



THE ARKLETON TRUST

***EFFECTIVE TRAINING FOR
FAMILY
AND PART-TIME FARMERS***

*by
David Birkbeck*



AGRICULTURAL TRAINING BOARD

*Published with generous assistance from the Agricultural Training
Board.*

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PREFACE

David Birkbeck was awarded an Ernest Cook Fellowship by the Arkleton Trust in 1983 to enable him to study training methods for part-time farmers in Scotland, Wales, Norway, Bavaria and Southern France.

The purpose of the Fellowships is to enable people who are practically involved in rural development and education to carry out further study and evaluate past work. The emphasis is on the provision of such opportunities to applicants in mid-career who have demonstrated their ability to make a contribution to rural well being by their activities in the post which they hold. The Fellowships, fourteen of which have now been awarded, have been largely funded by the Ernest Cook Trust and the Highlands and Islands Development Board.

When David took up his Fellowship he was employed by the Agricultural Training Board as Training Adviser for the Highland Area in Scotland, a post which brought him face to face with problems of marginality and part-time farming. Although the Training Board had already pioneered some adaptive training methods well suited to the area, David had earned a well deserved reputation for sympathetic handling of the problems involved. His report emphasises the need, in present circumstances, for continuing adaptation in training scope and method. The adoption of some of David's suggestions by the Training Board is to be welcomed, and testifies, if testimony is needed, to the value of opportunities of the kind afforded by the Fellowships.

The Arkleton Trust would like to record its thanks to Professor Noel Robertson, a member of our Advisory Committee, for his invaluable help in editing the first draft of David's report, and to the Agricultural Training Board for sharing the costs of this publication. Finally we are indebted to the Ernest Cook Trust for their support for this Fellowship.

John Bryden
Programme Director.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It would be impossible to acknowledge by name the many people who advised and helped me during this study.

My thanks must go to the sponsors: the Ernest Cook Trust and the Arkleton Trust, in particular to Dr John Bryden, the Programme Director of the Arkleton Trust, for his guidance;

to Professor Noel Robertson, whose editing of this report has made it eminently more readable;

to the Agricultural Training Board for leave of absence, and to my colleagues who coped so capably in my absence: Ian Dewar, Magnus Robertson, John Pringle and my secretary, Rose Green, deserve my special thanks;

to the ATB staff and Training Group Organisers in the areas covered by this study for their assistance in providing the names of families to visit;

and to my wife and family for their encouragement and support.

Warm thanks must go to those in Norway, Germany and France whom I met as strangers but left as good and respected friends — without their assistance in organising my programme and setting up farmer interviews this study would be the poorer.

Finally, I offer sincere thanks to the farmers and their families, both in Britain and on the Continent, whose kindness, hospitality and frankness in answering my questions made this whole study possible.

David Birkbeck

INTRODUCTION

Aims

This study aims to examine the role of training for the family farmer and the part-time farmer. It derives from the author's experience of working for the Agricultural Training Board in an area in the North of Scotland where family and part-time farmers predominate but has been put on a wider footing by detailed investigations of attitudes and needs in eleven counties in England, Wales and Scotland, and by less detailed investigations during visits to Norway, the Federal Republic of Germany and France.

While small farmers and part-time farmers have to adapt to a changing agriculture, in exactly the same way as large farming businesses, their options for coping with changed circumstances are fewer and it may be that training and the development of new skills and the reinforcement of old skills are important elements in widening their range of options. Those responsible for agricultural education and training do not aim, in the main, at the less productive farm but the Agricultural Training Board is in a position to respond to the training needs of any section of agriculture and could play an important part here if the need is established.

Although family farmers and part-time farmers have been the subject of many studies little information exists on their training needs or their capacity to utilise training. It is hoped that this study will remedy the omission and demonstrate a possible role for the ATB in helping the family farmers and part-time farmers.

The Agricultural Training Board

The Agricultural Training Board was set up in 1966 to improve the technical performance of workers in the industry and thus to widen the number of job opportunities for them. In agriculture, workers and farmers are difficult to separate and both are the concern of the Agricultural Training Board which is an independent body of eight members, appointed by the Minister of Agriculture and drawn from employers, employees and educational organisations. It is financed by Government (7.6 million pounds in 1983) with the agricultural industry contributing over three million pounds in the same year, indirectly through

trainees wages and travel costs and directly through some course charges.

In 1983 a total of 17,500 courses, involving 112,000 trainees, were run in Britain. All the training involves trainee participation with courses lasting from three hours over one day to twelve hours over two days, and was locally based on farms and horticultural holdings.

The training provided could be grouped under three headings:

a) *practical skills training* for the farmer and employees to become familiar with new methods or equipment. These courses could be used to improve existing skills as well as to provide training for newcomers to the industry — be they school leavers or persons purchasing a farm. The numbers on these courses were small — usually 4 to 6 persons.

b) *technical management training* aimed mainly at the farmer or manager. These courses were often run in conjunction with the Advisory Services whose expertise in the subject, allied to ATB's training methods, ensured that the trainees obtained full benefit from attendance. Examples of the range covered was weed identification in grassland, and feeding and management of the in-lamb ewe.

c) *staff management and financial management training*. Staff management had most relevance to the larger units but there were a number of one-day modules ideally suited to the family farmer. For example, the setting and monitoring of enterprise targets was important for any size of farm. Financial management is now assuming greater importance. Farmers were slow to see management as an area where training could help but as more became aware of their own shortcomings there was an increase in requests for one-day courses. Training in financial management depended heavily on the Advisory Services expertise.

The ATB did not have its own instructor force but employed people who had the relevant skills and knowledge in the particular course subject. Nobody knew more about lambing and calving than a veterinary surgeon so he was invited to instruct. Fencing contractors, experienced stockmen, farmers, machinery firms, all contributed to the instructor force. Instructors were expected to attend an instructional techniques course since the skill to instruct well was every bit as important as the craft skill. Appendix B provides a summary of the wide range of courses available.

Farmers and growers were encouraged to form or join training groups. These consisted of 30-60 farmers and had their own management committees and their own Group Organiser to arrange and administer the training of group members. There are now 600 groups in Britain.

Sampling Procedure

The areas chosen for the study were selected to provide a comparison in geography, climate, soil type, farming enterprises, size of units, full-time family farmers and part-time farmers, types of off-farm employment and suitable contrast with equivalent situations in the three European countries. In almost all cases names and addresses were obtained from the ATB training advisers in the various parts of the country. In Wester Ross the contacts came through Dan Findlay of the North of Scotland College of Agriculture, whose co-operation is appreciated. Guidelines were given as to the type of person suitable for interview and the names provided were a representative sample.

All the interviewing was done by the author and was an informal discussion rather than formal questioning. The background information obtained was as valuable as the answers to the prepared Questionnaire and provided much of the information in the Report. It should be stressed that the samples were not established to enable conclusions to be drawn about particular geographical areas but to examine the different training needs of particular farm and household types while taking account of any important geographical features. An average of one and a half hours was spent with most families.

THE SURVEY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE AREAS SURVEYED

Method

Information was obtained from eleven areas of Great Britain. The aggregated statistics are shown in Table 1. Visits were also made to Norway, Germany and France (Table 2).

Table 1: Statistics of Units Visited

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------|--------|
| Number of farms in British survey | | 153 |
| Engaged in farms were — farmers | | 150 |
| — farmers' wives | | 106 |
| — family members | | 75 |
| Full-time units | | 70 |
| a) Part-time units | | 83 |
| b) Number employed in off-farm jobs | | 111 |
| Number of women in survey | | 119 |
| Total hectares involved in survey | | 23,529 |
| composed of — arable | 4,767 | |
| — permanent grass | 3,467 | |
| — rough | 15,294 | |

Table 2: Statistics of European Visits

| | |
|-----------|--------------------------------------|
| Norway — | 10 farmers |
| | 2 training/educational colleges |
| | University — Agricultural Department |
| Germany — | 8 farmers |
| | 1 Farmers' Union meeting |
| | Bavarian Small Farmers' Union |
| France — | 8 farmers |
| | 1 Farmers' Co-operative meeting |
| | Chambre de l'Agriculture |

The Areas Surveyed

DERBYSHIRE

Sixteen farms were visited of which twelve were farmed full-time and four were farmed part-time. Half of the farms visited were in the Peak District and were predominantly livestock-with-grass holdings. They varied between 20-60 hectares in size, were situated at an elevation of around 300m, and were in shallow stony soils. Long winters meant considerable amounts of silage and hay had to be conserved. There were a number of dairy farmers whose uncertainty about milk quotas was reflected in their responses. The other holdings were in the southern part of the county, around Ashbourne, with an undulating topography and heavy soils. Some units were large. Those visited were mainly devoted to livestock including some good dairy farms. Where a farm was too small to provide an income for returning

family members these often undertook off-farm work (seasonal or permanent).

NORTH YORKSHIRE

Nineteen farms were visited — only one was farmed full-time and eighteen were farmed part-time. The farms were in an area between Castleton and Whitby. The off-farm employment was mainly urban, of the senior management 'white collar' type, and involved 20 to 25 miles travel each day to Teeside. The farmers' employment status was a mixture of self-employed and employee, and included British Steel managers, solicitors, insurance agents, consultants, teachers and business owners. Because of the high unemployment and history of redundancies in Teeside, they viewed the farm as a valuable asset and possible alternative employment, but whilst they are in work the farm assumes much less significance. They had a good training group and indicated a keen desire to learn and apply the same professionalism to the farm as to their other occupation.

LEICESTERSHIRE

Nineteen farms were visited of which thirteen were farmed full-time and six were farmed part-time. Samples were drawn from areas of the county: Melton Mowbray, Coalville, Buttersworth and Market Harborough. Leicestershire is a county of contrasts with large arable holdings on the level and deep soils, with livestock rearing and dairying on the undulating areas with shallow soils. The full-time farms surveyed were mostly given over to grass and were on the higher ground. Some had sons working at home, but on others the sons had taken on contract work to bring in additional (much needed) income. Part-time farming was confined to smallholdings on the outskirts of villages with the smallholders being employed in neighbouring towns as teachers, lecturers, etc.

CUMBRIA

Eight farms were visited, four of which were farmed full-time and four were farmed part-time. Farming policy in Cumbria was greatly influenced by the heavy rainfall and the restrictions imposed by the National Park Regulations. Farm enterprises were grass based with dairying and sheep being the main sources of income. There were still many family units left although in the

last two decades there has been a tendency for farm sizes to increase. All the off-farm employment was of a rural nature and resulted in direct benefit to the farm. Tourism was of great importance and added to the earning capacity of many full-time and part-time farms.

NORTH WALES (GWYNEDD)

Fifteen farms were visited, four of these were farmed full-time and eleven were farmed part-time. The climate in Gwynedd was relatively mild and the rainfall heavy. Grass was the main crop with sheep, dairy and beef cattle providing the animal enterprises which utilised the grass. Stocking rates were high near the coast but low in the mountains and the stock produced from the mountains was less marketable. Farms were small (25-50 hectares) and at the limits of economic viability. Off-farm income was also limited, in consequence many farmers' sons left home to seek employment elsewhere. Where work was available near home it was rural based and by choice farmers' sons and part-time farmers sought to be self-employed to allow a greater flexibility for the farm work. Fishing (for lobsters) in the summer, coastguard duty, drivers, mechanics and power station workers were some of the occupations off the farm. Tourism played a significant role on many farms with caravans/chalets/renovated cottages all being let during a 5-6 month summer period. Like other parts of Wales, the ATB had been active in Gwynedd and many farmers and their families had participated in short courses in the past.

CENTRAL WALES (POWYS)

Nine farms were visited, four of which were full-time and five part-time. Powys was an area of intensive agriculture, predominantly sheep breeding. Suckler cows were important but their number had declined in recent years. Much of the hill ground had been ploughed and reseeded — some on very steep slopes. This was indicative of the immense pressure on landowners to make every part of their land productive — pressures that were unfortunately sometimes paid for in human lives, due to accidents. Central government had encouraged new towns with light industry to spring up in the valleys but the impact of these industries as an employer of part-time farmers had been very low. Like their counterparts in Gwynedd, part-time farmers

were mostly self-employed and in an agriculture-related industry.

SOUTH WALES (PEMBROKESHIRE)

Nine farms were visited, four of which were full-time and five part-time. The farms were a mixture of medium-sized livestock/early potato units in the south west, and upland and mountain farms in the north of the county. Early potatoes, the main specialised crop, did well on the red clay/loam soils. However, the heavy rainfall could make this an uncertain crop so dairying and sheep formed the main enterprises on most units. Some cereals were grown in the south but around Tregarron rape was the only non-grass crop grown.

The carrying capacity of much of the land was greater than in other parts of Wales hence the predominance of full-time units. The general standard of farming was good, reflecting the influence of the sons who had attained either a degree or a diploma in agriculture before returning home. Around Tregarron the climate and terrain make extra work. Many farms had old, labour-intensive buildings but the lack of money to invest had prevented improvement. Only on one unit was there evidence of good buildings and this was due to the farmer's previous experience in the building trade. The only part-time farmer travelled long distances to his work but was self-employed and could therefore choose his days away.

ORKNEY (SOUTH RONALDSAY)

Nineteen farms were visited, five were farmed full-time and fourteen were farmed part-time. This was an island situation where the distance from suppliers and markets added considerably to the overall cost of farming. Despite being on the same latitude as Stockholm and Churchill (Canada) it was a renowned stock-rearing area. Lack of shelter meant that all cattle had to be housed for 7 to 8 months. The soil type varied but much of it was peat based. Farms were mainly in the 10-40 hectare range although there were some larger units. Because of their size they were unable fully to support a family and so there was need for off-farm employment. Women in this situation had an important role and training had helped them to manage during the husband's absence. The type of off-farm work varied but many were in an oil-related industry, working shifts at Flotta oil terminal.

The opportunity to gain this type of employment on the island encouraged a number of young people to return from the mainland of Scotland and use the off-farm income to help set themselves up in farming. Others were employed as drivers or stockmen on some of the larger farms; one was an A.I. Inseminator. There had been an active training group for a few years. Despite this, a number of those interviewed had either not heard of the ATB or had not participated in training.

WESTER ROSS (KYLE/PLOCKTON/GLENELG)

Twenty-one farms were visited of which three were farmed full-time and eighteen were farmed part-time. This area was typical of much of the West of Scotland with small farms and crofts, poor soil, difficult climate, and isolation from markets. Common grazings played an important part in most farm enterprises: on average only 6% of the farm was owned by the farmer/crofter. With so many part-time holdings the wives did much of the feeding and tending of stock during the winter but it was an area where neither husbands nor wives had been active in training. The reason was that the ATB had not, as yet, had much contact with the area. Because of the isolation nearly all the off-farm employment was rural, with the Forestry Commission being the major employer.

SCOTLAND (SPEYSIDE)

Twelve farms were visited all farmed full-time. Speyside was an area where the units were large and almost exclusively family farms. There were no part-time farmers in the survey. Livestock, in the form of beef cattle and sheep, accounted for about 90% of the income. The climate and geography created specific problems and, as in Orkney, there was a 7 to 8 month winter. Grass was conserved as the main stock feed but barley and turnips were also grown. Much of the farming was fairly traditional but the premium received from quality products often made up for lack of weight in calves and lambs. The farms were run as family units with an important role for the wife. Most units were large enough to allow the son to return to work at home, in which case the wife's role changed again to that of housewife. There had been an active training group in the area for six years, and there was a veterinary practice which had actively promoted and participated in training.

SCOTLAND (PERTH/BORDERS)

Six farms were visited. Four were full-time units and two were run on a part-time basis. These were selected units from the wide geographic area covered by the East of Scotland College of Agriculture. Each of the four full-time farmers had at least one personal specialised enterprise; for example, one combined farming with tourism, with holidaymakers buying the homemade dairy products. Most of the land on these holdings was of good quality allowing a variety of crops to be grown. Off-farm work for the part-time farmer was equally divided — one acted as a farm worker on a neighbouring farm and one was in urban employment.

Comparisons with European Countries

It was possible to group the farm types surveyed in Britain to match the farming of the parts of the European countries visited. Norway, with its long winters, small farms, preponderance of stock rearing and the importance of rural off-farm work, could be compared with Orkney, Wester Ross and North Wales. Germany, with good soil, mixed farming, greater involvement of women on the farm and the importance of urban off-farm work, could be compared with South Derbyshire, Leicestershire and part of Speyside. France, on the other hand, with its full-time farmers, upland, stock-rearing farms and farm-gate sales of produce, could be compared with South and Central Wales, parts of North Yorkshire and Speyside.

FARM DETAILS

Farm Size

The average farm size of around 150 hectares could be considered high until the area devoted to hill farming, around 100 hectares, was deducted.

Farm Type

Obviously one of the determining factors in the enterprises pursued was the make-up of the land and in most areas hill ground predominated. Only in Leicestershire, Powys and

Orkney were there sufficient ploughable acres to give the farmers some choice in their enterprises.

Although all areas had permanent grass there were various interpretations of what constitutes 'permanent' grass. In Wester Ross there was only 1% of permanent grass indicating that any land considered ploughable was termed arable, whilst in Powys the steep slopes dictated that there was no other option.

The hill ground varied tremendously, from fairly productive grass covered hills in parts of Wales to the rock and heather that abound in the North of Scotland. Parts of North Wales also had very 'hard' hills with low carrying capacity.

Farm Ownership

Only a little over one third of the area farmed was owned by the farmers. Speyside, Orkney and Powys all had a 95% ownership figure but in North Wales and Wester Ross the land owned amounted to only 16% and 6% respectively. Despite this it was found that in all three areas of Wales the amount of land owned was almost the same. In two instances the ratios in the survey might not be typical as they included large tracts of common grazing. The Leicestershire farms had a considerable amount of land rented on short-term leases: this land was being used at the time of the survey but might not be available in future years.

The average one-third ownership reflected the great pressure there was on the family farmer when a member of the family came home, or on a part-time farmer who was trying to expand with a view to becoming full-time. This was especially so in Wales where some of the land was often 30 to 40 miles from home. Whilst access to these acres helped alleviate some of the expansionist pressures the cost of transport or difficulty in maintaining adequate attention could lead to unacceptably high losses at times.

Arable Enterprises

Grassland predominated in the 4,770 hectares of arable ground accounting for 83% of this acreage. Only in Leicestershire was there any appreciable cereal growing and even in this county it amounted to no more than 26% of the arable acreage. Considering its long winters and mainly livestock enterprises Speyside, with almost one-fifth of its arable land in cereals, was a surprise.

Table 3: Breakdown of Arable Hectares (153 UK Farms)

| Crop | No of Units growing crop | Percentage of farms | Total ha of crop | Hectares as percentage of total arable ha |
|-------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------|--|
| Cereals | 55 | 36 | 667 | 14 |
| Root Crops | 23 | 15 | 53 | 1 |
| Kale/Fodder Crops | 10 | 7 | 39 | 0.8 |
| Potatoes | 40 | 26 | 52 | 1 |
| Soft Fruit | 3 | 2 | 11 | 0.2 |
| Grass: Silage | 57 | 37 | 798 | 17 |
| Grass: Hay | 140 | 91 | 925 | 19 |
| Grass: Grazing | 152 | 99 | 2,232 | 47 |

Only in South Wales did potatoes assume any significance in terms of hectares grown. This was for the specialised early potato market. It was interesting to note that in Wester Ross 62% of the farmers grew potatoes. In most cases it was a quarter or half acre plot for the house.

