authority.
- *Specialization* Tasks should be distinguished on a functional basis, and then separated according to specialization, each having a separate chain of command.
- *Predictability and stability* The organization should operate according to a system of procedures consisting of formal rules and regulations.
- *Rationality* Recruitment and selection of personnel should be impartial.
- *Democracy* Responsibility and authority should be recognized by designations and not by persons.

Weber's theory is infirm on account of dysfunctions (Hicks and Gullett, 1975) such as rigidity, impersonality, displacement of objectives, limitation of categorization, self-perpetuation and empire building, cost of controls, and anxiety to improve status.

Administrative theory

The elements of administrative theory (Fayol, 1949) relate to accomplishment of tasks, and include principles of management, the concept of line and staff, committees and functions of management.

- *Division of work or specialization*: This increases productivity in both technical and managerial work.
- *Authority and responsibility*: These are imperative for an organizational member to accomplish the organizational objectives.
- *Discipline:* Members of the organization should honour the objectives of the organization. They should also comply with the rules and regulations of the organization.
- *Unity of command*: This means taking orders from and being responsible to only one superior.
- *Unity of direction:* Members of the organization should jointly work toward the same goals.

- *Subordination of individual interest to general interest:* The interest of the organization should not become subservient to individual interests or the interest of a group of employees.

- *Remuneration of personnel:* This can be based on diverse factors such as time, job, piece rates, bonuses, profit-sharing or non-financial rewards.

- *Centralization* Management should use an appropriate blend of both centralization and de-centralization of authority and decision making.

- *Scalar chain* If two members who are on the same level of hierarchy have to work together to accomplish a project, they need not follow the hierarchy level, but can interact with each other on a 'gang plank' if acceptable to the higher officials.

- *Order* The organization has a place for everything and everyone who ought to be so engaged.

- *Equity* Fairness, justice and equity should prevail in the organization.

- *Stability of tenure of personnel* Job security improves performance. An employee requires some time to get used to new work and do it well.

- *Initiative* This should be encouraged and stimulated.

- *Esprit de corps* Pride, allegiance and a sense of belonging are essential for good performance. Union is strength.

- *The concept of line and staff* The concept of line and staff is relevant in organizations which are large and require specialization of skill to achieve organizational goals. Line personnel are those who work directly to achieve organizational goals. Staff personnel include those whose basic function is to support and help line personnel.

- *Committees* Committees are part of the organization. Members from the same or different hierarchical levels from different departments can form committees around a common goal. They can be given different functions, such as managerial, decision making, recommending or policy formulation. Committees can take diverse forms, such as boards, commissions, task groups or *ad hoc* committees. Committees can be further divided according to their functions. In agricultural research organizations, committees are formed for research, staff evaluation or even allocation of land for experiments.

  - *Functions of organization* Fayol (1949) considered management of *organization* as a set of planning, organizing, training, commanding and coordinating functions.

Gulick and Urwick (1937) also considered organization in terms of management functions such as planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting.

Implications of Theories to Extension organisation

Functional theory

Functionalist suggests that on the basis of the principles above, employee‟s behaviour can be predicted. The theory shares certain semblance with the bureaucratic process in that it is an administrative system, especially in a government that divides work into specific categories carried out by special departments of non-elected officials.

The only difference is that bureaucratic process involves complex roles and regulations applied are rigid. To another school of thought, the more an employee is supervised, the more mistakes he makes. The reason here is that he will not be encouraged to work at his own pace and use his own initiatives. Agricultural Extension personnel should be made to do only and exactly jobs/tasks they are trained for. Supervisors should not surprise too large number of workers. The field and office staff should cooperate and compliment each other‟s efforts so as to achieve the goals of the organisation.

Decision Making Theory

Effectiveness of organisation rests on the judicious utilisation of available resources. The parameters for setting priorities hinge on the rational decision making in the extension organisation. It therefore follows that a kind of decision an administrator/manager makes determines his level of performance and the general effectiveness. Open system approach, where decisions result from staff decision is recommended. Extension administrators should therefore confine themselves in most cases, to making decisions on the open type process rather than the irrational closed type. Decisions on the open type process are not usually widely accepted but highly sustainable.

Social Process Theory

Organization consists of several sections that jointly work towards the attainment of the set objectives. It therefore follows that a good manager or administrator must identify the units and

the forces binding the units together with a view to protecting, supporting, encouraging, shaping, sharpening, repairing and amending these forces to ensure the realisation of organisational objectives.

Extension agents therefore need to be conscious of this theory in order to discharge satisfactorily the duties expected of them.

Human Relations Theory

Following the major concept or assumption that in a typical extension work situation, most especially at the management level, employees are skilled, have salaries above subsistence and are more in need of ego gratification, personal recognition should be emphasized in supervision and administration.

Extension workers, being change agents need to have good knowledge of human relations (empathy), and should be client oriented. They should give adequate reason for any action taken and give room for clientele participation. As they are purpose oriented they must equally be client oriented.

Fusion Theory

The struggle for supremacy and optimum satisfaction of organizational objectives and individual goals is a necessity for internal harmony and progress. However, the satisfaction of the employees as well as employers should be improving, dynamic (not static or deteriorating).

Theory of X and Y

This theory as explained by McGregor (1960) connotes that scientific management and administration can predict and control human behaviour. He developed some basic assumptions about the nature of men especially in the work environment. In other words, human behaviour in any working environment depends on the type of administrative management employed on the individual. Theory X involves negative assumptions about people that McGregor believes managers often use as the basis for dealing with their subordinates (for example the average person has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it whenever he or she can). Theory Y represents positive assumptions about people that McGregor believes managers

should strive to use (for example people will exercise self-discretion and selfcontrol in meeting their objectives).

Theory Z

Theory Z states that there is no situation where you have either of both X and Y to be completely in operation. In other words, regardless of the proportion, both types of characteristic behaviour will occur among any group of people. Hence, it is referred to as "reconciliatory theory" between individuals (producers) and the employers (consumers). The position of theory Y is that the individual and the organisation are always in conflict because of the dual role as consumer and producer. The role of the administrator in any organisation is therefore to collate the aggregate potential of individual consumers and producers to meet the demand of the organisation.

