



# **ALAGAPPA UNIVERSITY**

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KARAIKUDI – 630 003

## **DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION**

**M.S.W  
III – SEMESTER**

**34933A**

## **RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT**

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# UNIT I – RURAL COMMUNITY

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Rural Community

NOTES

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## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

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Rural community is a simple community of primary relations with low population based primarily on agricultural life. In rural life, where the family is relatively dominant and self contained, a group responsibility prevails. The status of the individual is likely to be the status of his family. Property is likely to be thought of as a family possession. The dominance of the family explains, in large measure, why social control in the rural community is exercised with minimum of formality and a maximum command. The group mores, reflecting a commonly shared system of values, are themselves effective as social pressure, in little need of support from specialized agencies.

### **Difference between Society and Community**

You have read about society and community in Block 1, Unit 1. Society is defined in simple terms as an organization of member agents. The outstanding feature of society is a system – a system of social relationships between individuals. The importance of society lies in the fact that it controls and regulates the behavior of the individual both by law and customs. It can exert pressure on the individual to conform to norms. A Community is a social group determined by geographical boundaries and/or

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common values and interests. Its members know and interact with each other. It functions within a particular social structure and exhibits and creates certain norms and values, and social institutions.

### **Village Community in India**

The village community consists of a group of related or unrelated persons larger than single family, occupying a large house or a number of dwellings placed close together, sometimes irregularly, sometimes in a street and cultivating originally in common a number of arable lands, dividing in the available meadowland between them and pasturing their cattle on the surrounding wasteland over which the community claims rights as far as the boundaries of adjacent communities.

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## **1.2 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through the unit you will be able to;

- Understand the meaning of Rural Community
- Gain the knowledge about characteristics of rural community
- understand the types of villages
- Identify the scope of studying the rural community
- gain the knowledge about the rural community relation to social work.

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## **1.3 RURAL COMMUNITY**

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Rural community is considered as one of the primordial organizations of mankind. Hence, Rural Sociology is chiefly concerned with the origin, nature, characteristics, social attributes and human ecology of rural community. It also studies the homogenous trajectory of the rigid and conservative nature of hither to existing customs, traditions, folkways, mores, norms, values and so on in rural community.

### **1.3.1 RURAL COMMUNITY: MEANING**

Rural Community is a field of sociology that is connected with the study of social life in rural areas. It is an active field in much of the world, and in the United States originated in the 1910s with close ties to the national Department of Agriculture and land-grant university colleges of agriculture. The sociology of food and agriculture is one focus of rural sociology and

much of the field is dedicated to the economics of farm production. Other areas of study include rural migration and other demographic patterns, environmental sociology, amenity-led development, public lands policies, so-called "boomtown" development, social disruption, the sociology of natural resources (including forests, mining, fishing and other areas), rural cultures and identities, rural healthcare and educational policies. Many rural sociologists work in the areas of development studies, community studies, community development and in environmental. Much of the research involves the Third World.

Rural Community as indicated by its name, studies rural society, rural social structures and institutions. The rural society is primarily dependent on agriculture and hence rural sociology also concerns itself on the peasant society. Rural sociology is centered on the rural community life. There is a stark difference between the social structure, processes, social dynamics and social control in rural society. Hence, there is a difference between studying urban society and rural society, rural sociology studies the latter. Thus, rural sociology has been specially designed to study the rural phenomena and it is a systematic study of the varied aspects of the rural society. It is the study of the rural social networks and how they operate for the smooth functioning of the society. The rural society is generally rooted in the villages, and rural sociology studies the facets of the villages, the way it functions, the various problems it faces and the how it tackles to face the imminent challenges. Rural sociology offers viable solutions and ways of mitigating the problems that hound over the villages.

### **1.3.2 DEFINITION OF RURAL COMMUNITY:**

1. According to Sanderson, "Rural community is the sociology of rural life in the rural environment".

2. Bertand says, "Rural community is that study of human relationships in rural environment".

3. T.L. Smith, "Such sociological facts and principles as are derived from the study of rural social relationships may be referred to as rural sociology".

4. F.S Chapin, “The sociology of rural life is a study of rural population, rural social organization, and the rural social processes operative in rural society”.

5. A.R Desai defines rural community, “the science of rural society....It is the science of laws of the development of rural society”.

The above definitions clearly justify that rural sociology studies the social interactions, institutions and activities and social changes that take place in the rural society. It studies the rural social organizations, structure and set up. In other words, it can be said that rural sociology acts as a reflection of the rural social life and provides the norms and values that govern the rural society. It provides a clear picture of the rural population and the difference they possess from the urban population.

### **Emergence of Rural Sociology:**

During the beginning of the 1950s, the sociologists and the social anthropologists began conducting extensive and innumerable studies in the field of rural sociology. The major concern of these studies was the scrutiny of the interrelationships between various dimensions of the rural organization. The field of rural sociology was enriched with the contributions by

M.N.Srinivas (1960), McKim Marriott (1955), S.C.Dube (1955) and D.N.Majumdar (1955). The birth of rural sociology was due to the requirement of the study of different conditions and aspects of rural life and the prevailing problems that plague the rural society. Earlier, many social sciences have strived to provide viable solutions for the challenges found in the rural society but have not been able to provide viable solutions to them. In order to provide a discipline for serious and focused study of the rural society, rural sociology was born. According to Charles R.Hoffer, “Like all sciences, Rural Sociology developed in response to a need. It is an elementary fact in the realm of scientific thought that a new science comes into existence whenever phenomena confronting the human mind are not, or cannot be understood satisfactorily by the existing disciplines or sciences”. Though rural society exists since a long long time, but rural sociology had then not emerged due the static and unchanged nature of the rural social life. In recent years, the components of dynamism and change have escalated the

capability to comprehend the complex problems of life. During the 18th century, there was a major shift in the scientific inventions and discoveries that helped in transforming human thinking and life. The exponential growth of industrialization and urbanization caused issues such as slums and overcrowding in the cities. Such grave concerns diverted the attention towards the villages and the migrating population. Rural people faced a lot of challenges and difficulties. Eventually, the streams of thought by the thinkers focused on issues such as poverty, unemployment, health and hygiene, education and disorganization etc.

### **1.3.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF RURAL COMMUNITY**

Reddy (1985) has stated the following as the characteristic of Indian Rural Society.

1. The village is the unit of the rural society. Its people carry on the business of living together within a distinctive framework of caste and social custom. Caste is a dominant social institution permeating social and economic relations. Traditional caste occupation mostly prevails. Co-operative labour of different castes is required not only for agro-economic activities but also for socio-religious life. The large villages have within its population all the occupational castes, have a comparatively more integrated and self sufficient economic as well as socio-religious life than smaller villages.

2. The village as a social and cultural unit possesses a basically uniform organization and structure of values all over India. Many problems are common to the entire Indian country side.

3. The ethnic, linguistic, religious and caste composition of a village largely determine its character and structure. Some villages or hamlets are inhabited almost exclusively by certain castes as in the case of Agraharams for Brahmins. Even in a village with mixed population the different castes usually live in different sections of the same village. Inter caste rivalries are present.

4. Women do not have full equality with men in several aspects of life.

5. Indian rural society is predominantly based on agriculture. Possession of land carries with it social and prestige value, besides being

considered as an economic asset. In many villages, the land is mostly distributed between two or more castes, or among a few families, or between one big land owner and the rest of the community. Landless labourers and tenants constitute a considerable part of the population depending on agriculture.

6. Every village has its own organisational set up, authority and sanctions. It has its growing body, the panchayat, based on local tradition since long, but now constituted on a regular basis according to provisions of Panchayat Raj.

7. Social distance or isolation has a bearing on the nature of the organisation of a village and of its view on the world. Availability of or nearness to modern means of transport or communications also modifies the setting and fabric of a village.

### Check your progress -1

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. Define Rural Community?

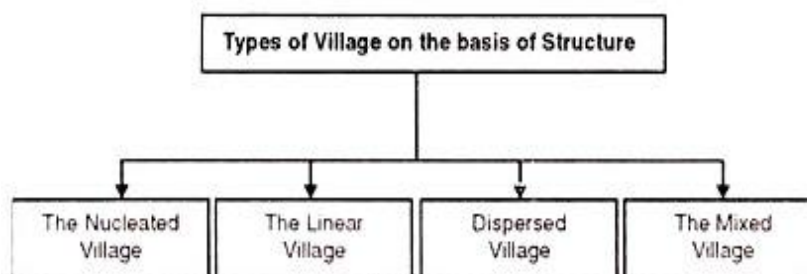
2. Write any two Characteristics of Rural Community

## 1.4 Types of Villages

This section throws light upon the four categories in the classification of villages.

### I. On the Basis of Structure:

Structurally villages in India can be divided into following types:



### Types of Village

#### 1. The Nucleated Village

This is a common pattern of settlement mostly discernible in paddy growing areas. In this type of village, homes of farmers and artisans are clustered together.

Their land is located outside the village at varying distance. Their livestock are often housed along with them or nearby them.

These types of villages are characterized by residential proximity, neighborhood, community feeling etc.

## 2. The Linear Village

In this type of village, houses are built on parallel rows. Each house is surrounded by small gardens. The paddy fields are at a distance from the house. This pattern of settlement unites the social advantage of residential closeness and economic advantages of living on one's land.

## 3. Dispersed Village

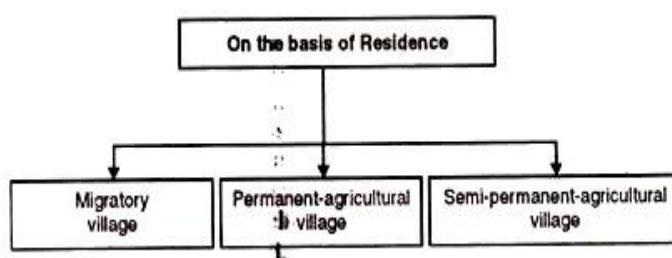
The village in which the dwelling places of the village lay scattered or diffused is called a dispersed village. These villages have no definite structure or shape. This type of village is found in hilly areas.

## 4. The Mixed Village

It is the mixer of nucleated and dispersed pattern of settlement. In this type of village settlement, there is a larger compact settlement of houses which is surrounded by a few small hamlets at a distance. This type of settlement can be seen both in plain as well as hilly areas.

## II. On the Basis of Residence

Basis of Residence



### 1. Migratory Village

Here, people live for few months or for as season. They collect their food from natural resources. But when the food supply from that place is lessened, then they shift to another place where they can find adequate amount of food. For example, we find this type of village among the tribal society i.e. shifting cultivation.

### 2. Semi-permanent Agricultural Village

In semi- permanent agricultural villages, people reside for few years at a particular place and migrate to another place due to the exhaustion of the

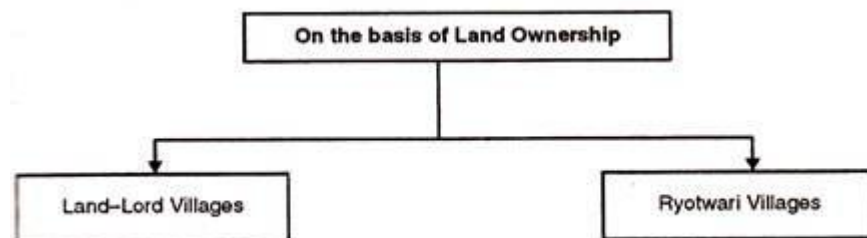
productivity of land. The duration of residence is more as compared to migratory type of villages.

In this type of village, people keep animals like cow and goat but do not cultivate the land for agriculture. They burn down the small trees and bushes and sow seed over the earth which gives them some crop after rainfall. When the people find that land is not yielding required amount of food grains, they leave the place for another new settlement.

### 3. Permanent Agricultural Village

In permanent agricultural village, people live permanently for generation to generation. They develop village organizations and social relations within their own village. Generally, they do not change their living place and place of cultivation. Here, in this villages, permanent households are created.

## III. On the Basis of Organization



### Basis of Land Ownership

#### 1. Co-operative Villages

In this type of village, land is owned individually and people pull their resources together for common cultivation and farming. Generally, co-operative houses are organised to supply them their necessary commodities. Co-operative villages are also seen in India.

#### 2. Semi-Collective Village

In such villages, land belong to the collective body. All means of production and resources are owned collectively. The people work together for production of food grains and other essential goods. For their consumption, they get their monthly or annual dues fixed according to the income of the village.

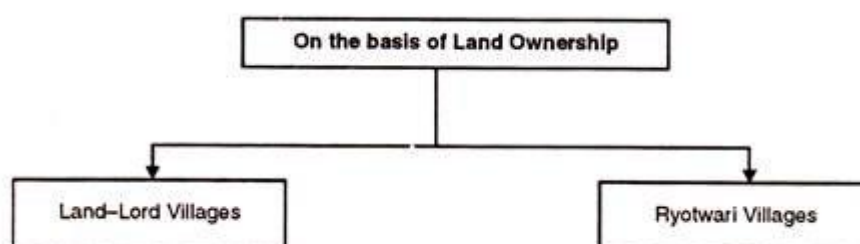
The income of villagers is not associated with the number of hours worked by members of a particular family. The families received their quota according to the numerical strength of the family.

### 3. Collective Villages

In this type of village, the villagers live in a communal settlement where all property is collectively owned and all the arrangements are done on a collective basis. Members of the village only render their labour to the common pool and get all the necessities of life like food, clothing, housing, education etc.

There is common dining hall, common store and Communal Kinder Garden in the village. The Old and disabled persons are also maintained from the common fund. As a whole, such type of village gives full security for the whole life of a person, his children and dependents.

### IV. On the Basis of Land Ownership:



#### Basis of Land Ownership

##### 1. Land-Lord Villages:

In such villages, land is owned by individual family or a few number of families known as land-lords. The land-lords possess all the rights over the land but give the land to the tenants. The land-lords also impose rent on the land which tenants usually pay.

Land lords give certain percentage of rent to the king or government and keep a good percentage for themselves. Such type of villages existed in India before the abolition of intermediaries in agricultural sector.

##### 2. Ryotwari Villages:

In ryotwari villages, farmers are the owners of the land and they cultivate it. They directly pay the rent to the government without any intermediary. Such villages are known as ryotwari villages where land is owned by Ryots or Cultivators.

#### Check your progress -2

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

3. List out the Linear Villages?

4. Write notes on Permanent Agriculture Village?

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## 1.5 SCOPE OF RURAL COMMUNITY

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Rural community is comparatively a new branch of sociology. It is a science with its own characteristics standpoint and methods. Therefore, its scope should be clarified to distinguish it from other social sciences. In the words of N.L.Sims, “The field of rural community is the study of association among people living by or immediately depends upon agriculture. Open country and village groupings and groups behavior are its concern.”

### **According to Lowry Nelson**

“The subject matter of rural community is the description and analysis of progress of various groups as they exist in the rural environment.”

Thus the scope of rural community includes the study of all the social groups in the village. In the words of Burtrand and associates, “in its broadest definition rural community is the study of human relationship in rural environment” thus, the scope of rural community includes all the social relationships in rural environments.

### **An analysis of the scope of rural community leads to the study of the following**

**Rural Problems:** The subject matter of rural sociology includes the problems of rural life, such as social, economic, political and cultural problems. These problems are studied in isolation as well as in relation to each other. In the former sense each problem is analyst separately and effort is made to arrive at some conclusion for its remedy. For the second viewpoint all the rural problems are taken as different aspects of one single problem. Sometimes this viewpoint leads to confusion since the problems are entangled into each other, therefore, in the integral standpoint towards rural social problems, it is necessary to remember similarities as well as distinctions. Some problems cannot be solved unless studied separately such as the rural problems of poverty, illiteracy, disease, low standard of life, inadequate housing, lack or recreation, traditionalism, religious superstition etc.

**Rural Social Life:** Smith has rightly called rural sociology as the sociology of rural life. It aims at the study of rural social life. Rural social life includes rural people, rural population, rural environment, rural standard of living, rural vocations and rural economic conditions. Thus, rural sociology studies both enacted and developed rural social organizations.

**Rural Social Organization:** The most important function of rural sociology is to provide knowledge concerning rural family organization. Rural social organization includes rural family, rural marriage, rural social stratification, rural education, rural administrative system, rural religious and cultural

institutions and rural division of labor etc. thus; rural sociology studies both enacted and developed rural social organizations.

**Rural Institutions:** Rural sociology includes the study of rural institution. Institutions are procedures of activities which are developed to fulfill a certain aim. Such institutions may be economic, political, social, religious or cultural. Rural sociology studies all these types of institutions in the context of rural society.

**Rural Community:** In the words of Sanderson “A rural community consists of the social interaction of the people and their institutions in the local area in which, they live in dispersed farm-steads and in a hamlet or village which forms the center of their common activities”. Thus rural community includes all the general activities or rural people. Rural sociology studies the characteristics, forms and activities or rural community.

**Rural Social Structure:** Social structure is the most important basis of social life therefore; rural social structure is the most important element in the scope of rural sociology. Thus, the rural sociologists concentrate on the analysis and the study of rural social structure.

**Rural Urban Contrast:** As has been already pointed out, the village and city present two contrasting modes of community life. Rural sociology studies this rural urban contrast. In other words, it studies the fundamental distinctions between rural and urban culture and also their relationship.

From the above discussion it is clear that rural sociology study with rural society under natural circumstances and conditions. It pay special attention to structural and functional aspects of village organization, family organization, class and caste structure, folk, art, dance and literature, folk culture and customs and traditions.

### Check your progress -3

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

4. Write the brief notes on Rural Social Life?

5. Write notes on Rural Community?

## 1.6 RURAL COMMUNITY IN RELATION TO SOCIAL WORK

The main argument of this section is that, when practicing social work with local communities in developing countries, it is often necessary to facilitate political engagement in the process of addressing community needs and issues, and it is important to alter the common ideological position that social work is non-political and non-religious in practice, while focusing instead on the fundamental principles of human rights and social justice. To substantiate this argument, the article clarifies basic concepts relevant to the

article; discusses some features of social work education and practice and the neglect of local communities; drawing on secondary data and the author's observations, analyzes trends in community practice in developing countries; and shows that professional social work has largely neglected local communities. Furthermore, it presents five imperatives why social workers should engage politically in local communities in seeking to improve community conditions and people's well-being.

**Basic Concepts** It is important to clarify a few basic concepts, such as social work practice, local communities, community power structure, and political engagement, for the purpose of this article. Social work practice includes all those micro- to macro-level activities (Hugman, 2009) that emanate from the internationally accepted social work definition that reads as follows:

The social work profession promotes social change, problem solving in human relationships and the empowerment and liberation of people to enhance well-being. Utilising theories of human behaviour and social systems, social work intervenes at the points where people interact with their environments. Principles of human rights and social justice are fundamental to social work. (International Association of Schools of Social Work [IASSW] & International Federation of Social Workers [IFSW], 2004)

The word "local" in local-level communities does not carry any one specific connotation. Uphoff (1986) saw it as signifying any or all of the following: locality (a set of interrelated communities), community (a relatively self-contained socioeconomic-residential unit), or group (a self-identified set of persons with a common interest). In general terms, social work practice with local communities is practice that takes place at the local level and is ideally initiated by the local level. It may be referred to as community practice encompassing the essential processes of community organizing, social planning, community development and advocacy, and progressive social change work (Weil, 2013). It is not essentially or ideally action that occurs at the local level as a result or flow of central-level planning and decision making (United Nations Centre for Regional Development, 1988). It involves enabling local people and communities through their community

structures to assume responsibility for improving their social and economic conditions (Midgley, 1992; Pawar & Cox, 2010a). Community power structure connotes the distribution and concentration of, and control over social, economic, political, cultural (including religion and education) power and resources in local communities, and peoples' linkages to such power and resources within and beyond the local community. Generally, the poor, marginalized, and disadvantaged people and groups are excluded from, and/or exploited/oppressed by, such structures. Political engagement is not merely limited to voting and membership of organizations and associations, but includes mobilization and authentic participation of local communities, particularly the excluded and/or exploited/oppressed groups, to organize themselves to create pressure, lobby, confront oppressive structures, make decisions, and work with governance systems to improve communities and their conditions, and quality of life.

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### **1.7 LET US SUM UP**

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In this unit we have discussed rural realities and develop sensitivity and commitment for working with rural communities, and also impart knowledge about the governmental and voluntary efforts towards rural community development, equip students with specific skills and techniques of working with rural communities.

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### **1.8 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

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1. Define Rural Community?
  2. Write any two Characteristics of Rural Community?
  3. List out the Type of Villages?
  4. Write notes on Permanent Agriculture Village?
  5. Write the brief notes on Rural Social Life?
  6. Write notes on Rural Community?
- 

### **1.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

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1. Bertand says, "Rural community is that study of human relationships in rural environment".
2. The village as a social and cultural unit possesses a basically uniform organization and structure of values all over India. Many problems are common to the entire Indian country side.
3. In this type of village, houses are built on parallel rows. Each house is surrounded by small gardens. The paddy fields are at a distance from the house. This pattern of settlement unites the social advantage of residential closeness and economic advantages of living on one's land.

4. In permanent agricultural village, people live permanently for generation to generation. They develop village organizations and social relations within their own village. Generally, they do not change their living place and place of cultivation. Here, in these villages, permanent households are created.
5. **Rural Social Life:** Smith has rightly called rural sociology as the sociology of rural life. It aims at the study of rural social life. Rural social life includes rural people, rural population, rural environment, rural standard of living, rural vocations and rural economic conditions. Thus, rural sociology studies both enacted and developed rural social organizations.
6. **Rural Community:** In the words of Sanderson “A rural community consists of the social interaction of the people and their institutions in the local area in which, they live in dispersed farm-steads and in a hamlet or village which forms the center of their common activities”. Thus rural community includes all the general activities or rural people. Rural sociology studies the characteristics, forms and activities or rural community.

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### 1.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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## UNIT II – RURAL SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND CONSTRAINTS TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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### Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
  - 2.1 Introduction
  - 2.2 The Nature of Rural Social Structure
    - 2.2.1 Social Structure
    - 2.2.2 Rural Social Structure in India
  - 2.3 Family and Kinship
    - 2.3.1 Family in Rural India
    - 2.3.2 Changes in Family
    - 2.3.3 Lineage and Kinship
  - 2.4 Caste Groups
    - 2.4.1 Caste
    - 2.4.2 Sub-caste
    - 2.4.3 Changes in the Caste System
  - 2.5 Agrarian Class Structure
  - 2.6 The Village
    - 2.6.1 The Issue of Village Autonomy
    - 2.6.2 The *Jajmani* System
    - 2.6.3 Changes in the Village Power Structure and Leadership
  - 2.7 Let Us Sum Up
  - 2.8 Keywords
  - 2.9 Further Reading
  - 2.10 Specimen Answers to Check Your Progress
- 

### 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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By the time you finish reading this unit you should be able to

- z identify various elements of rural social Structure in India, in particular the family, caste, class and village describe the characteristic features of these four elements of rural social structure
  - z state and explain the important changes in the family and the caste system
  - z Describe the nature of the village community in India and explain the changes therein.
- 

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

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In unit 1 on Unity and Diversity, you learnt about the cross-cutting networks of uniformity and diversity of races, castes, religions and languages etc. You will note that as the knowledge of this aspect is crucial to study Indian society, we discuss it through all the units of ESO-12.

Unit 2 on Rural Social Structures deals with the major element of diversity of social life in India. Rural way of living is the dominant pattern of social life in developing countries like India in contrast to the predominant urban style in the developed countries. Social scientists, especially sociologists and social anthropologists, have made important contributions to the understanding of rural social structure.

In section 2.2 of this unit, our first effort is to understand the concept of **social structure** and then relate it to rural social structure in India. The specific components of rural social structure in India have been identified as family, kinship, caste, class and village. Further, in section 2.3, important features of family and kinship in India have been described and the nature of emerging changes in family discussed. Section 2.4 deals with the important characteristics of the caste system against the backdrop of the **varna** model of society. The pattern of change in the caste system has been taken note of. In section 2.5, the character of agrarian classes during the colonial and post-colonial period has been discussed. Section 2.6 examines the exaggerated notion of village autonomy. Moreover, '**jajmani**' system, which is an important social institution, has been discussed. In addition, we have tried to discern the pattern of changes in the nature of power structure and leadership in villages in India. Lastly, section 2.7 gives a summary of this unit.

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## 2.2 THE NATURE OF RURAL SOCIAL STRUCTURE

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In order to gain an understanding of rural social structure, we first clarify what we mean by social structure. Then we relate this understanding of the concept to ethnographic description of society in the rural areas of India.

### 2.2.1 Social Structure

Human world is composed of individuals. Individuals interact with one another for the fulfillment of their needs. In this process, they occupy certain status and roles in social life with accompanying rights and obligations. Their social behaviour is patterned and gets associated with certain norms and values, which provide them guidance in social interaction. There emerge various social units, such as groups, community, associations and institutions in society as a product of social intercourse in human life.

In this scenario, social structure is conceived as the pattern of inter-related statuses and roles found in a society, constituting a relatively stable set of social relations. It is the organised pattern of the inter-related rights and obligations of persons and groups in a system of interaction.

### 2.2.2 Rural Social Structure in India

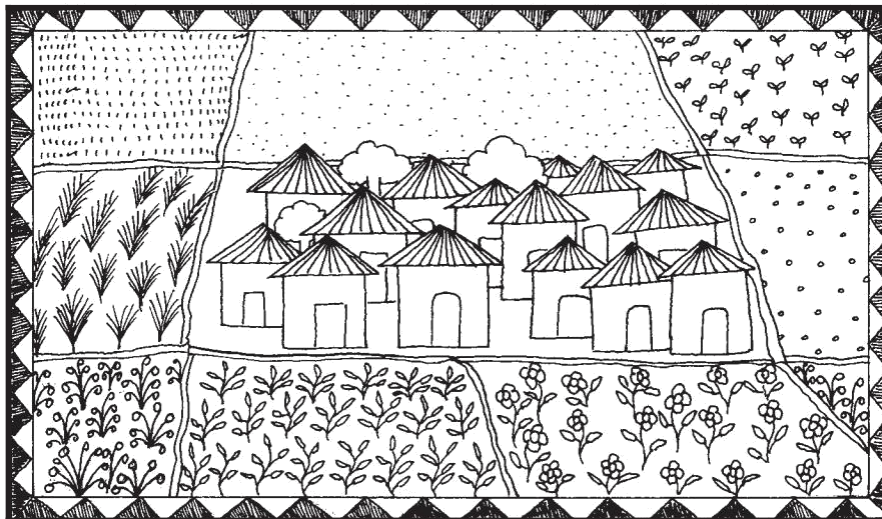
India is a country of ancient civilisation that goes back to the Indus Valley Civilisation, which flourished during the third millennium B.C. Since then except for a brief interlude during the Rig -Vedic period (Circa 1500-1000

B.C.) when the urban centres were overrun, rural and urban centres have co-existed in India.

Rural and urban centres share some common facets of life. They show interdependence especially in the sphere of economy, urbanward migration, and townsmen or city dwellers' dependence on villages for various products (e.g., foodgrains, milk, vegetables, raw materials for industry) and increasing dependence of villagers on towns for manufactured goods and market. Despite this interdependence between the two there are certain distinctive features which separate them from each other in terms of their size, demographic composition, cultural moorings, style of life, economy, employment and social relations.

Rural people live in settled villages. Three main types of settlement patterns have been observed in rural areas:

- i) The most common type is the nucleated village found all over the country. Here, a tight cluster of houses is surrounded by the fields of the villagers as shown in figure 2.1. An outlying hamlet or several satellite hamlets are also found to be attached to some villages in this case.



**Fig. 2.1: Nucleated type of settlement pattern**

- ii) Secondly, there are linear settlements in some parts of the country, e.g. in Kerala, in Konkan and in the delta lands of Bengal. In such settlements, houses are strung out, each surrounded by its own compound. However, there is little to physically demarcate where one village ends and another begins.
- iii) The third type of settlement is simply a scattering of homesteads or clusters of two or three houses. In this case also physical

demarcation of villages is not clear. Such settlements are found in hill areas, in the Himalayan foothills, in the highlands of Gujarat and in the Satpura range of Maharashtra.

Further, we find that the size of village population is small and density of population low in comparison with towns and cities. India is rightly called a country of villages. According to 1981 Census, there were 4029 towns and 5,57,137 inhabited villages in the country. By the year 1991 this number increased to 4689 towns and 5,80,781 villages. According to 2001 census there are 5161 towns and 6,38,365 villages (including uninhabited villages) in India (*Census of India* (provisional), 2001). Moreover, as per 2001 census figures about 72 percent of the total population live in villages. Further, rural life is characterised by direct relationship of people to nature i.e., land, animal and plant life. Agriculture is their main occupation. For example, in India agriculture provides livelihood to about 58 percent of the labour force.

Long enduring rural social institutions in India continue to be family, kinship, caste, class, and village. They have millennia old historical roots and structures. They encompass the entire field of life: social, economic, political and cultural-of the rural people. The complexity of social norms and values, statuses and roles, rights and obligations is reflected in them. Therefore, now we will discuss them separately in the subsequent sections.

### Check Your Progress 1

- i) Define, in four lines, the concept of social structure.
- ii) According to the 2001 census, how many villages are there in India? Use one line for your answer.
- iii) How many types of settlement patterns are there in rural areas? Describe one of them in about four lines.

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## 2.3 FAMILY AND KINSHIP

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Family is the basic unit of almost all societies. It is especially true in India where the very identity of a person is dependent on the status and position of his or her family and its social status.

### 2.3.1 Family in Rural India

Family is one of the most important social institutions which constitute the rural society. It caters to needs and performs functions, which are essential for the continuity, integration and change in the social system, such as, reproduction, production and socialization.

Broadly speaking there are two types of family: (a) nuclear family consisting of husband, wife and unmarried children, and (b) joint or

extended family comprising a few more kins than the nuclear type. Important dimensions of

**‘jointness’ of family** are coresidentiality, commensality, coparcenary, generation depth (three), and fulfillment of obligation towards kin and sentimental aspect. Coresidentiality means that members of a family live under the same roof. Commensality implies that they eat together i.e., have a common kitchen. Coparcenary means that they have joint ownership of property. Further, generation depth encompasses three generations or more, i.e., grandfather, father and the son or more. Members of the family also have obligations toward their kin. Moreover, they have a sentimental attachment to the ideal of joint family.

Rural family works as the unit of economic, cultural, religious, and political activities. Collectivity of the family is emphasized in social life, and feelings of individualism and personal freedom are very limited. Marriage is considered an inter-familial matter rather than an inter-personal affair. It is governed by rules of kinship, which are discussed in sub-section 2.3.3 of this unit.

### 2.3.2 CHANGES IN FAMILY

Traditional joint family occupied a predominant position in rural areas in India. It was largely prevalent among the landed gentry and priestly caste. But nuclear family also existed in India. Lower caste families whose main occupation was agricultural labour were mostly nuclear. However, they appreciated the ideal of joint family.

Various studies have been conducted to diagnose the change taking place in family in India with increasing industrialisation and urbanisation, changes in economy, technology, politics, education and law in modern times. There are two approaches. The first assumes that the family structure in India has undergone the process of unilinear change from the joint to nuclear form as in the West.

Secondly, I.P.Desai (1964), S.C. Dube (1955), T.N.Madan (1965), and others argue that it is necessary to observe family as a process. They adopt **developmental cycle** approach to understand changes in the family structure in India. They advocate that the presence of nuclear family households should be viewed as units, which will be growing into joint families when the sons grow up and marry. The ‘developmental cycle’ approach implies that a family structure keeps expanding, with birth and marriage, and depleting with death and partition in a cyclical order during a period of time.

Further, empirical studies show inter-regional and intra-regional variations in the distribution of family types. This is evident from the study by Pauline Kolenda (1967) who has made a comparative study of

family structures in thirteen regions of India on the basis of 32 publications. In Uttar Pradesh, among the Thakurs of Senapur, joint families constitute 74.4 percent and nuclear families only 25.5 percent; but untouchables have 34 percent joint families and 66 percent nuclear families. In the hilly region of the state of Uttar Pradesh in Sirkanda village, where most of the population is that of Rajputs, the joint families comprise only 39 percent and there are 61 percent nuclear families. In Maharashtra, Badlapur village has 14 percent joint and 86 percent nuclear families. In Andhra Pradesh, in Shamirpet village the proportion of joint families is 18.5 percent and that of nuclear is 81.5 percent. Table 2.1 shows a summarisation of these figures.

**Table 2.1: Inter-regional and Intra-regional variations in the distributions of family types**

State/Region	Village	Percent of Families	
		Joint	Nuclear
U.P. (Plains)	Senapur (Thakur)	74.5	25.5
“ (Hills)	(Lower Caste)	34	66
	Sirkanda (Rajput)	39	61
Maharashtra	Badalpur	14	86
Andhra Pradesh	Shamirpet	18.5	81.5
(Telangana)			

Here, Kolenda has made a few generalisations. She observes that between regions, the rural areas of the Gangetic plains have higher proportion of joint families than those in the Central India, Maharashtra, Andhra and Tamil Nadu. In the Gangetic plains itself, joint families are more common among the Rajputs and nuclear families predominate among the lower castes. For further details on the joint and the nuclear family see unit 6 of Block 2 of this course.

It has been observed that with the changes in the larger society, the structure and function of joint family in India are undergoing a reconciliatory pattern of change. The traditional world-view of the joint family still prevails.

**Activity 1** Describe various stages of your own family in terms of its developmental cycle. Start with the stage when you were born and its development in terms of family it has so far had.

