**TH E VILLAGE A I D**(**V**-**AID**)**PROGRAM**

 Village AID is the name given by the Government of Pakistan to its nation-wide program of rural community development. The letters**A, I** and D in the title, although pronounced "aid," are i n abbreviationfor part of the .full title-Village Agricultural and Industrial Development,or more simply, "V-AID." This program was initiated in June 1952;training of the first V-AID workers (VAWs) began in July 1953; the firstdevelopment area of 150 villages was opened in February 1954; and today108 development areas are in operation in all parts of Pakistan encompassingapproximately 16,000 villages or 16% of the total in which live elevenmillion people.

**Aims and Objectives of V**.-**AID**

The aim of the V-AID program is to assist villagers, both individuallyand collectively, to plan and implement self-help programsdesigned to eliminate or reduce their common problems and to reachagreed-upon goals, The types of assistance rendered by the VAWs to thevillagers are designed to give them the confidence and ability to actthrough organized effort with a minimum of outside help.V-AID uses the principles and methods of community organizationand development, It looks at the village as a whole through the eyesof its people and uses their vast store of accumulated knowledge andwisdom, supplemented by that of the technicians, for their own welfare.It aims at coordinating the total resources or" the people and the governmentfor concerted effort to meet the needs of village people.In thewords of the Five-Year Plan, "the specific objectives of the VillageAID Progrm are:(a) To raise rapidly the productive output and real income of thevillager by bringing to him the help of modern techniques of farming,sanitation and health, cooperatives, cottege industries, etc, (b) To multiply the community services available in rural areassuch as schools, dispensaries, health centers, hospitals, sources ofpure water supply, etc.(c) To create a spirit of self-help, initiative, 1eadership andcooperation among the villagers which may become the foundation of anindcpendcnt, healthy and self-perpetuating economic, political, civicand social progress.(d) To create conditions for a richer & higher life throughsocial activities, including recreational facilities , both for men andwomen.(e) To coordinate the working of the different Departments of theGovernment and to extend their activities into the villages by providingan extension service to the country.(f) To give a welfare bias t o the entire administrative structure of the government.

**Rural Works Programme (RWP)**

How Rural Works Program Initiated

In 1961, the PARD Camilla East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) under took a pilot project of rural development  through basic democracies and found the results encouraging in the sense that the basic democracies were capable of doing developmental works with collaboration of the government. The RWP was launched on this principle at once, first in East Pakistan (1962-3) and then in the west wing (1963-4). *“The idea was that if money is injected into rural areas, will increase the purchase power of the people and thus the demand for consumers goods will increase which will lead to the development of local industry and hence jobs and employment”.*

The federal government organized the RWP under the ministry of finance and Planning. A cell was created in the planning and development division to look after the operations, provide policy guide lines and assistance to the provinces. Each province was responsible for project organization and implementation.

**Objectives of Rural Works Program**

To improve the quality of life of rural people through the utilization of the local resources and local leadership and public participation.

To provide the felt-needs small physical infra-structure to develop agriculture in the country.

To provide gainful employment on projects of local importance and labor intensive productive projects.

Continue the spirit of self-help which had badly damaged during V-aid programme.

To train local people in the field of planning and implementation of self-help projects.

To achieve these goals 50% of the budget was allocated for communication improvement, 25% for water supply and sanitation projects and the remaining 25% for other eligible projects of local needs selected by the locals.

**Basic Democracies System**

With the abolition of the Village-AID program in 1961, rural development became a part of the Basic Democracies System (BDS) Basic Democracies System (BDS) It came on scene in 1959-1970 it was designed to bring the elements of community development and political development together, especially at the local level. The government administrative and development tiers were organized into five levels. The lowest tier was a union council, a group of villages comprising 12-15 village councilors. On an average, such a union council covered a population of 8,000. The councils carried out social and economic development work in their respective areas. The problems that the union councils tried to solve were related to education, infrastructure, agriculture and sanitation. The BDs went a long way in developing awareness and local leadership among the rural masses but the change in the Government in 1970 saw the abolition of the BDS and the introduction of a new rural development approach - the Integrated.

**Rural Development Program (IRDP)**. Rural Works Program 1963 RWP was launched in 1963 in West and East Pakistan, now Bangladesh, as a mechanism for involving rural communities in the development process.

The objectives of this programme were to:

1.To increase employment by creating work opportunities in the rural areas on local projects not requiring large amount of capital.

2.To create infrastructure such as roads, bridges and irrigation channels in the rural areas.