Basic Assumptions of Theory Z

1. The management is responsible for organising all the elements for production in a free enterprise society of producers and consumers.

2. That the process involves network of decision and communication through which management facilitates production and satisfaction of consumer needs.

3. That man as consumer insists that technology and its results be made available to him.

4. That man does not resist change unless he is threatened by it through the loss of his job, change of work pattern or limitation of his liberty.

5. That the administrative process which theory Z possess overcome its difficulties by discipline and confidence through a precise system of communication and assurance that the organisation is out to secure the worker"s welfare.

Implications of these Theories in Extension

The value of this theory emerges from its main principle which suggests that in any group of people, there are some that would not naturally like to be protective unless they are forced to the situation. Similarly, there are some that are protective and dedicated inherently. It therefore follows that a manager or superior should be charged with the responsibility of detecting members of both groups and encourage them through motivation, training and remuneration for efficiency.

Neoclassical theory   models

Neoclassical theorists recognized the importance of individual or group behaviour and emphasized human relations. Based on the Hawthorne experiments, the neoclassical approach emphasized social or human relationships among the operators, researchers and supervisors (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1943). It was argued that these considerations were more consequential in determining productivity than mere changes in working conditions. Productivity increases were achieved as a result of high morale, which was influenced by the amount of individual, personal and intimate attention workers received.

Principles of the neoclassical approach

The classical approach stressed the formal organization. It was mechanistic and ignored major aspects of human nature. In contrast, the neoclassical approach introduced an informal organization structure and emphasized the following principles:

- *The individual:* An individual is not a mechanical tool but a distinct social being, with aspirations beyond mere fulfillment of a few economic and security works. Individuals differ from each other in pursuing these desires. Thus, an individual should be recognized as interacting with social and economic factors.
- *The work group* The neoclassical approach highlighted the social facets of work groups or informal organizations that operate within a formal organization. The concept of 'group' and its synergistic benefits were considered important.
- *Participative management* Participative management or decision making permits workers to participate in the decision making process. This was a new form of management to ensure increases in productivity.

Note the difference between Taylor's 'scientific management' - which focuses on work - and the neoclassical approach - which focuses on workers.

3.2 Modern theories

Modern theories tend to be based on the concept that the organization is a system which has to adapt to changes in its environment. In modern theory, an organization is defined as a designed and structured process in which individuals interact for objectives (Hicks and Gullet, 1975). The contemporary approach to the organization is multidisciplinary, as many scientists from different fields have contributed to its development, emphasizing the dynamic nature of communication

and importance of integration of individual and organizational interests. These were subsequently re-emphasized by Bernard (1938) who gave the first modern and comprehensive view of management. Subsequently, conclusions on systems control gave insight into application of cybernetics. The operation research approach was suggested in 1940. It utilized the contributions of several disciplines in problem solving. Von Bertalanffy (1951) made a significant contribution by suggesting a component of general systems theory which is accepted as a basic premise of modern theory.

Some of the notable characteristics of the modern approaches to the organization are:

- a systems viewpoint,

- a dynamic process of interaction,

- multilevelled and multidimensional,

- multimotivated,

- probabilistic,

- multidisciplinary,

- descriptive,

- multivariable, and

- adaptive.

Modern understandings of the organization can be broadly classified into:

- the systems approach,
- socio-technical theory, and
- a contingency or situational approach.

The systems approach

The systems approach views organization as a system composed of interconnected - and thus mutually dependent - sub-systems. These sub-systems can have their own sub-sub-systems. A system can be perceived as composed of some components, functions and processes (Albrecht, 1983). Thus, the organization consists of the following three basic elements (Bakke, 1959):

(i) *Components* There are five basic, interdependent parts of the organizing system, namely:

- the individual,
- the formal and informal organization,
- patterns of behaviour emerging from role demands of the organization,
- role comprehension of the individual, and
- the physical environment in which individuals work.

(ii) *Linking processes* The different components of an organization are required to operate in an organized and correlated manner. The interaction between them is contingent upon the linking processes, which consist of communication, balance and decision making.

- *Communication* is a means for eliciting action, exerting control and effecting coordination to link decision centres in the system in a composite form.
- *Balance* is the equilibrium between different parts of the system so that they keep a harmoniously structured relationship with one another.
- *Decision analysis* is also considered to be a linking process in the systems approach. Decisions may be to produce or participate in the system. Decision to produce depends upon the attitude of the individual and the demands of the organization. Decision to participate refers to the individual's decisions to engross themselves in the organization process. That depends on what they get and what they are expected to do in participative decision making.

(iii) *Goals of organization* The goals of an organization may be growth, stability and interaction. Interaction implies how best the members of an organization can interact with one another to their mutual advantage.

Socio-technical approach

It is not just job enlargement and enrichment which is important, but also transforming technology into a meaningful tool in the hands of the users. The socio-technical systems approach is based on the premise that every organization consists of the people, the technical system and the environment (Pasmore, 1988). People (the social system) use tools, techniques and knowledge (the technical system) to produce goods or services valued by consumers or users (who are part of the organization's external environment). Therefore, equilibrium among the social system, the technical system and the environment is necessary to make the organization more effective.

The contingency or situational approach

The situational approach (Selznick, 1949; Burns and Stalker, 1961; Woodward, 1965; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967) is based on the belief that there cannot be universal guidelines which are suitable for all situations. Organizational systems are inter-related with the environment. The contingency approach (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1973) suggests that different environments require different organizational relationships for optimum effectiveness, taking into consideration various social, legal, political, technical and economic factors.

4.0 Conclusion

At the end of this unit you have leant that organization theory are broadly divided into classical organization theories and Modern organization theories. Classical organization theories are sub-divided into Taylor scientific management concepts, Weber bureaucratic approach, and Fayol the administrative theory of the organization. Modern understandings of the organization can be broadly classified systems approach, socio-technical theory, and a contingency or situational approach.