The soft fruit areas were confined to Perthshire where raspberries, strawberries and other mixed fruits were grown as a major cash crop. This type of arable cropping could contribute greatly to the income of smaller units.

Root crops were of great significance only in Speyside where 83% of the farmers considered turnips an important ingredient in winter stock diets. One family in the Borders was growing 7.5 ha of swedes for human consumption.

Although only a little more than one-third of the farms grew silage the 820 ha grown was similar in amount to that cut for hay. In all 34% of this acreage was cut twice — mainly in Cumbria, Leicestershire and parts of Derbyshire. Round-bale silage was found on only a few farms and was not as yet widely used. Silage was found mainly on the larger units as the cost of machinery and buildings put it outwith the scope of the small family and part-time farmers.

Hay was made on 91% of the farms in the survey, surprising perhaps when one considered that at least half the units are in a high rainfall area. Only in Speyside did the number of farms making hay drop to 75%, and in Powys, Derbyshire, Orkney and Wester Ross all the units made hay.

From the data on cropping it was seen that grass made up by

far the greatest proportion of arable hectares. Was this by choice or because there was no other option? In fact, just over 60% had no option thereby greatly reducing the enterprises that these family and part-time farmers could engage in. In most cases it was the type of land, climate and length of winter that dictated possible options to crop. Much of Derbyshire and parts of Wales had shallow stony soils whilst in Wester Ross, North Yorkshire and Wales the steep terrain was the determining factor. For some the high cost of machinery could not be justified when only relatively small areas were being cropped and contractors were not readily available. The human factor was evident when short evenings in the spring and autumn were seen as a constraint in growing cereals. At least two felt much more confident working with stock than with crops.

Only one farmer did not have grass for grazing. Just under half the arable area was grazed and when added to the permanent grass area this made a total of 5,700 ha. The livestock unit (l.u.) per hectare was very difficult to work out owing to the tremendous variation in hill ground types. Using a scale of anything from 4:1 to 60:1 for the hill ground an average figure of 2.22 l.u. per hectare equivalent was achieved. The best was 2.82 l.u. per hectare equivalent in South Wales. The overall standard of grazing management was reasonable although it varied greatly within each area.

Stock Enterprises

The distribution of stock enterprises was interesting. All the dairies were in England and Wales with the highest concentration in Derbyshire and South Wales. The average size of herds was in the 63-70 cow range with Leicestershire having the highest cow numbers and North Wales the lowest.

Over half the farms had a beef herd with an average herd size of 23. Apart from the very high herd numbers in Speyside and Powys most of the herds were small. Orkney, renowned for its quality beef cattle, had the greatest number of farms with beef cows. The east of England had the lowest number of beef herds and the smallest numbers in the herds. There were only four units engaged in multiple suckling, which is surprising when one considers the potential this enterprise afforded smaller units.

Bucket-rearing of calves was most common in the dairy areas of Cumbria, Leicestershire and Derbyshire. It was absent in

Table 4: Details of Stock Enterprises (153 UK Farms)

| Stock | No of Units with stock | Percentage of farms | Average size of herd/flock |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Dairy cows | 28 | 18 | 54 |
| Beef cows | 85 | 56 | 23 |
| Bulls | 38 | 25 | |
| Bucket-reared calves | 45 | 29 | 13 |
| Cattle 6 mths-1 year | 113 | 74 | 22 |
| Cattle 1-2 years | 102 | 67 | 21 |
| Ewes | 105 | 69 | 176 |
| Rams | 87 | 57 | 6 |
| Other sheep (over 6 mths) | 64 | 42 | 83 |
| Pigs | 9 | 6 | 400 |
| Laying hens | 26 | 17 | |
| Broilers | 1 | | 10,000 |
| | | | 1 of 6,000 |
| Turkeys | 4 | | 2 of 100 |
| | | | 1 of 80 |

Wester Ross, probably because of the distance from a calf supply. A number of farms were rearing Hereford x Friesian calves as replacement beef cows or for beef. This was particularly so in England and Wales adjacent to the dairying areas.

The high number of farms with adult cattle was surprising especially in areas more suited to breeding stock. Replacement heifers accounted for a proportion but male stores were also found on many units. The largest numbers were from Powys and Speyside.

Sheep were widespread and were particularly marked in Wales where two of the three areas had all farms involved in sheep. Wales also had the largest flocks (averaging 280 ewes). Sheep were also to be found on many farms in North Yorkshire, Cumbria, Wester Ross and Orkney. However, the flocks were generally smaller. Speyside had large numbers of sheep in winter — Blackface hogs from west coast areas. It was interesting to note that, wherever possible, two significant changes in sheep husbandry were taking place. Firstly, Cross ewes, and in particular Mule ewes, were being introduced to maximise lambing percentages and earlier finishing of lambs. Secondly, and prob-

ably of more importance, was the in-wintering of ewes. Whilst still a comparatively new system of management those who practised it were very pleased with the results.

Of the eight units with pigs, seven were in England and the other in Wales. There was one very large unit of 120 sows, taking 1,100 pigs through to finishing; the other units had 10-20 breeding sows and 180-400 fattening pigs.

Poultry was confined mainly to 'house hens' in Wales, Scotland and North Yorkshire. There was one unit of 10,000 broilers in Wales run by a very busy father and son partnership.

The four turkey rearers consisted of one who was rearing 6,000 from day old to six weeks of age, and three providing for the Christmas trade, with numbers between 50 and 100; two of these have direct sales.

Farm Profitability

Of 153 farmers visited 109 (71%) claimed to make a profit while 19 (12%) believed they broke even, and 25 (16%) claimed to have failed to make a profit. The degree of profitability was not investigated. Those who claimed a break-even or loss situation did not make allowance for home produced food. This could be considerable particularly in the outlying areas. Only in Speyside and South Wales were there no farms incurring a loss, whilst Orkney had the lowest number making a profit — 42%. Because money from the off-farm jobs was put into the farm, it was difficult to ascertain what the trading position of the part-time farm actually was but the figures quoted are considered to be fairly near the mark.

One farmer/contractor was transferring income from his contracting business to build up capital on the farm for long term family objectives.

THE FAMILY AND FARM WORK

Distribution of Age Groups

In these samples older farmers were found in Leicestershire, Cumbria and Derbyshire, whilst the younger men were to be found mainly in North Wales, North Yorkshire, Orkney and Speyside. The numbers in the 45-64 year bracket are probably

accentuated by part-time farmers who had recently bought a small farm either for early retirement or to invest redundancy money. The three areas with farmers in the upper age brackets often had their families working on the farm. Just over half of all farms had family members working on them and, of that number, 54% were full-time on the farm. In two areas where unemployment was particularly high the farm, even though providing little or no financial return, was seen as an important factor in keeping the male school leavers occupied thereby fulfilling an important social function.

Table 5: Percentage Distribution of Age Groups

| Age Distribution | 16-24 | 25-44 | 45-64 | 65+ |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-----|
| <i>Percentage of Groups</i> | | | | |
| Farmers and their wives (per group) | 4% | 42% | 53% | 1% |
| Family members per group (of 82 farms with family working) | 37% | 12% | — | 4% |

Isolation from centres of further education meant that these young folk often had no opportunity to participate in training and would welcome the opportunity of taking part in training courses such as welding, building maintenance, shearing, etc, which might improve their chances of employment in a rural area.

It was very noticeable, particularly in England and Wales, that the ATB had in many cases failed to convince the older farmer of the benefits of training. The older generation of farmers made the point that "training was for the young people". They associated training with attendance at a further education college. Those who had not participated in training courses were often very traditional in their farming and had probably lost all motivation for change. With the introduction of financial management and, hopefully, farm succession courses, there might be a good opportunity to involve these older farmers in the future.

Assistance with Farm Work

Assistance was either manual help (in the form of paid labour) or contract work done on the farm. In neither case were there significant amounts of assistance, which was somewhat surpris-

ing when one considered how the use of contractors could keep capital investment in machinery to a minimum. Silage and hay conservation accounted for most of the contract work. With the advent of the Youth Training Scheme (started in 1983) one or two of the dairy farmers had taken on 16 year olds for the one year of the Scheme to lessen their own work load.

Hours Worked — On the Farm and Off the Farm

Understandably, there was a tremendous variation in the hours worked on the farms with one well-established and organised family putting in a 28-hour week. At the other extreme was a father and son dairy farm where it was claimed that each was working 110 hours per week. Table 6 shows how the respective times of the farmer, his wife, and family, were divided between on-farm and off-farm occupations.

Table 6: Breakdown of Hours Worked On the Farm and Off the Farm

| | | | Full-time farming families | | Farming families with some off-farm work | | Part-time farming families | |
|----------|--------|-------|----------------------------------|------------------|---|------------------|----------------------------------|------------------|
| | | | % | Av hrs worked | % | Av hrs worked | % | Av hrs worked |
| ON FARM | Farmer | (150) | 45 | 59 | 25 | 44 | 30 | 21 |
| | Wife | (106) | 22 | 37 | 20 | 29 | 58 | 12 |
| | Family | (75) | 56 | 56 | 28 | 44 | 16 | 24 |
| OFF FARM | Farmer | (150) | — | — | 25 | 24 | 30 | 42 |
| | Wife | (106) | — | — | 20 | 13 | 58 | * |
| | Family | (75) | — | — | 28 | 13 | 16 | 41 |

*Although 58% of wives did some farm work only 3% of this group had an off-farm job with an average week of 34 hours. The other 55% were housewives when not doing farm work.

Evidence of sons taking over from their parents was seen in Leicestershire with a redistribution of the work load between father and son. The full-time farming wives were distributed mainly in North Yorkshire and Wester Ross. The pattern of farm work done by those with a full-time off-farm job was mainly evening and weekend work. Holidays were usually taken to

coincide with hay time or other busy periods on the farm. The wives were normally at home and therefore within earshot when assistance was needed. As far as the family members were concerned normally those with off-farm jobs only did farm work on a seasonal basis.

Labour Requirements and Actual Hours Worked

An attempt was made to reconcile the calculation of the average hours worked for all enterprises with the labour requirements of these enterprises. It was found that the average labour requirement was 323 hours per farm yet the actual hours claimed to be worked was 551 hours.

The hours devoted to farm work by the part-time farmers was fairly high and it was in these predominantly part-time farm areas that the discrepancy between hours required and hours worked was highest. Full-time farmers had by far the closest relationship between the labour requirements and actual hours worked.

There are a number of reasons for these differences although not all can be fully explained. Briefly the main reasons appear to be:

- smaller livestock orientated units with much greater personal attention paid to the well-being of the stock to reduce losses as much as possible;
- older people taking longer to do the work;
- old-fashioned and awkward buildings;
- traditional farming methods;
- lack of capital to renew machinery or buildings;
- persons relatively new to the industry or who have recently started a new enterprise;
- fatigue, especially if off-farm jobs are demanding;
- lack of technical knowledge or skill.

Source of Income: Farm versus Off Farm

A number of part-time units derived 90-98% of their income from the farm with the remainder coming from contract work, usually carried out by the son for a little extra income.

In Wester Ross only 29% of income came from the farm and in North Yorkshire only two of the nineteen farms provided more than 50% of the total taxable income. At the other end of the

Table 7: Income Source for 149 farms
(all data as percentages)

| Farms in each Group | Full-Time Units | Part-Time Units | |
|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | | Mainly Farm | Mainly Off-Farm |
| | 31 | 25 | 42 |
| Income from Farm | 100 | 76 | 20 |
| Income from Off-Farm | — | 24 | 80 |

(In addition to the above four farms had all their income from off the farm — two being very new part-time farms.)

scale, Speyside, South Wales, Derbyshire and Leicestershire holdings derived the major share of their income from the farm.

Input/Income Ratio

This section relates to the ratio between the percentage of time spent on the farm and the percentage of income derived from the farm. Overall the farm provided 61% of the total income for an input of 69% of the family's time.

The figures confirm much of the findings from previous questions and show that Leicestershire, Speyside and North Wales had the best return for their input of labour. This seemed to indicate that those areas with full-time farmers were the most efficient but there were many other factors to be considered. In Wester Ross, for example, the input of labour for a relatively small return was due very much to the weather, terrain and transport costs. The farmers were efficient but the size of the unit did not allow them to make a full-time living.

The term 'an efficient farm' has defied description from many authorities but from this survey it appeared that it was not a farm or a system or an enterprise that was efficient but rather the man who ran it. It was the human element that decided efficiency and it was perhaps in this sphere that training could play an important part. Efficiency could vary from doing the most basic task well to decision making on complicated financial matters. In the past advice and training had often led to increased production. Perhaps the time had now come to change the emphasis to more efficient production.

Reasons for Having Farm

This question, and the next, were perhaps the two most crucial with regard to how much the families would be motivated to attend training courses or change and improve their farms.

The question, "Why do you have the farm?" often evoked a look of surprise followed by a period of silence. Quite a number confessed that they had never asked themselves that question and were fascinated by having to analyse their decision to farm. In the event the responses were fairly predictable and fitted most of the options on the questionnaire.

Table 8: Reasons for Having Farm

| | Percentage of Responses (total of 153 units) |
|-----------------------|---|
| Handed down | 48 |
| Way of life | 78 |
| Enjoy work | 88 |
| Capital Asset of land | 22 |
| Only occupation | 31 |
| Challenge of job | 12 |
| Family environment | 10 |

The agricultural industry has an attractiveness that few other industries share and the responses above give some indication of the reasons. Time and again it appeared that people had given up secure employment to farm full-time. There were instances where young families had moved from an urban to a rural life and now wanted nothing else than a farming career. Since it was usually the husband who instigated the move it was interesting to observe the reactions of the wives to the changing circumstances and its influence on the family. In general wives were now thoroughly enjoying the experience after initial reservations but in two cases the wives were unhappy.

Those who claimed to enjoy the life were not only new entrants; those who had inherited the farm or the tenancy also enjoyed the work. Many, however, said they had never known any other way of life and therefore could not give an objective view of the attractiveness of the work.

The reasons given, by new entrants and life-long farmers alike, for the attractiveness of farming for them included:

- the chance to develop one's own initiatives and skills;
- flexibility;

- the family environment where the father, mother and children all work together with strong family stability;
- the generally healthy life;
- daily challenges to mind and body.

The capital asset of the farms had little importance for most yet in some areas the value must have been substantial. This was probably due either to farmers intending to hand on their asset and therefore not thinking of it as one or to younger men trying to pay off a large loan (they also did not want to think about it!). There is a danger, however, that lack of preparation to hand over the business and eventual retirement could cause problems but this will be discussed later.

A number of points emerged additional to those in Table 8. Some young men, who had only experienced farming and had had little opportunity to further their education or develop wider skills, showed some bitterness and frustration. Other older husbands and wives had adapted their work (by changing jobs) to help a son who was trying to set up in farming.

Some wives saw the farm as an alternative to going out to work. Yet again some saw farming as a supplement to a lowered income from early retirement.

What is Expected from the Farm

There was considerable difficulty with this question probably because of its poor wording. Many had difficulty in differentiating between, "Why do you have the farm?" and "What are you expecting to get from the farm?". However, after it had been explained that the former was aimed at the past and present situation whereas the latter was about the future, responses were forthcoming and are included in Table 9.

Table 9: What is Expected from the Farm

| Response | % Replies |
|---------------------------------|-----------|
| To pay way | 56 |
| To provide reasonable living | 58 |
| Eventually to farm full-time | 16 |
| Job satisfaction | 61 |
| Investment to hand on to family | 48 |
| Relaxation | 21 |
| Enjoyment | 8 |
| Security | 7 |

The first two figures revealed that everyone was looking to the farm to be financially viable. The established family farms were, mostly, already profitable and the farmers were looking for sufficient income to provide their families with a reasonable standard of living plus sufficient capital to re-invest in the farm and provide for retirement. On the other hand the newer full-time farmers, with large loans to repay, as well as many of the part-time farmers, were initially just looking for the farm to pay its way.

A quarter of the part-time farmers hoped to become full-time in the future. Despite the market uncertainties and many other problems there were a number who had made great strides and it seemed that many would succeed. This was particularly so in Orkney where the income from the oil industry was being used by young Orcadians to set themselves up in farming.

Part-time farmers, particularly those with a managerial off-farm job, found the farm a place to unwind and relax. In some cases the process of unwinding overlapped into the weekend and it was Saturday afternoon before mind and body were fully attuned to the less hectic pace. This situation could make receptiveness on ATB courses questionable but the people concerned were certain that if they were looking forward to the course they would 'switch over' fairly easily.

Security in any situation can never be guaranteed but the security that farming provided was obviously appreciated. Ten to fifteen years ago there was a drift from the country to the urban areas but with the recent high unemployment this had changed. Both family and part-time farmers felt that with the farm they had a greater degree of control over their future.

Almost half of the respondents expected their farms to go to a member of the next generation. Only one was emphatic that he did not wish his son to take over and have the same hard life as himself. It was not possible to ascertain if the son wanted to take over. In Derbyshire three out of four fathers anticipated that their sons would take over. This might put pressures on the sons and it could well be that not all would feel able or willing to take on the task. This study highlighted a number of problems that family farmers faced when a member of the family came to work on the farm so perhaps it was an opportune time to look at this in more detail.

Assimilating the Family into the Farm

Each generation has no doubt been faced with the problem of assimilating the family into the farm. Today's family farmers and many of the part-time farmers were probably faced with more pressures than their predecessors and might need assistance to overcome them. In middle age, at a time when those in other industries were looking for a period of consolidation, the farmer could be faced with problems when a son or daughter 'came home'. Because the father has been fit and active any available capital had no doubt been put back into the farm in the form of land improvement, buildings, etc. Only a few family farmers have had the opportunity, or the resources, to expand the size of the farm.

What were some of the pressures? Some noted in the survey included:

- the need for the farm to increase its earning power to pay the extra family member;
- the need for an extra home to be found when the son married;
- the difficulty, for the father, of accepting that he was no longer the only decision maker;
- the development of conflicts on farm policy;
- the shared work load allowed the father more free time which he must learn to use;
- the problem of retirement housing for parents.

Thus the father could be under pressure at 40 years of age, again at 50 years and finally at 60 years. The problems mostly arose from lack of capital and only in a few cases had any action been taken — two had recently purchased houses in nearby villages for their sons and some had been able to purchase or rent some more land. Speyside was an area where the lack of adequate housing had provided particular problems in keeping family farms going. Family farms were just as prone to emergencies as the larger units, whose labour force normally lived nearby, and their need for 'on site' housing was every bit as critical. There was no easy solution to these problems but a number of alternatives could be considered. For example, a number of sons (and daughters) had become self-employed contractors, providing help with shearing, hedge-laying, lambing, relief milking, and silage. Others had taken on machinery contracting (ploughing or grass conservation). Machinery contracting not only helped the

farm's cash-flow but also, once established, gave the farm access to modern machinery.