---

### 2.3.3 Lineage and Kinship

Within the village, a group of families tracing descent from a common ancestor with knowledge of all the links constitute a lineage; and the children of the same generation behave as brothers and sisters. They form a unit for celebrating major ritual events. Sometimes the word *Kul* is used to describe these units. Usually these families live in closeness and a guest of one (e.g. a son-in-law) could be treated as such in all these families. These bonds of families may go back to 3 to 7 generations. People do not marry within this group. Beyond the known links, there are further connections ? people know the common ancestor but are unable to trace every link. Such families use a more generic term like being “*bhai-bandh*” of one another. They are also exogamous. The word *Gotra* or clan may be used for them.

Adrian Mayer (1960) studied a village in Malwa and distinguished between the **kindred of cooperation** and **kindred of recognition**. The first of these is the smaller unit, where cooperation is offered and taken without formalities. The second one is a larger unit that comes together on specific occasions through information and invitation. These relations can be spread over several

villages for each caste. This is why Mayer studied them within a caste and its region, a point that we need to remember in order to understand the spread of a caste/subcaste across villages and towns. This is also known as horizontal spread of the caste.

With regard to rules of marriage there are some differences between the north and south India. These have been pointed out in unit 6, Block 2 of the first elective course in sociology and will be discussed again in units 8 and 9 of Block 2 of this course. Irawati Karve (1965) noted these differences. Later, an American anthropologist, David Mandelbaum, included them in his popular work on *Society in India* (1972). He reiterates the position “broadly put, in the South a family tries to strengthen existing kin ties through marriage, while in the North a family tends to affiliate with a separate set of people to whom it is not already linked”.

This is witnessed in the prevalence of the rules of **village exogamy** and **‘gotra’ exogamy** in the North but not in the South. In the North, nobody is permitted to marry in his/her own village. Marriage alliances are concluded with the people from other villages belonging to similar caste. But no such proscriptions exist in the South. Further, in the North one cannot marry within his/her own *gotra*. On the contrary, cross cousin marriage i.e., marriage between the children of brother and sister,

is preferred in the South. Thus, there is a centrifugal tendency in North India, i.e., the direction of marriage is outward or away from the group. In contrast in South India we find a centripetal tendency in making marriage alliances and building kinship ties. In other words, marriages take place inwardly or within the group.

### Check Your Progress 2

- i) List some of the important dimensions of “jointness” of a family.  
Use about four lines.
- ii) Define, in four lines, the concept of lineage.
- iii) What is meant by the ‘developmental cycle’ approach to family in India? Describe it in about four lines.

## 2.4 CASTE GROUPS

So far we have learnt about smaller units of social structure, groups within which marriage is avoided by tradition. These groups can be called exogamous (‘gamy’ refers to marriage, and ‘exo’ means outside); thus exogamy is the practice of marrying outside a group. When members of a group marry within a group, it is called endogamy (endo= within, inside). Thus, family, lineage and clan are exogamous groups. Sub-castes/castes are endogamous groups and we turn our attention to these groups.

### 2.4.1 Caste

People usually marry within the caste or sub-caste. Members of a caste trace their origin from a common ancestor — historical, mythical or divine. The properties of that ancestor are worthy of being remembered by people; and these are well known to such an extent that a mere mention of that name is enough to recognise the group to which a person belongs. Among various views on caste in India, according to the context discussed here, we mention six characteristics of caste, offered by G.S. Ghurye. In his thesis to Cambridge University on *Race and Caste in India*, which has been revised and published several times, G.S. Ghurye (1961) suggested that caste names could indicate six different possibilities. Brij Raj Chauhan used these categories to illustrate the situation in his study, *A Rajasthan Village*, (1968) as shown in table 2.2.

**Table 2.2: Different possibilities for using caste names**

Basis	Examples
1) Principle profession or crafts	Gadaria (shepherd), Nai (barber); Meghwal (leather worker), Suthar (carpenter), Dholi (drum beater)
2) Tribal/ethnic	Bhil
3) Religious movement	Sadhu- (Ramdasi, Kabirpanthi) (satnami in other parts)

4) Specific peculiarity or nick names	Bhangi, Kalal
5) Miscegenation (mixed descent)	Daroga

Here, we have identified two characteristics of caste so far: (i) it is an endogamous group; (ii) it has a common ancestor. As a part of this arrangement descendents of a common ancestor are divided into two groups, the smaller exogamous group, and the wider endogamous group. The first of these groups knows the stages of the links; the second treats it as given.

There are four other characteristics of caste as identified by Ghurye. Occupation is in some ways connected with caste, but not to the extent of prescribing it. Hence Ghurye used the phrase — lack of choice regarding occupation. It has been known for instance that agriculturists, soldiers and confectioners have come from different castes. In some ways however, occupational connection is a ready reference for other groups to identify a person. Each caste has its own social rules regarding things it can take or not take, use or not use. These

relate to dress, ornaments, and even place for living. In southern India, the ecology of the village reflects the caste divisions, the status going down as one moves from the north-east to the south or south-west. For example, in his study of a village in Tanjore district of Tamil Nadu, Beteille (1962) has shown that the Brahman live in an *agraharam* located in the north, non-Brahman somewhere in the middle, and at a distance to the south there is *cheri* or the colony for the lowest castes.

Some of the activities of the castes relate to the wider social setting which is based on the principle of ascription, birth determining the membership of a person and the status of the group. Each group in certain ways represents a segment of the society, and regulates its affairs. This has been called the segmental division of society. In case of the caste-based society as a whole, each group is assigned a particular place on the social ladder. This arrangement reflects the hierarchy of castes, and in that sense other writers, like Kingsley Davis, say that the caste system represents the extreme degree of ‘institutionalized inequality’ in the world.

#### 2.4.2 Sub-caste

A sub-caste is considered a smaller unit within a caste. In the village setting usually we find that there is only one sub-caste living there. A larger number of sub-castes indicate the late arrivals to a village. Thus for all practical purposes a sub-caste represents the caste in the village. In the wider setting of a region, however, we find many sub-castes. One example from Maharashtra is of kumbhar (potters). There are several

groups among them; those who tap the clay, those who use the large wheel, those who use the small wheel. All the three are endogamous groups. Should they be called castes or sub-castes? Ghurye favours the second use, Karve the first one.

Both agree that the groups are endogamous, the difference of opinion is about origin. If one group broke into three parts — sub-caste would be a proper usage, and Ghurye thought that was the way things happened. If the three groups had independent origin then they could be called castes — and that is how Karve thought things had occurred. She points out that even linguistic differences exist among the groups and to the extent physical characteristics could help, they show a variation.

In conclusion it can be said that sub-caste is the smallest endogamous group and it has some mechanisms like panchayats to regulate the behaviour of members in the traditional setting. In a village, the difference between caste and sub-caste does not come to the surface but in a region, the difference is visible. (The students are advised to study other units on caste and supplement their readings from them.)

This picture of castes and sub-castes relates to the traditional setting. New forces of change have begun to affect that picture at several points. Some of these points may now be looked in the next sub-section.

### **2.4.3 Changes in the Caste System**

Studies by historians and sociologists, namely, Romila Thapar (1979), Burton Stein (1968), Ramkrishna Mukherjee (1957), A.R. Desai (1987) and M.N. Srinivas (1969 and 1978) have shown that Indian society was never static.

The main traditional avenues of social mobility were Sanskritisation, migration and religious conversion. Lower castes or tribes could move upward in the caste hierarchy through acquisition of wealth and political power. They could consequently claim higher caste status along with Sanskritising their way of life, i.e., emulating the life-style and customs of higher castes.

Some important changes have taken place in the caste system in rural areas in the contemporary period due to the new forces of industrialisation, urbanisation, politicisation, modern education and legal system, land reforms, development programmes and government policy of positive discrimination in favour of the lower castes.

Occupational association of caste has marginally changed in rural areas. Brahmins may still work as priests. In addition, they have taken to agriculture. Landowning dominant castes belonging to both upper and middle rung of caste hierarchy generally work as supervisory farmers. Other non-landowning lower castes, including small and marginal

peasants, work as wage labourers in agriculture. Artisan castes, namely, carpenters and iron-smith continue with their traditional occupations. However, migration to urban areas has enabled individuals from all castes including untouchables to enter into non-traditional occupations in industry, trade and commerce, and services.

Further, inter-caste marriage is almost non-existent in rural areas. Inter-caste restrictions on food, drink and smoking continue but to a lesser degree because of the presence of tea stalls in villages which are patronised by nearly all castes. The hold of untouchability has lessened. Distinction in dress has become more a matter of income than caste affiliation. In traditional India, the upper castes were also upper classes but it is not absolutely true today because now new occupational opportunities to gain income have developed in villages. People migrate to cities and bring money back to their villages. This has changed the traditional social structure.

Caste has acquired an additional role of operating as interest groups and associations in politics with the introduction of representative parliamentary politics. This has been noted by M.N. Srinivas (1982), Rudolph and Rudolph (1967) and Paul Brass (1965). Various caste associations have been formed transcending sub-caste boundaries to articulate caste interests. Moreover, caste has also witnessed growth of intra-caste factions with differential support to political parties and personal interest of the factional leaders. Thus, caste has undergone both the processes of fusion (merging of different castes) and fission (breaking up of a caste into parts) in the arena of politics.

There is a change in rural power structure in the period since Independence, which has led to some changes in inter-caste relationship. The Brahmins have lost their traditional dominance in South India. Kamma and Reddi in Andhra, Lingayat and Okkaliga in Karnataka, and Ahir, Jat and Kurmi in North India have emerged as the new dominant castes at local and regional levels through acquisition of economic and political power. Some traditional backward castes e.g. Nadar, Vanniyar of Tamil Nadu and Mahar of Maharashtra also have improved their social status.

In his study of Sripuram village in Tanjore district, Andre Beteille (1971) noticed the phenomenon of status incongruence. Traditionally, the upper castes owned land and monopolised political power in the village. But now, due to various institutional changes, they have lost control in political affairs to intermediate castes without losing their land to any substantial extent.

Thus, we find that caste has undergone adaptive changes. Its traditional basic features, i.e. connubial (matrimonial), commensal (eating together) and ritual, still prevail in rural areas. The core characteristics of the castes, which have affected the social relations, are still operative. However the status quo of the intermediate and low castes has changed due to their

acquiring political and/or economic power. High caste, high class and more power went together in the traditional village setting. This hegemony of the high castes has given way to differentiation of these statuses in some regions in India (Beteille 1971 & 1986), so that now high caste does not necessarily occupy a higher class position or power. It can be shown in a diagram (figure 2.3) thus:

Table 2.3: Possible changes in caste positions			
Earlier position		New Position	
		a	b
Castes	High	High	Medium
Class	High	Medium	High
Power	High	Low	High

(Source: Beteille 1971)

### Check Your Progress 3

- i) Name the title of the thesis in which G.S. Ghurye has described the six features of caste system in India. Use one line  
 .....  
 ....
- ii) What are the main features of caste system in India? Use five lines for your answer.
- iii) Fill in the blanks in the following sentences.
  - a) Exogamy means marriage ..... one's own group.
  - b) The members of a caste trace their origin from a common ancestor who might be historical, (or)
  - c) In Tamil Nadu villages the Brahmins reside in the area known as to various

## 2.5 AGRARIAN CLASS STRUCTURE

So far we have seen how social structure can be described through institutions based on birth, the family, lineage, sub-caste and caste. An alternate way of describing the structure is through class and here there are two views (i) class is a better spring board for describing structure and (ii) both caste and class are necessary to describe the structure. K.L. Sharma (1980) elaborates the second position, "caste incorporates the element of

class and class has a cultural (caste) style, hence the two systems cannot be easily separated even analytically”.

In the modern period, the British land revenue system gave rise to a more or less similar agrarian class structure in villages in India. They were the three classes of the landowners (zamindars), the tenants and the agricultural labourers. The landowners (zamindars) were tax gatherers and non-cultivating owners of land. They belonged to the upper caste groups. The agricultural labourers were placed in a position of bondsmen and hereditarily attached labourers. They belonged to the lower caste groups.

The impact of land reforms and rural development programmes introduced after independence has been significant. Land reforms led to the eviction of smaller tenants on a large scale. But the intermediate castes of peasants, e.g., the Ahir, Kurmi etc. in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh benefited. Power of the feudal landed families started declining all over the country. The onset of the Green Revolution in the 1960s led to the emergence of commercially oriented landlords. Rich farmers belonging generally to upper and intermediate castes prospered. But the fortune of the poor peasantry and the agricultural labourers did not improve. This has led to accentuation of class conflicts and tensions. Agrarian unrest in India has now become a common feature in various parts of the country.

P.C. Joshi (1971) has summarised in the following manner the trends in the agrarian class structure and relationships. (i) It led to the decline of feudal and customary types of tenancies. It was replaced by a more exploitative and insecure lease arrangement. (ii) It gave rise to a new commercial based rich peasant class who were part owners and part tenants. They had resource and enterprise to carry out commercial agriculture. (iii) It led to the decline of feudal landlord class and another class of commercial farmers emerged for whom agriculture was a business. They used the non-customary type of tenancy.

The process of social mobility has been seen in two directions. In his study of six villages in Rajasthan, K.L. Sharma (1980) observed that in some villages, not only the agricultural labourers but quite a few of the ex-landlords have slid down in class status, almost getting proletarianised.

On the contrary, the neo-rich peasantry has emerged as the new rural bourgeoisie replacing the older landlords. Ramkrishna Mukherjee (1957) in his work *Dynamics of a Rural Society* dealt with the changes in the agrarian structure suggesting that a number of classes (categories) were reduced, and that small cultivators were becoming landless workers.

Further, Kotovsky (1964) has noted the process of increasing proletarianisation of the peasantry in villages. According to him, “with the agriculture developing along capitalist lines the process of ruination and proletarianisation of the bulk of the peasantry is growing more intensely all the time”. This is substantiated by the fact that in the two decades between 1961 and 1981 the share of cultivators came down from 52.3 percent to 41.5 percent while during the same period the share of agricultural labourers increased from 17.2 percent to 25.2 percent of the total labour force. During the two decades the proportion of peasants operating less than two hectare increased from 40 percent to 55 percent of the total. By the year 2001 the share of cultivators to the total work force further declined to 31.7 percent and the share of agricultural labourers became 26.7 percent (Census Report (provisional), 2001). The increase in proportion (and certainly numbers) of agricultural labourers has gone along with a general increase in wage labourers in the rural economy.

The process of social mobility and transformation in rural India has been explained by sociologists by the terms *embourgeoisement* and *proletarianisation*. *Embourgeoisement* refers to the phenomenon of upward mobility of the intermediate class peasantry i.e., their emergence as new landlords. *Proletarianisation* describes the process of downward mobility, i.e., *depeasantisation* of small and marginal peasants and a few landlords and their entry into the rank of the rural landless agricultural labourers.

### Activity 2

If you live in a rural area, describe the changes in the methods of agriculture, in terms of its mechanisation, in your village. What do you think why farmers in your village have adopted mechanical devices in agriculture? Has this practice given them an increased income? Does this mean that such farmers have also gained in social status in the village?

Or

If you live in an urban area, read last one week's national daily newspapers, one in English and one in Hindi. Underline the news items relating to poor peasantry and agricultural labourers. Describe the main theme of these news items. Compare your notes with other students at your study centre.

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## 2.6 THE VILLAGE

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We now come to the last of the six components of rural social structure. Here, we discuss the essential nature of Indian villages and mention some of the changes taking place in village power structure and leadership.

### 2.6.1 The Issue of Village Autonomy

In the beginning, the studies by Maine (1881), Metcalfe (1833), and Baden-Powell (1896) gave an exaggerated notion of village autonomy. The Indian village was portrayed as a 'closed' and 'isolated' system. In a report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, Charles Metcalfe (1833), a British administrator in India, depicted the Indian village as a monolithic, atomistic and unchanging entity. He observed, "The village communities are little republics, having nearly everything that they want within themselves and almost independent of any foreign relations". Further, he stated that wars pass over it, regimes come and go, but the village as a society always emerges 'unchanged, unshaken, and self-sufficient'.

Recent historical, anthropological and sociological studies have however shown that Indian village was hardly ever a republic. It was never self-sufficient. It has links with the wider society (for further details on this point see unit 3 of this block). Migration, village exogamy, movement for work and trade, administrative connection, interregional market, inter-village economic and caste links and religious pilgrimage were prevalent in the past, connecting the village with the neighbouring villages and the wider society. Moreover, new forces of modernisation in the modern period augmented inter-village and rural-urban interaction. (See also units 4 and 5 of this block.)

But despite increasing external linkages village is still a fundamental social unit (Mandelbaum 1972, Orenstein 1965). People living in a village have a feeling of common identity. They have intra-village ties at familial, caste and class levels in social, economic, political and cultural domains. In fact, village life is characterised by reciprocity, cooperation, dominance and competition.

## 2.6.2 The Jajmani System

A very important feature of traditional village life in India is the 'jajmani' system. It has been studied by various sociologists, viz., William Wiser (1936), S.C. Dube (1955), Opler and Singh (1986), K. Ishwaran (1967), Lewis and Barnouw (1956). The term 'jajman' refers to the patron or recipient of specialised services and the term 'jajmani' refers to the whole relationship. In fact, the jajmani system is a system of economic, social and ritual ties among different caste groups in a village. Under this system some castes are patrons and others are serving castes. The serving castes offer their services to the landowning upper and intermediate caste and in turn are paid both in cash and kind. The patron castes are the landowning dominant castes, e.g., Rajput, Bhumihaar, Jat in the North, and Kamma, Lingayat and Reddi in Andhra Pradesh and Patel in Gujarat. The service castes comprise Brahmin (priest), barber, carpenter, blacksmith, water-carrier, leatherworker etc.

The jajmani relations essentially operate at family level (Mandelbaum 1972). A Rajput land-owning family has its jajmani ties with one family each from Brahmin, barber, carpenter etc., and a family of service caste offers its services to specific families of jajmans. However, jajmani rules are enforced by caste panchayats.

The jajmani relationship is supposed to be and often is durable, exclusive and multiple. Jajmani tie is inherited on both sides i.e. patron and client (the Jajman and the Kamin). The relationship is between specific families. Moreover, it is more than exchange of grain and money in lieu of service. On various ritual occasions, such as marriage, birth and death, the service-castes render their services to their jajman and get gifts in addition to customary payments. In factional contests each side tries to muster the support of its jajmani associates. Hence the jajmani system involves interdependence, reciprocity and cooperation between jati and families in villages.

But the jajmani system also possesses the elements of dominance, exploitation and conflict (Beidelman 1959 and Lewis and Barnouw 1956). There is a vast

### Check Your Progress 4

- i) Tick mark the correct answer in the following multiple choice questions.
  - a) Who popularised the concept of 'village autonomy' in India?
  - b) Identify the important social institutions in rural India among the following.
  - c) Family "jointness" in India is characterized by

- ii) Describe the '*jajmani* system' in about seven lines.

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## 2.7 RURAL ORGANIZATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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### School

The literature on the role of the rural elementary school in community change is examined in this paper, and certain socioeconomic factors which may be important preconditions of the decision of a community to accept or reject the school are discussed. The relationship of the community to the community school is also considered. Generally, schools have responded to rather than led or initiated changes in rural communities. Commonly communities have accepted the school when they have perceived that it can be helpful in fulfilling their existed felt needs--usually for better economic and material well-being. Once the school has been accepted for 1 reason its potential for effecting changes in other ways through the younger generation is often also greater. It is questionable whether schools can succeed if they try to promote or sustain an entirely new culture in an indifferent or hostile environment. Throughout the developing world governments have modified their early expectations that rural schools on their own could be potent tools of socioeconomic change. Studies of the role of the school in rural areas have focused upon the school itself and tended to neglect the structure of the local community and its relationship to the larger society. The ways in which kinship operates affects a community's conception of itself and its attitude towards and relationship with the school. A rural community in a poor country lacks mobility and means of communication. Where a community shares a national or mainstream culture in terms of language and religion, its decisions regarding whether to send its children to school are relatively unproblematic for its identity, for the school will mirror at least some aspects of its own culture. Where a community sees itself as a minority, there will be problems. Rural communities which, on rational appraisal of the economic situation, hesitate to send their children to school pose a dilemma for governments anxious to integrate remote and "backward" areas into the nation's economic life. Rural communities may be conceptualized on a continuum with respect to the degree to which they are more or less culturally cohesive, more or less economically self-sufficient, and more or less politically and administratively autonomous. Despite the commitment of governments and international agencies to the concept of community participation in school in the interests of rural improvement, such schemes is unlikely to serve the interests of the entire community unless a genuine mutuality of interests exists among community members.

### CO-OPERATIVES

India is mainly an agrarian society with more than half of its population still residing in the villages. Rural sector is the major contributor to the overall GDP of the nation and hence lack of development in villages means lack of development in India. Cooperative societies are playing significant role in this and share a major credit in the growth of rural sector which along with government and private sectors contribute to the overall economy of India. Cooperatives cover more than 97% of Indian villages, some run by its members and some by the government

Needs of rural people are served by different forms of private and government organizations including partnership firms, co-operatives, companies and charitable trust. Government each year spends lakhs to crores of rupees on rural development. But co-operatives working in rural areas are playing noteworthy role in this. Gujarat's Dairy co-operative and Maharashtra's sugar co-operative prove their contribution.

Cooperatives originated in the West during the middle of the last century and from there these came to India. Formally co-operatives were introduced to India in 1904 when the Indian Co-operative Societies Act was promulgated. Moreover rural indebtedness was the major force behind the initiation of chit funds and cooperatives in India. Initially these were just to provide credits to the farmers in the form of credit societies and gradually these start working in other fields such as banking, processing and marketing. The meager funds of farmers were pooled in to run cooperative and it was an attractive way to solve their financial problems. After independence role of cooperative societies grew to encompass socio-economic development and eradication of poverty in rural India. It became an integral part of five year plan. With this co-operative societies became a fundamental part of our economy.

Non-credit societies came in 1912. Importance of co-operative was also highlighted in the Royal Commission on Agriculture in 1928. With the formation of the Reserve Bank of India (RBI) in 1935, developing more cooperative societies was given due importance.

Main aim of the cooperative was to get the poor and indebted farmers out of poverty and out from the clutches of money lenders. Within short span of time, role of cooperatives extended beyond agricultural credit. It started covering activities such as production, farming, marketing and processing. Cooperatives are now playing a very significant role in the socio-economic development of our country especially the rural India.

In 1951 there were 1,81,000 cooperatives of all kinds in India and this number increased to manifold within short span of time. During 2007-08 there were 1,50,000 primary credit cooperatives and some 2,60,000 non-credit primary societies of all types. In India there are four major types of cooperatives –

- The Primary agricultural credit or service societies
- Agricultural non-credit societies
- Agricultural co-operative marketing societies
- Co-operative farming societies

Though the expansion and reach of cooperatives is highly impressive but their way of working is not. Except for few co-operative societies most of these lack motivation. These are merely run by the government without motivation and enthusiasm of their members. Some of these even lack in the required funds. Other factors that lead to the slow progress of these societies are – mismanagement, manipulation, restricted coverage, lack of awareness, and political interference. But this does not mean the downfall of the massive projects. Despite all this, cooperatives are really helping poor in becoming self-reliant. Scope of cooperative societies in rural India can improve further with women participation.

Cooperatives provide credit to the farmers, the most needed thing in the farming. Apart from this cooperatives help farmers by providing top quality fertilizers, seeds, insecticides, pesticides etc at reasonable price. Farmers also get marketing, warehousing facility and transportation support from the cooperatives. Service cooperative societies help the poor and marginal farmers with tractors, threshers etc on rent. Rural cooperative societies are now entering into real estate, power, insurance, healthcare and communication sector. If these keep on working with an objective of development then days are not far when quality of rural life would be far better than urban India.

### **Village Panchayat**

The Panchayats are expected to play an important role in rural development in India, particularly after independence. Plan documents of both the central and state governments and various committees have emphasized the importance of these bodies in the policy. Five-year plans, specially the second five-year plan, laid special emphasis on the role of Panchayats in rural developments. Rural Development in India is one of the most important factors for the growth of the Indian economy. India is primarily an agriculture-based country. Agriculture contributes nearly one-fifth of the gross domestic product in India. In order to increase the growth of agriculture, the Government has planned several programs pertaining to rural development in India.

An attempt is made to study the role of gram Panchayats in rural development in general and village's in Mathura district is rural area. Panchayati Raj is a three-tier system of administration for the development of rural areas, with the Gram Panchayat at the village level, Janpad Panchayat at the block level and Zila Parishad at the district level. It has been introduced to provide a bold and imaginative leadership for all round

development of the village community. As the economic uplift of the community cannot be entrusted to any other organization than the one represented by the village people themselves, the role of the Panchayati Raj institution in the rebuilding of rural India becomes inevitably important.

He clarifies that the community development programmes have raised a new young leadership, which is from the rural areas sections of the society. This leadership group has injected new values and hopes in the rural areas. [1] Study was Role of Panchayat Bodies in Rural Development since 1959. Many castes in towns and villages have also their own panchayats, which deal with business, social, and religious matters common to the caste. The Royal Commission describes the village in India as under The typical Indian village has its central residential site, with an open space for a pond and a cattle stand. In this book present that many people still think first of economist growth' in relation to poverty reduction, indeed, their correlation in one of the most discussed issues of combating poverty. The relationship is of great importance because if there is a clear causal dependency, reducing poverty could fundamentally be limited to measures to promote growth. However, if there was low growth or stagnation it would not be possible to reduce poverty decisively. Hardly anyone now explicitly express the view that economic development trickles down automatically to the poor practical experience has refuted this assumption dating from the early day of development policy in the 1960 s. However a number of studies show development of growth and a decline in poverty running parallel on the other hand, there are also example which show that despite high economic growth, poverty is not reduced markedly. Examined the functioning of Rural Employment Programmes in Anantapur district, a drought-prone and backward one in Andhra Pradesh. According to the guidelines the community works should be executed by the local village agencies such as village panchayats, parental/school committees and village development council that would ensure the full benefits of wages to the local workers and the quality of assets.

### **Youth Club**

Rural development in India is vital for the overall progress of the country. In rural areas, there have been many aspects that need to be focused upon, such as generation of jobs and employment for the people, construction of houses, schools and educational institutions, medical and health care facilities, agriculture, industries, nutritional requirements, focusing upon the skill development of the people and facilities such as electricity, energy, water, gas and cooking quipment. For the welfare of the rural people, these areas need to be focused upon, for the effective development of these areas the role of youth is required. In this research paper, what is the significance of the role of youth in rural development has been underscored. The main areas that are highlighted in this research paper are, identifying youth, youth participation, impediments to youth participation,

the demand for the role of youth in rural areas, youth labor markets in rural areas, and an assessment of the role of youth in rural development. Thus, it can be understood that the role of youth has been imperative in the case of rural development, provided if the youth wholeheartedly contributes and works with zest and enthusiasm.

The concept of youth has been defined by researchers as the period in an individual life that begins from the end of childhood and entry into adulthood. The individual has reached the age of maturity, but yet to acquire the complete rights and duties of adult life, like marriage and earning of livelihood both for self and for one's family. In the case of rural development and particularly agricultural development, youth constitute the compelling force; the mindset of the youth is cultivated in such a manner that they prove to be productive, especially when they have developed this objective to bring about rural development. The main reason being that youth has number of characteristics which when cultivated and nurtured prove to be invaluable towards agricultural and rural development. Youth associations have got involved in number of activities such as planting of crops, community farming, construction of village squares, contribution in enhancement and application of science and technical methods, energy conservation, construction, biotechnology and employment generation for the rural masses .

The standard of living of the rural people depends upon factors such as food and nutrition level, health, education, housing, recreation and security. Agriculture is of extreme importance and is considered to be particularly important for the rural people. The youth populations are engaged in the utilization of recommended farm inputs and technologies, they are involved into research activities to find new and innovation techniques and ideas that may be beneficial for rural development. Young people are innovative and creative in problem solving and in finding solutions: they are the key to helping communities in meeting their subsistence needs, improving the security of the people and even acquiring control over their own lives. Nearly, 50% of the world's populations are youth and children. There are 1.2 billion 15 to 24 year old in the world and one billion reside in developing countries. Young people constitute a high and a peaking portion of the world's population; they represent challenges as well as opportunities for development. The youth can lead to economic development as well as the social development of their communities and society. The participation of the youth in development has the following advantages: Identifying youth

1. Strengthens the people's abilities to satisfy their own necessities.
2. Prevents and reduces vulnerabilities to economic, social and politically unstable environments.
3. Promotes possession and sustainability of contributions.

#### 4. Assists in entering the target communities and building up trust and social capital.

The term 'participation' has several meanings; contribution, inputs, involvement, sharing, membership and partaking. There have been four main areas about participation; information-sharing, in this case, individuals are informed in order to facilitate collective and individual action. Consultation, individuals are consulted, they provide ideas and suggestions, they interact with an organization and takes account of their feedback. Decision making, youth participate and get involved in decision making, which may be individual or joint with others, decision making may be on specific issues of a policy or a project. Initiating action, youth are involved in the commencement of any kind of accomplishment

In working with young people, and valuing them as assets: as advisors, colleagues and stakeholders is crucial if development policies are to be truly representative and effective. Youth participation: the active, informed and voluntary involvement of people

in decision-making and the life of their communities both locally and worldwide are vital if this is to be achieved. In ascending order of responsibility, young people can participate in development as beneficiaries, partners and leaders .

Young people's participation is about far more than gathering their views in surveys or listening to limited numbers of representatives. Formal consultation and dialogue is useful to the extent that it a) directs decisions; and b) authentically represents a body of judgment and understanding. However, it should be part of a process whereby young people progress to greater rights and responsibilities such as citizenship; from being the objectives of outreach, to being actively engaged in the planning and implementation of development interventions. Ultimately, organizations and individuals highly committed to youth participation may want to proceed to a position of a management, where youth are working with older adults, and are becoming development professionals or leading political actors themselves. This is a key aspect of the empowerment process at the core of youth-led development, which always acknowledges the importance of local contexts and cultural values and practices.

There have been various areas that demand for the role of youth, these have been stated as follows:

#### The Demand of the Role of Youth in Rural Areas

**Agriculture:** Agriculture is stated to be the main occupation in the rural areas and this occupation requires extensive research, production, utilization of science and technology, cropping, irrigation and many more functions. Youth people who are well educated and possess efficient knowledge of how to implement agricultural activities assist in the development of agricultural activities. Making use of technologies in the

agricultural sector, implementing extensive research is the work of the youth.

**Small-Scale Industries:** In rural areas, besides agriculture, there have been setting up of small scale industries which require workers, there has been role of youth in the development of skills of the workers, who are not educated so that they can acquire jobs in industries and make a living. Employment in industries requires skills and expertise, therefore, the skill development amongst the rural masses is essential, especially amongst the women so that they can acquire jobs.

**Skill Development:** It is stated that development of skills and expertise of the people is essential for a sector to progress and develop. Whether an individual is able to read or write but skill development is imperative for progression. Skill development is in various areas such as operation of machines, manufacturing of goods, sports, music, and usage of technology, computers and so forth. Skills and talents amongst the rural masses lead to the development of the country.

**Education:** Educational institutions are essential to develop amongst the rural areas; education enables an individual to seek a living for himself, an educated person can accomplish himself. There has been encouragement of education amongst the rural masses by establishing educational institutions, and providing education free of cost. Every individual should be granted admission, irrespective of one's age and socio-economic background so that they acquire literacy and live a meaningful life.

**Employment Opportunities:** Every individual in rural areas longs for employment, have a job, and have some kind of work so that they can sustain their living. The youth people are contributing towards generation of employment opportunities for the rural masses; whether they work in the agricultural sector, industrial sector, production, manufacturing, own small tea stalls, sell beedis and other products and so forth.

### **Women's Club**

India is a country of contradictions. On the one hand, women are worshipped as deities, without whose blessings, work cannot be initiated. On the other hand, crimes against women and girls are increasing day by day in India. It is sad that in many cases, the perpetrators are known to the victims. The perpetrators could be among relatives, neighbors, friends etc. This increasing mistrust can create havoc in the Indian societal pattern. The patriarchal norms are so entrenched in the Indian society that it is very difficult to pull oneself out of this conundrum. When girls are born in most Indian families, they are not welcome, at times, even by their mothers. They lament that a son could have been a real asset for the family. Upbringing of girls is an expensive affair, where there is only loss as the girl gets married off and will serve the grooms' family throughout her life. In India, the life of a woman changes a lot after marriage. She leaves her

parents' house after marriage and starts living with the groom's family. Since childhood, she is socialized into thinking that she has to take up the food habits, dress, rituals etc of the new family. So, happily or grudgingly, she evolves her identity according to the demands of the groom's family and the groom.