5.0 Summary

An **organization,** is an assembly of people working together to achieve common objectives through a division of labor. Modern understandings of the organization can be broadly classified systems approach, socio-technical theory, and a contingency or situational approach. The situational approach is based on the belief that there cannot be universal guidelines which are suitable for all situations. The socio-technical systems approach is based on the premise that every organization consists of the people, the technical system and the environment. The neoclassical approach emphasized social or human relationships among the operators, researchers and supervisors

The elements of administrative theory relate to accomplishment of tasks, and include principles of management, the concept of line and staff, committees and functions of management. Modern theories tend to be based on the concept that the organization is a system which has to adapt to changes in its environment. The systems approach views organization as a system composed of interconnected - and thus mutually dependent - sub-systems.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

- Enumerate the three basic elements of system approach of modern understandings of the organization?

- List the characteristics of the modern approaches to the organization?

- What are the characteristics of the modern approaches to the organization?

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Module 4 Personnel Management in Agricultural Extension

Unit 1 Extension Personnel Recruitment, Training, and Development

Unit 2 Staff Supervision in Agricultural Extension

Unit 3 Staff Performance Appraisals and Promotion

Unit 1 Extension Personnel Recruitment, Training, and Development

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1.0 Introduction

The development of people, their competencies, and the process of development of the total organization are the main concerns of human resource management (Pareek & Rao, 1992). Proper planning and management of human resources within extension organizations is essential to increase the capabilities, motivation, and overall effectiveness of extension personnel. This

unit discusses two dimensions of human resource management as applicable to extension organization namely recruitment and training of extension personnel.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit you should be able to

- Explain the concept of recruitment of extension personnel
- Explain the meaning of training and development
- Enumerate the types and techniques for staff training
- Enumerate the Methods, Benefits and Problems of training in Extension

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Concept of Recruitment of extension personnel

Recruitment is important in selecting the right kind of extension personnel. Since the job of extension personnel calls for technical skills as well as commitment and willingness to educate rural people, an appropriate selection system is essential to ensure the right selection. The success of extension depends heavily upon selection of qualified and motivated personnel. Extension organizations in developing countries use two major sources of recruitment:

- from outside and
- from within. Entry-level positions such as village extension workers and agricultural extension officers are filled by outside recruitment, using the services of government placement agencies.
- Other channels of recruitment are advertisements, private placement agencies, professional search firms, and educational institutions. In some countries, farmers are recruited to help extension agents (Adams,1982).

Most of the extension departments in developing countries have the policy of promoting or recruiting within for middle-level and top-level positions. The advantages of this policy are that it promotes loyalty and provides opportunities for existing extension staff to get high-level positions. However, its greatest disadvantage is that it prevents the lateral entry of talented extension personnel and promotes complacency because seniority ensures promotion.

The selection of extension staff starts with making the job opportunities known to all potential applicants through advertisement. The help of extension workers' training centres, agricultural

colleges, rural institutions, and local government agencies may be sought to give wide publicity, as well as to inform candidates living in rural areas. This is followed by screening applicants to short-list suitable candidates and by evaluating potential candidates through various tests.

 A typical selection process consists of the following steps:

- completed job application,
- initial screening,
- testing and in-depth selection interview,
- physical examination, and job offer (French,1982).

In general, extension organizations in developing countries use a simple knowledge test and a brief interview to select extension personnel. By using the above method, it is impossible to discriminate an effective candidate from an ineffective candidate, because selecting extension personnel demands thorough, in-depth testing of cognitive and non-cognitive abilities.

Testing cognitive ability includes a knowledge test, a skill or ability test, and an aptitude test.

A non-cognitive test is a measure of behavioural dimensions which are important for field level extension personnel, including concern for and commitment to rural people, empathy, problem-solving orientation, high motivation to influence and educate farmers, ability to work under unsupervised and difficult village conditions, patience and persistence, and team spirit. The assessment centre approach, originally used during World War II, can be used to select extension staff. In this approach, an organization develops its internal resources for assessing new staff. The candidates to be recruited go through a number of simulation exercises, and an expert assesses their behaviour.

The techniques used are a psychological test, role play, in-basket exercise, group discussion, projective test, knowledge test, and interviews.

3.2 Meaning of Training and Development

One of the propositions of human capital theorists is the training and development of manpower or human factor of production. They argued that increased productivity can only be attained when avenue for advancement and training is opened for the workforce. The training of extension personnel contributes directly to the development of human resources within extension organizations. "Training programmes are directed towards maintaining and improving current

job performance, while development programmes seek to develop skills for future jobs" (Stoner & Freeman, 1992, p. 388).

Training is perceived as a formal process of acquiring skills and technical know-how in a specific field so as to enhance competency and expertise in the use and manipulation of modern technology and in handling technical issues in all human endeavours. Beach (1980) described training as the organized procedure by which people learn and acquire knowledge or skills for a definite purpose with the objectives of achieving the aim of change in behaviour of the trainees. Baker (1984) considers training as all the efforts made in facilitating the processes of learning which results in latter-on the- job positive behaviour of a member of an organization.

Training is a learning process by which people develop a relatively permanent positive change of behaviour, skills or attitude to perform a specific task with a view to increasing to perform a specific task with a view to increasing productivity. Apart from the fact that training aims to improve productivity, it is equally a deliberate attempt to improve the performance of the individuals on their jobs by correcting any deficiency in human efforts.

Training is human oriented. According to Datey (1970) it deliberately attempts to improve a person‟s skills at a task". Similarly, Betta (1975) says, it is an "understanding" aimed at raising the performance level of the employee. The manpower service commission concluded that training has a purpose of developing the ability of an individual and to satisfy the current and future manpower needs of the organization.

Training has to start with the identification of training needs through job analysis, performance appraisal, and organizational analysis. Once the training needs of extension personnel have been identified, the next step is to organize training programmes. Methods such as games, role playing, simulation exercises, and case study can be used in extension organizations to create learning situations based on experience (Lynton & Pareek, 1990). Training based on actual field experience should be emphasized. Emerging new farm technologies such as integrated pest management and improved practices in horticulture call for actual field experience.