The problems of housing were more difficult for the individual to solve and assistance was necessary from both central government, in the form of finance, and from local government, in the form of flexibility in the operation of planning controls. Finance might provide the possibility of erecting kit homes with local labour. Criteria would need to be established for the provision of grant perhaps based on the Standard Man Day requirement of the farm.

Advice and training was also needed to help in the assimilation of the family into the farm. Advice was available from the socio-economic advisers of the Advisory Services but training might well be provided in the techniques of grant application, building skills for 'kit' house erection, and on the detailed legal, financial and management problems of handing over the farm. In addition courses on preparation for retirement would be useful.

Very few farmers prepared themselves for handing over, tending to assume that 'next year would be time enough'. Yet proper and timely planning could make the transfer of the farm a relatively easy matter. The courses on succession should ideally be arranged for farmers in their early forties so that maximum benefits could be obtained, especially on the financial side. Both the husband and wife might attend, along with the family.

Changes in Expectations from the Farm

Responses given to this question were linked very closely to changes in family circumstances. The main factor was the absorbing of a son or daughter into the farm, discussed above. In Derbyshire, the farmers who replied that their expectations had changed in the past five years were those whose sons had returned to the farm in that time. Three farms in Powys had bought extra acres to accommodate sons now on the farm. The other family factor was the death or illness of the spouse. This had profound effects on the way the farm was run and how the future was viewed.

Restrictions Placed by Farm on Off-Farm Employment

There were 105 farms that had an income from an off-farm job but in only 22% of these was there conflict between work on the

farm and work in employment off the farm. Most of the off-farm employment was rural with employers being sympathetic to occasional emergency demands from the farm. In one case promotion in the off-farm employment had been refused by the employed himself because of the added restriction it would have placed on his farming activities. Despite the large number of part-time farmers in Orkney and the off-farm employment being in the oil-related industries only one farmer had found conflict between employment and farming.

Table 10: Who would Take Over if the Farmer was Ill?

| | Percentage |
|-----------------------------------|------------|
| His wife | 52 |
| Other members of the family | 41 |
| Neighbours/friends | 29 |
| Employed labour | 9 |
| (Some gave more than one option.) | |

The farmer's wife was the choice of over half but where possible others were included to do the heavy work. Although the farmer expected his wife to cope, in many cases she had little preparation for the job. If the illness was long term then employed labour would have to be considered. Of the other members of the family the son was the person most usually mentioned. This was particularly so in the areas with larger farms, namely Derbyshire, Leicestershire, South Wales and Speyside.

North Wales and Wester Ross displayed the greatest community spirit with just on half the farms relying on neighbours. This was most probably a reflection of the common grazing systems found in those areas where all farmers were accustomed to working together. It should be noted that any solution using neighbours can only be a short-term one.

Some improvement might be effected in these situations if the critical jobs to be carried on, in the event of illness, could be identified and training provided for those likely to be left to carry on.

Difficult Aspects of Farm Work

This question required some explanation and elaboration. When it was rephrased, "Do you ever find yourself saying, I wish I could do this better or I wish I knew more about that?" it was

more easily understood. It was perhaps unfair to ask farmers to highlight their own shortcomings but almost half did identify areas that they felt needed improvement.

Table 11: Aspects of Farm Work that Proved Especially Difficult

| | Percentage |
|------------------------------------|------------|
| Stock work | 29 |
| Maintenance/Operation of Machinery | 36 |
| Cereal production | 6 |
| Grass production | 15 |
| Paperwork | 28 |
| Financial Management | 8 |

As might be expected stock work, the main source of income, and machinery, the main source of expenditure, were the areas of greatest concern. With the former it was the animal health aspect, whilst the high cost of maintenance was uppermost in the minds of those mentioning machinery. Machinery figured largely in Cumbria and Wester Ross reflecting no doubt the distance from repair facilities. It was curious that grass production did not warrant a high response when this crop accounted for 83% of the arable land. Paperwork was usually the farmer's nightmare and, though most got it done, there was probably room for improvement. Financial management was now assuming greater importance in the industry and whilst only 8% mentioned this subject it would be surprising if many more did not find difficulty with it.

THE FUTURE AND FARM DEVELOPMENT

Constraints

It is always difficult for members of any industry to look far into the future and it is especially so for the farming industry. In attempting to formulate some of the constraints and challenges likely to face farmers in the years ahead one was conscious that today's responses were coloured by today's situations. In Table 12 the constraints perceived are laid out.

Four, and most probably five, of the constraints were outwith the control of most farmers. It was surprising that lack of capital did not figure more prominently in people's minds as the build-

Table 12: Constraints on Future Development of the Farm

| Perceived by Farmer | % Responses |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|
| Availability of more land | 49 |
| Type of land on farm | 33 |
| Lack of time | 42 |
| Lack of labour/physical constraints | 18 |
| Lack of confidence in markets | 46 |
| Lack of capital | 23 |
| Lack of knowledge/skills | 50 |
| Weather | 12 |
| Lack of proper buildings | 9 |

ings, labour, and amount and type of land could all be related to this.

More full-time farmers than part-time farmers in the study would have liked extra land. This was perhaps not surprising when one considered the pressure for land when the family returned to the farm. The figure of 49% would have been much higher but for the fact that only one in ten of farmers in Powys and Speyside saw this as a constraint on their future development. But farmers in Speyside, which was liable to flooding, saw the type of land as a likely constraint.

The time factor was a problem both to full-time and part-time farmers but for entirely different reasons. For the full-time units the experience of South Wales was perhaps typical — high stocking rates, small fields, ageing farmers or parents, and old buildings all contributed to the extra work load anticipated in the future. For the part-time farmer lack of time was often associated with fatigue, with an hour or two of manual work being added to a 7 to 8 hour working day.

There was evidence of the need for training and of the benefits derived from training in terms of improvement in time and effort expended on tasks.

In Germany most part-time farmers had only one enterprise and had invested fairly heavily in machinery to reduce the 'farm hours' requirements as much as possible. Whilst not suggesting that more machinery is the answer, concentrating and adapting the farm to one enterprise was well worth consideration.

Lack of labour was often tied up with one member of the family being restricted in what he or she could physically do around the farm. With part-time farmers the lack of labour was

mostly a problem for those on shift work or those who had difficulty in getting time off. Holidays did not always coincide with hay weather!

The fact that almost half had concern about future markets for their produce reflected the predominance of livestock producers and the physical impossibility of changing to other enterprises. Every one of the dairy farmers expressed concern in particular those who had purchased a farm in the past two or three years and were dairying in order to repay the purchase loan. With so many farmers in the survey having sheep as one of their main enterprises the levelling off, or downturn, of lamb prices was causing concern. Beef producers expressed their fears that less and less beef was being eaten.

The markets were not so much of a problem for the many part-time farmers who had a good non-farm income. However, having made an investment they expected it to pay its way and any development towards being a full-time farmer would depend very much on market prices.

The restrictions imposed by lack of capital have already been mentioned. Generally it was the younger farmers who saw this as a major factor. Orkney had a number of young part-time farmers who saw this as a potential constraint but in their cases it was linked to their desire to become full-time farmers as soon as possible. The whole sphere of financial management would play an increasingly important part in farm enterprises and training should provide a very useful aid in making best use of capital. Lack of knowledge or skill was seen as a potential constraint by half the people. For some this related to their abilities with their present enterprises whilst for others it related to the future when they might undertake a new enterprise. Many made the comment that 'you can always learn'. Advice, education and training were seen as important aids in the future of the industry and the ATB must ensure that its services are available to those in the more remote, as well as in the favoured, farming areas. Without the proper technical knowledge or skills to tackle the new tasks future development will be much harder.

Use of Off-Farm Income for Farm Change or Expansion

Just over a half of the part-time farmers said that they used or would use off-farm income for the farm. Twenty-eight percent

were putting off-farm income into the farm at the time of the interview whilst a further 28% said they would consider doing this in the future. In the most extreme cases this off-farm income was keeping the farm viable. Orkney perhaps provided the best example of the use of off-farm income as a step from part-time to full-time farming.

Markets for Specialised Products

Forty-one farms, just over a quarter, had developed a specialised product but it was apparent that the remainder did not envisage identifying or exploiting such products in the future. More units might have been expected to have explored the extra income potential of specialised products. Is the number small by choice, or lack of ability, or time? In general only a small proportion of the specialised product enterprises involved the women of the family with a high involvement in North Yorkshire (100%) and Wester Ross (67%). Where there was success it was claimed to be due to local outlets and relevant local knowledge.

South Wales with its early potato enterprises headed the specialised markets and at the other end of the scale Speyside, Powys and Cumbria had little or no specialised farming enterprises. In the future the development of specialised products may well become more important on family units. Confidence will play a vital role in most projects undertaken with training courses possibly providing an aid to both production and marketing techniques.

Reaction to a Possible Drop in Farm Returns

Table 13 outlines the actions farmers thought they would take in the event of political or economic change leading to a drop in farm returns.

Table 13: Actions in Event of a Drop in Farm Returns

| | %Response |
|--------------------------|-----------|
| Increase output | 30 |
| Increase efficiency | 58 |
| Change system of farming | 48 |
| Look for off-farm work | 47 |
| Do nothing | 14 |
| Sell farm | 7 |

Many of the full-time farmers and the more established part-time farmers were already at maximum output so room for increase was limited. The Derbyshire farmers saw the increase coming through genetics with, for example, the use of high yielding dairy bulls. This was more an increase in efficiency than in output.

The increase in efficiency was the most likely reaction to any drop in farm returns. 'Tightening the belt' was a common response. In future economic efficiency was likely to assume as much importance as the technical side. The Welsh all rated this option highly. In North Yorkshire, Orkney and Wester Ross (predominantly part-time) this was not thought to be so important. Only Leicestershire had the soil type and climate to allow a comfortable change of enterprise.

In most other areas the options were very limited. Speyside, Orkney, North Yorkshire and Derbyshire all had more than half proposing a change of enterprise and yet the climate, soil type or terrain severely restricted the choice. 'Look for off-farm work' was usually identified by those who were already part-time farmers, meaning that they would look for more off-farm work. In North Wales for example eight of the eleven part-time farmers said they would look for more work. One can only assume that the farm would suffer if this came about. Many in South Wales also chose this method of combating a drop in returns and yet we have already seen that lack of time was a likely constraint in the future. This option would best suit farmers' sons, provided: (a) the farm could spare them, and (b) employment was available. Doing nothing was influenced very much by the off-farm jobs. In Glenelg (Wester Ross) where most of the people had a job with the Forestry Commission there were no possible alternatives to their present enterprises and so they were likely to do nothing.

Only a few would consider selling the farm. Those who said they would were unmarried or widowers and probably found the combination of housework, farmwork and off-farm work too demanding. The fact that many farms were the 'family home', often going back three or four generations, was another reason for the reluctance to sell.

PART-TIME FARMERS

Distribution

Part-time farming was not evenly distributed. Speyside and South Wales had none whilst North Yorkshire and Wester Ross had 95% and 86% respectively of the farmers part-time. Orkney also had a high number of part-time farmers, although only 83 farms were involved, a total of 111 persons worked off the farm and a further fifteen people derived income from non-farm work on the holding. This represented 1.34 off-farm workers per holding together with 0.18 non-farm/on-farm workers per holding making a total of 1.52 persons per holding with jobs not related to the farm.

These figures backed up comments from a great number of part-time farmers that the off-farm job was a financial necessity as opposed to a choice. About 80% had always had an off-farm job and of the others most had started at a time of extra financial pressure on the farm, for example low prices for produce, loss due to weather or stock health problems.

Details of Off-Farm Jobs

The main details of the off-farm jobs are outlined in Table 14 below.

Table 14: Details of Off-Farm Jobs (Total number of jobs 111)

| | Number | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Rural employment — Men | 76 | |
| — Women | 16 | |
| Urban employment — Men | 13 | |
| — Women | 6 | |
| Self-Employed | 43 | |
| Employees | 67 | |
| Engaged in shift work | 14 | |
| In full-time employment | 77 | |
| In part-time employment | 34 | |
| | Average Hours per week | Average Weeks per year |
| Full-time (77) | 37 | 52 |
| Part-time (34) | 37 | 29 |

| | |
|---|----------|
| Average distance from work | 9 miles* |
| Always had off-farm job | 87 |
| Started job after working full-time on farm | 24 |

*In Orkney seven persons had a 30-40 minute boat trip in addition to car travel.

In Table 15 the types of employment off the farm are listed. The variety of employment was greater with the availability of local industries often the deciding factor.

Table 15: The Nature of Employment

Rural

| | | | |
|-------------------------|---|-----------------------|----|
| Farm work | 6 | Nursing | 3 |
| Agricultural contractor | | Secretarial | 4 |
| (manual) | 7 | Holiday business | 2 |
| Agricultural contractor | | Speech therapist | 1 |
| (machinery) | 5 | Manageress | 1 |
| A.I. inseminator | 1 | Postman | 2 |
| Stock grader/buyer | 1 | Security | 3 |
| Haulage contractor | 4 | P.O. engineer | 1 |
| Forestry worker | 6 | Engineer | 2 |
| Oil industry worker | 6 | Blasting contractor | 1 |
| Coxswain/Tug Skipper | 3 | Agricultural mechanic | 1 |
| Fishermen | 2 | Coal merchant | 1 |
| Builder | 4 | Policeman | 1 |
| Fitter/turner | 3 | Geologist | 1 |
| School bus driver | 3 | Teacher | 5 |
| School Cook | 2 | Miscellaneous | 10 |

Urban

| | | | |
|----------------------|---|-------------------|---|
| Lecturer/Teacher | 6 | Probation officer | 1 |
| Bank | 1 | Secretarial | 3 |
| Solicitor | 1 | Sculptor | 1 |
| Salesman/Businessman | 3 | Railway clerk | 1 |
| Fitter/Turner | 1 | Hairdresser | 1 |

Away from the big employers most of the part-time farmers found employment with small rural businesses. One advantage of this was that the employer or manager was often a part-time farmer/crofter himself and was therefore more understanding of requests for days off or late arrivals in the morning. Twenty-five percent had jobs directly related to farming and a further 11% had constant contact with farmers. The wives also had contact, through jobs such as District Nursing. Many would find it

difficult to get away during the day to attend courses. Those in the agricultural contracting business who had attended said that ATB courses had given them the confidence and skill to undertake these jobs. The type of off-farm work occasionally dictated the enterprises that the farm could have as time off at critical periods could clash with the off-farm employment.

Some of the part-time farmers with their own businesses used the farm as a base for that business. In most of these cases the wife was the secretary to the business. Quite a few had chosen to be self-employed even though working for someone. This had been done to give greater flexibility for time off to do the farm work. It appeared to work well with both sides happy with the arrangement although self-employment status could put more pressure on wives. A number of those with their own businesses commented that the more their wives undertook on the farm the more time they themselves had to earn off-farm income.

Shift work could clash with farm work especially with attendance at sales. In two cases where father and son were both working shifts they had arranged alternate shifts thus allowing uninterrupted farm work. Shift work could also make attendance at ATB courses difficult though in one case a part-time farmer had given his local organiser a copy of his shift programme for the next six months!

On-Farm Non-Farm Work

In many instances on-farm non-farm work was connected with the tourist industry. The season lasted for six months of the year and entailed about 14 hours per week. One farmer's wife had a 52-week job as a seamstress, with an average of 24 hours per week.

Limitations to Farm from Off-Farm Job

Less than half (45%) said that the off-farm job imposed limitations on the farm and by far the most common reason given was lack of time available to carry out the farm work. With almost all the farms having stock on them for 365 days, and with wives restricted in the heavy work they could do, most men had quite a bit to do when they returned from work. The short winter days made this even more difficult with outdoor feeding, morning and evening, being carried out in darkness. Fatigue, mental

rather than physical, was another aspect that imposed limitations. In North Yorkshire and Leicestershire, where a greater number were involved in management or teaching, this limiting factor was identified by many. The only other limitation to the farm was the efficiency/safety factor. This tied in with the time factor where the pressure to get things done at the end of the day could lead to dangerous short cuts and a consequent drop in efficiency.

Formal Training for Off-Farm Job

Just under one-third of part-time farmers had some formal training, with North Yorkshire providing the largest proportion. Most of the part-time farmers in that area worked in Teesside, many at management level. The others with formal training included teachers, nurses, engineers and mariners. Many of the older generation coming from a rural background had had no opportunity for training and so were limited in the type of employment open to them. In more recent times technical updating had enabled some to be promoted.

Time Off from Off-Farm Job

From both the training and farm point of view it was important to know how easily release could be obtained from the off-farm job. Unlike the demands for time off from the farm, which is normally at short notice, the request for release for training courses could be made well in advance. Despite this 30% replied that it would be difficult to get away — especially for those in urban employment. Those on shift work generally found it fairly easy to change with a friend, provided sufficient warning was available. Only 27% said it would be easy to get time away, with the self-employed and farm-related jobs providing most of those in this category. The farm work needed to be carefully planned so that only in extreme emergencies did the part-time farmer have to be recalled from his other employment.

Benefits to the Farm from the Off-Farm Job

We have seen how the off-farm job could place some restrictions on the farm and vice versa but there were also benefits to the farm from the off-farm employment. There were many benefits, from

a variety of sources, and only 14% of part-time farmers interviewed said they received none.

Table 16: Benefits to Farm from Off-Farm Job

| Benefits Recognised | % Responses (86 farms) |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Less dependence on farm income | 58 |
| Market outlets for farm produce | 7 |
| Greater range of skills | 31 |
| Broader outlook on farm situation | 31 |
| Use of machinery on farm | 20 |
| Can be easily located | 18 |
| Cheap material for farm | 26 |
| See how other people farm | 24 |

The 58% who identified less dependence on farm income as a benefit represented those for whom the farm provided a considerable proportion of total income but which could not provide a living income on its own. Those who declared an average farm income of 20% or less obviously did not look on the off-farm job in this way. Undoubtedly the most beneficial skills brought to the farm were engineering and building skills. The ability to maintain and repair engines and machinery saved on bills, and a knowledge of engineering design allowed stock handling facilities, roof trusses, etc., to be made up. There were four builders in the survey whose access to cheaper materials and adequate equipment allowed provision of buildings at reasonable cost. Among farmer/contractors the use of machinery belonging to the contracting business was another cost saving providing access to newer machines and increased efficiency.

Other useful skills were first aid, paperwork handling and financial management. It was interesting that quite a number saw their being easily located at their place of work as a benefit. This tied up with the number who had breeding stock and were therefore likely to be needed as assistants at a calving or lambing. Conversely, those not easily located like part-time farmers on Flotta in Orkney were dependent on a wife or neighbour able to deal with such emergencies. Training may have an important role here.

Availability of Pensions from Off-Farm Jobs

High inflation in recent years has shown that a good pension often becomes a desirable part of employment. Farmers have been slow to make adequate provision for their own retirement so it was important to see how many had this long term security and how much importance it carried. In the event only 44 of the 111 persons with off-farm employment had a pension. This gave a pension cover on 70 farms — or 84% of the farms represented in this section.