A hefty sum of money is spent on her dowry. At times, the demand from the groom's family continues even after marriage. When the bride's family fails to satisfy their demands, the bride is tortured. Domestic violence is high in Indian homes. There is dowry deaths' occurring every now and then. It has been pointed out that it is always the bride who is dying and not the women in the groom's side when they are working in the kitchen. Many young brides die in the kitchen due to stove-burst, where the groom's sides mask it as an accident. Dowry-deaths of Indian girls had gone up so much that Section 498A was brought in which makes the groom and his family responsible for unnatural death of the bride within 7 years of marriage. It also has other provisions to protect Indian women after marriage. However, like all other laws, this law has also been misused by a miniscule of the population in order to take revenge on the groom. Some innocent grooms had to face wrong detainment. However, the misuse cannot be a standard to judge the efficacy of the law. If that is the standard utilized, then none of the laws can be implemented. Violation of the law cannot prevent the law from protecting the real victims of society. Right to equal inheritance to women of Hindu, Sikh, Buddhist and Jain religions, who form the majority in the country have been provided by the Indian State. But, still today, there are very few women who demand the property as they feel that it sour their relation with their brothers. In many cases, brothers are forcing them to relinquish their property right. Women lack the support system needed to contest in the courts. Rural women in India are less literate than rural men. There is a negative attitude of the family towards educating the girl child. Moreover, lack of separate toilets for girls in schools, lack of security while travelling from home to school, lack of female teachers in schools, elder sister's responsibility to look after the younger siblings when both the parents have to work to meet both ends, are some of the reasons behind the high drop-out rate of girls from schools. Primary education is free, but parents are not interested to send them to school. Right to Education has been passed by the Parliament, but it is still far when the right will be a reality. Mid day meal scheme has been formulated in order to attract the small children to school. However, this scheme received set-backs when many school children died after consuming food from the school kitchen.

Majority of rural Indian women do not have the right to choose their partner. It is always decided by the family elders and the marriage is arranged with an endogamous group, where caste plays a very important role. If the girl wishes to marry someone from other caste or tribe, the traditional leaders of the villages oppose. In states like Haryana, there are Khap Panchayats, or traditional village elders who provide punishments to

both the adult girls and boys of the same village and caste, who falls in love and marries. According to the Khap leaders, marrying someone within the village or caste is equal to marrying a sibling. They act as kangaroo courts and punish them even by awarding deaths. In many cases, the brutality of such crimes is not even opposed by the parents. Such is the power of these Khap Panchayats that the elected Members from these constituencies do not oppose them for fear of losing the vote bank in the area.

Majority of rural women suffer not only from economic poverty but also from information poverty'. Rural women are vital and productive workers in India's national economy. There is statistical bias in under estimating the role of rural women in development. Women work for longer hours than men and contribute substantially to family income, they are not perceived as productive workers. (Pankajam and Lalitha, 2005) They are silent workers who are struggling to complete her household duties from dawn to dusk. But, still, in the family, many a times, she is criticized for not being sincere in her job. If the family members had to pay for the whole household work and the free labour she provides in the small agricultural land of the rural families, then her real worth could have been realized. She does this day-in and day-out with compromising the family interest, but in very few families, she gets the respect which she should get.

Equal pay for equal work is one of the cornerstones of the gender equality movement the world over. But Labour Bureau data show there has been little progress in terms of parity of salaries for men and women for equivalent work in India. Even more alarming is the fact that even though wage disparities have always existed in rural parts of the country, in some spheres of activity, the divide has widened. So while men were paid 70 per cent higher wages than women for ploughing work at the end of 2004-05, the difference rose to 80.4 per cent in end March 2012 and stood at 93.6 per cent at the start of 2013-14. While men were paid 75 per cent more than women for well-digging work in March 2005, the difference stood at 80 per cent in the current financial year. The data indicate that daily wage disparities have by and large remained constant since 1999, though they did rise in the early 2000s. As of 2013, the discrimination in wages paid to women tends to be higher in physically intensive activities (such as ploughing and well-digging), but lower in the case of work such as sowing and harvesting. Outside the agricultural sphere, it appears that gender stereotypes won out once again, if one considers unskilled non-agricultural work. (Jayaram, 2003)

In rural India, very few women have ownership over land or productive assets. This proves to be a road block in institutional credit. Majority of the agricultural labourers are women. They mainly assigned manual labour. Men perform operations involving machinery. (Kurukshetra, 2003) Agriculture which is the mainstay of the rural Indian economy is sustained for the most part by the female workforce. They are

the invisible life line of the agrarian rural community life. Rural women from childhood days have to bear the burden of taking care of younger siblings, cooking, engaging in domestic chores, looking after the fodder of the domestic animals in their parents' house. They are married off at a very early age. Indian women are condemned to a life of serfdom, anonymity, facelessness. At the root is the 'gender insensitive' society. (Singh, 2004) According to UNICEF, child marriage is a violation of child rights. Child brides are often forced to drop out of schools, are subject to the risks of early pregnancy and are more likely to be exposed to violence and isolation. Approximately, twenty-three million girls in India face this reality. Among them, majority of them are from the rural areas. (UNICEF, 2012) National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) a Government of India organization has stated that in 2009-10 and 2011-12, women's employment has taken an alarming dip in rural areas in the past two years. In jobs that are done for 'the major part of the year', a staggering 9.1 million jobs were lost by rural women. This is a reflection of the fact that women are no longer getting longer term and better paying jobs, and so are forced to take up short term transient work. (Varma, 2013) In this gloomy scenario, Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Act is providing a positive light to rural women. Several studies have shown that with the introduction of this Act, many rural women are coming out of their house for the first time to engage in paid employment. As it is a government scheme, socio-cultural stigma of patriarchy regarding working in the public space, that has been present earlier, is slowly ebbing. Moreover, the financial independence with the work is bringing in sea change in the mentality of rural women. They are for the first time, engaging in decision making regarding spending the money. With financial empowerment, comes in social empowerment as many of them are also joining self help groups, to further their abilities.

### **Self Help Group**

Self- help groups (SHGs) play today a major role in poverty alleviation in rural India. A Growing number of poor people (mostly women) in various parts of India are members of SHGs and actively engage in savings and credit (S/C), as well as in other activities (income generation, natural resources management,

literacy, child care and nutrition, etc.). The S/C focus in the SHG is the most prominent element and offers a chance to create some control over capital, albeit in very small amounts. The SHG system has proven to be very relevant and effective in offering women the possibility to break gradually away from exploitation and isolation.

Almost all major donor agencies support SHGs in India in one way or another and many Success stories are available, describing how membership in a SHG changed the life of a particular individual or group for the better. Many NGOs in India are promoting the SHG mechanism and linking it to various other development interventions. Whereas there is

ample evidence that the SHG approach is a very effective, efficient and relevant tool for organizing and empowering the poor, problems do arise with design, development and introduction of programmes to promote income generating activities (IGAs) that will generate sufficient, sustainable and regular income. There are few documents available that critically reflect on the role of SHGs in the wider rural economy.

This section attempts to identify the role of SHGs in providing Rural Non-Farm Employment (RNFE) through enterprise development and marketing.

**THE CONCEPT OF SHG:** The concept of SHG services the principle, ‘by the women, of the women and for the women’. Self help groups are voluntary associations of people with common interests formed to achieve collective social and economic goals. Such groups are organized for mutual help and benefit. It is formed democratically without any political affiliations. They may comprise of 15–20 women and/or men, although they generally consist exclusively of women members. In India, more than 90 per cent groups are formed by women. is done at micro or group level. The initial operations of SHGs start with collecting savings from members. These groups inculcate the habit of thrift among the members. By collecting small saving huge amount can be raised. These groups advance loans to the needy members. The total funds owned by the group are thus circulated in the form of loan among the members.

### **The Concept of SHG Is Based On the Following Principles**

- Self-help supplemented with mutual help can be a powerful vehicle for the poor in their socioeconomic development;
- Participative financial services management is more responsive and efficient;
- Poor need not only credit support, but also savings and other services;
- Poor can save and are bankable and SHGs as clients, result in wider outreach, lower transaction cost and much lower risk costs for the banks;
- Creation of a common fund by contributing small savings on a regular basis;
- Flexible democratic system of working;
- Loaning is done mainly on trust with a bare documentation and without any security;
- Amounts loaned are small, frequent and for short duration;
- Defaults are rare mainly due to group pressure; and
- Periodic meetings non-traditional savings.

## 2.7 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have made an effort to understand rural social structure in India. We have begun with the concept of social structure and then identified the important institutions of rural social structure in India viz., family and kinship, caste, class and village. Further, important features and types of family in India have been discussed along with change in them. Important difference between the kinship patterns in North and South India has been noted. More over discussion on the caste system has begun with understanding the relations between '*Varna*' and Caste. Then salient features of the caste system have been discussed and the changes occurring especially in the modern period are analysed. Moreover the nature of agrarian structure has been described. Lastly, we have discussed the issue of village autonomy, prevalence of the *jajmani* system and changes in the village power structure and leadership.

## 2.8 KEYWORDS

<b>Developmental cycle</b>	In terms of the forms of family, with birth, marriage and death of its members and division of property, each family goes through a cycle of development. For example, a joint family may, after partition, be divided into several nuclear families. After the death of persons in grand - parental generation, it may become an extended family. With the marriage of a child, if the newly married persons also reside with parents, a nuclear family may become an extended family. Again, with the birth of a grandchild, the same unit may become a joint family. This constant process of change from one stage to another is given the name of developmental cycle.
<b>Embourgeoisement</b>	Bourgeoisement refers to the phenomenon of upward social mobility of lower class people, e.g., entry of a working class individual into the elite class through acquisition of wealth or power.
<b>Jointness of Family</b>	It refers to various dimensions of jointness in family structure, e.g., coresidentiality, commensality, coparcenary, obligation towards kin and sentiment of jointness.
<b>Kindred of Cooperation</b>	The kindred of cooperation are that population, within a village, in which most economic and ritual activities take place without any formalities. This is a smaller unit, referring to the actual ties of kin.

<b>Kindred of Recognition</b>	The kindred of recognition refer to that population in which cooperation in economic and ritual activities is through information and invitation. This is a larger unit, spread over several villages for each caste.
<b>Proletarianisation</b>	Proletarianisation refers to the process of downwardsocial mobility of upper class people, e.g., a landlord becoming landless labourer.
<b>Social Structure</b>	It is the organised pattern of the inter-related rights and obligations of persons and groups in a system of interaction as seen in terms of statuses, roles, institutions governed by social norms and values.
<b>‘Jajmani’ System</b>	it is an age-old social institution that refers to the inter-caste and inter- family social, economic, political and ritual ties prevalent in villages.
<b>Varna</b>	The <i>Varna</i> distributes social groups into four categories, all over India. It is a model of social and ritual hierarchy of caste groups. These are four- Brahman, Kshatriya, Vaishya and Shudra. The <i>Varna</i> provides a cultural idiom to the caste system.
<b>Village Exogamy and ‘Gotra’ Exogamy</b>	Exogamy means marrying outside the group. Village exogamy refers to the tradition of prohibiting marriage within the village in North India. Similarly, ‘gotra’ exogamy prohibits marriage within one’s own <i>gotra</i> (clan).

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## 2.9 FURTHER READING

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3. Dube, S.C. 1955. *Indian Village*. Cornell University Press: New York
4. Madan, Vandana (ed.) 2002. *The Village in India*. Oxford University Press:
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7. Srinivas, M.N. (ed.) 1978. *India’s Villages*. Media Promoters: Bombay

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**2.10 SPECIMEN ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**


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**Check Your Progress 1**

- i) Social structure is the pattern of inter-related social statuses and roles found in a society. It is the organised pattern of the inter-related rights and obligations of persons and groups in an institutionalised form having social norms and values.
- ii) According to 2001 census, there are 6,38,365 villages (including uninhabited villages) in India.
- iii) There are three main types of settlement patterns in rural areas. The most common type is the nucleated village found in most areas. Here we find a tight cluster of houses, which are surrounded by the field of the villagers. Sometimes an outlying hamlet or satellite hamlet is also found situated around this type.

**Check Your Progress 2**

- i) Some of the important dimensions of “jointness” of a family are: coresidentiality, commensality, coparcenary, depth of three generations at least, and fulfilment of obligations towards kin.
- ii) Lineage is a group of families, which trace descent from a common ancestor. They have full knowledge of the links, which they have with that common ancestor. The members of a lineage of a generation share a brother and sister relationship with each other.
- iii) Developmental cycle approach to the family in India implies that the family structure in India undergoes demographic change in a period of time. A nuclear family expands due to birth and marriage to form a joint or extended family and with death and partition again reverts back to a nuclear family.

**Check Your Progress 3**

- i) The title of the thesis written by G.S. Ghurye is Race and Caste in India.
- ii) Caste is an endogamous and hereditary social group. Each caste is traditionally associated with a hereditary occupation and members of a caste are bound by certain social rules and laws. Castes are placed in a hierarchical order. They have rules of commensality and the concept of purity and pollution is very important in caste relationships.
- iii) a) outside  
b) mythical, divine

c) agraharam

### Check Your Progress 4

i) a) (ii)

b) (iv)

c) (iv)

d) (iv)

ii) The '*jajmani*' system is found in Indian villages. It is the relationship between patrons and clients, or *Jajman* and *Kamin* of different castes, generally within a village. It is a process of exchange of goods and services between castes. Some castes are patrons and some are clients. It is an inherited relationship. The *jajmani* rules are enforced by caste panchayats in rural India.

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## UNIT III – RURAL PROBLEMS

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### Structure

#### 3.0 Objectives

#### 3.1 Introduction

#### 3.2 Poverty in the Global Context

#### 3.3 Concept and Measures of Poverty

##### 3.3.1 Relative and Absolute Poverty

##### 3.3.2 The Dimensions of Poverty

##### 3.3.3 Vulnerability and Poverty

##### 3.3.4 Measures of Poverty

#### 3.4 Illiteracy

#### 3.5 Unemployment

#### 3.6 Problems Related to Agriculture and Community Health

#### 3.7 Let Us Sum Up

#### 3.8 Keywords

#### 3.9 Further Reading

#### 3.10 Specimen Answers to Check Your Progress

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### 3.0 OBJECTIVES

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After studying the unit, you should be able to:

- Define different concepts of poverty;
  - Describe the millennium development goals;
  - Describe and apply the measures of poverty;
  - Explain the incidence and distribution of the rural poor in India;
  - Outline the profile of the rural poor;
  - Describe the strategies for poverty alleviation; and
  - Describe implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the poverty alleviation programmes.
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### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

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Eradication of poverty has been one of the guiding principles of the planning process in our country. Improvements in the living standards of people and the provision of a decent standard of living have been prominent objectives of the successive five-year plans. Identification of the poor and initiation of specific programmes that address differential needs of people steeped in poverty have been the distinguishing features of all the five-year plans. The multi-dimensional nature of poverty in India has been increasingly recognized over time and the issue of poverty has also become a global concern especially since the last decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

This unit introduces you to the concept of poverty and discusses the various ways of measuring poverty, the profile of the poor and the strategy adopted for poverty eradication in our country. The unit contains a brief description of the poverty in the global context. The definition of poverty not only covers the income or consumption measure of poverty but also encompasses other deprivations that the poor generally suffer from. The Millennium Development Goals adopted by the United Nations member countries in October 2000 incorporate some of these concerns. The national governments have defined poverty keeping in view the conditions obtaining in their respective countries. India was one of the first countries in the world to estimate people living below a clearly defined poverty line. As over 75 per cent of the poor in India reside in rural areas, this unit is devoted exclusively to the analysis of rural poverty in India

### 3.2 POVERTY IN THE GLOBAL CONTEXT

In every country there are groups of people who are categorized as poor in comparison to other groups. The discourse on poverty, however, relates to absolute levels of poverty. Most countries have defined a level of income or consumption which is necessary for a standard of living that is socially accepted as adequate. Countries have different notions of a decent standard of living. In such a situation, the need for a common definition of poverty to facilitate inter-country comparisons becomes necessary. The World Bank has estimated poverty based on *purchasing power parity* (PPP). The PPP takes into account price differences across the countries and allows international comparison of real output and income. The World Bank defined the poor as the people living on less than one US \$ per capita consumption per day at 1993 prices. On this basis 1.3 billion people or 29.6 per cent of the world's population was poor in 1990. There has been a considerable reduction in the incidence of poverty during 1990 to 1999. In 1999, 1.17 billion people or 23.2 per cent of the world's population was categorized as poor. South Asia, to which we belong, accounts for the majority of the world's poor. In 1999, 488 million South Asians, comprising 36.6 per cent of the population in South Asia had a per capita consumption expenditure of less than one US \$ per day. In our country in 1999, 34.7 per cent people survived on per capita consumption expenditure of less than one US \$ (World Bank 2002).

The monetary measures of poverty do not capture the deprivations and disabilities that the poor suffer. The concept of human poverty is, therefore, considered to cover more than the word *poor* may convey ordinarily. It includes health, education, sanitation and other aspects that have an impact on the living conditions of the people/poor. The international community in the 1990s had committed itself to achieving specific targets on the provision of health facilities, education and eradication of diseases. Conventions on environmental sustainability were also signed. In October, 2000, the heads of Governments of the United Nations Member-Countries committed themselves to eradicate "poverty, promote human dignity and

equality and achieve peace, democracy and environmental sustainability”.

The world community committed itself to achieve eight goals. These are known as the millennium development goals (MDG). Each goal has specific targets and has to be achieved by the year 2015. The MDGs are to:

- eradicate extreme poverty and hunger,
- achieve universal primary education,
- promote gender equality and empower women,
- reduce child mortality,
- improve maternal health,
- combat HIV/ AIDS, malaria and other diseases,
- ensure environmental sustainability; and
- ensure global partnership for development.

As a part of the global agreement, the developed countries have agreed to reduce debt and increase aid, trade and technology transfers to the poor countries so that the MDGs could be achieved. In March 2002 in Monterrey in Mexico and in September 2002 in Johannesburg, South Africa, the developed countries agreed to a framework for assistance to the poor countries in their fight against poverty. It is expected that the rich nations would facilitate greater resource transfer to the poor countries to achieve the MDGs.

### Check Your Progress I

**Note:** a) Write your answers in the space provided.

b) Check your answers with the possible answers provided at the end of the unit.

1) What is the definition of poverty accepted internationally?

2) What are the Millennium Development Goals?

## 3.3 CONCEPT AND MEASURES OF POVERTY

Poverty has different meanings for different people. The perception of poverty differs from person to person. Let us look at some of the more important concepts of poverty.

### 3.3.1 Relative and Absolute Poverty

The discussion on poverty is generally confined to *absolute poverty*. Absolute poverty is measured against a pre-determined level of living that families should be able to afford. Consumption of food grains, vegetables, milk products and other items that are necessary for a healthy living and access to other non-food items are included in the absolute minimum consumption basket. These standards are then converted into monetary units and defined as the poverty line. People with consumption expenditure below this threshold are considered poor. The relative position of a person or household does not matter. The one-dollar consumption expenditure per

capita in PPP dollars is an absolute poverty line accepted internationally. In our country the Planning Commission works out poverty lines for urban and rural areas respectively every year.

*Relative poverty* considers the over all income distribution and the position of a household within that distribution. The relative position of one group of people is compared with another group. The concept of relative poverty can be extended to other countries as well. In fact, in one of the first studies of poverty in India, Dadabhai Naoroji in his book '*Poverty and Un-British Rule in India*' published in 1871, indicated that India was a very poor country in comparison with Britain. United States of America had a per capita income of US\$ 35060 in 2003. United Kingdom, on the other hand, had a per capita income of US\$ 25250. United Kingdom would be considered poor in comparison with United States. Relative poverty is more closely associated with the issues of inequality. The income or consumption of the last quintile of the population could be compared with the income of the richest quintile. The last quintile population would be termed poor even though on absolute poverty definition none of the people in the last quintile group may be poor. Per capita income of a country could also be used to identify the poor. Persons with per capita incomes of half the country's per capita income could be termed as poor even though they may be in a position to afford the minimum basket of goods and services that may represent the poverty line. This again reflects concerns of equality. *Relative poverty* is thus different from *absolute poverty*, which looks more at a household's consumption, or income available for it to meet its minimum consumption needs.

### 5.3.2 The Dimensions of Poverty

Income or consumption is one of the main determinants of poverty, which, however, is related to factors other than income or consumption. People who have low incomes or consumption suffer from other deprivations as well which affect their well-being. The health status of the poor, their poor nutrition, illiteracy, social exclusion, vulnerability and lack of opportunities to develop their abilities all form parts of the broader picture/ meaning of poverty. Without these basic amenities, peoples' ability to participate in the economic process and contribute to their own well-being and the welfare of the society is adversely affected. Studies show that the poor are more prone to diseases, which adversely affect their earning capacity. Lack of education compels people to take up low paid menial jobs. The poor, therefore, get caught in a vicious cycle. As they are poor, they cannot afford health care when they fall ill. And when they fall ill, they cannot work. Their incomes go down and their poverty becomes deeper. The World Development Report 2004 (World Bank 2004) identified freedom from illness and freedom from illiteracy as the two most important ways the poor can escape poverty. The poor are excluded from political decision making processes and subjected to exploitation and discrimination. They do not possess the ability to fight the entrenched groups. Any strategy that seeks to address long-term poverty, therefore, has to take into account these dimensions of poverty. Mere provision of income or consumption would not make a major impact on the status of the poor if they continue to be subjected to social and economic discrimination. The Governments have recognized the multi-

dimensional nature of poverty. The millennium development goals discussed in Section 5.2 reflect different dimensions of poverty. In India, the State Governments and the Central Government have stepped up substantially the allocations for the provision of health, education and other facilities to the poor. Role of education in promoting the welfare of the poor has been recognized by enacting the right to education as a fundamental right in our country. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan launched in the year 2001 is a pointer that other dimensions of poverty are considered as important as the monetary measures of poverty.

### **5.3.3 Vulnerability and Poverty**

Vulnerability refers to the possibility that a person or a family that may be non-poor today could fall into the trap of poverty in future. Even within the groups of poor people, persons who may only be marginally poor may fall into chronic poverty. The concept of vulnerability can be analyzed at different levels. It could be studied at the level of single households. Also, the analysis could be area specific, or extended to the national and international levels. A family's ability to tide over external shocks determines whether the family is vulnerable or not. For example, in a household, which may be marginally above poverty line, illness or death of the primary breadwinner of the family could have severe implications for the family's standard of living. At the regional level, people residing in the drought prone, flood prone and the desert areas could be termed as vulnerable. A drought could wipe out the productive assets of a family and push it into poverty. Vulnerability could arise from both expected and unexpected quarters. Agricultural labourers experience vulnerability in the lean agricultural season when employment opportunities are limited. This is an example of expected vulnerability situation. Sudden floods, droughts or earthquakes represent unexpected shocks. At the international level, vulnerability is associated more with the political and economic developments than any other factors. Many countries that depend exclusively on single crops have experienced large fluctuations in their income. Such fluctuations have led to impoverishment of people whatever the country. The poor are much more vulnerable to such external shocks than the non-poor. Vulnerability analysis enables communities and Governments to devise approaches to reduce the risk of vulnerability. Social security schemes and public works programmes are some of the major strategies adopted by the Governments to provide protection to the people.

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### **3.4 ILLITERACY**

Illiteracy in individuals stems from different, generally inter-related causes which, together, create a series of often insurmountable barriers for those concerned.

For instance, for someone born into an underprivileged milieu to parents with little formal schooling, the likelihood of being illiterate or experiencing serious learning difficulties will be higher. This is known as intergenerational transmission of illiteracy.

The following are the most frequent causes of illiteracy in adults:

- Parents with little schooling;
- Lack of books at home and lack of stimulation as to the importance of reading;
- Doing badly at or dropping out of school—many have not completed high school;
- Difficult living conditions, including poverty;
- Learning disabilities, such as dyslexia, dysorthographia, etc.

Adults aged 45 and over with low literacy skills have the distinction of belonging to generations for whom there were attractive job opportunities despite a lower level of schooling. A very large number of them have always worked in the same field, founding their families, and thus have never felt the need to go back to school.

Owing to the closing of many companies over the past few years, especially in the manufacturing and primary sectors, these people have found themselves out of work, and are often unable to find a new job, because they have difficulty reading and writing. Also, they lack the necessary skills to meet current market requirements or to register in training that would allow them to requalify.

### **Consequences of Illiteracy**

#### **For individuals**

Limited ability to obtain and understand essential information;

Unemployment: The unemployment rate is 2–4 times higher among those with little schooling than among those with Bachelor's degrees;

Lower income;

Lower-quality jobs;

Reduced access to lifelong learning and professional development;

Precarious financial position;

Little value is given to education and reading within the family, and this often leads to intergenerational transmission of illiteracy;

Low self-esteem, which can lead to isolation;

Impact on health: Illiterate individuals have more workplace accidents, take longer to recover and more often misuse medication through ignorance of health care resources and because they have trouble reading and understanding the relevant information (warnings, dosage, contraindications, etc.).

#### **For society**

Since literacy is an essential tool for individuals and states to be competitive in the new global knowledge economy, many positions remain vacant for lack of personnel adequately trained to hold them;

The higher the proportion of adults with low literacy proficiency is, the slower the overall long-term GDP growth rate is;

The difficulty understanding societal issues lowers the level of community involvement and civic participation.

Without the basic tools necessary for achieving their goals, individuals without an adequate level of literacy cannot be involved fully and on a completely equal basis in social and political discourse.

### 3.5 UNEMPLOYMENT

In simple words a person, who is not gainfully employed in any productive activity, is called unemployed. Unemployment could be voluntary or involuntary. However, there is no scientific treatment with the help of which we can distinguish between voluntary and involuntary unemployment. Generally speaking people in the age group of 15-59 years are considered to be in the working population of a country and the concept of unemployment is restricted to this group of people only. That is, children and old persons are not included in the definition of unemployment. However, some economists suggest a broader definition. It should include (i) all persons (men, women and children) who are working and (ii) those not working, but are searching for work. There may be a section of society, which is not interested, in any gainful employment. There may be some people who may be interested in jobs at wage rates higher than those prevailing in the labour market. Persons falling in above two categories are called voluntarily unemployed.

Involuntary unemployment is characterized by a situation in which people are prepared to work at prevailing wage rate but they are not able to get employment.

In economics the term “unemployment” refers to only involuntary unemployment and not voluntary employment.

The problem of unemployment in underdeveloped economies is different from that in developed economies. In developed economies generally unemployment takes the form of cyclical unemployment or frictional unemployment. Cyclical unemployment arises due to cyclical movements in economic activities. Frictional unemployment takes place because of shift to a new technology. Thus, cyclical and frictional unemployment are temporary in nature.

On the other hand, the nature of unemployment in underdeveloped economies is basically structural in nature. In an under-developed economy the demand for labour is less mainly due to agricultural backwardness, undeveloped industries and small size of the service sector. Although the type of unemployment found in underdeveloped economies fits into the definition of involuntary unemployment, is much different from the nature of unemployment found in developed economies.

#### Check Your Progress 1

- 1) What are the causes of unemployment?
- 2) What is the meaning of Rural unemployment?

3) How is the nature of unemployment in underdeveloped economies different from that in developed economies?

### **NATURE OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN INDIA**

In India the problem of unemployment is much more serious than what we find in developed economies. India is an under-developed though a developing economy. It is important to emphasize that unemployment in underdeveloped economy like India is not the result of deficiency in effective demand but in fact a result of shortage of capital equipment and complimentary resources. In India there are various types of unemployment. Generally speaking it takes the forms of rural unemployment and urban unemployment.

#### **Rural Unemployment**

Bulk of unemployment in India is found in the rural areas. There are two main aspects of rural unemployment: seasonal and chronic disguised unemployment.

Agriculture is the principal occupation in rural India. By nature agriculture is a seasonal occupation. Therefore bulk of rural population remains seasonally unemployed in the absence of alternative employment opportunities. It has been estimated that a sizeable portion of population engaged in agriculture remains idle for at least 5-7 months in a year.

Second aspect of rural unemployment is chronic disguised unemployment. As per the 1991 census report about two third of the population is engaged in the primary sector (agriculture and allied activities). Working population in agriculture is increasing consistently in absolute terms. While in 1951 over 100 million persons were engaged in agricultural sector, in 1997 their number rose to 237.31 million. Such a big increase in the working population engaged in this sector without there being a corresponding increase in the area of cultivation, has resulted in overcrowding in agriculture. This is a situation where even if surplus population is withdrawn from agriculture, production will not be affected (provided the remaining labour force works to the best of its abilities). Such a type of situation is described as disguised unemployment or underemployment. In the words of Nurkse, marginal productivity of surplus labour so defined is zero. The main problem in this type of unemployment is that apparently all persons seem to be employed but enough work is not available to all. An example will make this concept of disguised unemployment more clear. Suppose there are 10 persons working on the farm, while less work is available. This work is shared by all persons working on the farms, as there exists no employment opportunity. If some workers are withdrawn from the farm, those remaining at farm are able to accomplish the work and farm output does not get affected, such a situation is called disguised unemployment.

Another aspect of unemployment in rural areas, which needs special attention, is the educated unemployment. With the spread of education in rural areas, there has emerged a class in rural areas also which is literate and in some cases even highly educated. They find themselves misfit in usual agricultural operations. They remain idle in rural areas due to lack of employment opportunities outside rural areas.

Concept of rural unemployment is important to understand the phenomenon of rural poor. Unemployed or underemployed in rural areas constitute

mainly the class of rural poor. This class mainly consists of landless labourers and marginal farmers. Therefore, solution for eradication of rural poverty lies in eradication of unemployment.

1) “National Sample Surveys shows that over the period 1983 to 1993-94, the proportion of those educated to a level of secondary school or higher among the unemployed persons increased from 47 per cent to 64 per cent. While a high proportion of the literates among unemployed shows un-utilisation of scarce resources put in for education of the people, it also indicates a mismatch between the kind of job opportunities that are needed and those available in the job market. Clearly the increase of literates among the unemployed and further among the literate unemployed, of those with higher level of educational attainment points to the need for skilled jobs rather than the simple low productive manual labour that an illiterate has to resort to for a living”.

Thirdly, there are emerging trends of underemployment of those who are seeking job on part-time basis, while they pursue their studies. Such job seekers, if they do not get jobs of their satisfaction, could be called underemployed. There could be many others, who have completed their education, but are not able to get job to the best of their abilities and capacities.

### **Check Your Progress 3**

- 1) What are the two main types of unemployment found in rural India?
- 2) Explain the nature of disguised unemployment in India.
- 3) What are the different kinds of unemployment found in urban areas?

### **CAUSES OF UNEMPLOYMENT**

Foregoing analysis about trends and structure of unemployment in India, reveals the gravity of the problem. Now let us discuss the main causes of unemployment. These are :

- i) slow economic growth process,
- ii) rapid increase in labour force,
- iii) inappropriate technology, and
- iv) inappropriate education system and lack of manpower planning .

### **Slow Economic Growth Process**

It is no doubt that the problem of unemployment is found in both developed as well as underdeveloped economies. Despite high incomes of these developed economies, problem of unemployment is prevalent there too. But the kind of unemployment found in underdeveloped countries is basically due to its low levels of development and slow growth process.

It is expected that as an economy grows, production expands and thus the employment opportunities. We find that in the past, after Independence there has been growth in production. As a result, absolute level of employment has also risen. But rate of growth in production has been less than the target.

As a result, adequate number of employment opportunities could not be created.

But we should also keep in mind that growth alone is not expected to solve the problem of unemployment. Some economists have hinted at a possible conflict between employment and economic growth, in the early phase of development. In India also this conflict has been very apparent. In the early plans till sixth five-year plan this conflict was not recognized. As a result, although absolute level of employment increased, it was hardly sufficient to solve the problem of unemployment.

### **Increase in Labour Force**

There has been significant growth in the labour force in the last fifty years, due to fast growing population. Since Independence, death rate has been declining very fast, without a corresponding fall in birth rate. As a result, population is growing at a very high rate; at present rate of growth of population is around 2%. This is naturally followed by fast expansion in labour force.

There is another factor, which has led to increase in labour force, due to urbanization and changed attitude towards employment. After Independence, education among women has led to change in attitude of women towards employment. They now compete with men for employment. This phenomenon is more prevalent in urban areas.

Thus rapid growth in labour force can be ascribed to (i) fast growing population, (ii) changed attitude of women towards employment, (iii) failure of growth process to create sufficient additional jobs. All these factors have increased the problem of unemployment.

### **Inappropriate Technology**

We understand that, in India labour is abundant while capital is a scarce factor of production. Therefore, to solve the problem of unemployment, we need to adopt such a technology, which makes use of more labour and less of capital to produce a given level of output. But, it is unfortunate that not only in industries, even in agricultural production capital is substituting labour very fast. Thus, capital-labour ratio has increased in production process. Technological change has been labour-saving.

While making a choice about technology, normally western model is adopted. We understand that in the west, labour is scarce and capital is abundant. Therefore, for them appropriate technology is capital intensive. But in India we cannot justify the use of more sophisticated and round about methods of production, which substitute capital for labour. But adoption of such a technology has led to larger unemployment.

A pertinent question at this point is that why, despite abundance of labour, capital-intensive technology is adopted in India. This happens because rate of return on capital and labour are not market determined. While on the one hand, labour is assured of minimum wages, rate of interest is kept low arbitrarily. As a result, people are inclined to make more use of capital-intensive technology, as it is economically more viable. According to W.A. Lions, investment in such a situation in capital equipment may be more

profitable to individual capitalist but certainly not beneficial to society because it increases unemployment.

Rigid labour laws in India have also contributed towards adoption of capital-intensive production process. On the part of industries, it is quite difficult to reduce number of employees. Once a person is recruited, most likely he/she will be retained for life. In addition, labour-unrest and lack of work-culture has increased inefficiency of labour. These factors, again, have provided incentives for addition of labour-saving technology.