Extension agents need training not only in the technological aspects but also in human relations, problem solving, sensitivity towards disadvantaged groups, and the basic concepts of management (Hayward, 1990).

i. **Training approach** There are three approaches to training: (1) the traditional approach, (2) the experiential approach, and (3) the performance-based approach (Rama, Etling, & Bowen, 1993). In the traditional approach, the training staff designs the objectives, contents, teaching techniques, assignments, lesson plans, motivation, tests, and evaluation. The focus in this model is intervention by the training staff. In the experiential approach, the trainer incorporates experiences where in the learner becomes active and influences the training process. Unlike the academic approach inherent in the traditional model, experiential training emphasizes real or simulated situations in which the trainees will eventually operate. In this model, the objectives and other elements of training are jointly determined by the trainers and trainees. Trainers primarily serve as facilitators, catalysts, or resource persons. In the performance-based approach to training, goals are measured through attainment of a given level of proficiency instead of passing grades of the trainees. Emphasis is given to acquiring specific observable skills for a task. This performance-based teacher education (PBTE) model, developed by Elam (1971), is mostly task or skill centred and is also applicable to nonformal educational organizations such as extension.

ii. **Training Needs Identification**: Training need is a condition where there is a gap between "what is" and "what should be" in terms of incumbents" knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviour for a particular situation at one point in time. This gap is called"a problem", which usually occurs when a difference exists between "desired performance" and "actual performance". The needs identification process assists trainers in making sure that they have matched a training programme to a training problem. For example, agricultural extension officers (AEOs) have been giving training to villageextension workers (VEWs), but performance of the VEWs is not improving. The reasons may be:

- The AEOs lack subject – matter knowledge
- The AEOs do not conduct training well.
- The training center lacks training facilities.
- The VEWs are organized not to work properly until their demands are satisfied by the government.
  The first two problems are related to knowledge and skills and can be solved

effectively by a training programme, but the third and fourth problems need government attention to solve.

Training needs identification is possible through different analytical procedures. The major procedures used in determining training needs are the following: Organizational analysis determines where training emphasis should be placed within the organization and is based on the objectives of an organization. Concerning what one should do in analyzing an organization suggest four steps:

The 4 steps involved in organizational analysis phase of training are as follows:

1. Stating the goals and objectives of an organization

2. Analyzing the human resources

3. Analyzing efficiency indices

4. Analyzing the organizational climate.

The results of these analyses are then compared with the objectives of the organization. These comparisons point to specific areas in which training is needed.

Individual analysis aims at identifying specific training needs for an individual or group of employees so that training can be tailored to their needs. This analysis centers on individuals and their specific needs concerning the skills, knowledge, or attitudes they must develop to perform their assigned tasks.

3.3 Types and Techniques of Staff Training

i. **Pre-service training** is more academic in nature and is offered by formal institutions of following definite curricula and syllabuses for a certain duration to offer a formal degree or diploma.

ii. **In-service training**, on the other hand, is offered by the organization from time to time for the development of skills and knowledge of the incumbents.

iii. **Pre-service Training**Pre-service training is a process through which individuals are made ready to entera certain kind of professional job such as agriculture, medicine or engineering.

They have to attend regular classes in a formal institution and need to complete a definite curriculum and courses successfully to receive a formal degree or diploma. They are not

entitled to get a professional job unless they earn a certificate, diploma, or degree from the appropriate institution.

Pre-service training contents emphasize mostly on technical subject matter such as crops, animal husbandry and fisheries as well as pedagogical skills to prepare the students to work in agriculture.

In general, two types of pre-service training are available to agricultural staff.

These are:

· **Degree level** (at least a bachelor"s degree in agriculture or related field), which is usually offered for four years by a university or agricultural college; and

· **Diploma level**, which is mostly offered by the schools of agriculture for a period of two to three years. The entry point for the former is normally twelve years of schooling and for the latter ten years of schooling.

In-service Training and Staff Development

In-service training is a process of staff development for the purpose of improving the performance of an incumbent holding a position with assigned job responsibilities. It promotes the professional growth of individuals. "It is a program designed to strengthen the competencies of extension workers while they are on the job". In-service training is a problem-centred, learner-oriented and time-bound series of activities which provide the opportunity to develop a sense of purpose, broaden perception of the clientele, and increase capacity to gain knowledge and mastery of techniques.

In-service training may broadly be categorized into five different types:

(i) Induction or orientation training, (ii) foundation training, (iii) on-the-job training, (iv) refresher or maintenance training, and (v) career development training. All of these types of training are needed for the proper development of extension staff throughout their service life.

(i) Induction or Orientation Training

Induction training is given immediately after employment to introduce the new extension staff members to their positions. It begins on the first day the new employee is on the job. This type of training is aimed at acquainting the new employee with the organization and its personnel.

Induction training for all new personnel should develop an attitude of personal dedication to the service of people and the organization. This kind of training supplements whatever pre service training the new personnel might have had.

Concerning the characteristics of a new employee, Van Dersal (1962) said that when people start to work in an organization for the first time, they are eager to know what sort of outfit they are getting into, what they are supposed to do and whom they will work with. They are likely to be more attentive and open-minded than experienced employees.

In fact, the most favorable time for gaining employees" attention and for moulding good habits among them is when they are new to the job.

(ii) Foundation Training

Foundation training is in-service training which is also appropriate for newly recruited personnel. Besides technical competence and routine instruction about the organization, every staff member needs some professional knowledge about various rules and regulations of the government, financial transactions, administrative capability, communication skills, leadership ability, coordination and cooperation among institutions and their linkage mechanism as well as assistance in report writing.

Foundation training is made available to employees to strengthen the foundation of their service career. This training is usually provided at an early stage of service life.

Maintenance or Refresher Training: This training is offered to update and maintain the specialized subject matter knowledge of the incumbents. Refresher training keeps the specialists, administrators, subject-matter officers, extension supervisors, and frontline workers updated and enables them to add to the knowledge and skills they have already. Maintenance or refresher training usually deals with new information and new methods, as well as review of older materials. This type of training is needed both to keep employees at the peak of their possible production and to prevent them from getting into a rut.