Although 44 had a pension a third thought the pension was not important. Quite a few were still fairly young and felt that the pension would be better cashed and put into the farm if they eventually became full-time farmers. But for some good pension arrangements and the financial benefit to the farm from their employment probably militated against their ever becoming full-time farmers. The real attraction of the pension was its insurance value and the option it gave to retire completely or to turn to full-time farming on retirement.

FULL-TIME FAMILY FARM

Hours Worked

There were 70 units that were termed full-time but on 22 of these there was one member of the family who earned part of his income from non-farm work. However, in almost all cases the off-farm work was of a seasonal nature, lasting no more than 6 to 8 weeks. It normally took the form of shearing, combining, baling, muck spreading, etc.

Table 17: Full-Time Farmers — Details of Hours Worked on Farm
(for 70 farms)

| | Number working | Average Hours per week | Equivalent s.m.d. per year |
|------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Farmer | 69 | 58 | 377 |
| Wife | 43 | 29 | 188 |
| Family | 54 | 52 | 338 |
| (= 2.4 per farm) | | | |

Many found it difficult to give accurate figures as the livestock year dictated two very definite peak work periods. October to March was very much a care and maintenance period, keeping the animals fed. In April, the demands on farm labour peaked with lambing often coinciding with other spring work. Other busy months were June and July with silage and hay making. The figures given represent an average over the year. Orkney, Speyside, Wester Ross, North Yorkshire and North Wales all fell into this seasonal pattern. On the other hand the dairying areas — Cumbria, Derbyshire, Powys and South Wales — had a more even labour requirement. In Cumbria the average weekly hours claimed by the farmer was 77. Leicestershire had the lowest hours per week for the wives perhaps because family were present on all but two farms. With the considerable hours per week demanded by the farm any training courses must be good, relevant, and organised well in advance.

Non-Farm On-Farm Work

Twenty-six percent of the full-time farms had identified and developed potential sources of extra income around the farm. Catering for tourists by providing caravans and bed and breakfast was the main activity, particularly so in Derbyshire and Speyside where the scenic beauty, which brings thousands of tourists to these areas, was being exploited. In Leicestershire, a six acre disused quarry had been developed into a large fish pond providing an attraction for anglers and the farmer with a lucrative alternate source of income.

On average 23 hours per week were put into these enterprises for 29 weeks of the year. All but five were in the summer with occasional problems in balancing the high labour requirements of the farm at that time with those of the new farm enterprise.

Limitations to the Way the Farm is Run

For seven percent there were no limitations on what they were able to do on the farm but for the rest there were one or more limiting factors. Table 18 outlines these limitations.

Table 18: Limiting Factors to the Way the Farm was Run

| | % Response |
|-------------------------|------------|
| Land type | 43 |
| Enterprises possible | 10 |
| Availability of capital | 54 |
| Time | 19 |
| Fatigue | 44 |
| Climate | 11 |
| Markets | 7 |
| Tenancy Agreements | 7 |

For the full-time farmer the type of land assumed much greater importance than for the part-time farmer. This was to be expected with the land being the main basic ingredient in the viability of the business. Derbyshire, with its shallow flinty soils, and North Wales, with its abundance of stone and wet weather, were the two areas most affected by poor soil types. In the other areas soil was not considered a major limiting factor.

Lack of capital was a limiting factor for more than half the family farmers. Not only had the farm to generate a living wage but it had also to provide the necessary capital for reinvestment in the business. Many of the farmers visited admitted that they were only standing still as far as capital improvement was concerned and every year saw an increase in the list of capital work to be done. Over three-quarters of the full-time family units in North Wales, Cumbria and Orkney chose lack of capital as a main limitation in running the farm.

Time was not a great problem but fatigue was. The worry of monetary problems, marketing uncertainties, the weather, etc., all contributed to the mental fatigue mentioned by quite a number. This, added to physical fatigue, produced a considerable burden, especially as the average age of the full-time farmer was greater than their part-time counterparts. Crop production is fairly well mechanised but stock production still requires fit and active persons to carry out even the most routine of tasks. It was evident that the areas with an older farm population and predominantly stock enterprises — Derbyshire and Wester Ross — had the highest number claiming fatigue as a limitation. As will be seen in the section on training, 95% of those who have been on an ATB course saw 'less time and effort' as one of the

main benefits to themselves. Climate was an obvious yet critical limitation on the way the farm was run, and the only other factor identified was the tenancy agreements. This related mainly to buildings where landlords were unwilling to assist in alterations, additions or even repairs. One farmer claimed he would do nothing to the buildings until his son had been confirmed in the tenancy.

Jobs Requiring Two Persons

Despite the increase in mechanisation on farms there were still many jobs that had to be done manually. A number of these jobs, especially those involving stock, required two persons to carry them out and this could be a problem on the family farm. In situations where the second person was the farmer's wife there could be physical limitations to the amount of assistance given. Some farms had in recent times improved their stock handling facilities and this had helped greatly. However, some did make the comment that they found it difficult to get details on the new systems. Whilst the ATB has run courses on sheep fank design, more needs to be done on work planning for livestock handling so that each individual can adapt his own buildings to make the work easier. The safety factor was also important as older people were not so able to jump out of the way of stock or swinging gates.

Formal Training

Over half the farms had someone who had taken part in some kind of formal training. In almost every case it was the farmer's son. The breakdown of the form of training was: apprenticeship 24%, agricultural college (diploma) 25%, university degree 10%, and no training 4%. When asked how beneficial the training had been there was a somewhat mixed response. Of the forty who had participated in further education, 27 said it was beneficial for what they were now doing. A number made the comment that only a small part of the training was of direct use on the family unit. Those who spoke most enthusiastically about their training were generally those who had attained a diploma (HND). The few who maintained they had had no benefit from their training were all apprentices. All three Welsh areas had a high number of family units where at least one member had

attended formal training, whilst in Orkney and Wester Ross there was one and none respectively.

Time Off from Farm for Training Courses

For most of the family farmers it was reasonably easy to get time away. There were, however, some times of the year when it was unreasonable to expect farmers to leave the farm work for training courses. Adequate warning was required as to when courses were to take place so that farm work could be planned around the appointed date. This, unfortunately, had not always been the case and a few farmers complained about 12 and 24 hours notice for ATB courses. The two areas where there appeared to most difficulty in getting away were Leicestershire and Speyside.

THE WOMAN'S ROLE

Background

In the past twenty-five years the role of women on farms had changed dramatically. On the family farm this change had been, if anything, greater than on the larger units. During the days of abundant farm labour women were very much confined to the roles of housewife and mother, with the feeding of the poultry the only outside activity. As employed labour had disappeared the farm wife had drifted into her present role almost without noticing. The survival of family farmers and part-time farmers could very well depend on the contributions from the women and some farmers might not have fully recognised the important role of their wives. Andrew Errington, in his paper "The Farmers Wife: her role in the farm business" for the 1983 Reading C.A.S. Conference, looked at the role of the farmer's wife and identified three main roles:

- 1) secretary/receptionist — the whole farm usually revolves around the farm kitchen;
- 2) manual worker — prepared to do anything at any time at very short notice regardless of what is in the oven;
- 3) the sounding board — actively interested in what is happening and able to give good advice.

Very little was known about the type of work and the amount

of time spent on farm work by the farmer's wife so the questions in this section were aimed at trying to identify: (a) how important her role was; (b) the level of her present skills; (c) whether training could expand her contribution to the farm business; and (d) whether training for the benefit of the farm as a whole could be conducted through women.

All the questions in this section were answered by the wives themselves (apart from part of question 7). The presence of the husband did not appear to affect the replies.

A total of 34 farms had no assistance from wives whilst on two farms there was a daughter working on the farm in addition to the wife, though the latter now did only a limited amount of farm work. Of these, 25 chose to take no part in the farm work, 2 were over 70 years of age, 4 had died in the past five years, and 3 farmers were unmarried.

The effect the four deaths had on the farms was dramatic. In two cases, because they were part-time farms and there was no one to keep an eye on the cows and calves, these had to be sold and replaced with store stock. In another instance one major enterprise, previously run by the wife, was now suffering losses of stock. In addition, the paperwork was months behind and the father and son were finding things increasingly frustrating and difficult.

On the part-time farms 18% of the wives had off-farm jobs, varying from 18 hours per week to full-time employment. The situation on the farm was an ever-changing one for the wife and examples of these changes were seen on many holdings. At the time of bringing up a young family it might be expected that the woman's role would be primarily in the home. However, this could halve the workforce and on one farm in Wales a young couple with a 10-months old child had a workload of 923 s.m.d. which demanded very full participation by the wife. As the family grew up the wife could take a less active part in the farm work especially when the son left school but occasionally they found it difficult to settle back into a domestic routine. There were three instances of the wife finding an off-farm job just 'to keep herself busy'. Another situation where a wife became involved was in the case of sickness, when over half the farms would rely on the wife to keep things going. On the part-time farm the woman often assumed a crucial role, having to cope on her own for most of the day. The isolation that these, and family

farms, often find themselves in can add to the importance of a very able woman on the farm.

Time Spent on Farm Work

Many women found it difficult to put an exact figure on the amount of time they spent on the various areas of farm work. Some work was obviously seasonal with stock work and crop work giving the greatest variation. For example, at lambing time many wives put in very long hours. During the winter when the stock were indoors their involvement amounted to one to four hours per day. Similarly with the crop work, on which 40% spent no time, the busy period was hay time, and harvest if cereals were grown.

Just over 70% spent a considerable time each week on stock work — most of the time spent checking, feeding and moving stock. Some farms had a specialised enterprise for the farmer's wife to look after, providing valuable extra income without increasing the man's workload. Bucket-rearing of calves was popular and women were particularly good at this task.

Women were especially involved in looking after the sick animals where their patience and 'mothering instinct' were valuable. Lambing time usually coincided with the busy spring work resulting in the full-time farm wives having to put in long hours, often in poor weather conditions. The fact that so many were willing and able to combine these demands with keeping the house reflected highly on their adaptability. The women on the part-time farms were often the only people around during the short winter days so all outside stock had to be attended to by them. Even with housed animals they normally gave their husbands a helping hand.

The figures given for crop work were perhaps higher than those actually worked. With the degree of mechanisation now found many of the hours claimed would be seasonal. Many wives, in addition to hay-making, undertook ploughing, basic cultivations and assisted in silage-making and harvesting. Any jobs involving bags of fertiliser/grain were not tackled.

General work covered a variety of tasks. By far the greatest amount of time was spent in journeys to town for spare parts, veterinary medicines, etc., or as in one case, where the wife was

particularly active, to check the livestock prices with a view to selling cattle.

Paperwork was usually the least enjoyed part of farming and it was invariably left to wives. In this study 70% undertook at least some of the paperwork though, in many cases, it was clear that the farmer retained part of the paperwork to himself. It was admitted that there were problems in getting both husband and wife to sit down together to complete the necessary paperwork. More part-time farms had the paperwork done by the husband, who was often experienced in paperwork in his other employment.

Some 63% of wives took part in decision making. The degree of involvement varied greatly — from genuine joint consultation on all the farm business to the handling of emergencies when the husband was away. The younger generation of those visited certainly had much fuller discussion and joint decision making than their parents. The amount of time spent on this activity was similar to that spent in paperwork, namely under five hours per week.

Technical Ability to Carry Out Work

This may have been a difficult question for some to answer as it was an assessment of their own abilities. Some of the wives may have undervalued their contribution and in some cases the husbands questioned their wives' relatively low rating of themselves. Three options were given and the basic tasks column was taken to indicate work that could only be done under supervision or instruction, or the repetitive work such as feeding. There was no general ruling on what type of person was best able to carry out these tasks but the two most common groups were: (a) the older wife who had a great deal of experience, and (b) the young wife who had made a determined effort to acquire as much knowledge and skill as possible.

The answers showed that only 5% were not confident with stock work, reflecting the importance of this enterprise in the areas visited. For example, in North Wales, Derbyshire and the main part-time farming areas (North Yorkshire, Wester Ross and Orkney), the number who were confident in all stock tasks was fairly high, no doubt because they had little option but to tackle stock work. Wives were assisting with the lambing,

looking after calves, and most probably administering drugs to young stock when needed. In the area of stock health many wives felt less confident than they thought they should be. In winter they were often the only ones to see stock in daylight and said they needed to know more about health disorders and their control. This was another area where the ATB might be helpful. Only a few wives expressed any confidence in working with machines and carrying out crop work. The 50% who were competent in the basic crop tasks were wives accustomed to drive tractors. With the introduction of turbo-mowers more wives have tackled this job — eight in all said they did this work although the husbands normally started them off.

The wives felt most comfortable in dealing with paperwork and the number claiming no confidence was almost the same as those spending no time on paperwork. Only one-third claimed to be confident in what they were doing and, like the other subjects in this question, there were ample opportunities for training to improve their abilities. Only three carried out a financial budget, and paperwork in the context of this study was very much VAT, simple cash books, and payment of bills, etc. The last question, on dealing with callers, was probably unnecessary since farm salesmen are less common than they were. However, the farmer's wife often had to deal on her own with callers and only 15% felt able to cope.

Dealing with an Emergency

In all walks of life wives have to deal with emergencies but in the farming industry these can occur regularly and can assume considerable importance. A cow or calf lost can reflect a high percentage of the total income from the farm. Some examples of likely emergencies were used in the questioning and included dealing with a sick animal, returning stray stock, lambing a ewe, and administering first aid.

Table 19: What Would You Do in an Emergency? (119 wives)

| Response | Percentage |
|---|------------|
| Observe and call for help | 30 |
| Observe/'settle' and assist when help arrived | 34 |
| Tackle on one's own | 52 |

The apparent discrepancy was explained by the fact that a number of wives said their response would depend on the form of the emergency. Most would have tackled problems related to sheep on their own, but in dealing with a cow they would seek help and then assist in any way they could. Thus the figures for the second and third choices had an overlap. Where the husband's off-farm job was some considerable distance away then the need for the wife to be able to tackle emergencies on her own assumed greater significance. In Orkney, where distance was a problem, only half the wives could have tackled an emergency on their own. Derbyshire, North Wales and South Wales had about three-quarters of the working wives able to cope on their own. By far the poorest cover was in Speyside where only one in five wives said they could deal with an emergency on their own.

The sixty-four wives who said they were confident of handling an emergency on their own represented 42% of the farms in the survey. On many of the remaining farms emergency cover might have been available through other members of the family. Farmers needed to identify likely emergency situations on their farms and ensure that there was somebody able to cover for them in their absence. It is in these situations that proper training could make the difference between possible success and unfortunate failure.

Further Activity on the Farm

The question about tackling more tasks on the farm than at present was to ascertain if women: (a) wanted to do more, or (b) thought it was their responsibility to be able to contribute more to the farm. The 55% who indicated they would have liked to increase their farm skills were often the same farm wives who tackled emergencies on their own. The one exception to this generalisation was Orkney. In this predominantly part-time area only 47% of wives would have tackled an emergency themselves yet 74% indicated a desire to be able to do more on the farm. This may have resulted from the natural shyness of these wives. Isolation from vital services was evident in the very high response from Wester Ross. It was encouraging that the wives saw themselves as having an increasing role to play and it was equally encouraging that in many cases they saw training courses as the best way of acquiring new skills and knowledge.

Farm Work the Women Felt they could Take Over

On family farms in the future wives were likely to have to do more manual work. On many part-time units wives were already looking after whole enterprises on their own. Table 20 indicates the jobs that the wives felt they could take over in addition to their present domestic and farm situation.

Table 20: Jobs Wives Felt they could Take Over

| Category of Work | Percentage |
|----------------------|------------|
| Lambing/Calving | 56 |
| Young stock rearing | 52 |
| Sheepdog work | 19 |
| General stock work | 27 |
| Paperwork | 45 |
| Attend sick stock | 24 |
| Financial management | 2 |

The responses indicated a considerable interest in livestock. Only a few said they could take over calving (mainly because of the physical aspect) so the figure of 56% refers almost exclusively to lambing. Surprisingly, relatively few women saw sheepdog work as a useful contribution they could make to the farm. In the upland and hill areas collecting and moving sheep can take a considerable amount of time, and controlling the dog was a non-physical job and therefore well suited to wives.

Orkney wives were generally much happier outside than inside and this was well illustrated in the figures for taking over the paperwork (7%) and those for attending sick stock (32%). It was further reflected in their confidence in coping with livestock tasks.

Financial management was chosen by only two wives, one in Derbyshire and one in South Wales. This was one area of the farm business that was likely to assume much greater significance in the future and in which wives could play a very important part. The subject tends to intimidate many farmers and yet it was in some ways a natural extension of the record keeping and budgeting that already existed on most farms at present. With the continual rise in input costs allied to uncertain market prices it was important to be able to translate the physical record data into a forward planning system. Into this would be built an early

warning system to keep the business on the right financial track. The farmer's wife was well suited to tackling this considerable undertaking. She would need some encouragement from her husband and he would have to display some discipline, (a) to provide the information for preparation of the budgets, and (b) to accept the result of the exercise and implement any necessary restrictions in buying, etc. Now that the ATB is again providing financial management training we should be looking to involve farmers' wives as much as possible. Proper training in this field could have significant benefits to the family farmer and part-time farmer.

Wives Substituting for Husbands at Training Courses

The last three questions in the section on women's roles are connected with training. On both the family and the part-time farm it was difficult often for the husband to set aside time to go to all the training courses he would like to attend. There were also the unforeseen situations that prevented his attendance at a course at the last minute — like the sudden outbreak of mildew that demanded immediate attention. Situations such as these could perhaps be redeemed by the farmer's wife attending the course in his place. A number of farms had a son, or other member of the family, who would attend but of the 87 to whom this question applied the main answer received was: "it depends". This qualification related to three things:

- how active the wife was on the farm and, from this, her present level of knowledge and ability;
- the subject matter of the course and her previous experience in this enterprise;
- the presence of other wives on the course.

Slightly more men thought their wives could attend than wives themselves felt they should. Of the husbands 75% were happy for wives to attend in their places but 25% were not happy. Sixty-five percent of wives were happy to attend in their husbands' place with the remainder not enthusiastic.

Wester Ross, Orkney and North Wales, the areas where one felt there was the strongest community spirit, supported the role of wives. This may have indicated that wives had attended courses more frequently in the past and, therefore, felt less inhibited when in mixed company. One farmer in North Wales

admitted that it was his wife who had trained him in lambing techniques after having been on a training course. A considerable number of wives were willing to participate in this substitution role and ATB staff should keep this alternative in mind. However, it would be important to know the feelings of the wives before inviting them to attend.

If this approach is to be successful there need to be benefits to the wife, the farmer, and the farm. The replies to this question were interesting and were given with no prompting.

Table 21: Responses from the Woman/Husband/Farm regarding the Wife Substituting for her Husband on Training Courses

| Benefit | Percentage Response | | |
|---|---------------------|---------|------|
| | Wife | Husband | Farm |
| More assistance to husband | 43 | 7 | 5 |
| Can discuss and contribute to decision making | 11 | 13 | 10 |
| Less demand on husband's time | 18 | 13 | 6 |
| Husband can be away with confidence | — | 41 | 3 |
| Less losses (stock) | 13 | 14 | 38 |
| Information/skill from training course available | 1 | 21 | 17 |
| If other wives also trained, can assist each other when husbands are away | 17 | — | 1 |
| Wife can take over when husband is sick | 3 | 2 | 3 |

One further response, from a husband, is included without comment — “wives are more open-minded and can concentrate harder”.