### **Inappropriate Educational System and Lack of Manpower Planning**

We inherited educational system from our colonial rulers. Macaulay, who designed educational policy during the colonial period, had in mind the interests of British government. Macaulay designed a system, which could merely produce clerks and lower cadre executives for the British Government. Even after Independence, there has been a fast expansion in the number of institutions, which impart education in arts and commerce. There has been a very little expansion in educational and training institutions providing technical, engineering and medical education. As a result, there has been a fast growth of unemployment among educated men and women, while shortage of technical and specialized personnel remained. Therefore, there is a need to change our educational system to an appropriate one, which takes into account needs of the society and develops human resources accordingly.

Moreover, there has been a total lack of manpower planning in India. For steady growth of any economy human resources play an important role. There should be long term planning for the provision of appropriate skills for meeting the requirements of development. No doubt there has been an increase in facilities for higher education, technical education, training in different fields, but they were not in accordance with development needs. The obvious result is surplus of manpower in some fields and deficit in others. We find widespread unemployment among graduates, postgraduates and even researchers in humanities while there is scarcity of physicians, engineers and technical personnel.

### **Check Your Progress 4**

1) What are the main causes of the problem of unemployment in India? Explain.

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## **3.6 PROBLEMS RELATED TO AGRICULTURE**

While agriculture's share in India's economy has progressively declined to less than 15% due to the high growth rates of the industrial and services sectors, the sector's importance in India's economic and social fabric goes well beyond this indicator. First, nearly three-quarters of India's families depend on rural incomes. Second, the majority of India's poor (some 770

million people or about 70 percent) are found in rural areas. And third, India's food security depends on producing cereal crops, as well as increasing its production of fruits, vegetables and milk to meet the demands of a growing population with rising incomes. To do so, a productive, competitive, diversified and sustainable agricultural sector will need to emerge at an accelerated pace.

India is a global agricultural powerhouse. It is the world's largest producer of milk, pulses, and spices, and has the world's largest cattle herd (buffaloes), as well as the largest area under wheat, rice and cotton. It is the second largest producer of rice, wheat, cotton, sugarcane, farmed fish, sheep & goat meat, fruit, vegetables and tea. The country has some 195 m ha under cultivation of which some 63 percent are rainfed (roughly 125m ha) while 37 percent are irrigated (70m ha). In addition, forests cover some 65m ha of India's land.

### Challenges

Three agriculture sector challenges will be important to India's overall development and the improved welfare of its rural poor:

1. Raising agricultural productivity per unit of land: Raising productivity per unit of land will need to be the main engine of agricultural growth as virtually all cultivable land is farmed. Water resources are also limited and water for irrigation must contend with increasing industrial and urban needs. All measures to increase productivity will need exploiting, amongst them: increasing yields, diversification to higher value crops, and developing value chains to reduce marketing costs.

2. Reducing rural poverty through a socially inclusive strategy that comprises both agriculture as well as non-farm employment: Rural development must also benefit the poor, landless, women, scheduled castes and tribes. Moreover, there are strong regional disparities: the majority of India's poor are in rain-fed areas or in the Eastern Indo-Gangetic plains. Reaching such groups has not been easy. While progress has been made - the rural population classified as poor fell from nearly 40% in the early 1990s to below 30% by the mid-2000s (about a 1% fall per year) – there is a clear need for a faster reduction. Hence, poverty alleviation is a central pillar of the rural development efforts of the Government and the World Bank.

3. Ensuring that agricultural growth responds to food security needs: The sharp rise in food-grain production during India's Green Revolution of the 1970s enabled the country to achieve self-sufficiency in food-grains and stave off the threat of famine. Agricultural intensification in the 1970s to 1980s saw an increased demand for rural labor that raised rural wages and, together with declining food prices, reduced rural poverty. However agricultural growth in the 1990s and 2000s slowed down, averaging about 3.5% per annum, and cereal yields have increased by only 1.4% per annum in the 2000s. The slow-down in agricultural growth has become a major cause for concern. India's rice yields are one-third of China's and about half of those in Vietnam and Indonesia. The same is true for most other agricultural commodities.

Policy makers will thus need to initiate and/or conclude policy actions and public programs to shift the sector away from the existing policy and institutional regime that appears to be no longer viable and build a solid foundation for a much more productive, internationally competitive, and diversified agricultural sector.

### **Priority Areas for Support**

#### **1. Enhancing agricultural productivity, competitiveness, and rural growth**

Promoting new technologies and reforming agricultural research and extension: Major reform and strengthening of India's agricultural research and extension systems is one of the most important needs for agricultural growth. These services have declined over time due to chronic underfunding of infrastructure and operations, no replacement of aging researchers or broad access to state-of-the-art technologies. Research now has little to provide beyond the time-worn packages of the past. Public extension services are struggling and offer little new knowledge to farmers. There is too little connection between research and extension, or between these services and the private sector.

Improving Water Resources and Irrigation/Drainage Management: Agriculture is India's largest user of water. However, increasing competition for water between industry, domestic use and agriculture has highlighted the need to plan and manage water on a river basin and multi-sectoral basis. As urban and other demands multiply, less water is likely to be available for irrigation. Ways to radically enhance the productivity of irrigation ("more crop per drop") need to be found. Piped conveyance, better on-farm management of water, and use of more efficient delivery mechanisms such as drip irrigation are among the actions that could be taken. There is also a need to manage as opposed to exploit the use of groundwater. Incentives to pump less water such as levying electricity charges or community monitoring of use have not yet succeeded beyond sporadic initiatives. Other key priorities include: (i) modernizing Irrigation and Drainage Departments to integrate the participation of farmers and other agencies in managing irrigation water; (ii) improving cost recovery; (iii) rationalizing public expenditures, with priority to completing schemes with the highest returns; and (iv) allocating sufficient resources for operations and maintenance for the sustainability of investments.

Facilitating agricultural diversification to higher-value commodities: Encouraging farmers to diversify to higher value commodities will be a significant factor for higher agricultural growth, particularly in rain-fed areas where poverty is high. Moreover, considerable potential exists for expanding agro-processing and building competitive value chains from producers to urban centers and export markets. While diversification initiatives should be left to farmers and entrepreneurs, the Government can, first and foremost, liberalize constraints to marketing, transport, export and processing. It can also play a small regulatory role, taking due care that this does not become an impediment.

Promoting high growth commodities: Some agricultural sub-sectors have particularly high potential for expansion, notably dairy. The livestock sector, primarily due to dairy, contributes over a quarter of agricultural GDP and is a source of income for 70% of India's rural families, mostly those who are poor and headed by women. Growth in milk production, at about 4% per annum, has been brisk, but future domestic demand is expected to grow by at least 5% per annum. Milk production is constrained, however, by the poor genetic quality of cows, inadequate nutrients, inaccessible veterinary care, and other factors. A targeted program to tackle these constraints could boost production and have good impact on poverty.

Developing markets, agricultural credit and public expenditures: India's legacy of extensive government involvement in agricultural marketing has created restrictions in internal and external trade, resulting in cumbersome and high-cost marketing and transport options for agricultural commodities. Even so, private sector investment in marketing, value chains and agro-processing is growing, but much slower than potential. While some restrictions are being lifted, considerably more needs to be done to enable diversification and minimize consumer prices. Improving access to rural finance for farmers is another need as it remains difficult for farmers to get credit. Moreover, subsidies on power, fertilizers and irrigation have progressively come to dominate Government expenditures on the sector, and are now four times larger than investment expenditures, crowding out top priorities such as agricultural research and extension.

## **2. Poverty alleviation and community actions**

While agricultural growth will, in itself, provide the base for increasing incomes, for the 170 million or so rural persons that are below the poverty line, additional measures are required to make this growth inclusive. For instance, a rural livelihoods program that empowers communities to become self-reliant has been found to be particularly effective and well-suited for scaling-up. This program promotes the formation of self-help groups, increases community savings, and promotes local initiatives to increase incomes and employment. By federating to become larger entities, these institutions of the poor gain the strength to negotiate better prices and market access for their products, and also gain the political power over local governments to provide them with better technical and social services. These self-help groups are particularly effective at reaching women and impoverished families.

## **3. Sustaining the environment and future agricultural productivity**

In parts of India, the over-pumping of water for agricultural use is leading to falling groundwater levels. Conversely, water-logging is leading to the build-up of salts in the soils of some irrigated areas. In rain-fed areas on the other hand, where the majority of the rural population live, agricultural practices need adapting to reduce soil erosion and increase the absorption of rainfall. Overexploited and degrading forest land need mitigation measures. There are proven solutions to nearly all of these problems. The most comprehensive is through watershed management programs, where communities engage in land planning and adopt agricultural practices that protect soils, increase water absorption and raise productivity through higher

yields and crop diversification. At issue, however, is how to scale up such initiatives to cover larger areas of the country. Climate change must also be considered. More extreme events – droughts, floods, erratic rains – are expected and would have greatest impact in rain-fed areas. The watershed program, allied with initiatives from agricultural research and extension, may be the most suited agricultural program for promoting new varieties of crops and improved farm practices. But other thrusts, such as the livelihoods program and development of off-farm employment may also be key.

### **World Bank Support**

With some \$5.5 billion in net commitments from both IDA and IBRD, and 24 ongoing projects, the World Bank's agriculture and rural development program in India is by far the Bank's largest such program worldwide in absolute dollar terms. This figure is even higher when investments in rural development such as rural roads, rural finance and human development are included. Nonetheless, this amount is relatively small when compared with the Government's - both central and state - funding of public programs in support of agriculture. Most of the Bank's agriculture and rural development assistance is geared towards state-level support, but some also takes place at the national level.

The Bank's Agricultural and Rural Development portfolio is clustered across three broad themes with each project, generally, showing a significant integration of these themes.

- Agriculture, watershed and natural resources management
- Water & irrigated agriculture
- Rural livelihood development

Over the past five to ten years, the Bank has been supporting:

R&D in Agricultural Technology through two national level projects with pan-India implementation (the National Agriculture Technology Project and the National Agriculture Innovation Project) coordinated by the Government of India's Indian Council for Agricultural Research (ICAR).

Dissemination of Agricultural Technology: New approaches towards the dissemination of agricultural technology such as the Agriculture Technology Management Agency (ATMA) model have contributed to diversification of agricultural production in Assam and Uttar Pradesh. This extension approach is now being scaled-up across India.

Better delivery of irrigation water: World Bank support for the better delivery of irrigation water ranges from projects covering large irrigation infrastructure to local tanks and ponds. Projects also support the strengthening of water institutions in several states (Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh) improved groundwater management practices (for instance, in the upcoming Rajasthan Agriculture Competitiveness Project).

Sustainable agricultural practices through watershed and rainfed agriculture development (Karnataka, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand), soil reclamation efforts (Uttar Pradesh) and, more recently, improved groundwater

management practices (for instance, in the upcoming Rajasthan Agriculture Competitiveness Project).

Improved access to rural credit and greater gender involvement in rural economic activities through rural livelihood initiatives undertaken by a number of states (Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu) and soon to be scaled up by GOI with Bank support through a National Rural Livelihood Mission.

Agricultural insurance by advising GOI on how to improve the actuarial design and implementation of the insurance program (e.g. rating methodology and product design, index insurance, use of mobile and remote sensing technology to measure yields, etc.).

Improved farmer access to agriculture markets through policy reforms and investments under the Maharashtra Agricultural Competitiveness Project which aims to reform regulated wholesale markets and provide farmers with alternative market opportunities.

The land policy agenda through analytical work as well as non-lending technical assistance in support of GOI's National Land Records Modernization Program.

Better rural connectivity through IDA support to the Prime Minister's National Rural Roads Program (PMGSY), and by connecting rural poor and smallholder farmers through collective action to public services through Self-Help Groups (and SHG federations), Water User Associations and Farmer Producer Organizations. Recently the Bank's Board of Executive Directors approved the National Rural Livelihood Mission, which supports SHG approaches through a pan-India approach.

**The following points will highlight the seven major problems of Indian agriculture.**

### **Instability:**

Agriculture in India is largely depends on monsoon. As a result, production of food-grains fluctuates year after year. A year of abundant output of cereals is often followed by a year of acute shortage.

This, in its turn, leads to price income and employment fluctuations. However, for the thirteen year, in successive (1987-88 to 1999-00) a normal monsoon has been observed.

### **Cropping Pattern:**

The crops that are grown in India are divided into two broad categories: food crops and non-food crops. While the former comprise food-grains, sugarcane and other beverages, the latter includes different kinds of fibres and oilseeds.

In recent years there has occurred a fall in agricultural production mainly due to fall in the output of non-food articles. Moreover rabi production has become as important as kharif production in the late 1990s. In 1999-2000, for example, of the total grain production of 209 mn. tones, rabi accounted

for 104 mn. tones. This indicates a structural change in agricultural production.

### **Land Ownership:**

Although the owner-ship of agricultural land in India is fairly widely distributed, there is some degree of concentration of land holding. Inequality in land distribution is also due to the fact that there are frequent changes in land ownership in India. It is believed that large parcels of land in India are owned by a- relatively small section of the rich farmers, landlords and money-lenders, while the vast majority of farmers own very little amount of land, or no land at all.

Moreover, most holdings are small and uneco-nomic. So the advantages of large-scale farming cannot be derived and cost per unit with 'uneco-nomic' holdings is high, output per hectare is hec-tare is low. As a result peasants cannot generate sufficient marketable surplus. So they are not only poor but are often in debt.

### **Sub-Division and Fragmentation of Hold-ing:**

Due to the growth of population and break-down of the joint family system, there has occurred continuous sub-division of agricultural land into smaller and smaller plots. At times small farmers are forced to sell a portion of their land to repay their debt. This creates further sub-division of land.

Sub-division, in its turn, leads to fragmenta-tion of holdings. When the size of holdings be-come smaller and smaller, cultivation becomes un-economic. As a result a major portion of land is not brought under the plough.

Such sub-division and fragmentation make the efficient use of land virtually impossible and add to the difficulties of increasing capital equip-ment on the farm. All these factors account for the low productivity of Indian agriculture.

### **Land Tenure:**

The land tenure system of India is also far from perfect. In the pre-independence period, most tenants suffered from insecurity of tenancy. They could be evicted any time. How-ever, various steps have been taken after Independ-ence to provide security of tenancy.

### **Conditions of Agricultural Labourers:**

The conditions of most agricultural labourers in India are far from satisfactory. There is also the problem of surplus labour or disguised unemploy-ment. This pushes the wage rates below the sub-sistence levels.

### **Other Problems:**

There are various other problems of Indian agriculture. These are related to:

- (i) The systems and techniques of farming,
- (ii) The marketing of agricultural products and
- (iii) The indebtedness of the farmers.

These problems may now be discussed separately:

**(i) The Systems and Techniques of Farming:**

**(a) Neglect of crop rotation:**

Successful conduct of agricultural operations depends upon a proper rotation of crops. If cereals are grown on a plot of land its fertility is reduced to some extent. This can be restored if other crops such as pulses are grown on the same plot on a rotational basis. Most farmers in India are illiterate and do not understand this important point. Since they are not aware of the need for crop rotation they use the same type of crop and, consequently, the land loses its fertility considerably.

**(b) Inadequate use of manures and fertilisers:**

Inadequate use of manures like cow-dung or vegetable refuse and chemical fertilisers makes Indian agriculture much less productive than Japanese or Chinese agriculture.

**(c) The use of poor quality seeds:**

In India, not much use has been made of improved varieties of seeds. The main cereals (rice, millets and pulses) are still grown chiefly with unimproved seeds.

**(d) Inadequate water supply:**

Farmers also suffer due to lack of irrigation facilities. Moreover, ordinary varieties of seed can be replaced by better varieties if there is an assured supply of water. The need for the construction of minor irrigation works of a local nature is both urgent and pressing. In fact, the total water potential in the country is more than adequate to irrigate the whole areas under cultivation. However, the present problem is one of discovering cheap and easy methods of utilising these vast supplies of water.

**(e) Inadequate use of efficient farm equipment:**

The method of cultivation in most areas of India are still primitive. Most farmers continue to use native plough and other accessories. However, the problem is not one of shortage of modern machinery. The real problem is that the units of cultivation are too small to permit the use of such machinery.

**(ii) Agricultural Marketing:**

One of the major causes of low income of the Indian farmers is the difficulty in marketing their crops. Due to the small size and scattered nature of agricultural holdings, the productivity per acre is low. Consequently, the collection of these surpluses for the purpose of marketing presents a serious problem.

Agricultural marketing problems arose due to the lack of communications, i.e., connecting the producing centres with the urban areas which are the main centres of consumption. The difficulty of communication prevents the

farmer from marketing his own produce. So he has to rely on a number of middlemen (intermediaries) for the disposal of “his crops at cheap prices.

### **(iii) Agricultural Credit:**

The typical Indian farmer is almost always in debt. The farmer is a perennial debtor.

Once the farmer falls, into debt due to crop failure or low prices of crops or malpractices of moneylenders he can never come out of it. In fact, a large part of the liabilities of farmers is ‘ancestral debt’. Thus, along with his landed property, he passes on his debt to his successors.

There are four main causes of rural indebtedness:

- (a) Low earning power of the borrower
- (b) Use of loan for unproductive purposes
- (c) The excessively high rate of interest charged by the moneylenders
- (d) The manipulation of accounts by the lenders

### **(iv) Agricultural Prices:**

In order to increase food production, it is necessary to ensure that prices of Food-grains set by the Government from time to time give sufficient incentive to farmers so that they can earn reasonable incomes. In India, bumper crop leads to fall in revenue of farmers.

### **Need for price stabilization:**

In view of the rising and fluctuating trends in agricultural prices, there is need for stabilization of prices of agricultural commodities. Price fluctuation in any direction may spell disaster since both rising and falling prices have had harmful consequences.

The Agricultural Prices Commission (now it is called Agricultural Cost and Price Commission) takes up a number of aspects of price policy, such as minimum support prices (MSP), procurement prices (PP), issue prices of food-grains (IPF).

In recent years while the well-to-do farmers have benefitted from the hikes in support prices, small and marginal farmers, faced with difficulties in the matter of credit and obtaining the right type of inputs, have been in trouble. Paradoxically two years of an upswing in agriculture (1999-2000) have led to a sharp fall in prices and added to the distress of farmers in most parts of the country. At the same time, an unprecedented pile-up of procured food-grains held by State agencies totaling over 50 million tones has added to the burdens on the budget.

Given the low off-take in the public distribution system (PDS), accumulation of food-stocks is resulting in a large burden of food subsidy. The low off-take in PDS is due to the fact that market prices are lower and supplies are plentiful. The Government has also not been able to utilise any

large volume of surplus stocks in food-for-Work programmes in drought areas.

Truly speaking, if agriculture is to be a viable long-term economic base for the farming community, it is important to recognize that the farmers' interests are better served by a more efficient system of production, rather than high prices. Planners should take note of this point.

The community you live in is part of who you are. Even if you don't see your neighbors every day, you recognize that the decisions you make impact those around you. You're all in it together, and you wouldn't have it any other way!

Improving your community and helping others is often at the top of your mind. So when the phrase "community health" crossed your radar, you had to know more. What is community health? And how does it affect the lives of those in your area?

## **COMMUNITY HEALTH**

Community health is the intersection of healthcare, economics and social interaction. Unfortunately, many people are unaware of the role this type of healthcare plays in their everyday lives. Join us as we explore the impact of community health on your neighborhood—and what you can do to improve it.

### **Community health – Meaning**

Community health is a medical specialty that focuses on the physical and mental well-being of the people in a specific geographic region. This important subsection of public health includes initiatives to help community members maintain and improve their health, prevent the spread of infectious diseases and prepare for natural disasters.

"Working at the community level promotes healthy living, helps prevent chronic diseases and brings the greatest health benefits to the greatest number of people in need," reports the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).<sup>1</sup>

Strong community health requires residents to look beyond themselves and take "collective responsibility," says Caleb Backe, health and wellness expert at Maple Holistics. "It's not just about the healthcare system, but focuses on the importance of leading a generally healthy lifestyle in order to protect the community as a whole."

Community health is inextricably tied to individual wellness. "Good community health equates to healthy people, as a community is the ecosystem or environment in which people live," says Thomas G. Bognanno, president and CEO of Community Health Charities. "It's difficult to be healthy personally if your community is unhealthy."

### **The far-reaching impact of community health**

Community health flips the script on the old adage, "You take care of you; I'll take care of me." Instead, public health experts agree that the health of a community can have far-reaching—and sometimes surprising—impacts on individual health and beyond.

“Community health impacts everything—educational achievement, safety and crime, people’s ability to work and be financially healthy, life expectancy, happiness and more,” Bognanno says. “Health impacts every other facet of life, from a child’s ability to learn to an adult’s ability to work, so health is critical for education and financial well-being.”

The effect of health on quality of life can also impact the desire to participate in civic duties like voting, social functions and leisure activities, according to Healthy People 2020, an initiative of the Office of Disease Prevention and Health Promotion.<sup>2</sup>

Communities that are attentive to public health can even reduce inequality among their residents. “[Community health] also helps to reduce health gaps caused by differences in race and ethnicity, location, social status, income and other factors that can affect health,” reports the CDC.<sup>1</sup>

### **The consequences of neglecting community health**

A lack of focus on community health can lead to a range of complex problems that aren’t easy to correct. For example, crime and safety issues that result from neglected community health can quickly becoming a self-perpetuating cycle. “Repeated exposure to crime and violence may be linked to an increase in negative health outcomes. Children exposed to violence may show increased signs of aggression starting in upper-elementary school,” reports Healthy People 2020.<sup>2</sup>

Chronic diseases, such as diabetes and heart disease, can also increase if a community’s overall well-being is suffering. “An unhealthy community tends to be obese and struggle more from chronic diseases and other health challenges,” Bognanno says.

Chronic diseases like these not only reduce life expectancy, they have a dramatic effect on the economy. The CDC reports that 90 percent of the nation’s annual healthcare expenses are for people with chronic health conditions.<sup>3</sup>

Curbing the spread of infectious disease is also a priority of community health programs. Without them, communities may find themselves battling outbreaks of illnesses that put vulnerable populations like the elderly at higher risk.

“If a community has to recover from an emergency event, such as a natural disaster, reducing the spread of disease becomes a crucial part of the recovery process,” Backe says.

### **Factors that improve community health**

Improving community health is a huge undertaking that involves cooperation between public health workers, local government, volunteers and average citizens alike—and the end products of their work can take a lot of forms. “Communities benefit from walking trails and bike paths, from access to healthy food and playgrounds, from accessible healthcare services, schools and places of employment, as well as affordable housing,” Bognanno says.

Education also plays a large role in maintaining community health. Health fairs and advertising campaigns that expose the dangers of risk factors like

tobacco exposure, poor nutrition and physical inactivity can raise awareness about the importance of choosing a healthy lifestyle. The CDC has also focused on promoting nutrition guidelines in schools and increasing the amount of physical education children receive.<sup>4</sup>

Individuals can step up to the plate for their community's health by volunteering at health fairs or blood drives, petitioning local officials to develop more green space and walking trails and maintaining their own health. "The collective responsibilities that individuals have for their communal health can lead to positive interactions within the community as a whole," Backe says.

### **Health care in rural India**

Health is not everything but everything else is nothing without health. "In the beginning, there was desire which was the first seed of mind," says Rig-Veda, which probably is the earliest piece of literature known to mankind. Since antiquity India being the first state to give its citizens national health care as a uniform right. However in the present scenario Indian rural health care faces a crisis unmatched to any other social sector. Nearly 86% of all the medical visit in India are made by ruralites with majority still travelling more than 100 km to avail health care facility of which 70-80% is born out of pocket landing them in poverty.

Government succeeded in generating infrastructures in urban area but fail to do so in rural, sustaining 70% of Indian population. Though existing infrastructural setup for providing health care in rural India is on a right track, yet the qualitative and quantitative availability of primary health care facilities is far less than the defined norms by the World Health Organization. Union Ministry of Health and Family Welfare figure of 2005 suggests a shortfall of 12% for sub centers (existing 146,026), 16% of Primary Health Centers (PHCs) (existing 23,236) and 50% Community Health Centers (CHCs) (existing 3346) then prescribed norms with 49.7%, 78% and 91.5% of sub centers, PHCs and CHCs located in government buildings and rest in non-government buildings respectively requiring a figure of 60,762, 2948 and 205 additional buildings for sub centers, PHCs and CHCs respectively. Location of PHCs and CHCs a far of distance from rural areas procures a heavy daily loss of wages. This leads the rural people accessing facilities of private health care practitioners, usually unregistered at affordable charges in their villages.

Government reluctance toward the health care appears in that the roughly 0.9% of the total gross domestic product is allocated for health care. Spending average 14% of the household income on health care by the poor house hold varying from 1.3% in Tamil Nadu to about 37% in Jalore (Rajasthan) suggests people's reluctance toward health care putting it in a side corner then other priorities. Only 0.5% of the rural enjoy basic sanitation facilities with a major population affected by the various health ailments owing to lack of sanitation coupled with polluted waters. Felling seriously ill they either head toward the urban setup or the backward communities look for the witchcraft and hermits, placing them in the grip of lechers (money lenders), creating a physical.

Ineffectiveness of the primary health care created a breach in referral system which should serve as an entry point for the individual and continuous comprehensive coordination at all level of health care. Utilization of services has shown to be residence and educational level dependent with 70% of illiterate availing no ANC care when compared with 15% of literate with rural women (43%) less likely to receive the ANC services when compared with urban women (74%).

Dearth of men power, reluctant community participation and intersectoral coordination make the condition nastiest. There is a threat to collapse of the higher health care machinery owing to overcrowding by health care seekers which are bypassing the first level of contact and this is the major problem Indian health care system is facing. Low faith in public health services could be a reason for this by pass evident from the existing data.

The only way which could lead to the goal of health inclusion is by incorporating impoverish needy rural population through community participation. It is a common complaint of people that government health functionaries are struck with non-availability of medical staff. In one of the study, it was indicated that 143 public facilities found absenteeism of 45% doctors from PHCs with 56% of time found to be closed with an unpredictable pattern of closure and absenteeism during regular hour visit. A survey report from Madhya Pradesh in 2007 states that out of 24,807 qualified doctors and 94,026 qualified paramedical staff mapped in the survey in the state, 18,757 (75.6%) and 67,793 (72.1%) were working in the private sector respectively highlighting the government failure to provide basic infrastructure to doctors and other health care workers in rural areas. This could be tackle by focusing on skill up gradation, capacity development and capability reinvigoration and limiting the scope for practice of illicit and unqualified practitioners. Thus, primary health care in India needs to be re-evaluate and immediately warrants reforms and concrete steps to be taken, otherwise this tug of war between growth and human resource development remains will continue forever.

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### 3.7 LET US SUM UP

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In this unit we have attempt to understand that rural problems mainly focused on Poverty, illiteracy and Unemployment. Further this Unit also delas with the problems related to agriculture ( land holding, productivity, marketing ) and health.

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### 3.8 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

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1. What is the definition of poverty accepted internationally?
2. What are the Millennium Development Goals?
3. What is the Cause of Unemployment?
4. What is the meaning of Rural Unemployment?
5. How is the nature of unemployment in underdeveloped economies different from that in developed economies?
6. What are the main causes of the problem of unemployment in India? Explain.

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### 3.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. The discussion on poverty is generally confined to *absolute poverty*. Absolute poverty is measured against a pre-determined level of living that families should be able to afford. Consumption of food

grains, vegetables, milk products and other items that are necessary for a healthy living and access to other non-food items are included in the absolute minimum consumption basket.

2. The world community committed itself to achieve eight goals. These are known as the millennium development goals (MDG). Each goal has specific targets and has to be achieved by the year 2015. The MDGs are to:
  - eradicate extreme poverty and hunger,
  - achieve universal primary education,
  - promote gender equality and empower women,
  - reduce child mortality,
  - improve maternal health,
  - combat HIV/ AIDS, malaria and other diseases,
  - ensure environmental sustainability; and ensure global partnership for development.
3. Foregoing analysis about trends and structure of unemployment in India reveals the gravity of the problem. Now let us discuss the main causes of unemployment. These are :
  - i) slow economic growth process,
  - ii) rapid increase in labour force,
  - iii) inappropriate technology, and
  - iv) inappropriate education system and lack of manpower planning .
4. Bulk of unemployment in India is found in the rural areas. There are two main aspects of rural unemployment: seasonal and chronic disguised unemployment.

### 3.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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## UNIT-IV COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

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### Structure

- 4.1. Introduction
- 4.2. Objectives
- 4.3. Community Development
  - 4.3.1 Meaning of Community development
  - 4.3.2 Objectives of Community development
  - 4.3.3 Principles
  - 4.3.4 Process
  - 4.3.5 Models
  - 4.3.6 Methods
- 4.4. Early Experiments of Rural Development
- 4.5 Gandhi and his Constructive Programme
- 4.6 Community Development during – Pre and Post Launching Period
- 4.7 National Extension Services
- 4.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.9 Unit- End- Exercises
- 4.10 Answer to check your Progress
- 4.11 Suggested Readings

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### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

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The United Nations defines community development as "a process where community members come together to take collective action and generate solutions to common problems." It is a broad concept, applied to the practices of civic leaders, activists, involved citizens, and professionals to improve various aspects of communities, typically aiming to build stronger and more resilient local communities.

Community development is also understood as a professional discipline, and is defined by the International Association for Community Development ([www.iacdglobal.org](http://www.iacdglobal.org)), the global network of community development practitioners and scholars, as "a practice-based profession and an academic discipline that promotes participative democracy, sustainable development, rights, economic opportunity,

equality and social justice, through the organization, education and empowerment of people within their communities, whether these be of locality, identity or interest, in urban and rural settings".

Community development seeks to empower individuals and groups of people with the skills they need to effect change within their communities. These skills are often created through the formation of social groups working for a common agenda. Community developers must understand both how to work with individuals and how to affect communities' positions within the context of larger social institutions.

Community development as a term has taken off widely in anglophone countries, i.e. the United States, United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, as well as other countries in the Commonwealth of Nations. It is also used in some countries in Eastern Europe with active community development associations in Hungary and Romania. The Community Development Journal, published by Oxford University Press, since 1966 has aimed to be the major forum for research and dissemination of international community development theory and practice.

## **4.2 OBJECTIVES**

After studying the unit, you should be able to:

- Define different concepts of Rural Community Development ;
- Describe meaning and Scope of Community Development
- Explain the Early experiments of Gandhi and His Constructive Development
- Outline the profile of Community Development in Pre and Post Independence Period ;

## **4.3. Community Development**

Community development has two terms community and development both of which need some understanding. The concept of community has already been discussed in chapter I. We reiterate some of its definitions as "A relatively self-sufficient population, residing in a limited

geographic area, bound together by feelings of unity and interdependency”.

“a social, religious, occupational, or other group sharing common characteristics or interests and perceiving itself as distinct in some respect from the larger society within which it exists, for example the business community; the community of scholars”.

#### **4.3.1 MEANING OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT**

Communities refer to people bounded in specific geographic areas and communities of interest. The past three centuries have seen major changes in the notion of community. We have moved from a predominantly agricultural and rural society, to an urban industrialized society, and now to a post-industrial society. In this latter period of de-industrialization, there has been erosion of community life and a decline in civil society organizations. These have meant a slow degeneration of traditional family networks, heightened inequality between groups of people as well as growth of institutions to meet the needs of the people, which were hitherto met by the community itself.

Development as a concept would imply that there is progress or change for the better in such a way to enhance the security, freedom, dignity, self-reliance and self-development of groups of people. This would involve twin concepts of social as well as economic development.

#### **Concept of Community Development**

Community development may be defined as a process by which the efforts of the people themselves are combined with those of governmental authorities, to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress.

Community development is a collaborative, facilitative process undertaken by people (community, institutions, or academic

stakeholders) who share a common purpose of building capacity to have a positive impact on quality of life.

Community Development is the process of developing active and sustainable communities based on social justice and mutual respect. It is about influencing power structures to remove the barriers that prevent people from participating in the issues that affect their lives. Community workers facilitate the participation of people in this process. They enable connections to be made between communities and with the development of wider policies and programmes. Community Development expresses values of fairness, equality, accountability, opportunity, choice, participation, mutuality, reciprocity and continuous learning. Educating, enabling and empowering are at the core of Community Development.

Community Development is about building active and sustainable communities based on social justice and mutual respect. It is about changing power structures to remove the barriers that prevent people from participating in the issues that affect their lives. Community Development Workers support individuals, groups and organizations in this process on the basis of certain values and commitments.

Community development works for strengthening of face to face communities to meet the psychological needs of belonging, practical needs of mutual care, and the political need for participation and campaigning for rights and resources.

### **Check your progress -1**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

1. Write the Meaning of Community Development?
2. What are the Approaches used in Community Development?

### **Approaches Used in Community Development**

The various approaches used in community development are:

- using an asset-based approach that builds on strengths and existing resources;
- encouraging inclusive processes that embrace community diversity; and
- Community ownership through collaboratively planned and led initiatives.

**Aims of Community Development are:**

- creating equitable conditions and outcomes for health and wellbeing;
- improving the health and prosperity of the community as a whole;
- fostering sustainable community initiatives;
- Fostering sustainable self-sufficiency for the people involved;
- increasing personal worth, dignity, and value; and
- building awareness of and resolving issues in the community.

**Community Development Values**

Community development has certain inherent values.

These can be termed as:

**Social Justice** - enabling people to claim their human rights, meet their needs and have greater control over the decision-making processes, which affect their lives.

**Participation** - facilitating democratic involvement by people in the issues, which affect their lives, based on full citizenship, autonomy, and shared power, skills, knowledge and experience.

**Equality** - challenging the attitudes of individuals, and the practices of institutions and society, which discriminate against and marginalize people.