(iii) On-the-Job Training

This is ad hoc or regularly scheduled training, such as fortnightly training under the training and visit (T&V) system of extension and is provided by the superior officer or the subject-matter specialists to the subordinate field staff. This training is generally problem or technology

oriented and may include formal presentations, informal discussion and opportunities to try out new skills and knowledge in the field. The superior officer, administrator or subject matter specialist of each extension department must play a role in providing on-the-job training to the staff while conducting day-to-day normal activities.

(v) Career or Development Training

This type of in-service training is designed to upgrade the knowledge, skills and ability of employees to help them assume greater responsibility in higher positions. The training is arranged departmentally for successful extension workers, at all levels, for their own continuing education and professional development. Malone (1984) opined that extension services that provide the opportunity for all staff to prepare a plan for career training will receive the benefits of having longer tenured and more satisfied employees, which increases both the effectiveness and efficiency of an extension service.

Malone stated that "career development is the act of acquiring information and resources that enables one to plan a program of life-long learning related to his or her work life".

Although extension workers are responsible for designing their own career development education, the extension organization sometimes sets some criteria and provides opportunities for the staff by offering options.

(vi) Programmed Training

 This is one of the modern training systems that allows individual to learn and acquire new skills, knowledge, expertise and attitude at his own pace through a programmed teaching machines or prepared texts. The strength of this kind of training is that it is economical and systematic. However, it militates against good human relation and at times, some of the coded items might not be suitable to practical situation.

There are many techniques of delivery depending upon whether the content of the topic is knowledge, skills or attitude or intensive. The selection of programme delivery techniques is extensive but the most important factor to consider in the choice of delivery method is the trainees" participation as well as available time.

(vii) Group Methods of Training

This refers to the method where participants discuss on various topics at various levels of meeting. Among the recognized group methods are: symposiums, seminars, workshop, and conferences.

- Symposiums: this is a series of related speeches by 2-5 persons focusing on a certain aspect of the general topic. The presentation of each resource person is coordinated by the moderator.

- Seminars: this is a gathering of people under a leadership of learned person for the purpose of studying a subject. Each present or discusses a problem and shares the findings with participants. This makes seminars more of academic than any other group method.

- Workshops: this also involves a group of individuals with common interest. It comprises both theory and practice to enable participants to be more functional after the programme.

- Conferences: this refers to the meeting of delegates for consultation, discussion or instruction usually at a specified period of time. Proceed of workshop or conferences are usually codified and made available to every participants and the public in the form of books, journals, etc.

(viii) Individual Method of Training

The methods of training presentation or programme implementation adoptable by individual presenter varies and can be used separately or combined to effect positive changes in the participants. Some of these methods are:

- Lecture Method: this is knowledge oriented and consists of instructions from the trainer to the trainee. It is often used to build up theoretical knowledge, which is a prerequisite for practical or participative training. It is economical in the use of time and space but less participatory.

- Talk: this allows for participation, while incorporating other methods. It is suitable for small group and participation by group sustains the interests and learning of the training. However, it is time consuming.

- Role Play: in this method, individual assumes the role they will play in their place of work. It stimulates real-life situations and participants can practice and receive criticism in relatively protected situation.

- Discussion Method: as the name implies, discussion allows free expression and exchange of opinions among participants on knowledge, ideas and attitudes on a particular subject. It is suitable for attitude change but requires a good leader who gives appropriate direction to group.

- Case Study: this refers to the history of some event or set of circumstances where relevant details are examined by the participants. It provides a detached look at a problem (s) free from presume of the actual event.

- Exercise: this is the process of giving some tasks for participants to undertake under a certain rules and leading to a desired outcome. Although it could be frustrating it not properly handled but it provides immediate feedback.

- Business Games: participants are informed about the organization"s financial position and are asked to assume different management role. Decisions are made and actions taken and the probable outcome of the action are then evaluated.

3.4 Methods, Benefits and Problems of training in Extension

A. **Methods of training in Extension**

We have two broad categories of methods used in training of staff. Viz;

   i. Information Methods In this category, messages are passed to trainees. Examples of training methods under this category are lecture, audio and video media and self directed learning.

   ii. Experimental Methods Here, the learners are opportune to interact with the instructor to put into practice the skills they are expected to learn. Examples of training methods in this category are on the job training, distance learning programme, role playing, behavior modeling and sensitivity training.

B. Benefits of Training in Extension Organization

The outcome of a well-conducted training could useful in the following ways:

   i. Increasing productive capacity of extension staff.

ii.   Reducing errors that could affect performance.

iii.   Reduce staff turnover.

iv.   Lessening supervision and associated stress thereby ensuring confidence and good atmosphere of working.

v.   Enhance the ability of staff to advance the skill performance job.

vi.   Giving new capabilities to staff.

vii.   Bringing about attitudinal changes which of course lead to improvement in the job performance

C. Problems of Extension Training in Nigeria

Extension training in Nigeria has not been met with substantial success, despite the aforementioned benefits. The following are some of the impediments affecting the success.

i.   Extension agents, Farmer]s and specialists have been trained in area where they do not really indicate any needs (Actual needs are not properly assessed)

ii.   Training programmes are planned from top down instead of bottom up. In most cases, trainees are not given opportunity to participate in the planning of training need.

iii.   Training programmes are not always subjected to proper evaluation as they are subjected to inappropriate criteria.

iv.   There is a gross inadequate in the funding of training programmes.

v.   Subject matter speciatists in training programme design implementation and evaluation technique are not well used.

vi.   Also, refresher course in training institute university, school of Agriculture and Agricultural institutes are not easily available.

4.0 Conclusion

In this unit you have been introduced to the concept of Recruitment of extension personnel. You now know that selecting extension personnel demands thorough, in-depth testing of cognitive and non-cognitive abilities. You also know the different types of training opportunities opened to an administrator. You also learnt about the group and Individual Method of Training.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, you have learnt that proper planning and management of human resources within extension organizations is essential to increase the capabilities, motivation, and overall effectiveness of extension personnel. You also learnt that training is human oriented and a deliberate attempts to improve a person"s skills at a task. You also leant the various types and techniques of Staff Training.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignments

- Explain the concept of recruitment of extension personnel?
- Explain the meaning of training and development?
- Enumerate the types and techniques for staff training?
- What are the basic difference between group and Individual Method of Training?
- State the methods, benefits and problems of training in extension?