Four out of ten wives felt that attending the course would help them assist their husbands, indicating that: (a) they saw a need to help their husbands, and (b) they most probably felt a desire to be more helpful on the farm. It followed that the husband should identify the tasks his wife could tackle and encourage her to participate in training. This was a positive approach that should bring greater satisfaction to the woman and benefits to the farm. Both husband and wife acknowledged that joint discussion on farm matters was a useful outcome — a development of Andrew Errington's ‘sounding board’. In his survey he found that “about 60% of the wives claimed to be regularly involved in discussions either about day-to-day business matters or about longer term

business decisions". He also made the observation, which was confirmed in this survey, that "in many cases neither the farmer nor his wife were fully aware of the nature and extent of the wife's influence".

The lessening of demands on the husband's time was equally important to the full-time farm and to the part-time unit. For the former it allowed the husband time to concentrate on other enterprises whilst in the case of the latter it reduced the work that had to be done by the husband on his return from his off-farm job. Confidence in his wife's ability to cope in his absence related closely to the above and not only to off-farm situations. Peace of mind when the husband was working some distance from the farm could be of great importance. We will see in the training section how important a benefit 'confidence gained' was to those who had attended courses. Any situation that increased the farmer's confidence in what was going on around him on his own farm was beneficial to the business.

It was perhaps inevitable that one of the benefits that both the wives and husbands saw from this approach was a reduction in stock losses. Whilst training was no guarantee that losses would not occur it might help to identify health disorders at a stage early enough to allow successful treatment. Wives could have a very real part to play in this and in attending to the sick stock.

A benefit suggested by 17% of the wives from the 'substitution attendance' was that it would allow them to help each other out in emergencies. Wester Ross, Orkney and North Yorkshire provided most of these replies but it was something that might be encouraged in remote areas or where most of the farms were part-time.

The real message that came from this question was that many family and part-time farmers had wives willing to do more than at present. Training and experience should help to make them more able.

Fitting in with School

The farmer's wife was first and foremost a mother and her children had first call on her time. This required the ATB staff to have a good knowledge of the family situations of wives attending courses and to arrange course times that fitted in with the families' needs and routines. In the survey 37% of the wives

wanted any courses to coincide with school hours and a further 8% to be near play school facilities. Whilst the latter is not always possible it should be kept in mind.

The Transfer of the Farm

There is one other aspect of the women's role (not directly investigated in this survey) deserving attention, that is the transition and eventual transfer of the farm from her husband to her family. This can be a difficult time and the wife can be placed in both a counselling and cushioning role. She often had to act as a buffer between father and son, especially when frustration and bitterness was felt by the younger man at the lack of delegation of responsibility, etc. Because of the difficult position in which she is placed, any training provided on 'preparation for retirement' should encourage the farmer, his wife, and the family to attend.

TRAINING

The Background

The questionnaire has built up a socio-economic background to the financial and physical environment that family and part-time farmers have to live in. The need for training and the part the ATB might play in dealing with some of the problems identified is evident.

The importance of livestock on the farms surveyed led to many farmers being less confident in machinery work. Many of the farmers were older (45-64 years of age) and had been farming since school days, with attendance at training courses their only form of further education. Such farmers were very conscious of the impediment that their lack of knowledge and skills was to the future development of the farm. About half the farmers interviewed would consider changing to another enterprise if farm incomes were to drop and would require training to provide the new competence. It was also clear that there was in general an imbalance between the time employed and the labour requirements of the enterprises, indicating a lack of skills and a need for extended training.

This last section of the questionnaire relates solely to training — the opinions were recorded of those who had used the services

of the ATB in the past and the expectations of those who, until this study, did not know of the existence of the ATB.

Bankers, accountants, commercial and public services, and advisory services all provide a very important contribution to the farming sector but all this sound advice could come to little or nothing if the human factor, that is the farmer or his family, could not translate that advice into practice on the farm. So far the smaller units within the industry had not recognised that the services provided by the ATB could be as important as those of the banks and the advisory services. The larger or very intensive farmers had generally used training to prepare themselves and their men much better than the smaller units.

Previous Contact with the ATB

Almost all previous contact with the Board had been through courses of one or two days duration — mostly held on a trainee's farm (but also at local education colleges in England and Wales), with up to 70% of the time being spent on trainee participation and practice.

Over 30% in this study had never heard of the ATB. Nevertheless a high number had had contact with the Board probably because of the method of selecting prospective farms. There was some evidence from those who were already training group members that the ATB did not always advertise its services effectively. Word of mouth appeared to be the most common method of learning about training. The ATB therefore needed to look at its promotion and, if possible, find a more effective alternative to printed material. Having said this, the worst area for ignorance about the ATB was Wester Ross — in the writer's administrative area! Here two out of every three farmers/part-time farmers did not know about training activities. Orkney was another area where knowledge of training was lacking. In nearly every other area, because the farmers questioned were recommended through training groups, there was a good knowledge and acceptance of training.

Who Attended/Would Attend the Courses

It was important to obtain a view of the potential uptake of ATB courses. Table 23 tabulates responses to appropriate questions.

Table 23: Uptake of Courses by those Eligible

| | Already Attended a Training Course | | May Attend for First Time | |
|--------|---------------------------------------|----|------------------------------|----|
| | No. | % | No. | % |
| Farmer | 85 out of 107 | 79 | 32 out of 45 | 71 |
| Wife | 29 out of 79 | 37 | 20 out of 43 | 46 |
| Family | 42 out of 55 | 76 | 17 out of 20 | 85 |

Some of the background to these figures was interesting. For example, the three areas with most farmers in the older age bracket — Derbyshire, Leicestershire and Cumbria — also had the highest proportion of family attenders at courses. Quite a number of farmers from these areas, although still with 10-15 years active service left, did not think they could benefit from training: for them it was 'something for the young folk'. One could argue that, as long as one member of the family attended, the farm would benefit from the course. However, without the attendance of a senior member of the family and his appreciation of the value of the training, the younger members might not be able to put their training to best use or to introduce new techniques or ideas on to the farm. With some encouragement from other quarters plus careful selection of the subject for their first course it should be possible to get a number of these persons to participate. Normally, once these older folk have attended a course they are keen to participate in others.

The willingness of part-time farmers to go on training courses demonstrates their determination to make the most of their farms. Many are conscious that the industry is casting a critical eye at their holdings and they see training as one way to establish their credibility.

In North Yorkshire all the wives had already attended courses whilst in Wester Ross and Orkney the majority of wives had yet to attend a course. Almost half the wives from farms with no previous ATB contact said that they would attend and this increase in participation by the wives was likely to grow. Many said they would feel shy if they were in the minority on a mixed course so there might well be opportunities for all-women courses. At the other end of the scale there were no wives in Speyside who had either attended or wished to attend. This was offset by the fact that all the farmers had been on courses but in a

family farm situation, where over half the wives were expected to carry out farm work in the case of their husbands' sickness, some training should be beneficial.

The overall participation of 37% of women was relatively high. Examination of the courses they attended suggested that these were not uniformly suitable for wives and that more courses aimed at helping wives to substitute for husbands in an emergency would be useful.

It was encouraging to see the high uptake of training by members of the family, with all the younger generation in Powys, South Wales and Speyside having participated. Much of the training done by the family members had been linked to machinery as the sons carried out this work on the farm. Lack of employment prospects for the part-time family and lack of income potential on the family farm had led the sons/daughters to use training as a means of expanding their skills to allow them to undertake contract work. On a few of the more established family units there had been development into quite considerable contracting businesses which enabled the family to continue to live on or around the farm. Training, for the younger members of the family through ATB courses, was sometimes seen as an 'easy option' by the father who felt that instruction of the son came better from a professional than from himself. Ideally, both father and son should attend so that they could discuss from a common base. Others saw training of the younger folk as a 'substitute for experience'. This was a dangerous outlook and not the answer.

The subject matter of the courses already attended and of those requested varied greatly. Generally all the family had an interest in livestock with the father attending the feeding, husbandry and health courses. His wife had invariably been to lambing and, sometimes, calving courses. A few had attended the courses on the handling of paperwork. The sons had included welding, tractor/machinery maintenance, sheep shearing, etc., in their training programme. Those in dairying had done little training, with time the main restriction. Only two farmers had attended a management course and none had been involved in any financial management training. A number of courses were mentioned that were not at present available (see under Personal Development). Only one of the 107 farms previously involved in training did not wish to participate further — this was an instance where the wife

had died and the farmer had subsequently lost all interest in the farm.

Course Subjects

At this point it may be worth listing some of the courses requested during the study. These included:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| STOCK | <ul style="list-style-type: none">— design and DIY construction of handling facilities— presentation of stock, i.e. cattle dressing and lamb/tup dressing— diseases of all types of stock, probably the most requested course of all— dairying: the three modules on mastitis control, lameness, and infertility (designed by David Wright, Training Adviser, Lothians/Tweeddale in conjunction with the Royal (Dick) Veterinary College). |
| BASIC COURSES | <ul style="list-style-type: none">— for those entering a farm for the first time, to include stock handling/stock health/fence maintenance/grass husbandry— general machinery courses for wives, to include driving/hitching on trailers and 3-point linkage/hitching PTO shaft/basic maintenance. |
| BUILDING MAINTENANCE | <ul style="list-style-type: none">— block/brick work— roof repairs, including slates— plumbing work <p>(These requests came from tenants who were having to do most of the building repairs themselves.)</p> |
| PHYSICAL WORK | <ul style="list-style-type: none">— for women, the lifting and moving of heavy and awkward objects. |
| FINANCE | <ul style="list-style-type: none">— financial management— sources of finance and grants available. |
| MANAGEMENT | <ul style="list-style-type: none">— interest was expressed in a number of these courses but the ATB must consider better titles for them: 'Managing for Results' meant very little to most farmers. |

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

- preparation for retirement or how to hand on the farm, to be looked at from three aspects: legal, financial and personal relations
- non-farm income enterprises: for example, tourism — advertising/customer satisfaction/dealing with people/legal aspects of Bed and Breakfast, etc.

A number of the respondents did not realise that the ATB offered such a wide range of training. In future farmers should be encouraged to consider training every time they say to themselves, "I wish I knew more about this" or "I wish I could do this better".

Time Off to Attend Courses

Time can be a very real problem but answers to the questionnaire suggested that it was not an absolute impediment. Twenty-five percent of the respondents would have found it very easy to attend, 61% would have found it fairly easy, while only 14% would have found it difficult to attend.

Those for whom it was very easy to attend were either well-established family farms where the wife and son/daughter were working at home, or self-employed part-time farmers. Fairly easy usually indicated that there was no problem provided adequate warning was given about the course and that there were no last minute emergencies. There were a number of comments made about 24 or 48 hours' advance notice of courses which meant people who wished to attend having to miss them. Without early intimation of dates of training sessions enthusiasm for training could dwindle quickly.

There were various reasons why it was difficult to find time to attend courses, including —

- (a) short winter days, with stock outside and bad weather which slowed down the feeding process;
- (b) the off-farm job made it difficult or impossible to get time away;
- (c) dairying, with twice-daily milking, ate into available times.

When those who had difficulty considered subsequent questions on training many were able to identify alternatives that would have allowed them to attend. ATB staff and Group

Organisers might need to pay more attention in future to the exploration of wider alternatives in course structure and timing. Because of the considerable diversity within the industry greater flexibility might be needed to allow all those who wished to participate in training the opportunity to do so.

Taking of Holidays to Attend Courses

This question had little significance and was relevant only to the part-time farmers as most family farmers said they did not take holidays. There were a number of part-time farmers who indicated they would be happy to take part of their holidays to attend although holidays were normally taken to coincide with the busy time on the farm. For some, such as teachers, it was a case of arranging courses during their holiday periods. Very few part-time farmers went away for a holiday so this should not be difficult.

Benefits of Training

Two aspects were considered: the benefits to the farm as a business, and the benefits to those who had attended. Only the 107 who had already been to courses were asked this question and the replies are shown in Table 24.

Table 24: Beneficial Aspects Perceived by those Attending Training Courses

| | % who thought that benefit had been attained in the categories |
|---|---|
| Benefits to Farm: | |
| Increased income | 49 |
| Less stock losses | 64 |
| Reduction in cost of machinery breakdowns | 32 |
| Greater output from farm | 42 |
| More efficient production | 52 |
| Benefits to Persons who Attended: | |
| Less time/effort in carrying out work | 65 |
| Greater job satisfaction | 61 |
| Confidence to tackle work | 55 |
| Greater awareness of safety factors | 15 |
| Keeping up to date | 9 |
| Helpful to off-farm job | 7 |

Family and part-time farmers usually had to make greater sacrifices than those from the larger units to attend training courses so it was extremely important that they should derive benefits from participating. As one farmer put it, "Time allows me to be interested only in what is going to affect me on my farm — making up the numbers is not the answer". Whilst the ATB and the Group Organiser had much to do with the training programmes, aids, administration, etc. it was the instructor force who, in the end, decreed how beneficial the courses were. A good course programme but with a poor instructor led to more trainee dissatisfaction than a good instructor with a moderate programme. The high regard with which the instructor force was held was best summed up by the comment that, "Instructors are good professionals but not so sophisticated as to bemuse the trainees". Continual assessment and updating of instructors would ensure that the limited time available for training was used to best effect.

The breakdown in Table 24 is self-explanatory. The fact that just on half saw increased income to their business as a benefit from training was one of the best advertisements for the courses. How this increase was derived was probably revealed in the other responses. A reduction in Vet's fees plus the ability to be self-sufficient in machinery repairs could mean considerable savings especially in the more isolated areas. In Wester Ross, for example, the nearest agricultural engineer was about 80 miles away.

Increase in production in almost all cases came through livestock and livestock products and was most likely because of a reduction in losses. However, better grassland management, a subject greatly neglected in many areas, could also be an important factor. More part-time farmers saw this as a benefit rather than the full-time family farmer, who saw the present production levels as being near their maximum.

On the other hand, more efficient production was a significant benefit to those who had been on courses. With many farm products now overproduced this was likely to be one of the main thrusts of training in the future.

One of the main personal benefits to those who had attended courses was connected with the increased efficiency mentioned above. Two-thirds claimed that training had allowed them to carry out the farm work in less time and with a reduction in

mental and physical effort. Breakdowns were the major causes of lost time and extra work. A knowledge of how to set up and operate a machine could reduce the likelihood of a breakdown so minimising the time spent on repairs. Similarly, with the various aspects of stock work, careful and skilful handling not only reduced the time and effort of the person involved but also the stress to the stock.

Job satisfaction was often one of the prime motivators in improving businesses. It was also one of the main reasons for people returning for more training. Examples of the satisfaction gained ranged from "being able to use condition scoring techniques to monitor feeding of the ewes" to "being able to undertake major welding repairs and construct an 'A-frame' structure for a roof". In light of the large numbers who had chosen a similar response to the question, "Why do you have the farm?" it was not surprising that so many gave job satisfaction as one of the personal benefits of training.

Confidence, or lack of it, plays a significant part in many facets of life but was especially important in one-man businesses. Farmers, whether on a large or small scale, faced new demands on their managerial abilities and technical skills almost every day — decisions and actions they usually had to make and take on their own. Confidence was a major factor in deciding whether a job was attempted and how well the job was carried out. One-half of the trainees had derived more confidence from attending courses, ranging from "now being able to feed lambs through a stomach tube" (this from a 50-year old farmer who had had sheep for 30 years) to "the confidence to tackle all but the most difficult workshop repair jobs". Only in Orkney did this response receive a low rating which could be attributed to most of the people interviewed having been brought up on a farm and having the confidence that usually goes hand in hand with experience. Despite the great emphasis put on safety at all ATB courses only 15% saw this aspect as a personal benefit. However, all the ATB instructors who were part of the survey identified safety as one of the benefits. Because farmers, like people in other industries, thought it would never happen to them, the safety angle probably did not assume the importance it deserved. It was difficult to know how this could be rectified.

Keeping up to date, helping to improve skills for the off-farm job, and making contact with other farmers were other minor

responses. The latter was probably more important than many admitted particularly in more remote areas.

The benefits that had accrued from training were many and varied and were, perhaps, the best advertisement for the Board's work.

Training as an Aid to Change/Expansion in Farm Enterprises

Comment has already been made on the continuing changes within the industry. The changes often demanded that the farmer reacted fairly quickly, resulting in his encountering situations with which he was unfamiliar. The initial guidance would normally come from the advisory service but helping to put those suggestions into practice should be the role of the training services. Just under two-thirds, 63%, agreed that they would use training to prepare themselves either to tackle a new enterprise or to intensify an existing one. The training required was often a combination of management, technical and craft skills.

Timing of Courses

The seasonal nature of the industry's work demanded that the timing of training courses be carefully selected. Period of the year, time of day, and course length all required close monitoring if commitment to training was to be maintained. In the past the ATB had perhaps not paid enough attention to this aspect.

Training administrators must get to know their members better in order to ensure that courses were provided at the most convenient time — this might mean narrowing the training period down to 3 or 4 weeks in the year. It is often assumed that winter is the most suitable time for training yet only 43% indicated that any time during winter would be suitable. The timing of some courses was dictated by their subject matter: for example, weed/disease control in cereals, sheep shearing, and lamb selection for sale. Most of the courses lasted for 6 hours (one day) or 12 hours (two days) but over the past 5 or 6 years there

had been an increase in the number of shorter courses. In this study four aspects of timing were looked at: length of course — 3 hours, 6 hours, or 12 hours; time of year; part of the day for 3 hour courses; and part of the day for 6 hour courses.

Overall the preference was for a six hour course followed closely by the three hour course. The twelve hour course was not generally as acceptable. As far as farmers are concerned time was a very valuable commodity and many of them, particularly in the winter period, could not afford much time away. Dairy farmers had the same problem to face 365 days per year. With the knowledge that the main feeding, bedding, etc. for the day was over, farmers could attend afternoon courses in a more relaxed and receptive frame of mind. Likewise, dairy farmers preferred midday courses, between milkings.

The older farmers particularly found it difficult to concentrate for more than 3 hours. The continuing popularity of the 6 hour course was encouraging because for many of the course subjects anything less than this time could leave trainees disappointed that all aspects of the programme were either not covered or covered too quickly. To undertake training properly and ensure there was a real benefit to the farmers and the industry sufficient time had to be allowed. Most appreciated this and said that, provided the timing and subject of the course were right, they could fit in a 6 hour course. The 12 hour or 2 day course applied to a relatively small proportion of courses — subjects such as welding, fencing, drystone dyking, shearing, and sheepdog handling. These courses could not be done in a shorter time so they were normally arranged for a time of year when there was less pressure of work on those participating.

Time of Year

The ATB records indicated that as much as 70% of all training was undertaken during the winter and it was therefore assumed that winter was the most suitable season for training. However, Table 25 shows that this is too general an assumption to make, particularly in areas where family and part-time farmers predominate.