**Learning** - recognizing the skills, knowledge and expertise that people contribute and develop by taking action to tackle social, economic, political and environmental problems.

**Co-operation** - working together to identify and implement action, based on mutual respect of diverse cultures and contributions.

### **Assumptions in Community Development**

There are certain implicit assumptions in community development. These are:

Individuals, groups and local institutions within community areas share common interests that bind them together.

- This commonness also propels them to work together

The interests of the various groups are not conflicting.

- The state is a supra body that is impartial in the allocation of resources and that through its policies it does not further inequalities.

People's initiatives are possible in the communities because of their common interests.

Community development workers are committed to:

- Challenge the discrimination and oppressive practices within organizations, institutions and communities.
- Develop practice and policy that protects the environment.
- Encourage networking and connections between communities and organizations.

- Ensure access and choice for all groups and individuals within society.
- Influence policy and programmes from the perspective of communities.
- Prioritize the issues of concern to people experiencing poverty and social exclusion.
- Promote social change that is long-term and sustainable.
- Reverse inequality and the imbalance of power relationships in society.
- Support community led collective action.
- Distinction Between Community Development and Community Work

Community development is best used to refer to a process, or a way of doing something, which entails the mobilization, participation and involvement of local people on common issues important to them.

#### **4.3.2 Community Development: Objectives**

The objectives of the Community Development Programmes may be summed up under the following heads:

##### **1. Help in Planning:**

The Community Development Projects are aimed at helping the villages in planning and developmental activities. Through these projects, schemes for improving the agricultural production are undertaken.

##### **2. Involving Villages in National Reconstruction:**

An important objective of Community Development Project is to make village people self-dependent and encourage them to take part in the activities of national reconstruction.

**This is done through the following methods:**

- i. Changing the traditional and conservative outlook of the village people.
- ii. Organizing youth and women bodies to take part in the developmental and welfare activities.
- iii. Making arrangements for recreation of the village youth and women.

### **1. Providing Educational Facilities in Villages:**

Through these projects, an attempt is being made to provide educational facilities for the village people.

This is done by the following methods:

- i. Arranging centres of social education.
- ii. Arranging recreational programmes.
- iii. Training village people in the activities of planning and development.

### **2. Improving the Standard of Living of Villagers:**

The main objective of Community Development Programmes is to improve the standard of living of the village people. They have been provided with various employment facilities and opportunities to set up industries and the training to improve their agricultural production. Cooperative societies and other such bodies have been set up for them to undertake various activities of development planning.

### **3. Political Training:**

Through the Community Development Projects, village people are also given training in administrative activities. Through the working of Community Development Projects, people are trained in the practical working of democracy. The village people are trained in the area of civic affairs.

#### **4. Other Objectives of Community Development:**

The above mentioned objectives are the general objectives of the community development. There are also specific objectives intended basically at 'all-round Development of the Rural Society'.

The specific objectives of the plan may be categorized under the following heads:

- i. Agriculture and improvement of agricultural production
- ii. Setting up of cooperative societies in each village
- iii. Animal husbandry
- iv. Public health
- v. Rural education
- vi. Improving the means of communication and transport in rural areas
- vii. Setting up village level small-scale cottage industries
- viii. Organizing and strengthening the village panchayats

#### **4.3.3 PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT**

Community Development Project is a new experiment in the development and planning activities of the world. Such projects have been specially launched only in Asian Countries. It is an experiment intended at fulfilling the various need of the village society and also making it self-dependent. It is a part of the Indian Constitution aimed at establishing a socialist society in this country.

**The Community Development Programmes are based on the following principles:**

1. Drawing programmes for fulfilling various needs of the community.
2. Involving the people in planning and developmental activities.
3. Bringing about material as well as psychological betterment.
4. Teaching rural people the political set up in democracy.

5. Creating the local leadership.
6. Drawing up of national policy for the development of the country.
7. Setting up of cooperative societies for carrying developmental works.
8. Development based on socialism.

These Community Development Projects are based on the decentralization of economy, administration and political power. They are the means of training the people in the art of 'self-administration'. These programmes employ all the resources for the development of nation. They focus their attention at training people to become self-dependent and self-reliant. These programmes are basically aimed at changing the face of rural society.

### Scope

Community development has a wider scope covering a vast field of activities. Almost all aspects of social life come under its preview. Such wider connotation of the term along with differing emphasis on one aspect or other at various point of time prohibits any scientific definition.

It has been a movement all over the world. All the countries irrespective of their level of development have launched the programme. The programme has utility for developed, under developed as well as for developing countries. Of course its applicability is more emphasised in underdeveloped and developing nations.

There is no clear-cut demarcation between a developed and developing country. Whatever distinctions are given, they overlap each other. This is because of the fact that development is a continuous process. It follows a sequential chain. There is no end to this process. The state of development of a country depends upon the methods, techniques and its ability, to exploit the resources and to put them for the development of humanity as a whole.

All these things go on changing. With the passage of time man's mind gets better off, which brings modification in these fields. But if due to some reason or other such process is retarded for a longer period of

time, then that country lags behind. Comparatively other nations March ahead on their way and the country lagging behind become traditional, undeveloped or underdeveloped.

Thus development is a comparative phenomenon, a relative term. Between these two, some nations are found which are growing slowly but steadily towards overall development. Such nations are termed as developing nations. Community development programme is undertaken in such country. The rate of development varies with the state of development.

Sometimes it is high in developed countries and some other time development occurs in high proportion in developing countries. Owing to its wider applicability and wider fields of operation it is not possible to put its scope within the boundary of any theoretical framework. However for the sake of convenience we can broadly divide the field of community development into the following categories.

### **1) Agricultural and allied fields:**

Under this category activities regarding following items are included.

i) Re-utilisation of virgin and waste lands, ii) Creation of irrigation facilities, iii) Steps to popularise qualitative high yielding seeds, modern scientific agricultural method and equipment, creation of credit facilities for animal husbandry, soil conservation etc. v) Development of fishery v) Growth of vegetable and plants etc.

### **2) Co-operatives:**

Organisation of 'co-operative service societies', 'multipurpose co-operative societies', 'marketing co-organisations etc, comes under this category which aims at securing people's participation.

### **3) Education:**

Providing facilities for free education to all at the primary middle and high school level, adult education and other literary services with the aim of creating awareness and consciousness among the people.

### **4) Employment:**

To solve the problem of unemployment mostly in rural areas through development of trade, commerce, cottage industries etc. Which aim at full utilisation of man power?

**5) Health services:**

Arrangements for public health sanitation maternal care, medical aid during pregnancy and child care, midwife services, etc. Which aim at creating an atmosphere of healthy living?

**6) Communication:**

Construction of roads, arrangement for transportation and communication facilities etc. Which aim at connecting rural interior village with main national life?

**7) Vocational training:**

Giving training to rural artisans in their own traditional profession and introducing new scientific and technological inventions, organizing the training institute's in the field of tailoring, embroidery, carpentry etc. With a view to increase efficiency and productivity of the people.

**8) Other welfare activities:**

The social welfare activities like rehabilitation of old disable and destitute, provision for better housing, entertainment, promotion of cultural activities, organisation of sports and a number of related activities which aim at an all round development, comes under the scope of community development programme.

**Principles of Community Development**

Community Development has immense potential to improve the lives of those living in our community (especially the most marginalized and vulnerable) by building on strengths/assets, increasing community to address challenges, and advocating for system level change. However, CD practice is not well understood by many

**Stakeholder Engagement/Public Participation**

Stakeholders are people, groups, or organisations that have a vested interest in Shelter SA's activities and outcomes, including consumers who are integral to the decision-making, evaluation, provision, participation and direction setting at all levels of the organisation.

**Ownership**

Stakeholders and members are actively involved in decision-making and have ownership of the organisation's activities. The organisation works co-operatively and collaboratively with the Board, branches, staff,

volunteers, members and the wider public, to generate a range of benefits.

### **Empowerment**

A process that respects, values and enhances people's ability to have control over their lives is put into practice. This process encourages people to meet their needs and aspirations in a self-aware and informed way which takes advantage of their skills, experience and potential. Change and growth occurs through informing and empowering individuals and groups.

### **Lifelong Learning**

Learning is integrated into all aspects of activities, to build and support the personal skills, knowledge, abilities and resilience of people. They develop health, wellbeing and connections to other people through formal and informal pathways in education, employment and self-development.

#### **Check your progress -2**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

3. Write any four Principles of Community Development?

4. What are basic objectives of Community Development?

### **Inclusion**

The diverse contributions that people make are valued, no matter what their background or varying abilities. Individual and local needs are acknowledged and addressed, often through informal interaction. Identifying these needs and issues through a range of methods is instrumental to informing the planning and development of activities and programs.

### **Access and Equity**

Promote a fairer distribution of social and economic resources and power between people by aiming to improve the social, environmental, economic and cultural infrastructures where they live.

### **Social Action**

Internal and external factors that impact South Australians are analysed and relationships between individuals, groups and organisations are transformed through collective action.

### **Advocacy**

In meeting individual and group needs, the organisation acts with, or on behalf of, stakeholders.

### **Networking**

Linking, forming alliances, collaborating and working with individuals, groups, other agencies, Government and business is crucial, using formal and informal methods to achieve connections within local areas. Individuals are supported in coming together in a group environment to share information, knowledge, skills and life experience.

### **4.3.4 PROCESS: COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT**

Taylor and others (1965) have identified a sequence of steps which constitutes the process by which persons living in local communities move from apathy about their obvious common needs to an awareness about such needs and also an awareness of their capacities to meet at least some of these needs, and ultimately to solve, all of their local problems, through:

- i) Systematic discussion of community-felt needs by members of the community:
- ii) Systematic planning by local people to carry out the first self-help undertaking which has been selected by the method of sustained and systematic discussion:
- iii) iii) Mobilization and harnessing of the physical, economic and social potentialities of local community group to accomplish the first task which local people have assigned to themselves; and
- iv) Development of group aspirations.

The role of the Government is, to help initiate the process in the community and guide the community through the above four steps and to provide national aid where these identified activities are beyond the resources of the community.

The steps in community development process have been stated explicitly by Dwar,ak~ilath (1967) as:

- a) Identification of the needs.

- b) Setting objectives
- C) Assessing resources.
- d) Considering alternatives
- e) Making decisions.
- t) Providing leadership
- g) Taking action, and
- h) Becoming capable of solving problems of the community.

#### **4.3.5 MODELS OF COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION**

In this section, we describe the two models that have resulted from our research. They are presented separately, but are interrelated. Elements of the proposed model are: Implicit practice-based theory. In the course of doing their work, practitioners tended to develop personalized and practice-based theories based on their field experiences. They formulated strategies and theories about community development work to inform their practice. We have labelled them implicit because they tended to become something that wasn't articulated but influenced their actions.

Beliefs about community. Practitioners must assess how capable a community is to chart its own course and how to assist them. Community development practitioners struggle with the appropriate blend of local knowledge, involvement of outside experts, accepting directions from local leaders, and when to call upon their own knowledge in community development activities. They are challenged about when and how to bring in outside knowledge such as new government regulations or activities in neighboring communities.

Talking/working together/observing. Practitioners learn by working with each other and community residents, working together on projects, visiting other communities, and soliciting ideas and suggestions from their peers.

Literature-Based Theories. Our participants turned out to read widely in business, environmental, policy studies, law, psychology, agriculture, and adult education. A synthesis of multiple theories is their guide rather than a single theory derived from community development literature.

Field Experience and Practice. This is the central component in reflective practice. It is through experience and ongoing practice, in which a practitioner attempts to assist communities, that a practitioner reflects on his/her work and formulates his/her implicit practice-based theories.

While each element of the model is described separately, they do not exist in isolation. Practitioners described to us that they are guided by a synthesis of these elements to address needs in the community. What links the different elements is constant reflection.

The people we interviewed seemed to be continually assessing the effectiveness of their work in solving community problems and were aware of their capacity to do harm and good. Each of the elements is represented by a circle and curved arrows illustrate dynamic interactions between the elements of the model. We used the term reflection, illustrated by the larger circle in which the model exists, to capture the many activities, ideas, and thoughts practitioners had about community development. In earlier discussions, we vacillated between whether practitioners' theories or field experiences ought to be placed in the central of the model. Since our research focus is on theories developed and used in daily work in community development and our research indicated it was the element of central importance to practitioners, we decided to make it the focus of our model. Closely related to beliefs about community in represents the idea that practitioners have the ability to work back and forth along a continuum of practice ranging from practitioners collaborating with local knowledge to imposing outside expertise, depending on the situation. We have specified points along

the continuum: 1) imposing expert knowledge, 2) importing useful information, 3) eliciting knowledge, and 4) collaborating with local knowledge. These points are not designated to suggest that these are the only choices a practitioner may make. A practitioner may alter his/her position as circumstances and needs change. In North America, community development practitioners tend to favor a bottoms-up approach, collaborating with local knowledge. However many factors intervene in other countries including lack of technology and resources, needs of indigenous people, lack of education, and widespread poverty. We found that many practitioners in countries such as Malaysia and Botswana lean toward supporting local knowledge but sometimes find it nec-

Essay to impose outside expertise. They are making the best choices given the resources available, the people, and the context and appear to be deliberate in their choices in approaching the introduction of outside expertise to a community.

Imposing outside importing useful Eliciting information Collaborating with expertise information local knowledge The situational continuum describes a major decision community development practitioners make when faced with a particular set of circumstances and participants.

These decisions are heavily influenced by the elements described in Figure 1: implicit practice-based theories, field experience, beliefs about community, current literature, and their communications with other practitioners.

Choosing whether to approach a project by imposing outside expertise, by working exclusively with local knowledge, or any position in between the endpoints of the continuum is a crucial decision that sets the tone for a practitioner's involvement with their community.

#### **4.3.6 METHODS OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT**

As an agent for inducing change, community development has to give close attention to the strategy and tactics it considers using and the time needed to realize its goals. A strategy for village reform, for example, has to consider whether it would be more effective to bring community development workers from the outside or to use indigenous workers; in allocating resources, community development planners have to decide whether to deal with a wide range of community problems simultaneously (the comprehensive approach) or to adapt a selective approach by tackling one or a few problems at a time. In gaining access to decision-making authorities, community development practitioners have to consider working with local interest groups, public and private agencies and, to the extent they exist, the communication media. In developing programmes for local development, community development practitioners would do well to organize a systematic body of data on which to base informed judgements.

In this regard, consideration should be given to promoting surveys and other information-gathering techniques.

## **A. PRELIMINARY SURVEY AND PROGRAMMING**

The methods to be used depend on the characteristics of the community concerned. Given the relative newness of rural development in many developing countries there is frequently only a rudimentary understanding of local traditions and customs and of village structure, and a limited knowledge of the requirements for local development. Not uncommonly, community development activities have been initiated without the benefit of a preliminary fact-finding investigation and as a result, there are mistakes in the planning and implementation of programmes. This is not to say that implementation of action programmes should be contingent upon local surveys; this is obviously

not feasible, and in any case there is usually, but not always, enough general information available in the documents of the planning authority, national surveys, etc. from which the most important data could be assembled to support some action programmes. But a gathering of facts is only the first requirement of local action and this should be done with the full participation of the local people; properly handled, this task may be left to them, within the framework established by community development workers. The information collected should be used for a diagnosis covering as many aspects of community life as possible. On the basis of this, together with the projection of existing trends, it is possible to formulate alternative action proposals.

## **B. VILLAGE LEVEL WORKERS AND VILLAGE LEADERS**

Considerable reliance has been placed on village-level workers as vehicles for change in rural communities. There is a continuing need to question, challenge and where necessary to alter the status quo. A paid government worker appointed to work with the villagers over a period of time working with them in face-to-face situations may provide a far stronger stimulus for change than occasional visits by outside technical personnel. A multipurpose worker, by remaining in touch with villagers, helping them to accept new values and attitudes, can help create conditions for the acceptance and diffusion of technical assistance to be provided by the competent specialized government department. Local leaders, on the other hand, may be ineffective in inducing change; their ability to act decisively may be limited by ignorance of modern methods of farming or by an unwillingness to alter existing social institutions and power relationships.

### **Criticism of Village-worker Approach**

Recently, there has been increasing criticism of the village-worker approach. It is argued that a village-worker born and educated in a city or town, as is frequently the case, is usually interested in the urban way

of hide and looks on his stay in the village as temporary. Moreover, his interest in village development may be largely "bureaucratic", in that he cannot have as much stake in village improvement as a trained and enlightened local leader and/or prestige. He has no place in the local power structure and therefore is not in a strategic position to mobilize the villagers. If he is insufficiently trained he is neither far enough ahead of the villagers to earn their respect nor well enough equipped for the multifarious tasks he has to undertake; and unless he can combine advice with service, the advice is rarely followed up. If he has received a long and thorough training there may be too wide a cultural (and social) gap between him and the villagers. Since many of its workers are likely to be young and unmarried, they would find it difficult to make an impact in rural areas where the cultural pattern is such as to render their acceptance doubtful. A village level worker coming from the area would be less vulnerable to criticism on these counts. This, in turn, raises problems regarding status and acceptance by the village of the authority or advice given by one of their younger members who has been under external influence. Presumably, problems relating to status and acceptance would be more severe for women village-workers, for in addition to their youth, they would have to cope with the prejudices of traditional society toward women. In countries where there is a community development department or some other government service specifically charged with community development, the local worker is, as a rule, required to spend a considerable amount of his time doing paper work, filling in forms, making reports etc. In some instances he is expected to co-ordinate the work of technical services, a task which often exceeds his abilities or the scope of his training, and one that might better be entrusted to a more qualified official. While there is fairly wide agreement that general-purpose workers are needed at the early stages of development, before technical personnel are available in the necessary numbers, there remains the question whether they should be retained or better trained personnel be recruited. It would appear that

as the community develops a stage is reached when this type of multi-purpose, front-line worker might be replaced by one with better training background and specialization in selected aspects of community development and who could serve a number of villages.

#### **4.4 EARLIER EXPERIMENTS IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

This Section aims to explaining various development/extension efforts made in India both during pre-independence and post post-independence periods. The programmes of pre-independence period originated from individual initiatives or agencies with little or no help from the Government. These programmes were sporadic in coverage with limited objectives. The post-independence efforts in development started mainly with the introduction of Community Development programme (CDP) which was a multi-disciplinary and multi-sectoral in nature.

##### **Sriniketan**

The initial attempts at rural development were initiated by Shri. Rabindranath Tagore in 1908 by establishing youth organization in the Kaligram Progan of his Zamindari. He tried to generate a class of functionary workers who could be trained to identify themselves with the people. In 1921 he established a Rural Reconstruction Institute at Shantiniketan in West Bengal. A group of eight villages was the centre of the programme.

The programme aimed at:

- To create a real interest in people for rural welfare work.
- To study rural problems and to translate conclusions into action.
- To help villagers develop their resources and to improve village sanitation.

These objectives were preferred to be achieved by generating a spirit of self-help, developing village leadership, organizing village scouts called Brati Balika, establishing training centers for handicrafts and establishing a demonstration centre at Shantiniketan. These demonstration centers organized demonstration or farmer's holding for improved practices.

## **Gurgaon Project**

Rural uplift movement on a mass scale was first started by Mr. F. L. Brayne, Deputy 'Commissioner in the Gurgaon district of the Punjab and a Village guide was posted in each village to disseminate the information to the villagers. The programme of introducing improved seeds, implements, improved methods of cultivation, control on burning of cow-dung-cakes as fuel, construction of manure pits, curtailing expenditure on social and religious functions; etc.. was started throughout the district.

The work again gathered momentum after 1933, when Mr. Brayne was appointed Commissioner of Rural Reconstruction in the Punjab. In 1935-36, the Government of Punjab granted Rs. 1.00 Crore for distribution in various provinces for rural reconstruction work which acted as a stimulus. After that the work in Punjab was transferred to the Cooperative Department and better living societies were organized to take up this work in the villages.

## **Marthandam Project**

Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) set up this project in Travancore. It intended to symbolize the three-fold development of spirit, mind and body and evolved a five sided programme, representing development, which included not only spiritual, mental and physical, but also economic and social development. This pioneering work of Dr. Spencer Hatch, an American Agricultural expert, was based on the essential technique of "Self-help with expert counsel". About hundred villages were covered through YMCA centers in villages under the supervision of an extension secretary.

Marthandam was in a strategic position to serve the villagers. It kept prize bulls and goats, model bee-hives, demonstration plots for improving grain and vegetable seeds, poultry farms with prize laying hens, a weaving shed etc. Inside the centre, there were equipments like honey extractors, health charts etc.

The project emphasized self-help and cooperation. The most successful project was the Egg Selling Club. By 1939, the egg selling cooperative society became a self-governing body. Another cooperative society was

the Honey Club, where the villagers were taught the use of a modern bee-hives and how to extract honey scientifically. The centre I M extensive~ social activities which could meet the mental, physical and spiritual needs of the villages. It arranged exhibitions, lectures and had a wide range of Health programs.

### **Rural Reconstruction Movement in Baroda State (1932)**

This movement was started by V.T. Krishnachari in 1932 in the Baroda state where he was Dewan at that time. In the first instant its objective was to bring about a rapid increase in standards of living, industrialization and rapid expansion of the educational system. The second objective was to increase agricultural production through the provision of basic necessities for the development of the same. At first, some extension workers were taken on deputation from Dr. Spencer Hatch of Marthandam.

The first rural reconstruction centre commenced work in April, 1932 in a group of villages around Kosambain, Navsari district. After the centre had been at work for a year, the number of villages under it was increased and Baroda state issued an order explaining the aims of the movement as follows:

The centre should aim at effecting an improvement in all aspects of rural life changing in fact the outlook of the agriculturist, the target being creating desire for a higher standard of living. Work intended to realize this aim should be intensive. It should be confined to a group of villages in which it will be possible for the superintendent and his trained co-workers to establish personal contact with all the agriculturalists. Village leadership of the best type should be developed.

### **The centre should apply itself to the following programmes:**

#### **Economic programme:**

Subsidiary occupations, kitchen gardening, weaving, poultry farming, silk worm rearing, bee keeping or any other trade may be found suitable.

In each village, Panchayat should be a live-body discharging its function of providing drinking water, improving sanitation, building village roads in other words adding to the opportunities of village life.

Educational and moral programme: This included adult education,

development of community sense and of a feeling of solidarity in the village, propaganda against evils like early marriage and unreasonable customs connected with social observances, the proper use of village libraries, the scout movement and other educative work through magic lantern. Village school should be the centre of such activities.

### **Method of work:**

- Self help
- Dignity of labour, e.g., Shramdan etc.
- Self respect
- Truth and non violence

### **Firka Development Scheme of Madras:**

It was government sponsored and aimed at the attainment of the Gandhian ideal of Gram Swaraj. The scheme was launched in 1946 in 34 Firkas throughout the state and on April 1, 1950, it was extended to another 50 additional Firkas, at the rate of two Firkas for each district. The scheme, which aimed at attacking of the rural problems as a whole, as well as in parts, consisted of short term plans for the development of rural communications, water supply, formation of panchayats, organization of cooperatives and programmes for sanitation, as also long term plans to make the area self-sufficient through agricultural, irrigational and livestock improvements and the development of khadi and other cottage industries.

The collector, was primarily responsible for the successful working of the scheme in the district. Each Firka was divided into 5 to 10 groups of villages which were put in the charges of Gram Sewaks. Each Firka or Group of Firkas was provided with special staff like agricultural field man, administrative officers, P.W.D., Supervisors and minor irrigation overseers. At the state level, there was a state Rural welfare Board comprising the heads of the departments and influential and constructive social workers. This board drew up the comprehensive plan of Firka Development October, 1947.

In order to effectively stimulate healthy competition between official and non-official agencies, the Government of Madras decided to entrust the development schemes to non-official agencies engaged in doing

constructive work. Five non-official agencies were actually selected and paid grants for doing Firka Development of:

- Rural Reconstruction
- Drinking water facilities
- Sanitation
- Agriculture
- Khadi and village industries

### **Etawah Project,**

This project was launched by the government of Uttar Pradesh in October 1918 under the guidance and help of Alber Mayer. It was a new experiment in rural planning and development. Albert Mayer formed a team of four specialists—a town and village planner, an agricultural extension specialist, an agricultural engineer, and a rural industries specialist in order to give an integrated approach to this project.

The objectives were:

1. To find out how quickly the methods developed could be reproduced elsewhere;
2. To develop self-reliance at local, district and state level;
3. To increase agricultural production and to improve public health and adult literacy, and
4. To upgrade the technologies of the tools which the people have to work with and to develop village leadership.

Unlike the early experiments, this project had an organized administrative structure at state, district and village levels. The project was visualized as an extension programme, which emphasized local level planning, team work, communication and constant follow-up to respond to the local needs.

Initially, the project covered 64 villages; by the end of 1956 nearly 400 villages were covered. The results achieved by this project were impressive. However, the objective of developing village leadership could not be achieved.

**Check your progress -3**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

5. Write the Meaning of Social Action?
6. What are the steps involved in practicing CD ?

**Nilokheri Project**

This project, also known as the Refugee Rehabilitation Project, though started in 1943 became My operational in 1948 when it developed a new township for displaced persons from West)Pakistan.

The main objectives of this project were:

1. to rehabilitate displaced persons;
2. to attain self-sufficiency by utilizing the labour and talents of the refugees, and to meet the basic needs of the population.

Under the project, vocational training-cum-production centres were started to give training and employment opportunities to the refugees. 'Mazdoor Manzil', a new township, was created for p population of 5,000. The township had facilities like hospital, schools, vocational and teahndical institutions for training, veterinary and agricultural extension services, and recreational facilities.

Based on the success of this project, adoption of an agro-industrial economy for the development of the nearby rural areas was visualised. The main limitation of the project was its inability to develop cooperative spirit among the members of cooperatives and between technical and managerial staff.

**4.5 GANDHIAN CONSTRUCTIVE PROGRAMME / SEWAGRAM**

Mahatma Gandhi always dreamt of self-contained and self-sufficient village life in India. He was conscious about the grassroots' problems of India, rural set up and he sought to resolve these tribulations without interference of any exterior group. He wanted to solve these problems by local people and through local resources. People know Gandhiji not only as a Mahatma or political agitator, but also as a social and economic reformer. He made people to

comprehend that India lives in villages and that the common man's upliftment is the upliftment of the country. Concerning development work in the country, he emphasized that the "salvation of India lies in cottage industries." The key-words of his economy are:

1. Decentralized production
2. Equal distribution of wealth
3. Self-sufficiency of Indian villages.

For equal distribution of wealth, cruel process of extermination was not followed but throughout the heart of the owners by persuasion and appeal to the better sense of man. According to him self-sufficiency of Indian villages can be achieved by eliminating middlemen, so that the farmer could get the full price for his produce. He wanted that the tiller should be able to consume his own products like fruits, milk, vegetables etc.

Truly speaking, the Gandhian constrictive Programme became big institutions and simple ideas became philosophies. His emphasis on Khadi became the Charka movement and then, the All India Khadi a Village Industries Board. His thought, against untouchability and caste system, resulted in the organization of HarijanSewakSangh and many like this. He created leaders like VinobaBhave, Nehru, Jayaprakash Narayan, Mira Ben etc. who came from common stock, but got inspiration from Gandhi. All the people engaged in reconstructive programme felt that their work was needed in a great programme for their country reconstruction.

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#### **4.6 COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME DURING POST LAUNCHING PERIOD**

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After the Independence in 1947, community development assumed high priority. In 1948, a pilot Community Development Project was launched through the Etawah Project. Later in 1952, the Government of India launched 55 Community Development Projects, each covering about 300 villages or a population of 30,000.

This programme was multi-dimensional but the major emphasis was placed on agricultural production, as the areas selected for launching the project were located in irrigated areas or where the rainfall was assured. In 1953, the National Extension Service Project was launched with similar objectives to cover larger areas, including the dry regions. This project of three-year duration, demarcated the blocks of 150-300 villages as manageable units for initiating Community Development Programmes.

The objectives and activities of the project were modified from time to time and continued as a permanent multi-function extension agency in each block. These community development blocks were treated as normal administrative units for planning and development with regular budgetary allocations.

By the end of first Five-Year Plan (1952-57), 1,114 blocks covering 1,63,000 villages were in operation and by the 1960s, the Community Development Programme covered the entire country. The programme was comprehensive in content; economic progress as the core objective; and had flexible programmes and posting of a multipurpose worker at the village level. The plan defined the central objective of planning as creation of conditions in which the living standards are reasonably high and the citizens have full and equal opportunity for growth and justice (Sachidananda, 1988).

The programme aimed at upliftment of the rural poor, covered agriculture, animal husbandry, roads, health, education, housing, employment and social and cultural activities. While aiming at economic development through agriculture and cottage industries, efforts were made to improve literacy, health, sanitation, housing, transport and communication. To implement the multi-faceted programme, an extension organization, headed by a Block Development Officer (BDO), was established at each block or the revenue tehsil level, with a team of subject specialists and Village Level Workers (VLW).

Each VLW covered a population of 5,000-6,000, spread over 5-10 villages to implement various development programmes launched by different departments. The VLWs were expected to meet the farmers and persuade them to take part in various development schemes.

The BDO was assisted by eight Extension Officers, one each for agriculture, animal husbandry, panchayat, cooperation rural industries, rural engineering, social education and women and child welfare. In addition, a medical officer with support staff was posted in each block to provide medical assistance.

The extension officers reported primarily to the BDOs and to their seniors as well, in the respective department, based at the district headquarters. The BDOs reported to the District Collector, who is the administrator of the district.

The Development Commissioner, at the state level was responsible for coordinating community development through District Collectors. At the National

level, the administration of the Community Development Programme was entrusted to the Planning Commission.

During the initial phase of community development, the government officials pre-pared the plan under the guidance of Planning Commission. There was no opportunity for the community to demand any facilities to solve their problems. As the intention was to ensure peoples participation, advisory committees were subsequently established at various levels. A state level consultative committee consisting of state legislators was con-stituted for advising the community development.

District development or planning committee consisting of officials and non-officials, was formed under the Chairmanship of the Collector. A block level advisory committee was constituted with block level officers and non-officials, member of the Parliament and state legislators, heads of educational institution, progressive agriculturists and representatives of voluntary organizations.

As the non-officials were generally interested in matters of personal concern, they did not look at their roles in the proper perspective. Furthermore, as the development programmes approved at the central and state level were rigid, the consultation process remained merely an academic exercise.

From 1950s till mid-1970s, there was no significant achievement and poverty was on the verge of increasing. The Indian economy had become slower compared to those in the East and South East Asia over the post-Independence period. The levels of living were unacceptably low for a large section of the population.

The Land Reforms Act of 1956 did remove vestiges of the feudal-colonial rule from the scene, but the enactment of the laws did not help the poor and landless to gain control over the land, particularly in North India.

There were fluctuations in the poverty status but the most prominent increase in poverty was observed in the late sixties and early seventies (55-69 percent), when rainfall levels were less than normal and monsoon failures prolonged beyond a year. Even the core programme of agricultural development failed to enhance food pro-duction. In the early seventies, India was compelled to import food grains.

The growing population wiped out trickling benefits of development. Improvement in agricultural productivity in the absence of education and infrastructural development was not sus-tainable. The resources allotted to

community development during 1952-67 were also so low that it worked out to hardly Rs.10 per head.

Taylor and others (1965) made a critical analysis of India's Community Development Programme, with the following observations:

- a) Government personnel in India did not only assumed major responsibility for determining what the needs of the villagers were, but assumed the responsibility for prescribing how these needs could be met.
- b) Village leaders had difficulty in mobilizing their people to participate in projects which they themselves had not selected.
- c) Little effort was made to analyze their most commonly felt needs and to organize for self-help improvement undertakings, without understanding the basic purpose of generating local group dynamics.
- d) The Village Level Workers felt they were best prepared to render assistance in the field of agriculture and least prepared to stimulate group action. They were not very successful in mobilizing or catalyzing local village groups because they had not received much training in this field.
- e) The Social Education Organizers whose role was originally described as being specialists in community organization very often appeared to have no clear cut concept of their roles, and considered organizing and staging social or cultural programmes as their accomplishments.
- f) The Block Specialists in the field of cooperation were enthusiastic and claimed to have promoted a great deal of propaganda, but were able to report only a few concrete results of their efforts.

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#### **4.7 NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICES**

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Community projects and the National Extension Service have a place of central importance in those sectors of development which bear most closely upon the welfare of the rural population. From the beginning three aspects of this programme have been emphasised. In the first place, national extension and community projects are intended to be areas of intensive effort in which development agencies of the government work together as a team in programmes which are planned and coordinated in advance. The activities comprised within the community development and national

extension programme should be regarded as an integral part of a programme for improving all aspects of rural life. In the second place, the essence of the approach is that villagers come together for bringing about social change are assisted in building up a new life for themselves and participate with increasing awareness and responsibility in the planning and implementation of projects which are material to their well being. If the programme provides them with new opportunities, in turn, through their active participation in its execution, they give it a distinctive quality and enlarge its scope and influence. Selfhelp and cooperation are the principles on which the movement rests. Thirdly, the movement should bring within its scope all rural families, especially those who are "under-privileged", and enable them to take their place in the cooperative movement and other spheres in their own right. It is on account of these features that, national extension and community projects are regarded as the normal pattern of the welfare state in action.