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Unit 2 Staff Performance Appraisals

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1.0 Introduction

This unit will start by exposing the reader to basic issues in this course; such issues include the understanding of concept and methods of staff Performance appraisals. Thereafter, the key concept and Principles of Staff Promotion will be elaborated. This will give the reader the necessary knowledge about appraisal and promotion and their key issue will be discussed in this course.

2.0 Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define the meaning of appraisal of extension workers

- explain the different types of staff appraisal

- describe the need for appraising staff performance in extension

- explain post staff appraisal activities in extension organization

- state the pitfalls extension managers need to avoid

3.0   Main Content

3.1 Concept and Meaning of Staff Appraisal

The terms appraisal, evaluation and assessment are synonymously to mean estimation of the nature or value of staff. It is thus a process of gathering, and documenting information about the achievement and performance of a programme, organisation or employees. Staff appraisal is therefore a systematic method of assessing the performance of employees in their job with a view to helping management decisions on promotion, transfer, training or change in pay. It implies the continuous process of feeding back to subordinates, information about how well they are doing their work for the organisation. The prime aim of staff appraisal is to identify and rectify deficiencies in performance and in organizational contest to build up an inventory of usable control information as checkup on the effectiveness of other management process.

Appraisal of Extension Workers

Appraising Extension worker means a process of feeding back to subordinates information about how well they are doing their work for the organisation.

In appraising Extension work, indicators are usually in these areas;

1.   construction of organisation, that is, the building of the institution;

2.   the role performance of various Extension actors; village Extension worker, Extension agent, block Extension supervisor, and subject matter specialists;

3.   the reaction of the beneficiaries.

However, the appraisal (evaluation) of Extension work may be done by visits, recommendations (adoption) and the yields (eventual consequences).

3.2   Types of staff Appraisal

There are two main types of staff appraisal; form and informal.

   A.   **Formal Appraisal** In this method, assessment or appraisal is carried out semi-annually or annually on a formalized basis through the use of a form tagged Annual Performance Evaluation Report". This is popularly called "APER" form. The form contains information on the employee"s characteristics (name, age, current post/rank)and assessment section centres principally on attitudes and behavior to work, to peers and superior officers, punctuality, intelligence, initiative, responsibility, tolerance, persistence, emotional ability, stress copying ability, etc. All the behavioural attitudes would be rated from a scale spanning from highest to lowest. The overall performance is eventually shown from the summary of the whole rating.

Formal appraisal could take any of the following approaches:

i.   a supervisor"s rationg of subordinates;

ii.   a group of supervisors rating subordinates

iii.   a group of peers rating colleagues and

iv.   subordinates rating their superiors.

   B. **Informal Appraisal**

Here, assessment is conducted on a day-to-day basis and as such profer close connection between behavior and feedback. Primarily, this approach is to check undesirable performance before such is entrenched. Personal characteristics such as intelligence, decisiveness, creativity and ability to get along with others are the major aspects this method hinges on. The method does not involve record keeping, it is usually carried out by a "whim" of the eyes. In this approach, not all attributes are used, some could be forgotten and therefore seems to be unreliable. Suffice it to state therefore that it could be a supplement to formal approach.

3.3   The Need for Appraising Staff Performance in Extension

Staff appraisal if well conducted, helps in;

1. informing the job holder who is being assessed as to how he is doing;

2. stimulating the person to better performance if this is seen to be warranted by the current level of performance;

3. indicating the skills that need improvement;

4. indicating the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation"s initial selection procedures;

5. cataloguing the capabilities of the employees on an organizational basis, serving as a memory back of information on capacity of employees;

6. reviewing of salary;

7. identifying training needs;

8. feedback to the employers;

9. serving as a basis for career counseling;

10. for succession planning;

11. it also serves as part of handover document between managers.

3.4   Post Staff Appraisal Activities in Extension Organisation

Sequel to the completion of staff appraisal, result as communicated to him or her. In some organisations, to ensure this feedback, a portion is included in their APER forms where the appraise confirms seeing the rating and thus append his/her signature below it. Some do hesitate to append signature as they contest the grades given to them while others, if satisfied, agreed with the rating. Few cases of disagreement calls for the attention of management to resolve issues involved in order to curb conflicts.

Managers, not minding this kind of disagreement sometimes, however have to be communicating the results to individual appraise, as it serves a purpose of making subordinates toi learn from their past experience. These kind of results in Extension organisation are reported to subordinates in a feedback interview, with a view to ensure the following;

• Giving both favourable and unfavourable results to subordinate;

• Analysing the causes of problem(s)

• Planning constructive changes and necessary actions to improve job performance; and

• Rewashing a mutual agreement on objectives against next period.

3.5   Pitfalls Extension Managers Need to Avoid

To make both formal and informal appraisal programmes effective, Extension managers need to avoid the following pitfalls that usually impede effective appraisal. These include:

• **Rate Bias**

Some managers allow their personal bias to distort the ratings they give subordinates. Issues of prejudices may be in terms of sex, ethnicity, religion, style of clothing, age and others.

• **Different Rating Patterns**

The fact of individual differences is related to difference in rating styles of managers. While some rate easily other raste harsly. This gap could be bridged by having precise definitions of each item on the rating form.

• **Staffing Standards**

This involves rating subordinates with the use of different standards and expectations. To be effective, methods used for rating should be perceived by subordinates as being uniform and fair.

• **The Hallow Effect**

This entails the tendency to rate appraisees high or low o n all performance measuring, usually on one of their characteristics. Take for instance, a situation where an attractive popular employee is given high overall rating unjustifiably; officer next to him may be rated negatively. Managers need to rate employees separately on each of a number of performances to be measured with a caution of guarding against the hallo effect.

It worth noting however, that these pitfalls, if not cautiously taken care of, constitute constraints to effective appraisal.