Table 25: Time of Year Most Suitable for Training

| | Winter (any time) | Winter (selected periods only) | Percentage Response | | |
|-----------------|----------------------|---|---------------------------------------|--------|--------|
| | | | Late Spring and early Summer | Summer | Autumn |
| Derbyshire | 82 | 25 | 32 | 32 | 18 |
| North Yorkshire | 74 | 23 | 16 | 42 | 37 |
| Leicestershire | 58 | 22 | 26 | 32 | 16 |
| Cumbria | 62 | 25 | 62 | 12 | 75 |
| North Wales | 68 | 28 | 20 | 13 | 53 |
| Powys | 55 | 33 | 33 | 11 | 23 |
| South Wales | 55 | 34 | 11 | 44 | 44 |
| Orkney | 95 | 37 | 26 | 10 | 21 |
| Wester Ross | 72 | 10 | 43 | 19 | 29 |
| Speyside | 25 | 17 | 83 | 25 | 8 |
| Perth/Borders | 67 | 18 | 33 | 17 | 17 |
| AVERAGE | 67 | 24 | 33 | 26 | 23 |

It provides an interesting reflection on the type of farming that predominates in the various parts of the country. Orkney, with its short summer season when almost all the outside work was tackled, preferred the winter period for training. The family farmers of Speyside, with in-wintered stock to feed daily, did not find the winter period suitable but preferred the late spring/early summer. North Yorkshire, with its mainly part-time farming population, preferred the summer season because of holidays. Cumbria and North Wales, both grass areas with little or no cropping, preferred the autumn when the winter feed was already secured and there was no harvest to worry about. In the Perth/Borders area tourism and soft fruit occupied the summer and autumn periods. In South Wales the part of the winter that could be devoted to training was confined to the pre-Christmas period because of the January start to ground preparation for the early potato crop.

Those farmers (25%) who chose a selected period of the winter were referring to the mid-October to early January period. This desire for early winter training required planning and preparation as early as September and a number of Group Organisers

and Training Advisers had been slow to appreciate this. Those farmers in Orkney (37%) who chose the early winter period all had cows calving in February and March. It was lack of emergency cover combined with the pressures of limited time that largely dictated the period of the year when training was undertaken. Areas with predominantly family or part-time farmers would need close consultation in the provision of training.

Part of the Day Most Suitable for a 3 Hour Course

We have seen that the three hour module was the preference of many farmers. These farmers were then asked what is the most suitable time of day. Table 26 includes replies from all those who had chosen the 3 hour course as one of their options.

Table 26: Preferences for 3 Hour Courses

| | |
|-----------|-----|
| Morning | 43% |
| Afternoon | 65% |
| Evening | 35% |

Afternoons were chosen by two-thirds as being especially suitable for courses of short duration. Commitment and concentration were better if the bulk of the day's work was past. Five areas — Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Cumbria, Powys and Wester Ross — all demonstrated a marked preference for afternoon meetings. The first four of these had mainly family farms and the pattern was understandable but the Wester Ross response was more difficult to explain.

For most of the farmers time off would have to be taken, either as holiday or unpaid leave. Their willingness to do so indicated a strong desire to participate in training. Wives also chose afternoons: the bulk of the outside work and the housework being finished they could attend knowing they would arrive home in time for the children returning from school.

Although fewer chose mornings, some areas — South Wales, North Yorkshire and Orkney — gave as much weight to this time of day as the afternoon. Mornings were not suitable, however, for the more intensive family farming areas of Speyside and Powys.

The third part of the day, evening, showed the greatest

variation in response. In Speyside, for example, a staggering 83% said evening was a suitable time, whilst in both Derbyshire and South Wales nobody wanted an evening course. Apart from Speyside, the four main areas choosing evenings were those with predominantly part-time farmers. Dairy farmers preferred an over-lunch period.

Evening Courses

The provision of evening courses had increased in recent years particularly in the family farming areas. The majority were technical rather than practical courses. As such they were held in hotels, halls, etc. These buildings were invariably well heated and conducive to 'nodding off' at the end of a long day. With this in mind all those who indicated a preference for evening sessions were asked a supplementary question to ascertain their mental and physical alertness and receptiveness. Few had considered this and a number who had previously chosen evenings changed their answers after reflecting on this follow-up question.

Of the 53 farmers (35%) who chose evenings for the 3 hour course, 21 (40%) agreed that they might not gain full benefit from an evening course and 32 (60%) felt that they would gain as much as from a day time course.

Farmers in Powys and Speyside particularly, fell into this category. One or two mentioned that they would look forward to the course and that if they were not going to an ATB event they would be out anyway. However, by far the most common response from all parts of the country was "they could relax and concentrate better at night as their minds would not be thinking about the jobs they should be doing".

Evening courses will no doubt continue but they should be planned with caution. In this study only 1 in 5 of the farms visited maintained they liked evening courses and received as much benefit from them as from day courses. From the Board's viewpoint the negative factors relating to evening courses were concerned mainly with the instructors, who might well be tired after a day's work and might also be anxious about a long journey home afterwards. Both these factors might tempt the instructor to hurry through the course and leave early. To avoid disappointment farmers should be made aware of these pitfalls. It could only be left to each Group Organiser to weigh up the pros and cons of the situation.

Part of the Day Most Suitable for 6 Hour Courses

This, the last of the questions on the timing of courses, was the easiest to resolve. Two options were given and 92% favoured the 10 am to 5 pm period while only 8% preferred the 2 pm to 9 pm period.

Again in Speyside there was some disagreement with the general view, with half choosing the late time as an option. This might have resulted from their experience of two courses that had been run successfully during those hours. These were arranged to allow the morning feeding to be carried out and a one-and-a-half hour break for tea allowed many farmers to return for the second feed and to check the stock. It was a system that worked and might be attractive to farmers in stock areas. However, the vast majority of farmers preferred the course starting mid-morning and finishing late afternoon.

For both family farmers and part-time farmers it was essential to set dates well in advance of courses to allow sufficient time for organisation of work or time off from an off-farm job.

Organising a Relief Service to Allow Course Attendance

Originally it was thought that this question might provide some useful insights into possible cover to allow people to attend courses. In fact, it became apparent that opportunities to implement this suggestion were extremely limited. Local venues for courses allowed trainees to cope with any emergency problems. Where wives were active they often provided cover when necessary. The areas where neighbours would keep an eye on things were Wester Ross and Speyside, both close-knit farming communities. In all other areas it either was not an issue or nothing could be arranged.

Alternative Forms of Training

So far in this section we have looked at the present provision of training and at ways of improving the system. For 84% of the farms the practical type courses already provided by the ATB were thought to be the most suitable method of providing training. Whilst this was very pleasing, it was important to explore possible alternative forms of training. Table 27 indicated little enthusiasm for any alternative forms of training other than the use of video and the provision of 3 or 4 day blocks.

Table 27: Alternative Forms/Adaptations of the Present Format of ATB Courses

| Alternatives | % Positive Response |
|---|---------------------|
| Distance Learning (correspondence course) | 5 |
| Learning through computer programmes | 5 |
| Use of Videos as aid on present ATB courses | 61 |
| Use of Videos for updating on techniques | 23 |
| ATB courses as presently offered | 84 |
| 3-4 day block on one subject | |
| (a) unqualified 'yes' | 15 |
| (b) 'yes' if timing/subject right | 31 |

Distance Learning

The extremely small interest in both distance learning and learning through computer programmes was perhaps predictable. There were numerous reasons for this. As we saw earlier many of those interviewed had little traditional academic background having left school at an early age. There were severe pressures on family farmers' time and part-time farmers were often severely fatigued. A number said that they would find self-motivation and discipline difficult and would never see these forms of learning as substitutes for practical, participative training.

Videos

On the other hand the response to the use of video was astonishing. In all areas visited except Wester Ross video was acknowledged to be an extremely useful aid, particularly for the more isolated farmers. It should be noted that videos were not seen as a substitute for training but rather as a useful tool for the instructor. Further discussions with instructors also confirmed that videos were regarded as a training aid of great potential which should never be overlooked.

The main thrust for use of videos as an aid came from the three Welsh areas — just under three-quarters seeing it as an aid that could improve training. Only in Wester Ross and North Yorkshire was there some doubt as to its usefulness but even here 48% and 53% of the respondents could see its potential. As one

farmer, who had participated in a number of courses, put it, "it could assist the instructor and liven up the learning process". A further use for videos could be to show the older farmers, who were not at present making use of training, alternative methods of performing tasks. One of the main advantages of video as an aid was that it could be used during poor weather. Veterinarians indicated that they could make significant use of videos to demonstrate a gradual deterioration in health and how animals reacted and behaved when suffering certain illnesses. A high tensile fencing instructor thought it would allow him to show trainees types of fencing in addition to the one being erected during the course.

When it was realised that the possible use of videos was assuming considerable significance those who answered this question positively were asked for examples as to where it would be helpful. These are listed below:

Table 28: List of Examples of Subjects thought to be useful for Exposition by Video

| | |
|-------------------|---|
| SHEEP PRODUCTION | Flock Health |
| | Handling Facilities |
| | Sheep Housing |
| | Sheepdog Handling |
| | Tup Examination |
| | Hypothermia in Newborn Lambs |
| | Condition Scoring |
| | Lamb Selection for Sale (show some lambs live and dead) |
| | Setting Combs and Cutters |
| | Setting Combs and Cutters |
| CATTLE PRODUCTION | Systems of Bucket Rearing Calves |
| | Handling and Handling Facilities |
| | Health Disorders |
| | Calving |
| DAIRY PRODUCTION | Condition Scoring |
| | Milk Routines |
| | Cleaning of Dairy Equipment |
| GRASS PRODUCTION | Sward Establishment |
| | Silage Making |
| | Weed Identification and Control |
| CEREAL PRODUCTION | Weed Identification and Control |
| | Disease Identification Routines |
| | Soil Structure |
| | Safe Handling of Chemicals |

| | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| MACHINERY | Ploughing Setting up Combine Harvester Setting up Conventional Baler Setting up Round Baler |
| LAND AND BUILDING MAINTENANCE | Drainage — problems and systems Cutting down Trees High Tensile Fencing (alternative types) Various aspects of Building Repairs Blasting |
| MANAGEMENT | Drystone Dyking (alternative types) Case Studies for various Management Courses Hazard Spotting for Health and Safety Work Method Examples |

There appeared to be considerable potential; but before these videos could be used extensively a robust video player and viewer would be required, able to withstand a certain amount of rough handling.

The use of videos for updating purposes was probably a longer term aim. The commercial section of the industry might develop suitable videos for hiring out. The range of subject matter suitable for updating knowledge and skills could be more limited than above, e.g. high tensile fencing; new machines, particularly tractors, and changes in materials and techniques.

ATB Courses as Presently Offered

The option relating to present ATB courses was deliberately put last in this section to try to make the question as objective as possible and it was good to see so many confirming that they thought this was, or would be, the best way of learning.

Blocks of Training

The Derbyshire, North Wales and South Wales areas all indicated an interest in three or four day blocks of training provided the course subject and timing were right. In Leicestershire, Cumbria and all three Scottish areas there was much less enthu-

siasm for such blocks of training. Blocks appeared to be particularly useful for part-time farmers who had long holidays (teachers, lecturers) or for family farmers who had no cereal crops and could therefore fit in three or four days in the autumn. Both situations would probably require co-operation between two or three training groups to identify sufficient numbers of people interested. The four-day management courses at present run by the ATB had already highlighted the usefulness of the informal discussion that took place between sessions. Concentration on one subject was also seen as being advantageous. The greatest advantage, however, was that 8-10 weeks' notice could be given of precise dates, venues and course programme. This allowed farmers to decide whether the programme was relevant to their particular needs and to arrange their farm work or time off.

How Much of the Training Undertaken is Farmer Generated

Training was most effective where the farmer was able and willing to identify his own training needs. Where this was difficult assistance could be available. Those who acknowledged the benefits of training could be expected to look regularly at their farms to identify areas of possible improvement through training. Unfortunately the industry did not yet look on training as an accepted way of improving production, income, living standards, etc.

The survey showed that only one-third of those who had been on courses generated the training themselves.

Speyside had by far the highest number of farmers requesting the courses themselves — three out of every four. All other areas were between one-fifth and one-third. Selecting from training lists was common throughout England, whilst those being invited to attend courses were evenly spread throughout all the areas. The ATB needed to do more to make farmers aware how training was one of the cogs in a wheel of progress that included advisory services, banks, accountants, marketing organisations, etc.

OTHER COMMENTS

General Comments

This last question was designed to elicit comments, criticisms, suggestions for improvement, etc., of the ATB and its training system. Because the questionnaire was conducted in strict confidence some took this opportunity to express their thoughts. In the main they all appreciated what was being done and it was obvious that the Board was held in high regard by this section of the industry. Listed below are some of the responses:

- “part-time farmers and family farmers often have poorer facilities for courses. Barns and available buildings are full of hay going into winter”
- “training groups should join together on some courses to get a wide range of thoughts, feedback and participation”
- “farmers do not make the best Group Organisers: not because they are less effective but because they have insufficient time” (this from seven respondents)
- “we have a good Group Organiser and as a result training plays an appreciable part in the farm work”
- “the ATB are the only ones who show any interest in part-time farmers”
- “the ATB does not promote itself well enough” (20 to 30 made this comment)
- “we need to know more about the range of courses available”
- “how committed will the ATB be to part-time farmers in the light of budget restrictions?”
- as the ATB is already established and providing training in the more remote rural areas, can it expand its scope to include training for wider farm-related enterprises, for example farm tourism?”

Some of these comments related to two very important aspects of the Board's work and deserved to be looked at in a little more detail. Firstly, there was the subject of Group Organisers. Nowadays these men and women were the 'front line' of the ATB's service to the industry. Comments showed that the success or otherwise of the groups often rested on their shoulders. Certainly in this study it was clear that there were farmers who did not have the necessary time to do the job fully. Yet these

farmers had usually been placed in this situation because there was no one else willing to take on the task. With the current high unemployment it should be possible to attract the best possible persons to these important positions.

Group Organisers

Good Group Organisers stimulated much useful training no matter the type of farmers or enterprises. To allow them to do their job well it was essential to keep them informed of ATB policy and to listen to the ideas and suggestions that came from the industry, usually through them. This was not always done. Group Organisers — as their title indicated — were very much the administrators and organisers of the Group's training courses. To carry out assessments of training needs was an exacting task and the majority of Group Organisers spoken to in the study felt unable or unwilling to undertake it. Both the industry and the Group Organisers would benefit if the Organisers were left to get on with what they were happiest and most able to do, namely, organising.

Advertising

It was apparent that in many cases the Board's advertising had been ineffective or unattractive. A number of respondents had either never heard of the ATB or had found out about it by accident. The restrictions on newspaper advertising had no doubt contributed to this but perhaps the layout and phraseology of many of the Board's own publications had made them unattractive to readers. The Board's exhibiting at shows had a limited value since it was often only those already in training groups who called at the stand.

There were perhaps two ways of overcoming this problem: first by the use of a well-produced video to publicise the facilities available; second by a direct approach to other agencies serving the industry to establish the important role training could play. The agencies would include: financial institutions, commercial firms, Advisory Services, market organisations, grant administering authorities, young people's organisations and other organisations related to agriculture.

EUROPEAN VISITS

Introduction

Having obtained a fairly comprehensive view of the farm situation in Great Britain as it relates to training an attempt was made to compare it with the position in Europe. Three European countries were chosen and one week was spent in each country with most of the time being devoted to talking to family and part-time farmers. A total of 26 farms were visited (10 in Norway, and 8 each in Germany and France) and about two hours was spent with each family. The aim was to assess how far these countries might benefit from the institution of a training organisation such as the Agricultural Training Board.

NORWAY

This was a country where only 3% of the land could be used for agriculture but where farmers received considerable financial assistance from the government to ensure that rural communities continued to be viable. Farm enterprises were predominantly livestock based although around Oslo and Drammen most of the ploughable land was used for cereals and horticultural crops. Almost 70% of Norwegian farmers were part-time, with forestry and tourism accounting for the majority of off-farm jobs. The situation in Norway could be compared with that in Wester Ross, North Wales and, to a lesser extent, North Yorkshire.

GERMANY

There were considerably more options open to farmers in this part of Europe and cropping assumed much greater importance. Again, there was a high percentage of part-time farmers (in Bavaria something like 48%) but most of them had urban employment as opposed to rural off-farm employment, as found in the other countries. The farmers' wives played an active role in Germany particularly if there were dairy cows or other stock. The areas visited were comparable to Leicestershire and parts of Derbyshire.

FRANCE

The situation here was different in that government policy was to encourage full-time farming although there were some examples

of participation in off-farm jobs. The region of L'Ain gave a contrast between the mountainous areas where livestock was the only option and lowland areas where mixed farming and dairying predominated. As in Germany the wives contributed considerably to the work on the farm. The geography and farm situation in parts of L'Ain was similar to that in Powys, South Wales and certain areas in Cumbria and Speyside.

All three countries had strong farmer-cooperative institutions.

Collation of Information

For the purposes of this report the information assembled in these countries has been collated under the following headings: Background; Farm Situation; Off-farm Jobs; Woman's Role; Training.

NORWAY

Background

Two things dictated the form of Norwegian agriculture — the weather and the lack of suitable land. Much of the country was covered by snow for six months of the year. While the summers were generally fairly good the making of hay, the main winter fodder, could be difficult resulting in poor quality feed. The weather dictated that stock must remain indoors for very long periods. Sheep were housed for up to 200 days in the year and dairy cows were often housed for over 300 days each year. This meant that farmers were more tied to their farms than in most other European countries. Conversely the long winters allowed considerable time for off-farm work, particularly in the forests. All but 4% of the farms in Norway were under 50 acres and there is little movement in and out of the industry. The capital asset value of the land was high and farms were normally passed down within the family. The average age of farmers was increasing, particularly on the smaller units, but in some areas near the main centres of population there had been an influx of younger professional and semi-professional part-time farmers.

The farmers visited were in Buskerud county, with five in the hill region just north of Drammen and five some 160km north-west of that city around Al, Gol, Torpo and Nesbyen. In addition two agricultural colleges were visited to see training and education in action.

Farm situation

Undoubtedly the major factors influencing the industry in Norway were the generous subsidies and grants available. This deliberate government policy was to encourage people to live in the rural areas and ensure that their income was at least as high as that of the factory worker. How long this would continue was in doubt as economic pressures increased. Production was aimed at self-sufficiency in livestock products and field vegetables. In recent years cereal production (mainly barley) had increased until the country was now reaching self-sufficiency. The main farming activity was livestock production so that two-thirds of the total farm income derived from livestock. In 1980 milk provided 33%, meat from cattle, sheep and pigs 25%, grain 12%, and horticulture 11% of farm incomes.

The dairy industry had a high standard of management with an average yield of 5,152kg in 1981. An 18-cow dairy herd, taking the bull calves through to 15-18 months bull beef, was considered a full-time occupation. Whilst there were many at this level of farming there were also those who were struggling to get going. As was found in Wales, dairying was often the only way for a young person to start on the 'farming ladder' but old poor buildings made things difficult. The main problem areas were mastitis control, lameness and infertility — not an unknown combination in Britain. The dairy sector was the only source of beef and most dairy farmers finished their bulls at home. There was, therefore, little transfer of stock between farms.