In the First Five Year Plan community development was described as the method and rural extension as the agency through which the process of transformation of the social and economic life of villages was to be initiated. Once the impulse has been given and the first stages of the journey covered, a programme such as that of community development and national extension grows out of its own experience and momentum. As it expands, it meets old needs and creates new ones. New methods are discovered, deficiencies long ignored come to be recognised, and in content and in the manner of its functioning the programme may succeed in solving the vital problems of the community. Gradually, the problems of the village are seen in a larger context, and activities in different fields are undertaken so as to supplement one another. National extension and community projects provide the setting in which the national plan approaches the needs and aspirations of the countryside. It is natural therefore that during the second plan they should reflect increasingly the changes in emphasis, priorities and general outlook which guide overall planning. Thus, expansion in its coverage from one fourth to almost the entire rural population is but one aspect of the deepening and broadening of the programme which has now to be achieved. National extension and community projects should play a large

part in promoting the diversification of the agricultural economy and in increasing agricultural production. They should also increase greatly the reserves of skill and the habit of improvisation of new techniques to serve local needs which are a condition of large-scale industrialisation. In under-developed countries there can be no substantial economic development without social change. Increasingly, through the operation of land reform, attention to the needs of the landless and the disadvantaged sections of the population, strengthening of the village organisation and the building up of local leadership, and the growth of the cooperative movement, the programme should become a positive force for bringing about both an integrated rural society and an expanding rural economy.

In a programme of such far-reaching significance spread over the entire country, it is essential that at each stage its working should be observed closely and objectively. Extension and community projects are primarily an agency for fulfilling the aims, policies \* and programmes envisaged in national and State plans in terms of the needs, problems and resources of each local area. On the one hand, the programmes of each project area form part of the district plan which has been described in Chapter VII. On the other, it is through intensive work in national extension and community projects areas that increasingly programmes in different fields of development are to be carried out, notably in agriculture and allied activities, cooperation and land reform, village and small industries, rural electrification and social services such as health, education, housing and welfare programmes for backward classes. Thus, the working of the national extension and community development programme reflects the measure in which the specific tasks set out in the development block budgets are carried out and, what is even more important, influences enormously the manner in which national and State plans in different fields will function at the village level and the results which may be obtained from them. It is against this background that the findings and observations of the third Evaluation Report of Planning Commission's Programme Evaluation Organisation on the working of community projects and national extension service blocks which have recently become available, should receive serious consideration from everyone associated with the working of the programme.

In the national extension and community development programme the unit of operation is the development block which represents on an average 100 villages with a population of 60,000 to 70,000 persons spread over an area of 150 to 170 square miles. Since the programme commenced in October, 1952, in all 1,200 development blocks have been taken up, 300 under the community projects scheme and 900 under the national extension service scheme. Of the latter, after a period, 400 development blocks have passed into the relatively more intensive phase of development represented by the community development programme. Under the pattern which is now followed, every new development block is first taken up under the national extension service scheme, which had, during the first five year plan, a programme budget of Rs. 450,000. This amount was in addition to the special provision which was made in the national extension service scheme for short-term credit. This assured credit, along with the efforts of extension staff to promote its planned utilisation, was intended to stimulate agricultural production in national extension areas. After a period, which may extend from one to two years, for a proportion of national extension projects, there is further period of development of three years during which the rest of the programme envisaged in the budget of the community development block budget of Rs. 1.5 million is undertaken. In this manner the national extension and community development aspects of the programme have become related phases of a single programme, the normal pattern of development administration being represented by the national extension service. National extension and community development blocks taken up during each year are reckoned as a separate series and their progress is observed accordingly.

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#### **4.8 LET US SUM UP**

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In this unit we have discussed meaning and objectives of community development, also principles, process and models of Community Development. Also documents about the earlier experiments of rural development. This chapter also aimed to focus on Gandhian Constructive Programmes and Community Development during Post Launching Period. Finally this unit also bring the important contribution of National Extension Services and Various Phases of Community Development.

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#### **4.9 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

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1. Write the Meaning of Community Development?
2. What are the approaches used for Community Development?

3. Write any four Principles of Community Development?
4. What are basic objectives of Community Development?  
Write the Meaning of Social Action?  
What are the steps involved in practicing CD ?

5.  
6.

#### 4.10 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The United Nations defines community development as "a process where community members come together to take collective action and generate solutions to common problems." It is a broad concept, applied to the practices of civic leaders, activists, involved citizens, and professionals to improve various aspects of communities, typically aiming to build stronger and more resilient local communities, Natural Factors, Technological Factors, Social Factors, Economic Factors, Cultural Factors, Political Factors
2. The various approaches used in community development are: using an asset-based approach that builds on strengths and existing resources; encouraging inclusive processes that embrace community diversity; and Community ownership through collaboratively planned and led initiatives.
3. Drawing programmes for fulfilling various needs of the community. Involving the people in planning and developmental activities. Bringing about material as well as psychological betterment. Teaching rural people the political set up in democracy.
4. The specific objectives of the plan may be categorized under the following heads: i. Agriculture and improvement of agricultural production, ii. Setting up of cooperative societies in each village; iii. Animal husbandry; iv. Public health; v. Rural education; vi. Improving the means of communication and transport in rural areas; vii. Setting up village level small-scale cottage industries; viii. Organizing and strengthening the village panchayats
5. **Social Action :** Internal and external factors that impact South Australians are analysed and relationships between individuals, groups and organisations are transformed through collective action.
6. The steps in community development process have been stated explicitly by Dwaraknath (1967) as: a) Identification of the needs. b) Setting objectives; c) Assessing resources; d) Considering alternatives

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## UNIT V – RURAL EXTENSION

### Structure

- 5.1. Introduction
- 5.2. Aims and Objectives
- 5.3. Meaning and Concept of extension
  - 5.3.1 Definitions of Extension
  - 5.3.2 Philosophy of Extension
  - 5.3.3 Principles of Extension
  - 5.3.4 Objectives of Extension
  - 5.3.5 Approaches and Methods
- 5.4. Approaches of Rural Community Development
- 5.5 Tagore
- 5.6 Gandhi
- 5.7 C.Subramanian
- 5.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 5.9 Unit- End- Exercises
- 5.10 Answer to check your Progress
- 5.11 Suggested Readings

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Extension has been considered as the most acceptable strategy for rural development in a country like India. Extension aims at bringing a b u t a change in human behavior where communication acts as an essential means of providing and exchanging ideas and facts. The first target of extension has been the rural people whose behavior is changed in respect of knowledge, skills and attitudes and hence extension is a form of education for them. The concept of extension which started as out of school system of education for rural people has undergone changes in its aims, objectives and target population. It has been considered as a process, a method, a system and an art it is a social science for bringing out change in human behavior. The major objective of extension is to change the knowledge, attitude, skills and practices of the rural people~for increased production and income thereby, improving their standard of living. The principles of extension are governed by its philosophy on the one hand and the socio economic and political situation on the other. In this unit we shall discuss the meaning, definition, and concept of extension. We shall also discuss objectives, philosophy and principles of extension.

### 5.2 AIMS OF OBJECTIVES

The unit aims at introducing you to concepts, philosophy and principles of extension. We shall make you familiar with the definitions of extension given by various authors, academicians and experts along with their views on extension. This unit will also aim at clarifying the general and specific objectives of extension.

After studying this unit, you should be able to :

Write various definitions of extension given by different authors, academicians and experts along with their views on its concept.

- State the concepts of extension under different context.
- Differentiate and clarify the term extension as a discipline, work, profession and service.
- State the philosophy of extension.
- Describe the principles of extension for effective execution of extension programme.
- List out the general and specific objectives of extension

### 5.3 MEANING AND CONCEPT OF EXTENSION

The word 'Extension' is derived from the Latin roots "ex" meaning "out" "tensio" meaning "stretching". Extension is that type of education which is stretched out to the people in the rural areas far and near, beyond the limits of the education to which the formal type of education is usually confined.

The concept of Extension Education which originated in British Universities was intended to take the benefits of University education to the places where ordinary people live and work. This was described by adding the word 'Extension' as a qualifying adjective to the noun 'education'. Cambridge University introduced the term Extension Education for the first time in 1873. The dictionary (Webster's Collegiate Dictionary) meaning of the word 'extension' is the act of extending or the state of being "extended. Extension education is the extension of the results of research to the persons who are in need of it. In the context of diffusion of agricultural information to the farmers, Vorhees (1894) was the first to use the word 'Extension'. In fact in the United States of America, extension work started when Dr. Seaman A. Knapp organized educational campaigns to control boll-weevil during the period from late 1880s to the first decade of 1900. Formally, the term Agricultural Extension was adopted in the United States of America when the Smith Lever Act of 1914 was passed. With this Act a nationwide Cooperative Federal State Country programme was formed and its national responsibility was given to the Land-grant Colleges and Universities.

Extension means to extend or to spread or to disseminate useful information and ideas to rural people to bring out desirable changes in human behavior. It brings out three types of changes in human behavior.

- Changes in knowledge or things known
- Changes in skills or things done.
- Changes in attitudes or things felt.

In the first type of change an increased amount of useful information or understanding is to the people. It may be regarding the package of practices of wheat, methods of applying fertilizers or details about the marketing of agricultural products. In the second type of change, new

or improved skills, abilities and habits of the people are improved, such as how to avoid loss of vitamins while cooking the vegetables, how to harvest and transport vegetables for the market or spraying the correct type of insecticide for killing a particular crop pest, The third change is developing desirable attitudes and ideas in rural people, such as to make people believe that balanced diet is useful for human body, changing attitudes towards girl child, widow remarriage, family planning etc.

Education is an integral part of extension. Extension is pursued in agriculture and many other disciplines to educate, motivate and change the behaviour of the people. This particular branch of science is also known as extension education.'

Extension Education is the strategy and method for achieving sustainable development. It is a system of service and education designed to meet the needs of the people. It is the democratic approach for development, which has been adopted in all democratic countries including India, where participation of the people in the development process is voluntary. The behaviour of the people, the knowledge, attitudes and skills have to be changed not by ordering or coercing, but by educating and motivating them for effective participation in development.

### 5.3.1 DEFINITIONS OF EXTENSION

Extension is an out-of-school system of education in which adults and young people learn by doing. According to Esminger (1957), extension is education and that its purpose is to change attitudes and practices of people with 'whom the work is done.

The National Commission on Agriculture (1976) refers to extension as an informal; out of school education and services for the members of the farm family and others directly or indirectly engaged in farm production, to enable them to adopt improved practices in production, management, conservation and marketing. It further states that agricultural extension is not

only imparting knowledge and securing adoption of a particular improved practice but also aims at changing the outlook of the farmer to the point where he will be receptive to his own initiative, and continuously seek means of improving his farm occupation, home and family life in totality.

Extension or agricultural extension is a method, or a series of methods, by which the technical know-how of science is carried to and included in the practices of the cultivators (Pahama, O.P. 1967)

Bhatnagar and Desai (1987) gave a simple definition of extension. According to them extension is to bring the desirable changes in the

behaviour -knowledge, skills, attitude, understanding, goals and confidence - of the people through mutual learning.

Like other disciplines, extension is formally taught in colleges and universities leading to the award of degrees. Research is also carried out in extension. What is unique for extension, is the application of the knowledge of this discipline in socio-economic transformation of the rural communities. Thus extension can also be defined as the science of making people innovative.

The foregoing paragraphs on the definitions and concept of "extension" provide a solid base for conceiving it as a well developed and organised behavioural science and the application of it as a kind of education for bringing out desirable changes in the human behaviour of the people for whom the work is done. The concept, however, varies largely under different contexts. Several extension professionals and development administrators have observed that the concept of extension which was borrowed from United States and other Western Countries, is not applicable to India and other developing and under developed countries.

In the context of rural development 'extension' is considered as a continuous process designed to make rural people aware of their problems and indicating to them the ways and means by which they can solve them. It involves not only educating rural people in determining their problems and methods of solving them but also inspiring them to bring about a change in their quality of life.

### **5.3.2 PHILOSOPHY OF EXTENSION**

Philosophy is a view of life and its various components; the what, the how, the wherefore of existence and the what ought to be. Man's view of 'what ought to be' indicates what kind of person he is and what his philosophy is'. According to Kelsey and Hearne (1967) the basic philosophy of extension is to teach people how to think, not what to think. In stating philosophy of extension, Bhatnagar and Desai (1987) said that extension is an educational, cooperative, collaborative, democratic, persuasive and never ending process that generates harmony, leadership, effective communication, participation and involvement of the people in organizing self-help activities and projects.

Philosophy is a body of general principles or laws of a field of knowledge. An individual, after considering pros and cons, decides on certain principles to guide his life. These principles play a vital role in deciding what is good or bad in the life of an individual.

Extension education philosophy is based on the hypothesis that men and women are intelligent, are interested in obtaining new information and at the same time have a keen desire to utilise this information for their individual and social welfare. Extension work is developed on the

principle of helping the rural people to help themselves to stand on their own feet. The basic philosophy of extension is directed towards changing the outlook of man by educating him.

Education is not a mere transfer of information. It is to transform the people by bringing about the desired changes in their knowledge, attitudes and skills through educational efforts for long lasting results.

### Check your progress - 1

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

1. Write the meaning of Rural Extension?
2. Write the Definition of Extension?

### 5.3.3 PRINCIPLES OF EXTENSION

Principles are generalized guidelines which form the basis for decision and action in a consistent way. The principle can be defined as "a statement of policy to guide decisions and actions in a proper manner". A principle is a sufficiently proven or trusted observation. Principles of extension have accordingly been derived in experiences gained in various parts of the world in the fields of extension service and rural development. These have been derived from past rural development programme of India both Government and non-Government and also from the United States, Cooperative Extension Service. Experiences from England, Japan, Israel, etc. have also contributed to these principles. These principles of extension are discussed below:

#### Principle of Cultural Differences

Extension education takes into consideration the culture, tradition, habits and customs of the local people. The educational methods should be in line with the culture of the people to make extension education effective. A blue-print of work designed for one part of the globe cannot be applied affectively to another part, mainly because of the cultural differences. These differences can be perceived in the way of life of the people, their attitudes, values, habits and customs. Each programme must take into consideration all these factors. Desirable changes in behaviour are accomplished when the process employed for organized systematic learning are effective in transmitting the necessary knowledge in a manner appropriate to the organizational and cultural patterns of the participants.

#### Principle of Cultural Change

The culture of people undergoes change while doing extension work. This principle can be summed up in the words of Earl Moncur:

"As each culture is unique and each particular situation within which a change is occurring, or is to be made, is unique, it is not possible to lay down prescription for what to identify and to describe the process which occurs so that each particular individual or team charged with responsibility for planning, execution or adjusting to some type of change, may be able to act in terms of the process".

To sum up, the extension worker should demonstrate the beneficial results of the useful ideas on the fields of some farmers. This will serve as a faith building measure.

### **Principle of Leadership**

You must be aware that it is very difficult for most countries to provide sufficient number of extension workers to meet their full demands. The extension workers are, therefore, short in number. It may not be possible for an extension worker to visit all the farmers individually. Much can be done through the local leaders. It is said that there is one leader in every ten persons. After identifying these leaders they should be trained and encouraged to do extension work.

Local leaders are the custodians of local thought and action. The involvement of local leaders and legitimization by them are essential for the success of a program.

### **PRINCIPLE OF WHOLE FAMILY APPROACH**

You know that family is the primary unit of a society. The target for extension work should, therefore, be the family. That is, developing the family as a whole economically and socially. Not only the farmers, the farm women and farm youth are also to be involved in extension programmes. Women and youth not only perform much of the labour involved, but have a great influence in decision making. The active participation of all members of the family can be promoted through the small agricultural units and local groups of adult farmers, home makers and farm youth organized at the village level. They should be involved in problem solving group discussions, local fairs, field days and agricultural shows, etc. All members of the family have to be approached equally by the extension programmes affect all members of the family. The family members have great influence in decision making.

- It creates mutual understanding.
- It aids in money management.
- It balances farm and family needs.
- It educates the younger members.
- It provides an activity outlet for all.
- It unifies aspects, such as social, economic and culture of the family.
- It assures family service to the community and society.
-

## **PRINCIPLE OF TRAINED SPECIALISTS**

Like other sciences, agriculture, animal husbandry and the home science are moving forward rapidly. Therefore, maintaining competency in any one of these fields is a continuous job. It is very difficult for an extension worker to know the latest findings of research in all the branches of science to deal with his day-to-day activity. As stated by Mosher (1958), It is impossible for any field agent to be really an expert in all the problems for which he is called upon to help. To supplement his abilities, and to keep field agents informed, both about new developments and market trends, it has been found necessary to have field agents supported by subject matter specialists. A subject matter extension specialist is responsible for keeping his knowledge up-to-date on research development, for training field extension staff in the latest techniques and. recommend practices in his field of specialization.

## **PRINCIPLE OF DEMOCRATIC APPROACH**

Extension work is democratic both in philosophy and procedure. It aims to operate through discussion and suggestion. Facts about a situation are shared with the people. All possible alternative solutions are placed before the participants and their merits are highlighted through mutual discussion. Ultimately, the people are left free to decide their line of action, the methods to be adopted in the local situation with their own resources and available Government assistance.

## **PRINCIPLE OF USE OF LOCAL RESOURCES**

We generally observe that a number of local resources, both human and material are not put to their full use. The adult and the youth are usually without work during the slack season. Under these conditions, it is the duty of the extension staff to mobilize and organize the local resources of men and material and the social groups for joint and cooperative action. As far as possible, efforts should be made to plan and execute all programmes locally. It is not very difficult to identify the local resources for executing various programmes. It, then helps to make self-development as the habit of the people which is a prerequisite for any nation to progress.

## **PRINCIPLE OF AIDED SELF-HELP**

The main job of extension worker is to motivate the people and to make efforts for self improvement. Learning is more effective when the learner accepts major responsibility for his own learning. But they may lack the resources to achieve their objectives. Extension agencies should provide them the necessary aid to help in their efforts towards change. Boyle (1965) has suggested that local people provided with effective leadership, pertinent facts systematically analyzed and well understood, are able to contribute to the identification of major problems, concerns and opportunities for further social and economic development.

## PRINCIPLE OF ADAPTABILITY

You know that village consists of different people and groups. Extension work and extension teaching methods must be flexible and adapted to suit the local variations. This is necessary because the people, their situation, their resources and constraints vary from place to place and from time to time.

### Principles of Use of Teaching Methods

Village people differ in their level of understanding and knowledge and therefore, only one extension method will not be useful in providing information to all. It has been proved by observations, experience and systematic studies that a combination of a number of suitable extension methods leads to higher success in the adoption and diffusion of technology among the people as compared with only one or two extension methods used by the extension staff. Written material will not be of use for those who cannot read it. Radio program will be of use only for those who listen to radio and demonstrations will be of use to those who see them. Research shows that the use of more than one extension method carries the message effectively to people.

### 1.5.15 Principle of Evaluation

To know where we are, we must start from where we took off. Evaluation is the tool or chart to provide direction. For this, it is necessary to review the development made so far and see whether the extension work is proceeding in the right direction. If it is not, then it is necessary to take corrective measures. The purpose of evaluation is to mitigate our error in making decisions by providing a factual basis for drawing conclusions and making sound judgments.

You have been told that extension work is educational in nature and therefore, its effectiveness should be measured by measuring the change in people resulting from the teaching process. The results of self-evaluations would help the extension workers in improving the quality of programmes in future.

## 5.3. 5 APPROACHES OF EXTENSION

Extension comes in many sizes and shapes. Although the following classification, made primarily for agriculture, is not complete and the distinctions between the types are not absolute, it gives an idea of the possibilities and opportunities that exist for the extension planner and for the policy- and decision-maker at the national level.

**The general extension approach.** In contrast to several other approaches, this approach assumes that technology and knowledge that are appropriate for local people exist but are not being used by them. The approach is usually fairly centralized and government-controlled. Success is measured in the adoption rate of recommendations and increases in national production.

**The commodity specialized approach.** The key characteristic of this approach groups all the functions for increased production - extension, research, input supply, marketing and prices - under one

administration. Extension is fairly centralized and is oriented towards one commodity or crop and the agent has many functions.

**The training and visit approach.** This fairly centralized approach is based on a rigorously planned schedule of visits to farmers and training of agents and subject matter specialists. Close links are maintained between research and extension. Agents are only involved in technology transfer. Success is related to increases in the production of particular crops or commodities.

**The agricultural extension participatory approach.** This approach often focuses on the expressed needs of farmers' groups and its goal is increased production and an improved quality of rural life. Implementation is often decentralized and flexible. Success is measured by the numbers of farmers actively participating and the sustainability of local extension organizations.

**The project approach.** This approach concentrates efforts on a particular location, for a specific time period, often with outside resources. Part of its purpose is often to demonstrate techniques and methods that could be extended and sustained after the project period. Change in the short term is often a measure of success.

**The farming systems development approach.** A key characteristic of this type of extension is its systems or holistic approach at the local level. Close ties with research are required and technology for local needs is developed locally through an iterative process involving local people. Success is measured by the extent to which local people adopt and continue to use technologies developed by the programme.

**The cost-sharing approach.** This approach assumes that cost-sharing with local people (who do not have the means to pay the full cost) will promote a programme that is more likely to meet local situations and where extension agents are more accountable to local interests. Its purpose is to provide advice and information to facilitate farmers' self-improvement. Success is often measured by the willingness to pay.

**The educational institution approach.** This approach uses educational institutions which have technical knowledge and some research ability to provide extension services for rural people. Implementation and planning are often controlled by those who determine school curricula. The emphasis is often on the transfer of technical knowledge.

## EXTENSION METHODS

There are several methods for extension work:

- The individual/household approach

- The group approach: meetings, field days, demonstrations, support to groups
- The school approach
- Mass extension methods.

None of these methods can be singled out as being the best one; all of them have their advantages and disadvantages. The choice of method depends on various factors such as:

A combination of extension methods is more effective than just one method. In an area where tenure is communal, or land management is based on communal efforts, a group approach is likely to be more effective than an individual approach. Meetings, field days and approaches to schools may also be good options. Usually decisions have to be made communally, and the best entry point may be through established decision-making systems, e.g. community meetings. Knowledge of traditional systems for making decisions is essential, particularly in pastoral areas where such systems are often still of great importance.

Even if the tenure is individual, communal management practices often exist. An obvious example is post-harvest grazing. Changes in behavior in this respect may be very desirable since uncontrolled post-harvest grazing is a constraint to tree growing and soil conservation, and a change in this practice can best be achieved if the whole community is addressed. It may be difficult for an individual to introduce restrictions in this situation since the neighbours expect grazing to be free for all.

In communities where group work is common, and groups have already been organized for various tasks, a group approach may also be more feasible than an individual approach.

If an organization carrying out extension is rich in resources, a more costly approach can be chosen than if the organization is resource poor. It is, however, just as important for a resource-rich organization to carefully consider which method is best for the area, and how the extension work should be organized in order to prevent waste of resources. Cost-effectiveness should always be borne in mind, and past experience indicates, for example, that issuing free seedlings is rarely a sustainable approach since it creates dependency and discourages private commercial initiatives in tree-seedling production. An excessive level of material support generally creates dependence, and often proves to be counter productive in the long run.

The individual/household approach

This approach is most effective for activities to be undertaken by or within the full control of the individual farmer or household. Matters related to the individual farm should, as much as possible, be

discussed with the whole family. If the whole family is involved, more problems are highlighted and more experience is brought to the discussion.

### **Advantages of the individual methods are:**

- Unclear messages that have not been fully understood can easily be clarified
- The extension officer is able to secure co-operation and inspire the confidence of the family through personal contact
- It facilitates immediate feedback on the effectiveness of the measures discussed
- It may be the best way to ensure that everyone in the family participates in decision making.
- Disadvantages of the individual method:
- It is expensive in terms of time and transport
- Only a few farmers may be visited, and sometimes they may be mainly the extension worker's friends
- The area covered is small since all the effort is concentrated on a few farmers.

### **Check your progress -2**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

3. Write the Principles of Extension?

4. List out the Extension Methods?

### **The group approach**

The group approach involves working with groups or the community at large. It is suitable when discussing matters related to the whole community (e.g. post-harvest grazing, protection and management of indigenous forests), and when there are activities to be undertaken by a group, e.g. group nurseries. It is also suitable when there is a need to address individual matters but more cheaply than can be done with the individual approach. The direct target group may be a women's group, a church organization, a co-operative society or the community in general.

Extension work can also be carried out at meetings, either organized specifically to discuss agro forestry issues, or by making use of meetings that were already organized for some other purpose but where some discussion on agro forestry can be accommodated. Meetings are effective venues for receiving information from the community, for discussing issues of communal or individual interest and for spreading new ideas.

Field days and demonstrations are best organized on individual farms. There are two kinds of demonstration: result demonstrations and method demonstrations. Result demonstrations show farmers the

results of a practice that has been in use for some time and are intended to arouse the farmer's interest in the practice. They can also be used to compare older practices or techniques with new ones. Method demonstrations show farmers how a particular activity or task is carried out, e.g. how to plant a tree. This type of demonstration is among the oldest methods of teaching. It is an effective method since the farmers can practise, see, hear and discuss during the demonstration.

The catchment approach is a special type of group approach that has been used since 1987 in the National Soil and Water Conservation Programme of the Ministry of Agriculture. All farmers within a certain area, normally some 200-400 hectares, are mobilized and trained for conservation efforts. A catchment committee consisting of, and elected by, the local farmers assists the extension staff in awareness creation, layout of contours, implementation and follow up. The group approach is combined with the individual approach since each farm is subject to specific advice and layout.

Training and visit (T&V) is not an extension method but rather a management system for extension work built on a combination of the individual and group approaches. In this system, the extension staff are trained every fortnight on the relevant extension issues for that time of the year and the staff then extend these messages to contact farmers who receive special attention. Field days and other visits are arranged on the farm of the contact farmer so that his neighbours can also benefit from the knowledge he has gained.

- It is generally cheaper than the individual approach
- More people are reached within a given period of time
- There is an exchange of ideas and experiences among the group
- It is easy to monitor.

#### **Disadvantages of the group approach:**

- It may take a long time to arrive at a decision
- Influential people in the community may dominate the discussions
- It is sometimes difficult to get people to agree on issues and to work together
- Individual problems are not well addressed in a group
- People who are not members of the group will not be reached.

#### **Mass extension methods**

mass extension methods involve the use of the mass media, e.g. radio, posters, drama, television, newspapers, films, slide shows, to inform the public. Mass media are mainly used to create awareness.

#### **Advantages of mass extension methods:**

- These methods can increase the impact of extension staff through rapid spread of information
- Many people can be reached within a short time, even in remote areas.

#### **Disadvantages of mass extension methods:**

- The amount of information that can be transmitted is limited
- Radio and television reception is poor in some areas and the target group may not own sets, particularly TVs
- It is difficult to evaluate the impact since there is no immediate feedback
- Production of both programmes and printed materials is costly and requires special skills.

### **5.4 APPROACHES TO RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT**

There are no universally accepted approaches to rural development. It is a choice influenced by time, space and culture. The term rural development connotes overall development of rural areas to improve the quality of life of rural people. In this sense, it is a comprehensive and multidimensional concept, and encompasses the development of agriculture and allied activities, village and cottage industries and crafts, socio- economic infrastructure, community services and facilities and, above all, human resources in rural areas. So, the types of approaches to rural development are as follows:

- i) Broad front Approach:
- ii) Sectoral Approach:
- iii) Participatory Approach:
- iv) Area Development Approach:
- v) Target Approach:
- vi) Basic Needs Approach:
- vii) Employment-oriented Integrated Approach to Rural Development:
- viii) Integrated Development Approach:
- ix) Growth Center Approach:
- x) Community-driven development (CDD) or Approach:
- xi) Gandhian Approach and its current relevance:

Broad Front Approach:

Community Development and Panchayat Raj were often described as 'Broad-front' or 'Multipronged' development strategies as they aimed at development of villages covering all the major spheres like Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Rural Industries, Communication, Health, Education, Women Welfare and Social Welfare (Desai, 1983). In the early 1960's India revised its rural development strategy and adopted sectoral approach of development, due to financial limitations and pressing needs and priorities (Sharma, 1977)\* In the process, it launched specific sectoral development programmes such as Intensive Agricultural District Programme, Intensive Agricultural Area Programme, Intensive Cattle Development Programme, etc.

While the sectoral approach to development was fruitful to a major extent in eliminating scarcity of food, it has also contributed to the growing regional imbalances and inequality among the people within the community, the later has affected significantly the rural poor, viz., the landless labour, artisans, marginal and small farmers. As a result, the development policy of India was revised once again in late 1970's in which development of the rural poor became the primary concern of rural development. Antyodaya, Integrated Rural Development Programme, National Rural Employment Programme are some of the programmes that were introduced in India for the development of rural poor. The present study is an attempt to review the functioning of Integrated Rural Development Programme with specific reference to the progress made by the beneficiaries and the problems confronted by them in the development process. A theoretical introduction to the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) covering the aspects of its history, meaning and scope is given hereunder.

In early fifties, rural development efforts began with multi-purpose approach which included activities related to agriculture, animal husbandry, co-operation, irrigation, village and small scale industries, health, sanitation, housing, transport and communication, welfare of women and rural employment. The Community Development Programmes (CDP) and National Extension Service (NES) initiated in 1952 fell under this approach. Though CDP, as a holistic approach, did not succeed as expected. The impact of programme was ephemeral. It was said that the community development programme has been like film of butter spread over a large loaf, thus provide ineffective in a complex society. Hence, it could not make a dent into social fabric as was expected. The critics also point out that; i) It brought about a great disparity between the rich and the poor, ii) It hardly touched the problem of meeting the felt needs of the people, iii) It failed to bring about the process of modernization through social education, and iv) Lack of people's participation. In spite of the criticisms leveled against CDP and NES, the fact cannot be denied that the programme added a new dimension to the process of change and generated community consciousness to solve community problems. 46 The multi-purpose

approach was a significant approach, which laid the foundation stone for the upliftment of rural India.

### Sectoral Approach:

Sectoral development planning in individual sectors like education, health, housing and social security are included in sectoral approach of development. This approach advocates compartmentalization of development in different sectors as if these are watertight compartments and have nothing to do with each other. Its inadequacies stem from this compartmentalized approach. Little attempts are to be made to integrate them.

By 1960's the situation was rather critical on the food front. The need for great concentration on food production led to strategy for locating potential sectors and well-endowed districts and areas capable of yielding higher agricultural production. More attention was paid in improving productivity per acre than on extending the acreage. Thus, the Intensive Agriculture Development Programme (1960) (IADP) and later in 1963 intensive Agricultural Area Programme (IAAP) were launched. Both IADP and IAAP constituted landmarks in the development of agriculture, indeed of the rural sector in India. The programmes placed agriculture on a qualitatively different footing with wide ranging repercussions on rural scenario. The programmes resulted in a spectacular breakthrough in total agricultural production and productivity per hectare but at the expense of social equality and social justice.

### Participatory Approach:

This concept has been developed from participatory development.

“Participatory development is a process through which stakeholders can influence and share control over development initiatives, and over the decisions and resources that affect themselves”(ADB, 1996).

- A process to engage local populations in development projects.
- PD uses local decision making and capacities to steer and define the nature of an intervention.
- PD aims at achieving a localized capital accumulation process based on the skills development and local resources generation.
- The essential feature of PD is social mobilization
- PD gives a new self-confidence through which the community can engage in more ambitious projects involving collective action and management.

### Scope and Applications of Participation

- Participation at the micro level of projects such as project planning and design decisions, project implementation, monitoring and evaluation.
- Participation at the macro level, for instance, participatory poverty assessments (PPAs) are designed to influence policy particularly in relation to development and poverty reduction strategies (Norton et al., 2001).
- Between the micro and the macro level, a number of exercises in participation at an intermediate or meso level such as participatory budgeting in local governments and various forms of territory-based rural development.

#### Types of Participation: Passive Participation

People are told what is going to happen or has already happened. Top down, information shared belongs only to external professionals. Information giving People answer questions posed by extractive researchers, using surveys etc. People not able to influence the research. Consultation People are consulted and external agents listen to their views. Usually externally defined problems and solutions. People not really involved in decision making. Participation by material incentives Provision of resources, e.g. labor. Little incentive to participate, for example farm research, some community forestry.

#### Functional Participation

Groups are formed to meet predetermined objectives. Usually done after major project decisions are made, therefore initially dependent on outsiders but may become self dependent and enabling. Interactive Participation Joint analysis to joint actions. Possible use of new local institutions or strengthening existing ones. Enabling and empowering so people have a stake in maintaining structures or practices. Self-Mobilization Already empowered, take decisions independently of external institutions. May or may not challenge existing inequitable distributions of wealth and power.

Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) To enable people so that they can express and analyze the realities of their lives and conditions, to plan themselves what actions to take, and to monitor and evaluate the results. The difference is that PRA emphasizes processes that empower local people, whereas RRA is mainly seen as a means for outsiders to gather information (Chambers and Blackburn, 1996)

#### Key Elements of Participatory Development Process:

Growth of consciousness and group identity. The realization of the creative potential of the poor. Empowerment: The process of

reconstructing a group identity, raising consciousness, acquiring new skills and upgrading their knowledge base. Participation: Power to break the vicious circle of poverty

### Variations of Participatory Development Manifestations

- Enabling "mutual learning " to enhance "communication, listening and learning between development workers and those they serve.