Another area that need caution is in respect of ineffectiveness of informal appraisal by managers as individuals who were informally criticise about job performance either once or twice often tend to become defensive and resentful, thereby decline in their performance after feedback interview. To avoid further confrontation, managers prefer to avoid direct confrontation and this plays hunches, guess or decide the fate of subordinates. Likely adduced reasons on this could be as a result of poor communication, lack of appraisal training, unpleasantness of appraisal interview of process, poor quality management, laziness and reluctance, etc

4.0 Conclusion

Appraisal is a necessity in any venture. Managers are to examine constantly the effectiveness of employees" performance and give feedback such that if there is poor performance, the analysis will serve as a basis for necessary remedial action.

5.0 Summary

Staff appraisal was defined as a systematic and continuous process of assessing how well employees are doing their work (Assessment of job performance). Types of staff appraisal, means for appraisal, post appraisal activities, pitfalls on staff appraisal that managers need to avoid were discussed.

6.0 Teacher Marked Assessment

i. Explain the concept of staff appraisal

ii. List and discuss the 2 types of staff appraisal in Extension organisation

iii. What are the reasons for effective staff appraisal in Extension organisation?

iv. Highlight any 5 pitfalls that Extension managers should try to avoid in order to have effective staff appraisal.

v. Identify 2 disadvantages of informal staff appraisal technique

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Unit 3 Extension Personnel Promotion

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1.0 Introduction

An important aspect of human resource management which needs special attention in extension organizations is the development of a reward system which will attract, retain, and motivate extension personnel, as well as provide training and promotional opportunities. The extension agents are not only poorly paid but are paid late and after reminders or visits to head-quarters (Wiggins, 1986). Most of the extension services are run by government agencies and operate under rules and regulations of public administration. These rules do not have provisions for promotion and rewarding superior performance or for a wage system based on merit. Promotion criteria are based on seniority and length of service. Thus the bureaucratic structure of extension services is a basic hindrance to designing a better reward system.

2.0 Objectives

By the end of this unit you should be able to:

- Explain the Concept of Promotion of extension personnel
- State the Measures and bases for staff promotion
- Explain Management of rewards and incentives in extension personnel

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Concept of Staff Promotion

Promotion can be defined as the advancement of a serving employee from a lower to a higher position and which usually implies an increase in compensation, is a personnel management function that has to be handled with caution. This is so because of its linkage to morale, motivation and careerism.

Stahl says of it "opportunity for advancement and the chance to make the best possible use of one's capacities from one of the wellsprings of human motivation". He further says that "the proper determination of positions which can be filled by selection of the ablest employees for advancement, the development of employees to their maximum usefulness, and the proper balance between inside and outside recruitment lie at the very heart of good personnel administration".

Some organizations have a promotion policy which guarantees advancements to serving employees from time to time. Others have a promotion policy which sees promotion as a general staffing programme, a policy for filling positions with the ablest available talent from within or outside the organization.

The problem with the policy of guaranteed period promotion foe employees is that it is capable of placing an overemphasis on seniority. In the words of O. Glenn Stahl. : Overemphasis on `years of experience'... plagues many agencies in their effort to achieve objectivity in selections for promotion.

Quite often the highly touted '20 years of experience' is merely one year of experience 20 times. Many are the clerks in executive jobs who are still operating them as clerical posts".

In-bred promotions are not in themselves bad. What makes them bad are in the words of Stahl. The lack of the following essential ingredients:

i. adequate qualification standards for key positions;

ii. adequate records and machinery which provide a means for finding the best candidates within the organization;

iii. adequate measures of overall competence and potentiality;

iv. comprehensive training programmes to keep the staff alert to new developments and to prepare promising men and women for advancement;

v. Promotion and transfer across division lines within the organization and thus providing as broad a field of selection and promotion opportunity as possible and

vi. clear distinction between clerical jobs, requiring certain manipulative skills and aptitudes, and ability, so that the latter are not automatically filled from the ranks of the former but are filled by men with education, the capacity to deal with generalizations as well as with `things' and the gifts to lead and innovate that ought to be expected of all executives.

Organizations that have promotion policies that over emphasize the "injection" of new blood through filling vacancies from outside the organization, run the risk of firstly. being unattractive to new entrants at the lower levels. What attracts expert juniors to organizations is the knowledge that higher positions are available to aspire to in the organization. Indeed, without this prospect, the idea of a career is nonexistent.

The second reason is that, if an over emphasis is placed on filling vacancies from outside" the morale of serving officers will be dampened. In the words of Stahl, "The most important of all non financial incentives (in organizations) is the opportunity for growth and the stimulus to grow".

SELF ASSESSMENT

List the qualities of an executive and contrast them with those of a clerk which make the latter unsuitable as material for the position of the former.

3.2 Measures and bases for promotion

O. Glenn Stahl lists four methods and bases for promotion as (1) comparative performance, (2) seniority, (3) examination and (4) trial on the job.

1. **Comparative performance**If this factor is to be used as a measure or a basis for promotion, it would be necessary to, firstly, have good, up-to-date records of performance and qualifications of all employees and secondly, an efficient method for finding those employees who should be considered for a given vacancy.For the first

requirement, i.e. personal achievement records of the employee, it is necessary that a comprehensive record be available of such things as performance reports. Education and training, experience, interests, hobbies etc.

The second requirement, the index of qualified candidates calls for an easy method of finding all those relevant for a particular vacancy. In developing this list, we are engaging in a process of internal recruitment. You remember recruitment in an earlier unit? Its purpose was to secure applications from all those interested in any particular job. In the same way, some organizations call for applications from their employees so that a list of those to be considered in a promotion process can be compiled.This first set of measures of promotion relate, as you can see, relate to the need for good recording and record keeping. In this aspect as noted by Omale (1992) the Nigerian Civil Service is found to be lacking. He noted that the civil service commissions which are the custodians of employee performance evaluation reports and which uses them as a measure for promotion had no way of ascertaining that they were being completed and/or countersigned by the rightful officers.

 Also on account of poor storage and retrieval methods many of such reports get lost.When they get lost, and because reports of three consecutive years are required for consideration for promotion, they are filled in arrears for the concerned staff and usually not by the staff under whom he worked, such a staff probably having been re-assigned, left service or perhaps died.

2. **Seniority**Discussing this factor Glenn Stahl makes very useful comments. He says that "....the simplest and most time-honoured basis for promotion is the length of service of the employee, (but that) in most cases however, seniority is used in conjunction with other criteria for promotion".