Sheep were by far the most common livestock. Elaborate and costly sheep houses were to be found on most farms. Flocks were generally small, averaging around 30 breeding sheep per farm. Many were Finnish × Cheviot crosses with an assortment of rams being used. Because of the long housing period very close attention at lambing was possible resulting in very few losses. Many flocks were now lambing twice per year. Both the sheep and the cows, after drying off in early June, went to the high mountain meadows during the summer, allowing the more accessible grass around the farm to be conserved either as hay or silage. The only other forage crops grown were kale and turnips but these were not widespread.

The Norwegian Government had introduced two welfare schemes for farmers that have much to recommend them,

particularly for the family farmers in the more remote areas. The first was a relief service to allow farming families the opportunity to have a holiday away from the farm. The second was a farmer-substitute scheme to help those who could not obtain assistance during periods of illness.

Because 75% of the forests were privately owned, mostly by farmers, they provided a useful buffer against pressures on farm incomes. If the returns from farming dropped more time could be spent in the forest with consequent improvement in the level of management. The purchase of a tractor was often part-financed by the forest which made use of it for about half the year. Like the other European countries visited, farm co-operatives were one of the main strengths of the farmers. The majority of farmers belonged to one or more of the co-operatives. There were three kinds of co-operatives: for marketing and production, purchasing, or finance and insurance. These buying and selling groups had contributed to reducing costs and improving profits but their continued success was dependent on the farmers accepting a measure of discipline. There was considerable farmer involvement in the decision-making and administration of the co-operatives and this, allied to good management, ensured a firm control. The co-operatives were responsible for selling any over-produced commodity on the world market and this could be difficult. The co-operatives are a real help to the industry, particularly to farmers who are some distance from markets.

Off-Farm Jobs

The forms of off-farm employment could be divided into two types depending on the geographic location of the farms. In the south around the centres of population part-time farmers worked mainly in urban areas as teachers, advisers or tradesmen, whilst in more remote areas they worked in the forests, in the hydro-electricity industry, or as lorry/bus drivers. In recent years there had been a considerable increase in the revenue derived from tourism. Old unused farm houses/cottages were being renovated to rent or lease to tourists throughout the year. Summer was the time when the town dwellers flocked to the countryside for their holidays and in winter the many ski activities ensured a constant demand for living quarters. Those with milking herds had a ready market for farm gate sales of butter and

cheese. A further source of income could be obtained from leasing the considerable shooting and fishing rights that belonged to the farm. Some of the colleges were now providing training in the marketing of these assets. For many the main non-farm income came from the forest with 94% of the forest properties owned by farmers. About 24 weeks of the year were spent in the average 137 acre forest but the returns for this input of time were often low. At present the income to a forester/farmer was 25% from the forest and 75% from the farm. The high figure from the farm was due to government support and this might fall in the near future. This would put a greater onus on the forest to provide more income. Some good foresters were at present obtaining 60% of their income from the sale of timber so there was room for better management. Being self-employed there was little problem with the forest work clashing with the farm work. However, those employed full-time off the farm did experience some problems at lambing and hay making.

The state pension in Norway was good so any off-farm pension assumed less significance. Apart from those in urban employment nobody had more than about 10 miles to travel for their off-farm jobs.

The Woman's Role

Farmers' wives had less involvement on the farm than had their British counterparts with many employed outside the farm. The long period of housing the stock meant that the farmer was able to carry out the necessary work in the mornings and evenings. There were, however, three periods when his wife's assistance was necessary — in early and late summer when the livestock was moved to and from the mountain grazing, and at hay making. There were some wives who played a more active role, taking part regularly in milking and undertaking the bookkeeping. The Rural Institute for women had in the past joined with the colleges and local Councils in providing short training courses but as yet there was little co-ordinated training for the wives. One novel subject was a two-day tractor driving course for wives. Discussion revealed that women's interests lay very much with lambing, first aid, dairy husbandry and financial management although quite a few were doubtful about their capacity to cope with the last of these subjects.

Training

There was no equivalent of the ATB in Norway — the nearest approach seen was at Lien College where there was a low trainee to instructor ratio and a considerable practical input. One college had started a course of 3 hours on one evening each week plus 'homework' for a period of 16 months. The subject matter concerned mainly animal and crop husbandry and 20% of those attending the course were women. After this pilot scheme, which was full, it was anticipated that there would be a charge of 250-300 pounds per person. Some of those attending were travelling up to 30 miles and acknowledged that they suffered some physical and mental fatigue but could make no suggestion as to how to avoid it. At Lien College school leavers were participating in a rural skills course which included carpentry, forestry, metal work, building skills and fish farming as well as agriculture. Also at this college there was education and training in tourism with bed and breakfast, catering, cabin administration, advertising, and the marketing of hunting and fishing rights all being covered.

Discussions with advisers and farmers revealed considerable interest in the ATB's approach, on-farm training being particularly attractive. Because of the remoteness of farms a better knowledge of techniques of handling difficult lambings and calvings would be useful. The farmers saw training and education as a means to more efficient production in a situation where costs were likely to rise and prices to fall. Although the farming community did not perhaps appreciate that the 'transfer of the farm' was a subject susceptible to training methods they all agreed it needed attention.

The most pressing need was probably in financial management. As in many parts of Europe the farmers were carrying on as in the past but economic changes in the country were making them more vulnerable. They needed, therefore, a greater awareness of financial management techniques.

Finally, an example of bringing a good venue to remote areas was seen in the form of a railway wagon fitted out with benches, welding equipment, etc., which could be left in sidings whilst local training took place. Good venues were difficult to find in many west coast and island situations.

GERMANY

Background

Agriculture in Germany was in many ways a mixture of old and new. Land ownership was regarded as an important asset but because of inheritance practices much of the land owned by today's farmers was fragmented, far from buildings and, therefore, difficult to work. Plans were in hand for a 'consolidation' of land whereby in a complex 'swopping' system much larger blocks of land near to the buildings would be established for each farmer. However, this process would take time. On the other hand, the general standard of farming was high. Milk yields, crop yields and food conversion rates were all similar to those of the better farms in Britain. In recent years cropping had taken over from livestock particularly on part-time farms. There were few fences to be seen with zero grazing of cattle and 'herding' of sheep being common.

Part-time farmers occupied just under half the 250,000 holdings in Bavaria and provided a more stable component in the farming community than their full-time colleagues. Whilst numbers of full-time farmers had fallen by 28% in the past ten years there had only been an 8% reduction in the number of part-time farmers. Eighty-five percent of the part-time holdings were under 25 acres and only 2% were over 50 acres. All eight farms visited were part-time. The rural family was a close-knit one with, at times, three generations living under the one roof. Each generation usually had its own self-contained 'floor', many in relatively new homes. In the early 1960s generous grants were made available to encourage farmers to move away from the village centre where lack of hygiene and noise were obviously troublesome to 're-settle' near their plots of land.

Because these were predominantly part-time units the parents' close proximity was very useful in assisting the wives in their daily farm tasks. There had been an inclination on the part of the young people to leave the farms and migrate to the towns for the 'better life'. However, this was now slowing down as the asset value and employment value of the farm was appreciated — a situation that compared with Orkney and North Yorkshire.

Those full-time farmers who handed over the holding to a family member at the age of 65 years were entitled to a larger

state pension. This encouraged the transfer at a time when the son was still willing and able to make some changes to the farm. This prompted a question on the place in Britain of a lower level of Capital Transfer Tax if the farm were passed on to the son at a much earlier age?

There appeared to be a much closer liaison between the various parties serving the industry in Germany than in Britain. Meetings between advisory services, training/education services, farmers' unions and small farmers' unions were common and helped avoid duplication of effort and manpower where possible.

Farm Situation

The many part-time farmers in Germany had been under the same economic pressures as their counterparts in the UK in recent years. Between 1979 and 1982 there was a reduction in farm net profit of almost 44%. The farm provided 13% of the part-timer's total income and much of this income was derived from cereal growing. A common 3-year rotation was 50% wheat or barley, 20% sugar beet, 15% maize, and 15% forage crop for stock. The main stock kept were dairy cows and pigs. Sheep were generally found on the more upland areas and were often 'herded' rather than farmed by full-time farmer/shepherds. The cows were inside for most of the year, being out for only 4-6 weeks. This obviously made much greater demands on part-time farmers as they had to transport feed every day. All excess grass was dried and cubed at a local factory with the cubes forming an important part of the winter diet. Because of the demands on time many part-time farmers were over-capitalised in machinery. It was argued that this was needed to allow the husband to do the field work as quickly as possible and so release him for more off-farm employment. Despite the farmer carrying out much of the field work himself, the ploughing and other cultivations was undertaken by contractors when the farmer was absent at his off-farm employment. This contracting work was organised by the local machinery group. These groups found throughout Bavaria had been very successful. They deserve close examination especially by those in predominantly family and part-time farming areas. The importance of the machinery groups was so great that an effort was made to obtain full details

of how they were organised. A summary of the findings follows:

THE MACHINERY GROUP

Farmer Input: a payment of £6-£7 per farm plus £1.25-£1.50 per arable acre per year for general administration; a list of all machinery (make and year of manufacture) that he is willing to 'hire out' to the machinery group.

Machinery Group provides: an administrator, usually part-time, to arrange all contract work and look after finances; a small group of drivers/operators to carry out contract work and also to cover for sickness of a group member. These operators were normally young folk (farmers' sons) who had received training in farm machinery.

Contract Procedure and Payments: the farmer wishing to have contract work carried out normally gave 4-5 days' notice; the administrator located a suitable machine not being used by its owner on the required date, and the operator collected the machine and carried out the work; the farmer paid the group the agreed rate per acre for the work done; the group paid the owner of the machine the agreed rate for the hire of the machine; the operator was paid for the hours worked.

Advantages: less money was tied up in machinery; newer machinery did the job better and more quickly; those hiring out machinery generated more income to the farm and could justify the expense of new machines; there was employment for farmers' sons in home locality.

Disadvantages: discipline and understanding was needed from all members; there were occasional clashes at busy times, for example at harvesting with consequent delay. This was not a big problem.

Off-Farm Jobs

The pattern of off-farm employment was different in Bavaria from that in either Norway or Britain. Much of the work was in factories or other urban forms of employment, and many part-time farmers travelled considerable distances each day to their work. Major manufacturing companies such as BMW cars had been encouraged to set up their new factories in country areas. Their work-force was then drawn from surrounding towns, villages and farms up to a radius of 30 miles. Those in profession-

al posts, such as bankers and civil servants, could travel up to 50 or 60 miles to work. Factory work provided most of the off-farm work but many part-time farmers were tradesmen and managers in business. Those who ran the farm enterprises well were capable of achieving incomes in excess of the average full-time farm income but this depended on their qualifications and type of employment. Of those with off-farm income, 38% derived almost three-quarters of their income from the farm whilst the other 62% only achieved one-fifth of their income from the farm.

Most of the part-time farmers were middle aged and their wives, aided by parents, carried out the daily livestock work. The farmer might be absent from the farm for up to 12 hours (6 am to 6 pm). This, coupled with the travel factor, could lead to considerable fatigue and consequent reduction in effectiveness on the farm. However, almost all the part-time farmers had specialised in one or, at most, two enterprises. In consequence they had more free time for family and social activities and they found less problems in transferring the farm from father to son because the son could continue his own employment and live in his own house. The average labour input for a part-time farm was 1,752 hours, or 0.75 of a man-year: some of this would be accounted for by contract work carried out by the machinery group.

Because of the different nature of employment most of the part-time farmers would find it difficult to arrange days off to attend training courses, meetings, etc. Holidays were taken to coincide with the busy periods. This contrasted with Britain where most of the part-time farmers were in rural employment and could obtain time away fairly easily.

The Woman's Role

German farmers' wives on both full-time and part-time farms played a more significant role than in Britain. This was because of past history when it was expected of the womenfolk, and the close family structure where others could be called on to assist if necessary. The comparative freedom that the close presence of grandparents afforded wives contributed significantly to the high standard of farming seen. Almost all the stock work was carried out by wives and up to 60% of all work on some farms was probably carried out by wives. Women were much less

involved in off-farm employment than would be the case in this country.

To allow for this degree of participation by wives the buildings were designed to make manual work easy or unnecessary. For example, hay was stored in barns above the stock to make feeding easy; there was ready access for side-emptying trailers for feeding; mucking out was done by a machine. An examination of the farm work environment of family and part-time farmers in the UK possibly might suggest comparable improvements in work methods. ATB courses on work planning and improved work methods are available and could be useful.

Training

For the full-time farmer's son, and 95% of all German farms are run by family units, there was a very good Master Farmer training system. The details of this scheme have been the subject of a paper (Report on a Study of the Master Farmer System in Lower Saxony, West Germany — October 1983) by Ian Dewar, Regional Training Adviser for Scotland. It has already been pointed out that it was difficult for many part-time farmers to get time away from their jobs so adult training normally took place in the evenings and at weekends. This was not ideal because of fatigue and farm work that had to be carried out at those times. Very few women took part in training, which was surprising when one considers how important a part many of them played on the farm. The training programmes that were available were arranged by government departments and took various forms: basic courses over nine or ten evenings; one-day conferences on government information regarding grants, subsidies, etc.; conferences on plant protection and disease control, field studies and some practical courses.

Again, the farmers spoken to liked the ATB system described to them and confirmed that, "they felt training on a continuing basis, with an emphasis on feeding and handling techniques, health, etc., was the best approach". More efficient production was the major benefit they would look for from training and a keen interest in financial management courses was expressed. Many of the villages had their 'experts' in lambing and calving but those farmers spoken to felt it would be an advantage to be able to undertake these tasks themselves. A real desire to partici-

pate in some form of practical training was expressed by most of the people spoken to but the problems of fitting in courses with the off-farm employment were considerable. With wives being active on the farm perhaps more emphasis on their training needs in farm skills would be beneficial.

FRANCE

Background

The L'Ain region of France had within its compass many facets of agriculture. Considerable differences in soil types, climate, age groups, methods of farming, outlets for produce, attitudes and thoughts on the future of the industry were found within a 30 mile radius of Bourg en Bresse. Around Chalamont the soil was very difficult to work (a 10 inch heavy loam over an impermeable clay layer) and compounded by an extremely high water table. Chezery and Brenod were high in the mountains, at 5,000 and 4,000 feet respectively, and had to contend like Norway with snow cover for six months of the year. North and west of Bourg there were larger mixed farms with fairly good soil types. Areas like Chezery corresponded to Norway and parts of the Scottish Highlands, whilst other parts of the region were similar to mid Wales, Derbyshire and Speyside. Like much of France, vineyards were found scattered throughout the region but none of the eight farms visited grew any grapes.

Farming in this part of France was still regarded as a full-time job and of those visited only one farmer's wife worked part-time. In the more isolated areas, such as Brenod and Chezery, the average age of farmers was high — over 65 years. These more remote areas were 'dying' agriculturally as they could neither keep the present generation nor attract 'new blood'. In this they were similar to Wester Ross but contrasted with Norway where the use of extra grants and subsidies had overcome this problem. Some mountain farmers were looking more and more to tourism to provide the extra income necessary to allow them to continue living on their farms.

The returns from farming were generally poor and land prices were below what they were a few years ago. Lack of income was

affecting investment, particularly in buildings which were old-fashioned and labour intensive. Some modern building was carried out over five or six years ago but there had been very little in the past years. Only on some dairy farms was there evidence of well designed housing. Average dairy herds were 40 milking cows on 120-150 acres. Cereals were grown on most mixed farms in the form of triticale and wheat for sale as grain, and barley and maize for stock rations.

Farm Situation

Half of the farms visited kept cows for milk and showed high standards of production and grass conservation. Average milk yields of 6,000-6,500 litres per lactation were common with fairly detailed recording being used as a management aid at two of the farms. These records showed that there were occasional mastitis, lameness and infertility problems which were the main factors in reducing milk production. One young farmer was constructing a new dairy using a large double polythene tunnel as the lying area for the cows.

The farmers in this part of France had a wide choice of crops but most favoured the traditional cereal and root crops. Triticale, however, was gaining favour for its high yield and good feed values, particularly on the poorer soils. Sheep were conspicuous by their absence in these upland and mountainous areas. Only one farmer kept a flock of 200 ewes, in-wintered, and with a 200% lambing to Texel and Suffolk rams. Goats were kept commercially for milk for cheese. One family lived off the produce of 50 goats whose milk was converted into a very pleasant soft cheese. In these remote mountainous areas a great many farmers, either as individuals or through co-operatives, have developed markets and outlets for their produce through the tourist industry. Michael Burr (West of Scotland Agricultural College) in his Report (September 1982) on Tourism and Farming in the French Alps has already written about this subject in detail. Both in summer and winter thousands came to the mountains, returning home with yoghurt, cheese and other products. Calving and kidding times were chosen so that milk production was at a peak when skiers and tourists were around in the spring and summer.

Past generations of British farmers made dairy products 'for the house' yet today's farmers have been slow to exploit a potential that exists for selling these products directly. Only one unit of all the British farms in this study was selling dairy products directly and had a demand it could not fulfil. The cost is not excessive although the demands on family time can be considerable. More and more of the public are looking for natural products and the industry could well have considerable untapped markets for a variety of produce.

Co-operatives were very strong in France and by and large worked well. Farmers could buy and sell through their local co-operative but were not obliged to do so. However, they normally obtained the most competitive prices through co-operatives and the volume of business through them was very large. A committee meeting of one large co-operative was attended by the author at which the managers explained the proposed introduction in 1986 of a computer link-up available to all members. For a rent of £6 per month farmers would have access to programmes on feed rations/chemical control of diseases/fertiliser rates, etc. This represented a great step forward in the services available from the co-operative and one that could have significance for advisory services in this country — particularly in remote areas.

The Women's Role

Wives were less involved in the farm in France than in the other countries visited, perhaps because the farms were almost all full-time units and the average size was small enough to allow the man to do much of the work on his own. Exceptions to this were found in the older family where the wife had always been active and continued to work into her 70's, and where a specialised product like cheese was being produced for farm gate sales. Cheese making demanded a great deal of the wife's time, up to 5 or 6 hours per day. Whilst the milking of cows was by machine, goats were milked by hand, demanding assistance from the farmer's wife. During the past two or three years more wives had gone out to work usually as a result of increased economic pressures on the farm. Farmers' wives did much less of the book work than their British counterparts.

Training

Like other European countries France had a good vocational training programme for her school leavers and young farmers. Because of the considerable government control over ownership of farms a proven degree of technical and management ability had to be demonstrated before young farmers could become farmers in their own right. Most of the younger generation of farmers had good basic skills but there was still a need for technical updating and the acquiring of new skills. Adult training was administered by the *Chambre d'Agriculture de l'Ain*. Their motto put in a nutshell the place of training in relation to other advisory inputs: "*la theorie sans pratique est absurde, mais la pratique sans theorie est aveugle*" — "theory without practice is absurd but practice without theory is blind".