 3.To raise additional and manpower resources for the implementation of local projects

[2.](https://image.slidesharecdn.com/04mainruraldevelopmentprogrammeincountry-150425095221-conversion-gate02/95/04-main-rural-development-programme-in-country-2-638.jpg?cb=1429973563)through taxation or voluntary labour. Inputs at farmers doorsteps approach Inputs at farmers doorsteps approach 1971 In an effort to improve agricultural productivity during the latter years of the IRDP, the government assigned extension personnel to deliver agricultural inputs such as improved seed, fertilizer, and pesticides to farmers. The government provided substantial subsidies to the farmers in an effort to encourage the use of inputs deemed essential for increasing agricultural production (Government of Punjab, n.d.). The extension personnel succeeded in popularizing the use of agricultural inputs, resulting in a significant increase in agricultural production (Axinn and Thorat, 1972). Thus, ‘For the first time crop production [grew] about 6 or more per cent per year, which is a very, very high rate of growth’ Peoples Works Programme Peoples Works Programme 1972-1977 Program placed under the Federal Ministry of Finance and Planning, where it remained until 1983. Projects under the Peoples Works Programme, which was concurrent with the Integrated Rural Development Programme (1972-80), included road construction, school buildings, small irrigation dams, drinking water facilities and other physical infrastructure, although in many cases, other necessary inputs and services were not provided.

Integrated Rural Development Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP) 1972-1980 In early 1970, once again due to the change of political scenario and the problems with the previous development strategies, the government decided to try a new development approach - - the IRDP. Development of agriculture was the central force behind this program. Moreover, the IRDP was created as a subsidiary of the Agriculture Department, its leadership was heavily drawn form the agricultural department, and all frontline workers recruited to run this program were agricultural graduates. On the other hand, Local Government Department controlled rural development funds The emergence of private sector extension in Pakistan Although involved in extension activities since the 1980s,the private corporate sector – national and multinational agricultural input supply agencies – is now entrusted with the responsibility of supplying agricultural inputs to farmers (Government of Punjab, n.d.). According to the National Commission on Agriculture, the transition from subsistence to commercial agricultural in Pakistan will only be possible with the active participation of the private corporate sector (Government of Pakistan, 1988). Furthermore, the Commission adamantly encouraged the participation of the private sector in the process of agricultural development by making recommendations to the Government such as: The traditional role of the private corporate sector in providing material agricultural inputs and services . The Five-Point Special Development Programme The Five-Point Special Development Programme (1985-88) Under the Prime Minister's Five Points Programme, 700 thousands jobs were to be created during 1986-1990, which will have a market impact on the domestic un- employment situation. For creating the rural development, possibility for creating self

[3.](https://image.slidesharecdn.com/04mainruraldevelopmentprogrammeincountry-150425095221-conversion-gate02/95/04-main-rural-development-programme-in-country-3-638.jpg?cb=1429973563)(1985-88) employment opportunities based on cottage industry and Small Enterprises based on On-Farm income generating activities needs to be explored and envisaged in a most strategic way. Private Extension services Emergence of private sector in agricultural extension 1988 Until recently, the role of the private sector has remained minimal, though it has been growing in the past two decades. The active engagement of private sector in agricultural extension began after 1988, when the National Commission on Agriculture recommended to the government that “…the traditional role of the private corporate sector in providing material agricultural inputs and services needs to be strengthened and expanded to cover newly emerging needs such as specialised cultivation operations, spraying, and harvesting and to provide total package services rather than single inputs…” (Government of Pakistan, 1988). The Social Action Programmes (SAP) I (1992-93 to 1995-96) and II (1998-99 to 2003-04) The Social Action Programmes (SAP) I (1992-93 to 1995-96) and II (1998-99 to 2003-04) Were designed to expand access to basic services for the poor, particularly education and health for women and girls, and improve service quality; these were intended to include involvement of NGOs, the private sector and community participation to build political consensus and ensure bureaucratic support. Delays in funding and other implementation problems hampered SAP-I, particularly federal programs for population welfare and health.1 SAP-II had a greater focus on technical and vocational education and on improvements in the quality of service delivery. Implementation of SAP was decentralized to the provincial and district levels for the majority of relevant expenditures, consistent with the government’s devolution policies formally adopted in 2001.

### Training and visit system

The Training and Visit system was developed by World Bank Expert Daniel Benor. • Daniel benor and James Q Harrison, has released his article "agriculture extension training and visit system". • By the middle of 1980s it was observed that extension services in the developing countries were suffering from a number of weaknesses, including the dissipation of extension workers, energies on low priority tasks; the lack of single line of command; and low level of agricultural knowledge and skill among field level functionaries. As a means of reforming and strengthening the extension service, a reorganised agricultural extension system known as ‘Training and Visit’ (T & V) system was introduced in the country. • The concept of Training and Visit (T&V) extension was developed in the early 1970s, and implemented as a component in two regional irrigation projects, the Seyhan project in Turkey, and the Chambal (Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh) project in India, both funded by the World Bank in 1974. • Training and Visit system became the dominant method of restructuring the extension services in over sixty countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America.