    The assumption for the use of seniority as a measure for promotion is that long and efficient service is a guarantee for handling the functions of a higher position. Stahl says that this is a false assumption because "the character of the work in the lower grades may neither call into play nor develop the superior capacities required in the higher"'.The circumstance that seniority can be usefully brought in, is when all things are equal. If the performance of all officers on the same level is adjudged equal, seniority can then become a deciding factor otherwise, it should ordinarily be assigned a small weight.

3. **Examination**Written examinations are useful measures of promotion depending upon the type of position and the factor being tested. Testing for knowledge is comparatively simple and could be conclusive. However, as noted by Stahl, "...in the matter of personality traits, which play a larger role as the responsibilities of positions increase, there is no immediate prospect of conclusive tests. Here, must be included such dynamic traits as leadership, judgment, initiative, resourcefulness, and cooperativeness". Thus for lower level, routine, repetitive jobs, written examinations may suffice, but for supervisory and executive jobs, may not be sufficient.

4. **Trial on the job**This is about the best measure with which to measure suitability for promotion. The intelligible which are necessary for filling more responsible positions can be objectively analyzed using this method. Although opportunities for its use are limited as many times as they occur they should be used. The most conducive time for their use is in the normal course of operations, e.g a subordinate acting for a boss when he goes on leave or on a fairly long assignment.

5. **Transfers and re-assignments**You will recall that when we discussed promotion above, we said it was advancement from a lower to a higher position with increase in compensation. A transfer according to O. Glenn Stahl, ".... Involves the movement of the employee to another position of the same class in another organization unit. This is a horizontal movement". It does not involve a change of duties but only a change from the jurisdiction of one executive to that of another. On the other hand, reassignment is a change of work, not involving increased responsibilities, in the same office.There are many reasons that can account for transfers. One, as noted by Stahl, is "original placement cannot ...wholly assure that the appointee is fitted to his job. There always possibilities of round pegs in square holes....".
Another point you should note about transfers is that whereas some are within the same department (intra-departmental transfers) others are across (inter-departmental transfers). Usually the former are easier to effect, not involving the authority of the central

personnel agency, the latter, is usually difficult to effect and usually involves the approval or the action of the central personnel agency.A variant of transfers which combines the characteristics of reassignment is posting. Posting is the reassignment of a given class or cadre of officers who are functionaries of a given office, e.g the office of the Head of Service or the Establishment Division. from ministry to ministry, department to department as the exigencies of office/functions demand. These class of officers are in a "pool" and are "rotated" from one ministry or department to another as a regular part of their character to improve growth of employee and of the organization. It has its advantages and disadvantages.

The former is that it heightens morale by not tying one to a particular location and it engenders training in varied experiences. The latter is that it can take an employee to an undesired organization unit or location. If done too frequently it can lead to an employee not gathering any useful experience. With a reasonable use, its advantages out-weigh its disadvantages.

3.3 Management of rewards and incentives

The rewards and incentive system can be improved in several ways.

i. *Rewarding Superior Performance.* Extension organizations have to develop a reward system which encourages superior performance so that pay and wage administration will be an effective tool to promote performance, motivation, and satisfaction. A clear job description, performance standards, and performance appraisal will help in evaluating extension work and rewarding people for meritorious service. Ways and means have to be found within the existing framework of public administration for basing pay on performance. For example, extension workers on the basis of their performance can be sent for higher education. Nonmonetary rewards such as recognizing the good ideas of field workers or awarding honourable titles will also help in improving performance. Extension personnel may also be encouraged to form professional societies to develop and communicate high standards, as well as to recognize superior performance. A professional monthly journal or newsletter can help extension agents to communicate innovative ideas and reinforce superior performance.

ii. *Improved Working Conditions at the Field Level.* The reward system must also be internally equitable. The relative importance of field-level extension functionaries has to be realized in terms of pay compensation and other amenities. Lower level extension workers often have to work under unpleasant and isolated conditions. A carefully planned system of field allowance will compensate this (Baxter, 1990). The living conditions of field extension workers must be improved by providing adequate facilities for housing, transport, and medical and educational allowances for children.

iii. *Career Planning and Development for Extension Personnel.* A career refers to all of the jobs that people hold during their working lives. Career planning is the process by which employees plan their career goals and paths. Career development refers to all of the technical and managerial skills employees acquire to achieve their career plans. Career advancement, which gives a picture of future opportunities in terms of promotion, is a motivating factor for performance and development of skills.

Unfortunately, no career structure exists for extension personnel in many organizations. In developing countries like India, there are many cases where one joins as a village extension worker and retires in the same position after serving thirty to thirty-five years. As part of improving the rewards and incentives system, extension organizations have to develop suitable career paths and advancement for different categories of extension personnel on a systematic basis.

As part of career development, extension personnel should be provided with opportunities to develop their technical and managerial skills to enable them to occupy higher positions. Extension personnel should have a salary structure as well as promotion opportunities

4.0 Conclusion

In this unit you have been introduced to the concept of staff promotion. You now know that promotion comes with higher duties/responsibilities and higher pay. You also know that transfers and reassignments are movements that do not involve higher positions or higher pay. You have also learnt, bases for promotion and what importance to place on each.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that most of the extension services are run by government agencies and operate under rules and regulations provided for promotion and rewarding superior performance or a wage system based on merit. Promotion criteria are based on seniority and length of service aimed at facilitating employee development. You have also learnt that there are four methods and bases for promotion namely comparative performance, seniority, examination and trial on the job. You also learnt that the rewards and incentive system can be improved in several ways such as rewarding Superior Performance, Improved Working Conditions at the Field Level and Career Planning and Development for Extension Personnel.

6 .0 Tutor Marked Assignments

- What remedy would you recommend to curb the problem of poor storage (retrieval of records in the Nigerian civil service and what would you do to curb the incidence of "make-up" performance evaluation reports some of which can be 3 years in arrears?
- What weight is given to seniority in promotion exercise in any organization you know and what effect has it had on organizational performance?
- Enumerate the measures and bases for promotion?

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