### Implementation

1. Information-sharing tools: News and updates via media
2. Consultation tools: Discussion forums, debates, focus groups etc.
3. Collaborative planning tools: Establishment of local-level planning committees
4. Benefits High start-up cost but less expensive and more sustainable in the long run
5. More relevant to local populations than traditional development projects
6. Addressing local needs Criticisms
7. Costly and slow
8. Smaller target population than traditional development
9. Treating everyone same in the communities.
10. Participatory Approaches to Rural Poverty Alleviation  
Diagnosis/ project identification, community planning, and formulation • Diagnosing the situations that give rise to problems, setting priorities for their resolution, identifying and formulating project interventions that may help solve some of those problems. Research and extension, innovation, knowledge • The research and development realm consists of co- creative processes to identify needs and opportunities, generate new information and innovations, consolidate them with existing practices, and then translate them into learning objectives and activities for enhanced performance.
11. Natural resource management - Natural resource management development is a main area of application of participatory approaches to help poor in managing the natural resources available to them. Governance and Decentralization • Good governance makes it possible for citizens, individually or in groups, to articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights and negotiate their differences. • Within the broad area of governance, decentralization, which brings decision-

making closer to the local level, is potentially important to participation, if it is done well, lead to more responsive government and new opportunities for citizens to participate.

#### Area Development Approach:

This approach contemplates that development of an area depends not only on the development of an adequate infrastructure network but also the way factors of the local economy are activated around the production infrastructure. In other words, for development of an area, spatial and functional integration is necessary. Thus, while rural growth centers provide ideal locations for the provision of infrastructural facilities, their hinterlands are regarded as basic planning units for integrated multi-sectoral planning to achieve integrated development of an area. The approach, while taking area poverty into consideration, provides a balance between various sectoral activities as well as spatial pattern of growth; however, it does not ensure that economic growth is being shared by all classes and communities of the rural areas.

#### Target Approach:

In order to accommodate the lagging sectors/regions rural development was re- conceptualized to highlight the improvement of the social and economic life of a specialized group of people. The target group comprised of marginal and small farmers, landless agricultural labourers for whom special programmes such as Small Farmer Development Agency 47 (SFDA) and Marginal Farmers Development Agency (MFALDA) were started. It was noticed that the target group approach showed a better results where information facilities were satisfactory and administrative and organizational arrangements were reasonably strong. This approach was for the correction of regional imbalance. In this connection, mention may be made of Tribal

Area Development Programme (TADP, 1972), Hill Area Development Programme (HADP, 1974-75), Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP, 1970), Desert Development Programme (DDP, 1977-78), and Command Area Development Programme (CADP, 1975). These programmes were fairly successful in terms of implementation.

#### Basic Needs Approach:

The basic needs approach gives primacy to the need for a minimum standard of living of the poor as a central concern of development planning. It therefore contributes to the formulation of a development strategy, which aims at reducing poverty and inequality, promoting growth of employment and distributive justice. The basic needs concept is a wider scope covering personal and social consumption

and also human rights, peoples participation, employment and growth with justice. 48 The Minimum Needs Programme (MNP) in India was introduced in 1974 during the first year of fifth plan period. The fifth plan proposed MNP with the objectives of establishing network of basic services and facilities of social consumption in all areas of upto nationally accepted norms within in a specified time frame. It is essentially a programme of investment in human resources development and seeks to improve the consumption of those living below poverty line and thereby improving productive efficiency of people and their quality of life. The main components of MNP are: (1) Rural health, (2) Rural education, (3) Rural roads, (4) Rural drinking water, (5) Rural electrification, (6) House sites for landless, (7) Environmental improvement in slums, and (8) Nutrition.

#### Employment-oriented Integrated Approach to Rural Development:

With a view to overcome the limitations of earlier approaches and to improve the quality of life of the poor living in the rural areas, a multilevel, multi-sector, with multi- section concept of integrated rural 49 development was launched in 1978-79. The different programmes were brought under single umbrella of Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP). It aimed at ensuring accelerated welfare and development of the poorest of the poor based on Gandhian concept of Antyodaya. Several programmes for providing employment to rural poor, namely, rural works programme, rural employment guarantee programme, IRDP, Training Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) and Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) were introduced.

#### **Integrated Development Approach:**

In the context of problems in the area development approach to tackle the problems of rural poverty, a new strategy of development, i.e. the integrated development approach has been developed because the area development approach by and large failed to address the question of inequalities in the distribution of employment, incomes and assets. A mere geographical emphasis, as is the case with the area development approach, has been found to be inadequate in solving the problems. The Indian economy and social structure are characterized by widespread poverty, poor health conditions, illiteracy, exploitation, inequitable distribution of land and other assets and lack of infrastructure and public utilities (roads, communications etc). Clearly, this means that the problem requires an approach that will take into account all these factors in devising a comprehensive strategy to further rural development. The concept of “integrated rural development” came into vogue with the need for a multipurpose thrust to rural planning. It stresses that various facets of rural development, which have an impact on rural life, are interrelated and cannot be

looked at in isolation. Thus, an integrated approach towards rural development is essential. The various dimensions of rural life---growth of agriculture and allied activities, rural industrialization, education, health, public works, poverty alleviation and rural employment programmes -- all form a part of an integrated approach to the problems of rural development.

#### Growth Center Approach:

It is most appropriate for planning integrated rural development. Based on the principle of “equal accessibility”, this approach can bring all these facilities, services and local administration [panchayats] within easy reach of the population. The growth center should be equipped with all the required facilities such as:

- [a] Training center to impart practical training and build capacity to enhance productivity of agriculture and rural/cottage/agro-based industries
- [b] Mobile training-cum-demonstration unit to provide on the spot training, repair and maintenance, services for agricultural and industrial machineries
- [c] Marketing-cum-warehousing facilities that can provide safe storage and marketing of farm produce and cottage industries products
- [d] Forest and grass nursery to provide fruits, fuel, fodder and forest cover
- [e] Developmental school based on the “earning while learning principle” and oriented to develop a cadre of self-employed workers in the area of human, animal, plant and soil-health care and
- [f] Residential housing complex for workers in the project area.

#### **Community-driven development (CDD) or Approach:**

It is derived from community-based development (CBD), which is a developmental initiative that provides control of the development process, resources and decision making authority directly to community groups. The underlying assumption of CDD projects are that communities are the best judges of how their lives and livelihoods can be improved and, if provided with adequate resources and information, they can organize themselves to provide for their immediate needs. Moreover, CDD programmes are motivated by their trust in people (Naidoo and Finn, 2001) and hence it advocates people changing their own environment as a powerful force for development. By treating poor people as assets and partners in the development process, previous studies have shown that CDD is responsive to local demands, inclusive, and more cost-effective compared to centrally-led NGO-based programmes. CDD can also be supported by strengthening

and financing community groups, facilitating community access to information, and promoting an enabling environment through policy and institutional reform.

### Check your progress -3

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

5. Write any four approaches to Rural Development?

6. What are the main components of MNP?

## 5.5 TAGORE: SRINIKETAN EXPERIMENT

In 1920, Rabindra Nath Tagore laid the foundation of the Sriniketan Institute for Rural Reconstruction and formulated a programme for the all-round improvement in the Village of his Zamindari with the objective of studying rural problems and of helping the Villagers to develop agriculture, improving the livestock, formation of co-operatives. Tagore believed in selfhelp and mutual help and wanted the village workers to be involved in the life of rural people and work for their welfare.

He started this programme in the cluster of 8 Villages but were not very successful and can only be described as rural welfare works. The absence of market facilities, professional guidance, lack of co-ordination between the implementing authority and improper incentives for workers made the task more difficult and desired results could not be achieved. The Sriniketan experiment meant for bringing back life in its completeness into the Villages, making rural folks self-reliant and en-grading self-respectful, acquainted with the cultural traditions of their own country and competent to make an efficient use of modern resources for the improvement of their physical, intellectual and economic conditions. Though this experiment was not success, it attained certain physical and notable results.

## 5.6 THE GANDHIAN APPROACH TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT

In the Indian context rural development may be defined as maximising production in agriculture and allied activities in the rural areas including development of rural industries with emphasis on village and cottage industries.

It attaches importance to the generation of maximum possible employment opportunities in rural areas, especially for the weaker sections of the community so as to enable them to improve their standard of living.

Provision of certain basic amenities like drinking water, electricity, especially for the productive purpose, link roads connecting villages to market centres and facilities for health and education etc. figure prominently in the scheme of rural development.

Theoretically, Gandhian approach to rural development may be labelled as 'idealist'. It attaches supreme importance to moral values and gives primacy to moral values over material conditions. The Gandhians believe that the source of moral values in general lies in religion and Hindu scriptures like the Upanishads and the Gita, in particular.

The concept of 'Rama Rajya' is the basis of Gandhiji's idea of an ideal social order. Gandhi defined Rama Rajya as "sovereignty of the people based on moral authority". He did not view Rama as a king, and people as his subjects. In the Gandhian scheme, 'Rama' stood for God or one's own 'inner voice' Gandhi believed in a democratic social order in which people are supreme. Their supremacy is, however, not absolute. It is subject to moral values.

#### Ideal Village:

The village is the basic unit of the Gandhian ideal social order. Gandhi succinctly pointed out, "If the village perishes India will perish too.... We have to make a choice between India of the villages that is as ancient as herself and India of the cities which are a creation of foreign domination". Gandhi's ideal village belongs to the Pre-British period, when Indian villages were supposed to constitute the federation of self-governing autonomous republics.

According to Gandhiji, this federation will be brought about not by coercion or compulsion but by the voluntary offer of every village republic to join such a federation. The work of the central authority will only be to coordinate the work of different village republics and to supervise and manage things of common interest, as education, basic industries, health, currency, banking etc.

The central authority will have no power to enforce its decisions on village republics except the moral pressure or power of persuasion. The economic system and transport system introduced by the British have destroyed the "republican" character of the villages.

Gandhi, however, admitted that in olden times tyranny and oppression were in fact practised by feudal chiefs. But, "odds were even". Today the odds are heavy. It is most demoralising." In this way in the Gandhian scheme of things the ancient 'republic', an Indian village without tyranny and exploitation serves as a model unit.

#### Decentralisation:

Gandhi firmly believes that village republics can be built only through decentralisation of social and political power. In such a system decision-making power will be vested in the Village Panchayat rather than in the State and the national capital. The representatives would be

elected by all adults for a fixed period of five years. The elected representatives would constitute a council, called the Panchayat.

The Panchayat exercises legislative, executive and judicial functions. It would look after education, health and sanitation of the village. It would be the Panchayats responsibility to protect and uplift 'untouchables' and other poor people. Resources for Gandhian Approach to managing village affairs would be raised from the villages.

All the conflicts and disputes would be resolved within the village. And as far as possible not a single case is to be referred to courts outside the village. The Panchayat would play its role in propagating the importance of moral and spiritual values among the ruralites for bringing about rural reconstruction.

Apart from managing its own affairs the village would also be capable of defending itself against any invasion. A non-violent peace brigade of volunteers would be organised to defend the village. This corps would be different from the usual military formation. They would repose the utmost faith in non-violence and God.

Self-sufficiency:

Such a decentralised polity implies a decentralised economy. It can be attained only through self-sufficiency at the village level. The village should be self-sufficient as far as its basic needs – food, clothing, and other necessities – are concerned. The village has to import certain things which it cannot produce in the village. "We shall have to produce more of what we can, in order thereby to obtain in exchange, what we are unable to produce".

The village should produce food-crops and cotton in order to meet its requirements. Some lands should also be earmarked for cattle and for a playground for adults and children. If some land is still available, it should be used for growing useful cash crops like tobacco, opium, etc. to enable the village to get in exchange things which it does not produce.

Village economy should be planned with a view to providing full employment to all the adults of the village. Each man should be guaranteed employment to enable him to meet his basic needs in the village itself so that he is not forced to migrate to towns. In the ultimate analysis full employment should be linked with equality.

Physical labour occupies a central place in the Gandhian concept of the self-sufficient village. In this respect he was highly influenced by Rus-kin and Tolstoy. According to Gandhi, each man must do physical labour to earn his bread. Physical labour is necessary for moral discipline and for the sound development of the mind. Intellectual

labour is only for one's own satisfaction and one should not demand payment for it.

The needs of the body must be supplied by the body. Gandhi said, "If all laboured for their bread then there would be enough food and enough leisure for all." Shriman Narayan rightly observes, "Gandhiji recognised toil to be not a curse but the joyful business of life as it has the power to make man healthier, merrier, fitter and kindlier".

#### Industrialization:

Gandhiji maintained that industrialization would help only a few and will lead to concentration of economic power. Industrialization leads to passive or active exploitation of the villages. It encourages competition. Large scale production requires marketing. Marketing means profit-seeking through an exploitative mechanism.

Moreover, industrialization replaces manpower and hence it adds to unemployment. In a country like India, where millions of labourers in the villages do not get work for even six months in a year, industrialization will not only increase unemployment but force labourers to migrate to urban areas. This will ruin villages.

In order to avoid such a catastrophe, village and cottage industries should be revived. They provide employment to meet the needs of the villagers and facilitate village self-sufficiency. Gandhians are not against machine per se if it meets two aims: self-sufficiency and full employment. According to Gandhi, there would be no objection to villagers using even the modern machines and tools that they could make and could afford to use. Only they should not be used as a means of exploitation of others.

#### Trusteeship:

Gandhiji was not against the institution of private property. But he wanted to restrict the right of private property to what was necessary to yield an honourable livelihood. For the excess he prescribed the principle of trusteeship.

Gandhiji emphasized the principle of trusteeship in social and economic affairs. He firmly believed that all social property should be held in trust. The capitalists would take care not only of themselves but also of others. Some of their surplus wealth would be used for the rest of the society.

The poor workers, under trusteeship, would consider the capitalists as their benefactors; and would repose faith in their noble intentions. Gandhiji felt that if such a trusteeship were established, the welfare of the workers would increase and the clash between the workers and

employers would be avoided. Trusteeship would help considerably “in realising a state of equality on earth.”

Gandhiji firmly believed that land should not be owned by any individual. Land belongs to God. Hence, individual ownership of land should be shunned. For that a landowner should be persuaded to become a trustee of his land. He should be convinced that the land he owns does not belong to him. Land belongs to the community and must be used for the welfare of the community. They are merely trustees. By persuasion the heart of landowners should be changed and they should be induced to donate their land voluntarily.

If the land owners do not oblige and continue to exploit the poor workers, the latter should organise non-violent, non-cooperation, civil disobedience struggles against them. Gandhiji rightly held the view that “no person can amass wealth without the cooperation, willing or forced, of the people concerned”.

If this knowledge were to penetrate and spread amongst the poor, they would become strong and learn how to free themselves from the crushing inequalities which have pushed them to the verge of starvation. But the oppressed should not take recourse to violent methods. In the Gandhian scheme of things, the principle of cooperation, love and service is most important and violence has no place in it. Violence is against “moral values” and civilized society is inconceivable in the absence of moral values.

Gandhiji’s concept of development is oriented to the uplift of the common man. He preferred village habitats to megalopolises and Swadeshi craft to imported technology for the economic well being of the common man. He stressed the need for cottage industries in place of gigantic industries and advocated for a decentralised economy instead of a centralised one.

He realised the need for integrated rural development and believed that education, health and vocation should be properly integrated. He emphasised the need for education and training which he called ‘Naitalim’ (New training) for rural reconstruction.

In fine, Gandhian approach to rural development strives to reconstruct village republics which would be non-violent, self-governed and self-sufficient so far as the basic necessities of ruralites are concerned. Apart from creating a new socio-economic order, it Endeavour’s to transform man; otherwise the changes in the socio-economic order will be short-lived.

### **5.7 C.SUBRAMANIAN**

Integrated Rural Development according to C. Subramanian the then Finance Minister of India, means 'Something more comprehensive and

fundamental, a systematic, scientific and integrated use of our natural resources, and as part of this process, enabling every person to engage himself in a productive and socially useful occupation and earn an income that would meet atleast the basic needs'. IRDP is a strategy which focuses attention on the rural poor and attempts to improve the quality of life of the weaker sections of the society in the overall spectrum of development and growth. The strategy is just not an attempt of increasing agricultural productivity but ensuring that the poor and the weaker sections share the benefits of economic and social progress. "Integrated Rural Development may be defined as a systematic approach aiming at total development of the area and the people by bringing about the necessary institutional and attitudinal changes and by delivering a package of services through extension method to encompass not only the economic field, i.e., development of agricultural and rural industries, etc., but also the establishment of the required social infrastructure and services in the area of health and nutrition, family planning, etc., with the ultimate objective of improving the quality of life in the rural area". Thus, the concept of Integrated Rural Development came into vogue with the need for a multi-purpose thrust to rural planning. It is a 'multi-level, a multi-sector, and multi section concept'. As a multi-level concept, it encompasses rural development at various levels in the spatial hierarchy such as the viable cluster of village communities, blocks and districts. As a multi-sector concept, it encompasses agriculture, industry, education, health and transportation. As a multi-section concept, it encompasses socio-economic development of the target group of the weaker sections or sub-sections of the rural population, such as, landless labourers, artisans, small farmers, marginal farmers, Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes.

### 5.8 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed the concepts and definitions of extension given by various authors, academicians and experts. Extension has been conceived differently by different persons, viz., a process, an effort, an education, a system of education, a method or way, an applied science; a social science, an integrated behavioural science and a management science. The concept of extension differs from context to context. Persuasion and attitude change might be the sole conceptual objective in developed societies but in under developed and resource poor situations, extension cannot be isolated from land reforms, credit, arranging inputs and infrastructure and other development programmes. Therefore, extension is more of a management science.

The basic philosophy of extension is directed towards changing the outlook of human beings by educating them. Extension work is developed on the principle of helping the rural people to stand on their own feet. The philosophy is based on the hypothesis that rural people are intelligent, are interested in obtaining new information and at the same time have a keen desire to utilize this for their welfare. Principles of extension are derived from this philosophy on the basis of experiences gained in various parts of

the world. The principles of extension given by various authors are: principle of cultural differences, principle of cultural change, principle of grass-root organization, principle of cooperation and participation, principle of interests and needs, principle of learning by doing, principle of leadership, principle of whole family approach, principle of trained specialist, principle of use of local resources, principle of democratic approach, principle of aided self-help, principle of adaptability, principle of use of teaching methods, principle of evaluation and principle of satisfaction.

The general objective of extension is to raise the standard of living of the rural people. It aims at the overall development of the target group, i.e., the economic, social, moral and spiritual development of the human population. The general objectives may also be listed in terms of knowledge, attitude and skill development. The specific objectives of extension would vary for different target groups. For the farmers, the specific objective would be to educate and help them in increasing agricultural production by adoption of the scientific technology. For the rural women the objective would be to educate them to increase their efficiency in house-

hold and other activities in which they are involved. In spite of these variations in specific objectives, the final objective of extension remains to bring about improvement in quality of life of the rural people.

### **5.9 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

1. Write the meaning of Rural Extension?
2. Write the Definition of Extension?
3. Write the Principles of Extension?
4. List out the Extension Methods?
5. Write any four approaches to Rural Development?
6. What are the main components of MNP?

### **5.10 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

1. The word 'Extension' is derived from the Latin roots "ex" meaning "out" "tensio" meaning "stretching". Extension is that type of education which is stretched out to the people in the rural means far and near, beyond the limits of the education to which the formal type of education is usually confined.
2. Extension is an out-of-school system of education in which adults and young people learn by doing. According to Esminger (1957), extension is education and that its purpose is to change attitudes and practices of people with 'whom the work is done'.
3. Principles of extension have accordingly been derived in experiences gained in various parts of the world in the fields of extension service and rural development. These have been derived from past rural development programme of India both Government and non-Government and also from the United States, Cooperative Extension Service. Experiences from England, Japan, Israel, etc. have also contributed to these principles.
4. There are several methods for extension work: (1) The individual/household approach; (2) The group approach:

- meetings, field days, demonstrations, support to groups ; (3) The school approach ; (4) Mass extension methods.
5. approaches to rural development are as follows: (i) Broad front Approach: ii) Sectoral Approach: iii) Participatory; approach: iv) Area Development Approach:
  6. The main components of MNP are: (1) Rural health, (2) Rural education, (3) Rural roads, (4) Rural drinking water, (5) Rural electrification, (6) House sites for landless, (7) Environmental improvement in slums, and (8) Nutrition.

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### 5.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

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# UNIT VI – RURAL DEVELOPMENT

## Structure

- 6.1. Introduction
- 6.2. Aims and Objectives
- 6.3. Rural Development Administration
  - 6.3.1 History
  - 6.3.2 Central
  - 6.3.3 State
  - 6.3.4 District
  - 6.3.5 Block level Functions
- 6.4. Panchayat Raj Institutions
  - 1.4.1 Origin and Evaluation
  - 1.4.2 Philosophy
- 6.5 New Panchayat raj System
  - 6.5.1 73<sup>rd</sup> Amendment and its Salient Features
  - 6.5.2 Structure of PRIs
  - 6.5.3 Powers of Grama Sabha
  - 6.5.4 Features of Tamil nadu Panchayat Act, 1994
- 6.6 Government of India - Finance Commission Center and State
- 6.7 Powers of PRIs in Implementation of RCD Programmes
- 6.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 6.9 Unit- End- Exercises
- 6.10 Answer to check your Progress
- 6.11 Suggested Readings

NOTES

## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the earlier blocks you have read about the rural socio-economic structure and the various rural development approaches and strategies. It is evident that rural development in our country has to be oriented necessarily towards the integrated development of rural areas, the transformation and modernization of rural economy and society, and the alleviation of poverty. For this purpose, you would agree, we need mobilization of resources and their allocation specifically to implement programmes for the benefit of the rural population, particularly the rural poor. The administrative structure for the implementation of rural development programmes therefore assumes special significance. In India, today, a major agency for development is the administrative machinery itself. A pertinent question is whether the present administrative structure is capable of playing its role as an agent of change. In order to accomplish this task, i.e. bring about changes in a country like India, three conditions are essential. First, the ideas, attitudes, values, orientations and predispositions of the bureaucracy should change if it is to succeed as a major instrument of social transformation. Functionaries in the development administration are not expected to rule or function as masters of the people, instead they are required to facilitate, stimulate and promote change and development. They have to be responsive to the needs and aspirations of the people. Secondly, the bureaucratic organization and structure should be reasonably decentralized, rendered free from

*Self-Instructional Material*

procedural rigidities and should involve the people in the process of decision-making. Thirdly, since political leadership lays down policy and gives direction to development, administrative performance is to a large extent influenced by the support and cooperation of political leaders. It is therefore essential that bureaucrats and political leaders develop a new understanding of their complementary roles and forge functional relationships accordingly.

This unit aims at familiarizing you with the existing organizational and administrative structure of the rural development programmes, and the features that characterize the system.

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## 6.2 AIMS OF OBJECTIVES

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After studying this unit you should be able to:

- Describe the existing organizational structure for rural development programmes;
- Identify the changes brought about and sought to be brought about in the structure since the inception of the Community Development Programme;
- list the problems encountered by the different functionaries;
- assess the strengths and weaknesses of the administrative structure; and
- Outline the future prospects. Describe the principles of extension for effective execution of extension programme.
- List out the general and specific objectives of extension

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## 6.3. RURAL DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

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To understand the present administrative setup of the rural development bureaucracy better, it is essential to find out its roots right from the Planning Era. We should know, how we reached the present day scenario and how the development approach of the policy planners influenced the administrative infrastructure at various stages?

### 6.3.1 HISTORY

**Historical Overview:** The present administrative system of India was inherited from the colonial rulers, and it is this structure, which has primarily been entrusted with the functions and responsibilities of rural development. Some modifications, however, have been grafted onto it from time to time. The revenue and general administrative organization and structure have been mobilized for rural development functions. Changes have been made since the inception of the Community Development Programme in 1952, which for the first time attempted in a big way to set up development administration right at the field level, and it included induction of technical expertise and training of manpower to undertake various schemes under its purview.

It was the Grow More Food Enquiry Committee, which in its report submitted in 1952 stressed, for the first time, the need for an integrated organizational structure for rural development. It also laid

down the blueprint for the setup at various levels—the National, the State, the District, the Block and the Village. It recommended the establishment of the taluq as a development block covering 100-120 villages under the charge of a Development Officer for the Block who would be the Revenue Divisional Officer assisted by four Technical Officers (one each for agriculture, animal husbandry, cooperation and engineering) and Village Level Workers, one each for 5 to 10 villages. The report also recommended that development activities at the district should be unified under the Collector assisted by specialist officers and at the state level there should be a Cabinet Committee presided over by the Chief Minister and a non-official Board for coordinating policies and facilitating joint action.

This blueprint was given shape with the launching of the Community Development Programme (CDP) in 1952 followed by the National Extension Services (1953) which covered the whole country. Under the CDP programme, the development block was created as the basic unit of planning and integrated rural development comprising agriculture, animal husbandry, village industry, education, health, social welfare, etc., with special emphasis on self-help and public participation. The most striking administrative innovations made by the Community Development Programme were identification of blocks as the units of administration, appointment of extension officers who were subject specialists, appointment of the Village Level Worker (VLW) for a group of villages as a multi-purpose development functionary through whom programmes of different departments were administered, role of the Development Commissioner as the coordinating functionary at the state level, coordination and integration of development programmes of different departments at the block level and the mobilization of people's participation in development.

The administrative setup conceived at the time of the implementation of the Community Development Programme has broadly continued with some changes introduced at the district level during the fourth and the fifth plan periods in the wake of the shift in the strategy of the rural development programmes and the launching of special programmes. The strategy for rural development has gradually begun focusing on area based and clientele specific development.

### **6.3.2 ADMINISTRATIVE SETUP AT THE CENTRAL LEVEL**

The Ministry of Rural Reconstruction was constituted in 1979 and continued as such till 1982, when it was renamed the Ministry of Rural Development. In January 1985, it became the Department of Rural Development under the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development. In September 1985, the Ministry was renamed the Ministry of Agriculture with a separate Department of Rural

## NOTES

Development as one of its constituents. Then, it was renamed the Ministry of Rural Areas and Employment in March 1995. Since April 1999, however, it is being called the Ministry of Rural Development.

In what follows, we describe the organizational structure as it operated in 2002-03. The Ministry of Rural Development is a separate Ministry and has two departments viz. Department of Rural Development and the Department of Drinking Water Supply. Both the departments are headed by a Secretary to the Government of India assisted by a hierarchy of officers. The Ministry is divided into Divisions on functional basis as follows:

- a) Department of Rural Development
  - i) Administrative and Panchayati Raj Division
  - ii) Poverty Alleviation Division
  - iii) Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana Division
  - iv) Rural Connectivity Division
  - v) Land Resources Division
  - vi) Monitoring Division
  - vii) Finance Division
- b) Department of Drinking Water Supply
  - i) Drinking Water Supply Division
  - ii) Rural Sanitation Division

Each of the above Divisions is headed by a Joint Secretary level officer assisted by other supporting staff, administrative as well as technical.

The Ministry of Rural Development is responsible for policy, planning, direction, coordination, release of central share of funds and monitoring of the programmes. The programmes of the Ministry may be divided into four broad categories viz. a)

Self-Employment Programmes, b) Wage Employment Programmes, c) Area Development Programmes, and d) Basic Needs Programmes.

The Ministry of Rural Development has the following institutions under its administrative control:

The National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD) which is an autonomous body and the Council for Advancement of People's Action and Rural Technology (CAPART) which is a registered society.

A National Fund for Rural Development (NFRD) was set up in 1984 for the purpose of attracting donations for rural development projects. It provides incentives to the donors by offering them a tax concession. As far as possible, the receipts into NFRD are channelled for projects identified by the donor in accordance with the guidelines of the Ministry.

It is important for you to remember that the Ministry of Rural Development is not the only agency to implement programmes in rural areas. Rural Development is as much a concern of several other Ministries/Departments that have programmes in rural areas. To mention some, the Department of Agriculture and Cooperation has a large number of programmes and also the Ministry of Environment and Forests; the Department of Women and Child Development has programmes for welfare of children and women; the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment has programmes for the welfare of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and the physically and socially handicapped in rural areas; the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare for health and family planning programmes; the Ministry of Industry for village industry and employment of the youth; the Department of Education for educational development and the Ministry of Water Resources for the development of water resources.

### **6.3.3 ADMINISTRATIVE SETUP AT THE STATE LEVEL**

The State Government has direct responsibility for the administration of rural development programmes. Almost all the states have now a separate Department of Rural Development headed by a Secretary. Above him is the Development Commissioner for Agriculture and Rural Development. In several states the Chief Secretary himself/herself is the Development Commissioner-cum-Secretary. During the late 1960s, State Level Coordination and Review Committees were set up in all the states to bring about coordination among different departments. These Committees consisted of the Secretaries of all the departments concerned and a representative each from the Central Government. A study conducted during 1979-1981 by the Programme Evaluation Organization (PEO) of the Planning Commission in connection with the Antodaya Programme for Small Farmers, Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers (1983), pointed out that the Coordination and Review Committees at the state level were not active in most of the states and that they had failed to provide guidance or support to the agencies. The state level cells, which were expected to exercise general supervision and ensure coordination of the activities of various departments, had generally not been able to achieve their objectives either.

The erstwhile Union Ministry of Rural Development had prescribed that programmes like the Integrated Rural Development Programme, the National Rural Employment Programme (NREP), the

Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP), the Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP), the Desert Development Programme (DDP), etc. should be looked after by a single department having an overall control over the development administration right up to the block and the field levels so that inter-sectoral coordination with other departments were adequately taken care of at the state level. The Ministry had further recommended the creation of a separate post (to deal with all the special programmes) at the level of a Commissioner to be assisted by middle level officers of the rank of Joint/Deputy Secretary for monitoring, formulation and implementation of these programmes in the districts.

Consequently, at the state level, initially there was the office of the Development Commissioner who was in charge of all the development work under the supervision of the Development Committee usually chaired by the Chief Minister. Now, in most of the cases, either the Department of Planning or the Department of Rural Development is responsible for policy, planning and implementation. The Coordination Committee chaired by the Chief Secretary/Agricultural Production Commissioner/ Principal Secretary reviews, sanctions, coordinates, monitors and evaluates the schemes.

#### **Check your progress - 1**

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

1. Write briefly Introduction about the administrative set up in Central Level?

2. Write short note on administrative set up in state level ?

### **6.3.4 ADMINISTRATIVE SETUP AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL**

The district in India has been the basic unit of administration and the head of the district administration is the District Collector. At the district level, the revenue and development functions have been combined in one office. When the CDP was launched, the District Collector was made the head of the community development administration in the district. The Collector coordinated district plans and presided over the District Planning Committee. This committee consisted of official and non-official members assisted by a District Planning Officer.

Significant changes were introduced at the district level during the fourth five-year plan (1969-74), when the Small Farmers Development Agencies (SFDA) and Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers Development Agencies (MFALs) were set up on the recommendation of the All India Rural Credit Review

Committee appointed by the Reserve Bank of India in 1969 to provide credit support and technical guidance to the small farmers. To coordinate the activities of all departments, a coordination committee was created in each district under the chairmanship of the District Collector.

An autonomous agency registered under the Registration of Societies Act 1860 was established at the district level to implement the SFDA/MFAL programmes. Each agency consisted of a Governing Body with a small executive staff and was to receive support from a State Level Coordination and Review Committee. The governing body consisted of a Chairman who was normally the Collector of the district, representatives of the State Departments of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Cooperation or any other department intimately concerned with the programme, a representative of the Lead Bank, Chairman of the Central Cooperative Bank concerned, a representative of the Zilla Parishad concerned and a few non-officials. Each agency was allowed only a nucleus staff comprising a Project Officer and three Assistant Project Officers drawn from the Departments of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Cooperation. The SFDA had no field staff of its own and the agency was supposed to work using the services of the staff of other development departments concerned and financial institutions such as cooperatives and commercial banks.

Besides SFDA, other special programmes were also introduced in the country during the fourth and the fifth five-year plans. Among these, the Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP) and Desert Development Programme (DDP) were taken up in the 1970s. Also special project agencies have been set up by the State and/or the Central Government at the district level. Collectors are normally associated with them.

### **6.3.5 ADMINISTRATIVE SETUP AT THE BLOCK AND THE VILLAGE LEVELS**

Under CDP, the Development Block was created as the basic unit of planning and integrated rural development comprising agriculture and allied activities, such as education, health, social welfare, etc. with special emphasis on self-help and public participation. The block administration consisted of a block level officer, namely Block Development Officer (BDO) who was assisted by about eight extension personnel representing agriculture, animal husbandry, cooperation, social welfare,

irrigation, etc., Village Level Workers (VLWs) also called Gram Sevaks/Sevikas and some auxiliary staff. Provision was made for the constitution of block advisory committees to enlist popular support for the programme. After sometime, however, it was realized that the block advisory committees were not functioning properly

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because they were mere advisory bodies without any direct responsibility in the development work.

The Balvantrai Mehta Study Team appointed by the Government of India to review Community Development Projects and the National Extension Services in 1957 suggested decentralization of power to the basic unit viz. block, in a three-tier organically linked structure including the district level above and the village level below.

Even with the introduction of new programmes in the mid-sixties, like SFDA and MFAL, the structural mechanisms at the block level have not altered much. All the programmes and schemes of the DRDA are being implemented through the Development Blocks headed by the Block Development Officers (BDOs). Besides the BDO, the other block staff involved directly in the implementation of the IRDP are the Extension Officers for Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Social Welfare, Irrigation, and Industries and the Khadi Supervisor from Khadi and Village Industries Corporation (KVIC). In the states, which have adopted the Training and Visit (T & V) system of agricultural extension, agricultural extension is being directly handled by the staff of the Department of Agriculture. As a result, the Agriculture Extension Officer and 70 to 80 per cent of the VLWs have been taken away from the Block Establishment, which has now only a small nuclear staff. Consequently, the Block Administration got considerably weakened.