 NEW AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION METHODOLOGY•

 In 8 countries and 13 big states in India, this system has been adopted. • This new method of agriculture extension was evolved on the basis of experiences gained in the pilot project set up with World Bank assistance in canal areas and Chambal command areas in Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh and command areas in Andhra Pradesh, in Kharif 1974. • Since this methodology yielded encouraging results, reorganised agricultural extension system based on this approach was introduced in other states by 1985 with the World Bank assistance. • Later , a centrally sponsored scheme "strengthening and reorganisation of agricultural administration in the states" has been approved by the government of India for implementation in sixth plan Period. This scheme is based on new agricultural extension methodology called as training and visit system(also known as the Benor system).

 WHAT IS TRAINING AND VISIT SYSTEM ? • This professional system of extension is based on frequent training of extension workers and regular field visits for onward guiding the farmers in agricultural production and raising their income by providing appropriate plans for country development. • Training : Training was imparted to the extension personnel at two levels; in the first level the middle level officers (SMSs) of the department of agriculture was trained by the university scientists (master trainers) in the monthly workshops generally organised at the district level in the nearby research station. Subsequently(second level) the SMSs used to impart training to grass root level extension functionaries in the fortnightly meetings in the respective taluks. • Visit : Knowledge and skill gained by the field extension functionaries during the fortnightly training programme was transferred to contact farmers through regular field visits. These contact farmers in turn shared the knowledge and skill to 10- 15 fellow farmers.

SALIENT FEATURES OF T& V SYSTEM:

•The extension staff must be up to date with the relevant scientific developments and research. • Single line of command: The extension service must be under single line of technical and administrative command within the Department of agriculture .

 • Concentration of effort: Only by concentrating on the tasks at hand can the impact of extension became visible and can progress be sustained. • Time bound work: Messages and skills are taught to farmers in a regular timely fashion ,so that they will make best use of resources at their command. • Field and farmer orientation: The contact of extension staff must be on regular basis ,on a schedule known to farmers and with a large number of farmers representing all major farming and socioeconomic types. • Regular and continuous training : Regular and continuous training of extension staff is required ,both to teach and discuss about the specific production recommendations required by farmers for coming fortnight and to upgrade their professional skills. • Linkages with research: Problems faced by farmers that cannot be resolved by extension workers are passed on to researchers for immediate solution or investigation.

OBJECTIVES

•Coordinate research, training and extension activities effectively. • To make research more effective by catering to the local needs and situation. •To evolve an intensive training programme on a systematic basis for extension workers and farmers and to ensure effective supervision and technical support to VEWs/AEOs.

ORGANISATION STRUCTURE OF THE T&V SYSTEM

 • An agriculture extension officer(AEO) guides, trains and supervises about six to eight village extension workers. Six to eight AEOs in turn were guided and supervised by sub divisional extension officers(SDEO). The SDEOs were supported by a team of SMSs. Four to eight SDEOs were supervised by a District Extension Officer(DEO) who was also supported by SMSs.

 • Coverage of various extension personnel:

• All the families under a VEWs jurisdiction were divided into eight groups of equal size. •From each group, the VEW in consultation with village leader selected about 10% of the contact farmers on whom he concentrates his efforts.

 •The VEW visits each of the eight groups for a full day each fortnight. An alternative was to visit two groups on a day.

•Each week the VEW devotes four days to visit so that he covers his entire circle of eight groups in a week, of a fortnight.

 •One of the two remaining working days in each week was devoted to in service training which was crucial to this programme and the other day for unscheduled visit.

 • One of the training sessions each fortnight was conducted by the team of SMSs responsible for the area. The session was scheduled so that the VLWs were trained for full day in a group of 30-40.

• The other weekly training session during the fortnight was conducted by AEOs who was the immediate supervisor of the VLW for the group of VLWs under his charge. The AEO spends two days in training sessions for VLW and eight days in field supervision and assisting them.

 • The SDEOs supervises VLWs under his jurisdiction and was in over all charge of the extension programme.

• The SMS devotes one –third of their time to VLW training session ,one third to field visits and one third of their time in visiting research stations and conducting some research .In fortnight, a team of SMS spends four days in VLW and AEO training sessions.

 ACHIEVEMENTS:

• The training and visit system resulted in : 1. Increase in cultivated area under high yielding varieties . 2. Increase in the cropping intensity. 3. Increase in employment of family labour. 4. Raise in marginal value of productivity of all inputs. 5. Acceleration in the adoption of recommended practices.

WEAKNESS: 1. Limited use of mass media hindering effectiveness, especially in reaching women and other small scale farmers. 2. Limited or no clientele involvement in program development. 3. Weak links with research ,plus lack of adequate SMS capacity ,frequently resulting lack of appropriate technology.