Again there was no equivalent to the Agricultural Training Board. Subjects for adult farmers were identified by the government departments and then advertised. Much of the training was carried out in colleges and the 8-hour course, plus travel, could make a particularly long day for those attending. For dairy farmers shorter courses were run but travel could still be considerable and some found it very difficult to attend. Course subjects were mainly of a technical management nature with feeding, husbandry and health of both stock and crops being typical. There were no courses available on finances although farmers felt a need for training in financial management. As in the UK, only a relatively small number of farmers were interested in training — probably 12-15%. Those who did participate found the courses very useful.

Apart from the training for young people there was very little in the way of practical skill training although the need was there. One progressive dairy farmer had purchased a round baler, the first in the region, yet there was nobody available to instruct him in how to operate and maintain it. He had to learn through trial and error. In the many isolated mountain areas distances from Vets and mechanics provided real problems for farmers and the indications were that there was a real need for more training in these areas. Certainly the French farmers were very interested to hear of the Agricultural Training Board and indicated a wish for more local practical training. The interest in local on-farm training was due no doubt to the difficulty that many found in getting away from their farms for a whole day.

CONCLUSIONS

General

This survey has demonstrated similarities between the problems and needs of family and part-time farmers and their families over a wide geographic range in Great Britain and overseas. Where there were departures from the common pattern special circumstances could often be identified which might have been responsible for the deviation. The main conclusions are developed below under separate headings.

The Farmer

The key to an understanding of the farmers in the survey lay in the emphasis they gave to enjoyment of and satisfaction with their work. Once they could be brought to understand the benefit of training to the improvement of their performance as farmers they would accept it readily. Unfortunately, left to themselves, many of the farmers who were between 45-64 years of age and had little formal training, saw little benefit to themselves from attendance at training courses. Although they enjoyed their lifestyle there was evidence that very long hours were worked, greater than the individual enterprises actually required. This was due to poor buildings, old machinery and accumulation of mental and physical fatigue because of the unrelenting nature of the activity. Possible ways of improving the situation included: the provision of a welfare scheme of holiday and sickness relief like that in Norway; the identification and training of a farmer substitute; and the provision of alternative work techniques and better handling facilities. Training is an important component of the last two of these suggestions.

There were three other aspects of the activities of the family farmer and part-time farmer that perhaps needed strengthening in the light of observations of European farmers. Marketing and the development of specialised outlets at the farm gate or through farmer co-operatives was a source of enhanced income in certain areas of Europe. So too was the marketing of sporting rights and the provision of facilities for fishing and shooting. Co-operation in the development of buying groups, marketing groups, secretarial services, machinery services and relief labour could all be found in a more advanced state in areas outside Britain. The other

aspect was the transfer of the farm from father to son, which was aided by fiscal provisions for retirement and pensions in, e.g. Norway. All three were areas where the farmer could be helped by advice and by training.

The Role of Wives

Wives had an important role to play on many farms. They often provided a general back-up throughout the year but had to take over completely in the absence or incapacity, through illness or accident, of their husbands. They had a special role in relation to stock-rearing and stock health and as the confidante and sounding board for the farmers' problems. With the development of an increased awareness of the importance of financial management they could have an important role in undertaking a full accounts and forward budgeting programme. Finally, they could contribute to the farm income by running their own tourist enterprise. For all these roles many wives felt the need for more training and knowledge. The sociological problems of involving wives in training were notable in some areas but not in others.

Some Points of Policy

Throughout the study the closeness of the objectives of the Agricultural Training Board and the Advisory Services was constantly reiterated and their mutual supporting role was frequently remarked on. They currently co-operate well on an informal basis but there could be a case for a more formal liaison such as was seen in Germany. Other policy issues that were observed and which need discussion and consideration included: the problem of sustaining confidence in the livestock market for those (many of whom were family or part-time farmers) who had no other enterprise options; the need for an examination of the labour unit figure at present used in deciding eligibility for improvement grants with a view to its removal — those at present debarred from receiving grant (because their unit is not big enough) were unable to carry out improvements to develop the farm; the case for considering what effect would be achieved by placing a limit (e.g. 500 standard man days) on the size of unit eligible for grant and guaranteed prices — such a limit might ensure the future of family units which were under economic

pressure for amalgamation and growth of the size of units; the need for assistance with the building of a second house to aid resettlement and hand-over problems.

Training

Those who attended ATB courses had found them beneficial. They felt the courses led to increased income, a reduction in stock losses, and more efficient production. In addition, individual farmers benefited from a reduction in time and effort in carrying out farm tasks, from greater job satisfaction and greater confidence in their own abilities. There was a general acceptance of the need for further and continuing training with greater emphasis on efficient production as opposed to increased production. Much was to be gained by involving the older farmers who, in general, were most resistant to the idea of training, and by working to extend training opportunities for wives. With the advent of Enterprise Training, providing a range of skills, including financial management, staff management, technical management, as well as craft skills, training entered a wider framework and came closer still to the Advisory Services, and the farmer would, in time, come to look on the service of the Agricultural Training Board in the same way as he currently looked on the service of his bank or advisory service.

Problems in providing efficient training were encountered in the remoter areas where adequate facilities were hard to find. The timing of training sessions was investigated in some depth and the importance of fitting the training to a particular time of year and to a particular size of training package at specific times of day was revealed. The best solution was found to differ from area to area and enterprise to enterprise.

Finally, the study suggested that in considering the problem of the arrest of rural depopulation training had a part to play. Accordingly, the Agricultural Training Board, like similar organisations, needed to consider the priorities it gave in these areas. Although the ATB is currently involved in training in an agricultural industrial context, the inter-action between farming and the use of the countryside for recreation and leisure prompted the question how far the Board might extend its scope to help the public in the countryside. In the same way it might consider with sister Training Boards what possibilities there were for training

part-time farmers and their families in non-agricultural activities that would contribute to the rural community.

Farmers in European countries were impressed by the approach to training in the UK. The author's experience in Africa and Australia, and his study in Europe, convinced him that the participative training techniques developed by the ATB had much to offer agricultural progress in all countries, third world developing countries as well as developed countries.

APPENDIX A

FARM DETAILS

1. NAME OF HOLDING:

2. DETAILS OF HOLDING AND ENTERPRISES:

| | | | | |
|---------------|----------------------|-----|----------------|-----|
| (a) General: | Arable | ... | | |
| | Permanent Grass | ... | Owned | ... |
| | Hill (green) | ... | Rented | ... |
| | Hill (rough) | ... | Common Grazing | ... |
| (b) Cropping: | Cereals | ... | | |
| | Potatoes | ... | Silage | ... |
| | Roots | ... | Hay | ... |
| | Fodder Crop | ... | Grazing | ... |
| | Others | ... | | |
| (c) Stock: | Dairy cows | ... | Ewes | ... |
| | Beef cows | ... | Rams | ... |
| | Bulls | ... | Other sheep | ... |
| | Bucket-reared Calves | ... | (over 6 mths) | ... |
| | Cattle 6 mth-1 yr | ... | Sows | ... |
| | Cattle 1-2 yr old | ... | Boars | ... |
| | | | Other pigs | ... |
| | Laying hens | ... | | |
| | Broilers | ... | Goats | ... |
| | Turkeys | ... | Horses | ... |

3. Does the soil and climate allow you to crop?

If the answer is YES, but you are predominantly a stock farmer, please outline your reasons for this choice.

4. Does the farm make a profit? YES/NO

THE FAMILY AND FARM WORK

1. What are the age bands of the farmer/spouse/and family who work on the farm?

16-24 25-44 45-64 65+

Farmer

Spouse

Family

2. Do you have any outside help with the farm work?

YES/NO

If so, what type of work? Contract/Manual

average hours/week?

approx. weeks/year?

3. What percentage of time and hours per week is spent on farm work compared to off-farm employment?

| | On Farm % Hrs | Off Farm % Hrs | Pattern |
|--|------------------|-------------------|---------|
|--|------------------|-------------------|---------|

Farmer

Spouse

Family

(a) Asterisk person responsible for day-to-day management.

(b) Circle each person's major gainful occupation.

4. What is the breakdown of your taxable income between —

| | |
|----------|------|
| Farming | ...% |
| Off-farm | ...% |

5. Why do you have a farm?

| | |
|------------------------------|-------|
| Handed down in the family | |
| Way of life | |
| Enjoy farming and animals | |
| Capital asset of land | |
| Only occupation since school | |
| Other reasons (detail) | |

6. What are you looking for from the farm?

| | |
|----------------------------|-------|
| To pay way | |
| To eventually be full-time | |
| Reasonable living | |
| Job satisfaction | |
| Other reasons | |

7. Have these expectations changed in the last 5-10 years? YES/NO

If YES, in what way?

8. Does farming put any restrictions on your other gainful employment?

YES/NO

9. What happens when a man/son is sick? Is there anybody else who can take over?

Wife
Sons/Family
Neighbour
Employee

10. Are there any aspects of farm work that you find particularly difficult?

e.g. Stockwork
Paperwork
Machinery maintenance

FARM DEVELOPMENT

1. Would any of the following constrain you in the future development of the farm?

| | |
|--|-------|
| Availability of more land to farm | |
| Type of land on farm | |
| Lack of labour or physical constraints | |

- Lack of confidence in the produce markets
- Lack of knowledge/skill
- Lack of time
- Lack of capital
- Other
2. Could finance from the off-farm job be used to change or expand the farm's enterprises? YES/NO
- Is it being used at present? YES/NO
3. Is there a market for any specialised farm products? YES/NO
- If YES, (a) can they be sold through farm gate sales or other market outlets?
- (b) could this enterprise be run by the wife?
- (c) do you have the necessary skills and technical knowledge to run this enterprise properly?
4. If the farm returns were to drop significantly, would you, or could you —
- Increase output
- Increase efficiency
- Change your system of farming
- Look for off-farm work
- Do nothing
- Any other action you would take

OFF-FARM JOB

- | | Farmer | Spouse | Family |
|--|--------|--------|--------|
| 1. Off-farm occupation: | | | |
| What type of work? | | | |
| Employment status: self-employed | | | |
| employed | | | |
| shift | | | |
| Working hours | | | |
| Average hours per week | | | |
| Number of weeks per year | | | |
| How far is work place from home | | | |
| Why did you start? Always worked | | | |
| For extra income | | | |
| Other reason | | | |
| 2. Non-farm work on holding: | | | |
| What type of work? | | | |
| Average hours per week | | | |
| Approx. number of weeks per year | | | |
| Why did you start? | | | |
| 3. Does the off-farm job put any limitations on the way the farm is run? | | | YES/NO |
| c.g. Land use/enterprise | | | |
| Availability of capital | | | |
| Physical/mental fatigue | | | |
| Time available | | | |
| Safety/efficiency | | | |

4. Did you have any formal training for your job? YES/NO
 Apprenticeship
 College training
 University training
 If so, how did it benefit you in your job?
5. How easy is it for you to get time away from your off-farm job?
6. Are there any benefits to the farm from the off-farm job?
 Examples (a) Less dependence on farm income
 (for (b) Market outlets for produce
 prompting) (c) Greater range of skills
 (d) Wider or different outlook on farm situation
 (e) Use of machinery on farm
 (f) Can be easily located
 (g) Cheap material for farm
 (h) See how other people farm
7. Does the off-farm job provide a pension? YES/NO
 If YES, how important is it?

FAMILY FARMER

1. What are the average hours worked per week on the farm?
 Farmerhrs
 Wifehrs
 Familyhrs
2. Do you do any non-farm work on the holding? YES/NO
 If so, what type of work?
 average hours per week
 approx. number of weeks per year
3. Are there any limitations on the way the farm is run? YES/NO
 If so, what are they? Land
 Enterprises possible
 Availability of capital
 Time
 Physical/mental fatigue
 Other
4. What enterprises need two people for many of the operations?
 Stock
 Crops
 General
 Are there jobs the woman does on her own?
5. Did you have any formal training? YES/NO
 Apprenticeship
 College
 University
 Has this been of benefit to you on the farm?
6. How easy is it for you to get time away from the farm to attend training courses?

THE WOMAN'S ROLE

1. How much time do you spend on:

| | | | |
|------|-------------------|----------------|------------------|
| None | Up to 5 hrs/wk | 5-20 hrs/wk | Over 20 hours |
|------|-------------------|----------------|------------------|

Manual work with stock
Manual work with crops
General work around farm
(fencing, tidying up)
Records/paperwork/bookkeeping
Decision making

2. How confident do you feel in your *technical* ability to deal with:

| | | |
|------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Not Confident | Able to do basic tasks | Confident in all tasks |
|------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|

Stock
Machinery/crops
General farm work (fences,
etc.)
Paperwork/bookkeeping
Deal with reps, Government officials,
etc., when husband away

3. If any emergency arose, how well could you cope?

| | | |
|------------------|------------------------|-------|
| c.g. sick animal | Observe and call help | |
| straying stock | Observe "settle" and | |
| first aid | assist when help comes | |
| cwe lambing | Tackle job on own | |

4. Are there any jobs around the farm that you are unable to do at present but feel you should be able to tackle if necessary? YES/NO
Could training help you achieve this?

5. What jobs do you think you could take over from your husband?

c.g. Lambing/calving
Rearing young stock
Other stock work (feeding, etc.)
Attend sick stock
Sheepdog handling
Paperwork

6. In the event of your husband being unable to attend a training course, would he be happy for you to attend and to then pass on the knowledge and skill learned?
(get responses from both man and wife)

7. What advantage/benefits would there be in this approach for
(a) yourself; (b) your husband; (c) your business?

Examples: 1) More assistance to husband
2) Can discuss and contribute to decision making
3) Less demand on husband's time
4) Husband can be away with confidence
5) Less losses

- 6) Information/skill from course available
 - 7) If other wives trained, can help each other
 - 8) Wife can take over when husband sick.
8. If you were to attend courses would the following be important?
- (a) Courses to coincide with school hours
 - (b) Venues to be near pre-school facilities
 - (c) Any other considerations to be noted?

TRAINING

1. Have you had contact with the Agricultural Training Board? YES/NO
In what form was this contact? (e.g. general enquiries/apprenticeship/courses)
- (a) Have you been on a course? YES/NO
What were the subjects of the courses?
Who attended? Farmer..... Wife..... Family.....
How easy was it to get time to attend?
Very easy
Relatively easy
Difficult
- Do you intend going to more? YES/NO
Subjects interested in
- (b) Is it possible to get time off? YES/NO
Who would want to attend? Farmer..... Wife..... Family.....
What course subject would be of interest?
2. Would you be willing to take part of your holidays to attend training courses? YES/NO
3. As a result of attending training courses what benefits have you experienced?
 - (a) to the farm (e.g. increased income)
 - (b) to yourselves as individuals (e.g. less time/effort, better safety, job satisfaction, confidence)
4. If you were to change or expand your farm enterprises, would training have a part to play? YES/NO
5. What is the most suitable length of course for you to attend:
 - 3 hours
 - 6 hours
 - 12 hours

Is there any time in the year that is more suitable to attend?

Winter

Late Spring/early Summer

Summer

Autumn
6. For a 3 hour course would your preference be for —
 - Morning
 - Afternoon
 - Evening

If evening, do you think you would be mentally and physically receptive to gain the maximum benefit from attendance at the course? (Refer Off-farm Job Q.3) YES/NO

7. For a 6 hour course would your preference be for —
10 am - 5 pm
2 pm - 9 pm
8. Is there any possibility of a relief service at work or on the farm to allow you to attend courses? YES/NO
(e.g. a neighbour to look after things to allow you to attend and then reciprocate).
9. What other forms of training would you consider useful?
e.g. (a) "Distance Learning" packages (correspondence courses)
(b) Learning through computer programmes
(c) Video — as an aid on ATB courses
— as an updating technique
(d) or do you think the ATB practical courses are the most suitable type?

Would 3-4 day blocks, concentrating on one subject, be considered?

- YES/NO
10. Are your requests for training courses self-generated? YES/NO
If YES, do you work only from the course lists or do you identify your own course subjects?
11. Have you any other comments, criticisms, suggestions on the ATB and its work?

APPENDIX B

TRAINING COURSES

SHEEP

Condition Scoring and Ewe Lamb Selection
Management at Topping Time
Tup Examination and Assessment
Correct Use of Anthelmintics
Feeding and Management of the In-Lamb Ewe
Management post-Lambing to Weaning
Lamb Selection for Sale
Lambing — Using Simulator
Hypothermia Detection and Resuscitation
Shearing — Basic/Advanced
Sheepdog Handling and Training
Sheep Stock Tasks
Tup Dressing
Sheep Fank Layout
Sheep Housing

CATTLE

Calving — Using Simulator
Calf Rearing — Artificial Method
Calf Disbudding
Foot Trimming
Bull Examination and Assessment
Suckler Cow Management and Feeding
Cattle Restraint/Handling/Drenching
Cattle Dressing for Show or Sale
Maintaining a Regular Calving Pattern
Heat Detection

GRASS

Grassland Production and Maintenance
Principles of Making Good Quality Silage
Principles of Making Good Quality Hay
Round Bale Silage Production
Identification and Control of Weeds in Grassland

CROPS

Planting and Establishment of Winter Barley
Spring Management of Winter Barley
Planting and Establishment of Spring Barley
Identification and Control of Weeds in Cereal Crops
Recognition of Cereal Pests and Diseases
Management and Supervision of Spraying in Arable Crops
Grain for Intervention

MANAGEMENT

Employment Law for Farmers
Health and Safety at Work
Decision Making
Negotiating Skills
Setting and Monitoring Enterprise Targets
Improving Work Methods
Work Planning
Handling Paperwork on the Family Farm
Office Organisation

FARM BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

Better Business Management
Cash Analysis and Value Added Tax
Understanding your Accounts
Budgeting for Profit
Cash Flow Budgeting
Planning for Change (Investment Appraisal)
Understanding Tax and Tax Planning
Computers in your Business

MACHINERY

Tractor Operation and Maintenance
Tractor Electrics, Maintenance and Fault Finding
Tractor Tyre Care and Repair
Farm Vehicle/Motor Cycle Maintenance
Ploughing — Reversible/Conventional
Grain Drill Operation and Maintenance
Sprayer Operation and Maintenance/Calibration
Rotary Mower Operation and Maintenance
Forage Harvester Operation and Maintenance
Baler Operation and Maintenance
Big Round Baler Operation and Maintenance
Combine Harvester Pre-season Maintenance
Combine Harvester — Reducing Grain Losses
Fork Lift Truck Operation and Maintenance
(Ordinary and Rough Terrain)

GENERAL

Electric Welding — Basic/Advanced
Welding Plough Metal
Gas Welding and Cutting
Farm Workshop Practice
High Speed Grinder Operation and Maintenance
Farm Plumbing
Chain Saw Maintenance and Operation
Fencing — High Tensile and Traditional
Dry Stone Dykes — Repair and Maintenance
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Fox Control

Mole Poisoning/Trapping

SAFETY

First Aid on the Farm

Fire Fighting

Safe Handling of Chemicals in Agriculture

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Published by the Arkleton Trust at Arkleton, Langholm, Dumfriesshire
DG13 0HL, Scotland, UK.
Printed by John G. Eccles Printers Ltd, Inverness.