The review of development programmes is conducted at the block level on a fortnightly basis in a meeting of VLWs and other block staff under the chairmanship of the BDO. The review of all the activities of a block is also made in the quarterly general body meeting of Panchayat Samiti under the chairmanship of its Pradhan with the BDO as the member-secretary. This meeting is attended by all the members of the Panchayat Samiti, Sub-divisional Magistrate of the area, district level officers of the development departments concerned, representatives of DRDA, Sub-divisional Agricultural Officer, Tehsildar of the area, block level officers of other development departments and the block staff. For the review of credit supply and coordination there is a Block Level Coordination Committee (BLCC), which meets once a month on a fixed date. The Pradhan of the Panchayat Samiti is its chairperson. All the branch managers of banks in the block and the Tehsildar of the area also attend the meetings of this committee. With the devolution of power and all the development activities with their administration gradually coming to their fold, the Panchayat Samitis have gained considerable significance in the development process. But, for them to work efficiently, concrete steps need to be taken to improve the managerial competence of the elected members in relation to administrative and financial matters.

## CREATION OF THE DISTRICT RURAL DEVELOPMENT AGENCY (DRDA)

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The erstwhile Ministry of Rural Development had recommended that at the district level, the planning and implementation agency should be the District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) headed by a chairperson, who could be the Collector, the Deputy Commissioner or the District Magistrate, and run by a functional executive as the Project Director/Project Officer. Accordingly, DRDAs were set up as autonomous agencies at the beginning of the sixth plan when the IRDP and NREP were launched in all the blocks in the country.

The DRDA is the overall in-charge of planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the programmes in a district. The functions of DRDAs are:

- To provide information regarding the parameters, dimensions and requirements of the programmes to the district and the block level agencies and to apprise them of their tasks in this regard;
- To coordinate and oversee the survey and preparation of the perspective plan and annual plans of the block and finally prepare a District Plan;
- To ensure the effectiveness of the programme by regular evaluation and monitoring;
- To secure inter-sectoral and inter-departmental coordination and cooperation;
- To publicize the achievements made under the programmes, disseminate knowledge and build up awareness about the programmes; and
- To send periodic returns to the State Governments in prescribed formats.

The Governing Body of the DRDA includes, apart from the Chairperson (usually the District Collector), the following:

- i) All MPs and MLAs of the District,
- ii) Head of the Central Cooperative Bank,
- iii) Chairman of the Regional Rural Bank,
- iv) Chairman of the Zilla Parishad or his/her representative,
- v) An officer of the Lead Bank,
- vi) District Employment Officer, and
- vii) One representative of rural women, preferably a beneficiary.

The President of the DRDA is empowered to form an Executive Committee to assist the DRDA. The Committee has district level

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officers as its members. The Governing Body of the DRDA is required to meet every quarter and the Executive Committee every month.

The Project Officer of the DRDA is assisted by 2 to 3 Assistant Project Officers (APOs) who are subject specialists. An APO for women looks after the women's component of IRDP and the Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas Programme (DWCRA). There is also an APO (Monitoring).

The erstwhile Ministry of Rural Development had also suggested the setting up of a District Development Committee under the chairmanship of the District Collector. The district level heads of the development departments, BDOs, representatives of the banks and non-officials' bodies, attends its meetings. Its main function is to coordinate the work of all the district level departments and other agencies like Khadi and Village Industries Board, District Industries Centre, banks, etc. It also reviews the working of various programmes in operation in the district and attends to the day-to-day problems of implementation and administration of the programme.

#### **Check your progress - 1**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

3. Write the functions of DRDA ?

4. Write short note on governing body of DRDA ?

### **6.4 PANCHAYAT RAJ INSTITUTION (PRI)**

This section aims to familiarizing you with the institution of Panchayati Raj as an important mechanism for decentralization of power and people's involvement in development activities.

History tells us that Local Self-government, as a system, has existed in India since long. Its form may vary, but its spirit has always been a part of our socio-cultural ethos. In the medieval times, it was seen in the 'Gram Sabha' functioning through its executive committee viz. Panchayat, a village body able to govern and sustain a small community of people. During the British Raj, it became the instrument of the ruling elite, intended to project the interests of the British Government.

After independence, it was in 1959 that the Panchayati Raj system took its present shape. The enthusiasm generated by this new mantle of local self-governance, however, did not last long. Conflicting interests at various levels eclipsed the concept as well as its practice. After decades of debate, the Constitutional (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 took up the task of rejuvenating this system.

The institution of Panchayati Raj is now recognized as an important mechanism for decentralization of power and materializing people's participation in development activities. It has been given special emphasis after the Constitution (73rd Amendment) of the most basic document of this nation—The Constitution of India. You have learned about the changes in the administrative setup at the district level after the 73rd Constitution Amendment Act and also read briefly about panchayats in the previous unit of this block. In this unit, we shall confine our discussion to the historical overview, post-independence developments in general, the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 and its salient features in particular.

#### **6.4.1 ORIGIN AND EVALUATION**

In India, the concept of local self-government is not new. Throughout the ages until the British rule, the village communities have kept this system alive. In our villages, different sections of the community helped and depended on each other. Age-old customs and traditions helped to maintain the community spirit. Kingdoms were built and destroyed but these village communities maintained their shape and spirit. These very village bodies were the lines of contact with higher authorities on matters affecting the villages. Each village had a Sabha consisting of the adult residents of the village. Each Sabha had a sort of executive body of around five people known as panchayat. The panchayat was collectively responsible for looking after the needs of village people. Thus each village was a compact administrative unit served by public functionaries who were a part of the village community. These panchayats managed the affairs of the village community. No village affair was considered beyond its control. Despite many of the political changes in cities and towns during the medieval period, the system of the local government or the panchayats in villages continued undisturbed.

#### **6.4.2 PHILOSOPHY**

We have just outlined the ancient system of local government in our country. We have also told you that it has lived through the centuries in spite of several political changes. We will now discuss the history of the Panchayati Raj in India from the British period onwards. When the British came to India, we had our own village government system. Some among them (Charles Metcalf, for example) admired it and called panchayats "Little Republics". But, of course, the British used it to extend their own rule and power.

Do you know how? The British had their own representatives in every region. As a result of the British interference, the attitude of the people towards panchayats changed. Progressively, the people began losing faith in the institution of panchayat. Other conditions too had changed. For example, direct taxation gave way to indirect taxation. In many

regions of the country, for example, in the North Western provinces, a leading or prominent person was put in charge of various jobs like construction, development work, etc. This system took the place of the local institutions like panchayats. In 1882, the Government of India Resolution on local self-government was announced. Lord Ripon's Government had sent circulars to the governments in the provinces on the subject of local self-government, as they wanted to find out what the public opinion was. The issues in the circular became the basis for the Government of India Resolution (1882) and later the Local Bodies Act of 1885 came into being.

This was the basis for setting up local self-governing institutions with a majority of nominated members down to the village level. It seems that Lord Ripon viewed the problem of local self-government liberally. He thought that the local self-governing institutions would act as instruments of political and popular education. Another major step in this direction was the Report of the Royal Commission on Decentralization. This commission was set up in 1907 and it submitted its report in 1909. It recommended that it would be desirable for effective decentralization to associate people with local tasks and village affairs through village panchayats. But like the Ripon Resolution, the recommendations made by the Royal Commission on Decentralization also remained on paper only.

In the same year (i.e. 1909), the 24th Session of the Congress at Lahore adopted a resolution urging the Government to take early steps to have elected local bodies from village panchayat upwards with non-official chairmen for the local bodies and to provide them necessary financial support.

The Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms of 1919, under the proposed scheme of diarchy, made local self-government a "transferred subject". This meant that local self-government was brought under the control of Indian ministers in the provinces. The idea was to make the local bodies truly representative bodies by bringing them under the popular control. This, however, did not make the panchayat institutions truly democratic, as there were various other constraints to overcome. Yet many acts were passed by various states for establishing panchayats. These included 'Bengal Village Self-Government Act of 1919', 'Madras, Bombay and United Provinces Village Panchayat Act of 1920', 'Bihar and Orissa Village Administration Act', 'Assam Rural Self-Government Act of 1926', 'Punjab Village Panchayat Act of 1935', etc. These acts aimed at looking after the development of villages and their affairs. The local self-government had powers even to try minor cases. But these bodies were not democratic in the real sense, because most of their members were not elected but nominated by the government. They had few

powers given to them and their financial resources were also limited. The situation remained more or less the same till 1947.

## **6.5 NEW PANCHAYAT RAJ ACT**

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The amendment phase began with the 64th Amendment Bill (1989), which was introduced in Parliament for constituting panchayats in every state at the village, the intermediate and the district levels. It proposed that the Legislature of a State could by law endow the panchayats with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as institutions of self-government. This bill was the brainchild of Rajiv Gandhi, who strongly believed in strengthening panchayats by giving them constitutional status. Unfortunately, though the Bill got two-thirds majority in the Lok Sabha, it was struck down in the Rajya Sabha on October 15, 1989 by just two votes. The next Government headed by V.P. Singh also made an abortive effort to provide constitutional status to panchayats through the introduction of the 74th Amendment Bill.

Notwithstanding the above disappointments, the government declared its commitment to the philosophy of 'Power to the People', and so to providing the much needed constitutional status to panchayats. Accordingly, in September 1991, the 72nd Amendment of the Constitution was introduced. This was referred to a Joint Select Committee of the Parliament in December 1991 for detailed examination. Finally, after including necessary changes, the Amendment was passed with near unanimity in the Lok Sabha on December 22, 1992 and in the Rajya Sabha on December 23, 1992. Finally, on April 20, 1993 the President of India gave it his assent. This Amendment of the Constitution is known as the Constitution (Seventy-Third Amendment) Act, 1992. This Act was brought in to force by a notification with effect from April 24, 1993.

### **6.5.1 THE CONSTITUTION (73RD AMENDMENT) ACT, 1992**

This Act makes the details of the transfer of power to the Panchayat a part of the most basic document of this nation: the Constitution of India. By virtue of this Act, no one will be able to take away the powers, responsibilities and finances given to the Panchayats. They are expected to play a much bigger role in the development of their respective areas and people. It is also expected that everyone will be able to take part in this process including the poorest of the poor.

All of us know that the objective of national development can be achieved only through the development of the vast rural areas. People who are poor and unemployed cannot have adequate buying power. You must have seen that even nature does not favour us every time. From time to time, we have to face failures of the monsoon, droughts, floods, cyclones, etc. It is now hoped that through people's involvement, panchayats will be able to play a more responsible role in overcoming these difficulties.

## 6.5.2 STRUCTURE OF PRIS

### Special Features of the Amendment

**The special features of the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 are:**

#### a) Gram Sabha

The Act has restored the important role of the Gram Sabha. It is clear that the primary source of democratic power is in the village. The Gram Sabha is expected to be an active institution for starting all development activities based on local needs.

#### b) Three-tier Model

The country will have a uniform three-tier system of panchayats (at village, intermediate and district levels). Only the states with a population less than twenty lakhs would not need to establish a panchayat at the intermediate level.

#### c) Reservation of Seats

The Act provides for reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in every panchayat in proportion to their population. One-third of the seats reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes will also be reserved for women. Not less than one-third of the total number of seats to be filled by direct election shall be reserved for women.

The offices of the chairpersons in the panchayats at the village or any other level shall be reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in proportion to their population. Also, one-third of the total number of chairpersons' offices in the panchayats at each level shall be reserved for women.

#### d) Composition of Panchayats

Direct election to the panchayat is one of the distinguishing features of this Amendment. Persons chosen by direct election from territorial constituencies shall fill all the seats in a panchayat. The chairperson at the village level shall be elected in such a manner as the legislature of the state may provide. The chairperson at the intermediate and district levels shall be elected by and from amongst the elected members.

#### e) Duration of Panchayats Rural Credit and Banking

Every panchayat shall remain in office for five years normally. If it is dissolved for any reason before this period is over, elections will be held within six months. The reconstituted panchayat shall function for the remaining period of the total of five years.

## f) **Conduct of Elections**

The superintendence, direction and control of the preparation of electoral roll for, and the conduct of, all elections to the panchayats shall be vested in the State Election Commission. The State Election Commission will be responsible for conducting elections, i.e. they will make the lists of all the people who are eligible to vote and ensure that the elections are held in a free and just manner.

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## g) **Finance Commission**

In order that enough funds are made available to the panchayats for initiating various development activities, the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 provides for the constitution of a Finance Commission in every state. This commission is to be constituted by the Governor of each state within one year from the commencement of the Constitution Act, 1992 and at the end of every five years thereafter. These commissions will be responsible for reviewing the financial condition of the panchayats and make recommendations to the respective Governors.

### **6.5.3 POWERS OF GRAMA SABHA**

The Act gives powers and responsibilities to the panchayats to plan and execute economic development programmes. Such responsibilities include the making of plans for economic development and social justice and the implementation of schemes listed in the Eleventh Schedule. These activities as listed for the panchayat institutions may be grouped under five categories for academic purposes.

i) **Economic Development:** There are 11 items, which talk about economic development. One of them relates to anti-poverty programmes, such as JRY, IRDP, etc. The other areas are agriculture, land improvement, minor irrigation, animal husbandry, fishery, social forestry, minor forest produce, small scale and cottage industry, fuel and fodder.

ii) **Education:** There are five items under this category. Primary and secondary schools, non-formal education, libraries, technical training and cultural activities.

iii) **Health:** There are two items related to health. These are health and sanitation and family welfare.

iv) **Welfare, including Women and Child development:** There are four items which include social welfare, welfare of weaker sections, public distribution system and women and child development.

v) **Infrastructure Development:** Under this category, there are seven items, such as roads, housing, drinking water, markets, electrification, maintenance of community assets, etc. Among these,

there are certain items (apart from the items on anti-poverty programmes) which are meant for the poor or the under privileged. Schemes for the weaker sections and the programmes for women and child development also fall under this category. The benefits of the public distribution system also should go to the poor. Land reforms, particularly the distribution of wastelands, and enforcement of the tenancy laws constitute a frontal attack on poverty. They are understood to be central to any strategy used for rural development.

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

5. Write briefly about Grama Sabha?

6. Write short note on composition of Panchayats?

#### **6.5.4 Features of Tamil nadu Panchayat Act, 1994**

The institution of Panchayati Raj, in its rejuvenated form sought to realize the goal of democratic decentralization to accelerate socio-economic development and bring about equity and social justice. The Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 and the subsequent State Legislations were expected to endow panchayats with such powers and authority, as may be necessary to enable them to function as effective institutions of self-government. Initially there was a positive response from the states, as almost all the states passed their respective State Legislations in conformity with the provisions of the 73rd Amendment and held panchayat elections. As a result, 2,27,698 panchayats at the village level, 5,906 panchayats at the intermediate level and 474 panchayats at the district level were constituted in the country. About 3.4 million people were elected at the three different levels throughout the country. One could for the first time witness a high degree of uniformity conferred on panchayats, particularly in terms of structure, composition, powers and functions. It seems, however, that the devolution of functions and authority has not been carried out to the letter and the spirit of the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992. Let us analyze the situation.

### **6.6 GOVERNMENT OF INDIA - FINANCE COMMISSION CENTER AND STATE**

The analysis of the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 reveals that the Panchayati Raj institutions had to be vested with such authority and power as would enable them to function as effective institutions of self-government. It implies that they have to be democratic in nature (through regular and mandatory elections) with allocated values, priorities and policies necessary to make them effective institutions of self-government. The analysis also reveals that

Panchayati Raj institutions are to act as welfare governments do, which implies that they have to initiate, plan and executive development activities and bring about social justice. It appears that the Rural Credit and Banking necessary level of thinking could not be given to the issue between the enactment of the 73rd Amendment Act and the subsequent State Legislations. The whole initial process turned out to be a race for catching the deadlines rather than building the system on a realistic basis. In most cases, some amendments were incorporated in the already existing Acts to make them appear in conformity with the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992. It seems that the legislatures failed to take cognizance of the profound implications of the constitutional status given to the panchayats as institutions of self-government. Consequently, the panchayats under the State Acts are institutions that lack the necessary autonomy. The most glaring omission in the

State Acts relates to the devolution of functions to panchayats. Even though most State Acts have reproduced the 11th Schedule (which lists 29 development activities transferable to panchayats) as it is, few have earmarked any of the functions activities of the schedule as the exclusive jurisdiction of panchayats. Consequently, there has been no substantial devolution of administrative and financial powers. In most of the cases, as various studies reveal, the role of panchayats has been reduced to that of the agencies of State Governments meant to implement various development programmes and schemes.

The post-73rd Constitution Amendment scenario, therefore, presents a mixed picture where on the one hand, the necessary devolution of powers and authority has not taken place in the letter and the spirit of the amendment, but on the other hand 34 lakh elected representatives have occupied their positions in the multi-tier setup of panchayats throughout the country. We do witness the functioning of some successful panchayats alongside some that are not allowed to function at all. The process of change, however, has begun. We still have to go a long way to realize Gandhiji's dream of "Gram Swaraj" through the Panchayati Raj system in India.

#### THE PROVISIONS OF THE PANCHAYATS (EXTENSION TO THE SCHEDULED AREAS) ACT, 1996

The Provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996 came into force on December 24, 1996. This Act extends panchayats to the tribal areas of the states such as Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Orissa and Rajasthan. It intends to enable tribal societies to assume control over their destiny and to preserve and conserve their traditional rights over natural resources. The State Governments were required to enact their legislations in accordance with the provisions of the Act within one year, i.e. by December 23, 1997. Most of the states have enacted the required state legislation to

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give effect to the provisions contained in Act 14, 1996. The salient features of the Act are:

- 1) Every village shall have an elected Gram Sabha and it shall be competent to safeguard and preserve the traditions and customs of the people.
- 2) Gram Sabha shall approve the plans, programmes and projects for social and economic development before their implementation.
- 3) It would be responsible for the identification or selection of persons as beneficiaries under the poverty alleviation and other programmes.
- 4) Every Gram Panchayat shall obtain from the related Gram Sabha a certificate of utilization of funds for the plans, programmes and projects.
- 5) The reservation of seats in the Scheduled Areas in every panchayat shall be in the proportion of the populations of the communities in the panchayat.
- 6) Planning and management of minor water bodies in the Scheduled Areas shall be entrusted to panchayats at the appropriate level.
- 7) Recommendations of the Gram Sabha or the panchayats shall be mandatory for granting i) licenses for mining minerals, and ii) concessions for the exploitation of minor minerals by auction in the Scheduled Areas.
- 8) The state legislature shall endow panchayats and the Gram Sabha specifically with:
  - i) the power to enforce prohibition or regulate or restrict the sale and consumption of any intoxicant;
  - ii) the ownership of minor forest produce;
  - iii) the power to prevent land alienation in the Scheduled Areas;
  - iv) the power to manage village markets;
  - v) the power to control money lending to Scheduled Tribes and social sectors;
  - vi) The power to control local plans and resources for such plans, including tribal sub-plans; and
  - vii) The state legislations that may endow panchayats with powers and authority, as may be necessary to enable them to function as institutions of self-government, and contain safeguards to ensure that

panchayats at the higher level do not assume the powers and authority of any panchayats at the lower level or of the Gram Sabha.

## **6.7 POWERS OF PRIS IN IMPLEMENTATION OF RCD PROGRAMMES**

Under the Rural Garbage Disposal scheme the State Government provides funds to the Village Panchayats for acquisition of land for garbage sites and for development of the garbage collection site and other facilities required for disposal of Garbage. Under the scheme the village Panchayats are required to segregate the garbage at source into bio – degradable and non-biodegradable waste. The bio-degradable waste is to be vermin – composted through the process of vermiculture for which the Panchayats are required to construct composting pits. The cost of collection, transportation, segregation, storage processing and disposal of Garbage is also borne by the Government to the extent of 98% and the balance 2% is to be borne by the Village Panchayat, for the first 3 years. On the expiry of this period, the entire cost is to be borne by the Village Panchayats. Detailed guidelines have been annexed to the scheme so as to assist the Panchayats in disposal of the garbage in a hygienic and scientific manner.

### **ASSISTANCE TO THE PANCHAYATS FOR DISPOSAL OF PLASTIC GARBAGE:**

Under the Goa Panchayat (Grant of Financial Assistance to the Village Panchayats to deal with Plastic Garbage Menace) Scheme, 2007, financial assistance is given to the Village Panchayat which are affected by plastic garbage menace. The village Panchayats can hire labourers @ a maximum of Rs.150/- per labourer, for collection of the plastic garbage from the household on door – to – door basis or organize regular plastic collection drives in their areas. Every such Village Panchayat which is affected by plastic garbage menace is entitled for Rs.25,000/- per annum for collection and disposal of the plastic waste. In case a Compactor is provided to the Village Panchayat than such Panchayat is entitled to Rs. 50,000/- per annum which is also to be utilized for the purpose of fuel for the Compactor.

### **HOUSING SCHEME: RAJIV AWAAS YOJANA 2008:**

Under Rajiv Awaas Yojana Scheme any person who is born and residing in the State of Goa since last 15 years and whose father and mother is born in Goa and where the total income including that of his family from all sources does not exceed Rs. 1 lakh and who does not own any house or owns a house either in his/her own name or in the name of any of the family members, which requires repairs, shall be eligible to avail the benefits of this scheme. The Director of Panchayats is the sanctioning authority for the rural areas and The Director of

Social Welfare is the sanctioning authority for urban areas. Under this scheme an amount of Rs.25,000/- shall be sanctioned for the purpose construction of new house and 12,500/- for the purpose of repairing an existing house. The eligible applicants who require assistance under this scheme are required to submit the application in the prescribed form to the respective Block Development Officer with all the required documents.

### **FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO MINING AFFECTED VILLAGE PANCHAYAT:**

The Govt. of Goa has decided to provide financial assistance to mining affected Village Panchayats by granting them one time Grants-in-aid so as to empower the local bodies to tide over the financial crisis due to halting of mining. The grants sanctioned as one time financial assistance under this scheme to any one mining affected village Panchayat shall be a fixed amount of Rs. 5 lakhs. The Village Panchayat to whom grants are sanctioned shall utilize the same within 1 year from the date of drawal of grants. The scheme is in the formulation stage and has been send to the Govt, for necessary action. The scheme shall remain in force till 31/3/2015. Overall 93 Village Panchayats of Sanguem, Dharbandora, Quepem, Bicholim and Ponda Taluka will be covered under this Scheme.

### **DEENDAYAL PANCHAYATI RAJ INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT SCHEME 2013:**

Under this scheme the Govt. takes up the infrastructure project in every Panchayat amounting to 1 Crore. The Panchayat has to decide the project to be undertaken and will be executed through GSIDC, GTDC or such other agency. Funds will be allotted to the agency in 3 installments within 30 days after receiving the detail proposal.

### **DISASTER MANAGEMENT SCHEME AT PANCHAYAT LEVEL:**

The Govt. has decided to make a token provision of Rs.10.00 lakhs to attend calamities during the monsoon period from June to Sept.2014. The scheme is in the formulation stage and will be forwarded to the Govt. for necessary action.

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## **6.8 LET US SUM UP**

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In this unit we have discussed the Administrative set up of Rural Development, which covers the history and various level set up like National, State and district level also introduces about the Panchayat Raj System and 73 rd Amendments and its salient features.

## 6.9 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. Write briefly about the administrative set up in Central Level?
2. Write short note on administrative set up in state level ?
3. Write the functions of DRDA ?
4. Write short note on governing body of DRDA ?
5. Write briefly about Grama Sabha?
6. Write short note on composition of Panchayats?

NOTES

## 6.10 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The Ministry of Rural Reconstruction was constituted in 1979 and continued as such till 1982, when it was renamed the Ministry of Rural Development. In January 1985, it became the Department of Rural Development under the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development. In September 1985, the Ministry was renamed the Ministry of Agriculture with a separate Department of Rural Development as one of its constituents.
2. The State Government has direct responsibility for the administration of rural development programmes. Almost all the states have now a separate Department of Rural Development headed by a Secretary. Above him is the Development Commissioner for Agriculture and Rural Development.
3. The DRDA is the overall in-charge of planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the programmes in a district. The functions of DRDAs are: To provide information regarding the parameters, dimensions and requirements of the programmes to the district and the block level agencies and to apprise them of their tasks in this regard; To coordinate and oversee the survey and preparation of the perspective plan and annual plans of the block and finally prepare a District Plan;
4. The Governing Body of the DRDA includes, apart from the Chairperson (usually the District Collector), the following:
  - i) All MPs and MLAs of the District,
  - ii) Head of the Central Cooperative Bank,
  - iii) Chairman of the Regional Rural Bank,
  - iv) Chairman of the Zilla Parishad or his/her representative
5. **a) Gram Sabha :** The Act has restored the important role of the Gram Sabha. It is clear that the primary source of democratic power is in the village. The Gram Sabha is expected to be an active institution for starting all development activities based on local needs.
6. **d) Composition of Panchayats :** Direct election to the panchayat is one of the distinguishing features of this Amendment. Persons chosen by direct election from territorial constituencies shall fill all the seats in a panchayat. The chairperson at the village level shall be elected in such a

manner as the legislature of the state may provide. The chairperson at the intermediate and district levels shall be elected by and from amongst the elected members.

### 6.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

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# UNIT-VII RURAL DEVELOPMENT AGENCY

## Structure

- 7.1. Introduction
- 7.2. Aims and Objectives
- 7.3. Council for Advancement of People's Action and Rural Technology (CAPART)
- 7.4. National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD)
- 7.5. National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD)
- 7.6. Regional Rural Banking (RRB)
- 7.7. District Rural Development Agency ( DRDA )
- 7.8. Statistics related to Rural Development
- 7.9. Training of PRIs Functionaries
- 7.10. Let Us Sum Up
- 7.11. Unit- End- Exercises
- 7.12. Answer to check your Progress
- 7.13. Suggested Readings

## 7.1 INTRODUCTION

The voluntary sector in India has played a major role in rural development, through mobilizing communities and catalyzing people's initiatives for change, as well as through direct implementation of interventions around specific issues. Formal recognition of the role of voluntary organisations in the Seventh Plan documented to the formation of the Council for Advancement of People's Action and Rural Technology (CAPART) in 1986, as a nodal agency for catalysing and coordinating the emerging partnership between voluntary organisations and the Government for sustainable development of rural areas.

## 7.2 AIMS OF OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit you should be able to:

- Describe the existing organizational structure for rural development programmes;
- Identify the changes brought about and sought to be brought about in the structure since the inception of the Community Development Programme;
- list the problems encountered by the different functionaries;
- assess the strengths and weaknesses of the administrative structure; and
- Outline the future prospects. Describe the principles of extension for effective execution of extension programme.
- List out the general and specific objectives of extension

### 7.3 CAPART

CAPART was formed by amalgamating two agencies the ‘Council for Advancement of Rural Technology’ (CART) and People’s Action for Development India (PADI). CAPART is an autonomous body registered under the Societies Registration Act 1860, and is functioning under the aegis of the Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India. Today, this agency is a major promoter of rural development in India, assisting over 12,000 voluntary organizations across the country in implementing a wide range of development initiatives.

CAPART works with the objective of improving the quality of life in the rural areas, particularly the poor and socially disadvantaged sections of society. Thus, people below the poverty line, people belonging to the scheduled castes and tribes, bonded labour, women and people with disabilities are priority focus groups for CAPART.

#### The major goals of CAPART are:

- To support voluntary organisations in implementing projects for sustainable development in rural areas.
- To act as a national nodal point for development and promotion of appropriate rural technologies.
- To promote and support voluntary action and people’s participation for rural development, through capacity-building for voluntary organisations and rural communities.
- To act as a data bank and clearing house for information on the voluntary sector, rural technologies and rural development.
- Facilitating community action for development.
- Building awareness on critical development issues.
- Building and strengthening village-level people and organisations.
- Promoting the development and dissemination of appropriate rural technologies.
- Strengthening the capacities of voluntary organisations in rural areas.
- Creating employment opportunities and economic self-reliance.
- Creation of community assets and fulfilment of basic needs.
- Conservation and regeneration of the environment and natural resources.
- Enabling women, persons with disabilities and other disadvantaged groups to participate in development

### 7.4 NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The National Institute of Rural Development and Panchayati Raj (NIRD&PR), an autonomous organisation under the Union Ministry of Rural Development, is a premier national centre of excellence in rural development and Panchayati Raj. Recognized internationally as one of the UN-ESCAP Centres of Excellence, it builds capacities of rural

development functionaries, elected representatives of PRIs, bankers, NGOs and other stakeholders through inter-related activities of training, research and consultancy. The Institute is located in the historic city of Hyderabad in Telangana state. The NIRD&PR celebrated its Golden Jubilee Year of establishment in 2008. In addition to the main campus at Hyderabad, this Institute has North-Eastern Regional Centre at Guwahati, Assam to meet the NE-regional needs.

### **Vision**

The vision of NIRD&PR is to focus on the policies and programmes that benefit the rural poor, strive to energise the democratic decentralization processes, improve the operation and efficiency of rural development personnel, promote transfer of technology through its social laboratories, Technology Park and create environmental awareness. As a “think-tank” for the Ministry of Rural Development, NIRD while acting as a repository of knowledge on rural development would assist the Ministry in policy formulation and choice of options in rural development to usher in the changes.

### **Mission**

To examine and analyse the factors contributing to the improvement of economic and social well-being of people in rural areas on a sustainable basis with focus on the rural poor and the other disadvantaged groups through research, action research, consultancy and documentation efforts.

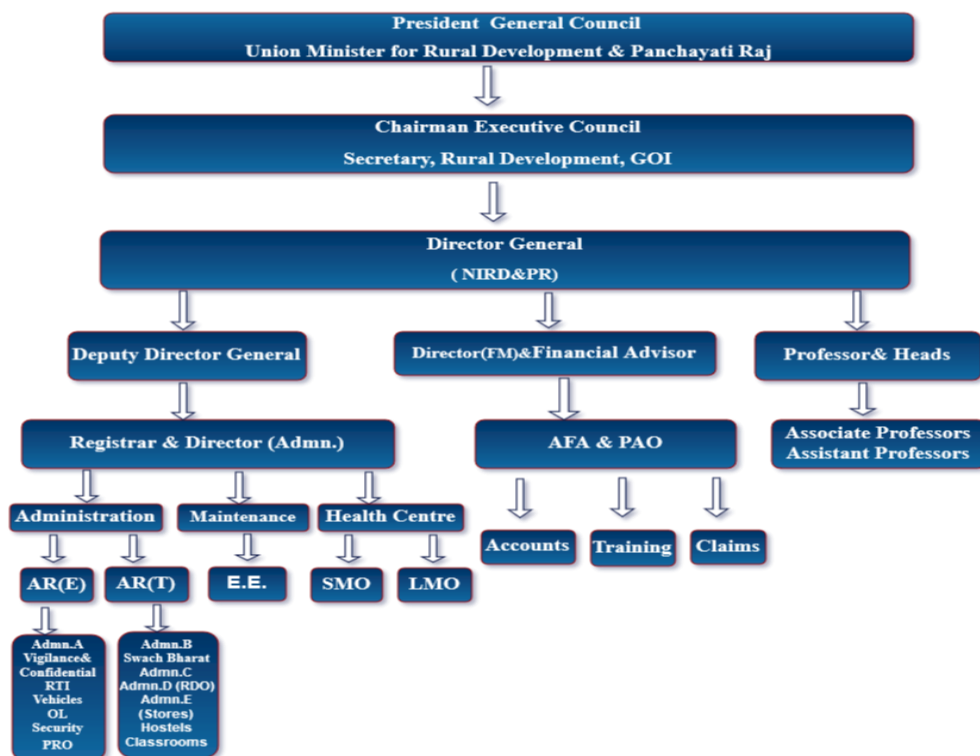
To facilitate the rural development efforts with particular emphasis and focus on the rural poor by improving the knowledge, skills and attitudes of rural development officials and non-officials through organising training, workshops and Seminars.

### **The NIRD&PR is mandated to:**

- Organise training programmes, conferences, seminars and workshops for senior level development managers, elected representatives, bankers, NGOs and other stakeholders;
- Undertake, aid, promote and coordinate research on its own and / or collaborate with State, national and international development agencies;
- Analyse and offer solutions to problems encountered in planning and implementation of the programmes for rural development, decentralised governance, panchayati raj and related programmes;
- Study the functioning of the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) and rural development programmes across the States;
- Analyse and propose solutions to problems in planning and implementation of the programmes for rural development; and

- Develop content and disseminate information and transfer technology through periodicals, reports, e-modules and other public

#### ***ORGANISATIONAL CHART OF NIRD&PR***



### **The Activities**

The NIRD provides training to the rural development functionaries in the policies and programmes of Ministry of Rural Development, in the democratic decentralization process and promotes technology transfers through its Rural Technology Park. The NIRD also engages itself in Research and Consultancy assignments for various National and International organizations with a view to gaining the most recent knowledge from the field. The Institute's services are available to different Ministries / Departments of the Central and State Governments, banking institutions, public and private sector undertakings, voluntary bodies, nongovernmental organizations and international agencies concerned with rural development.

### **The profile of the Participants trained by the NIRD is as under:**

- Government Officials:

The number of key Rural Development functionaries is estimated at 5.57 lakh. Following is the break-up of the type of functionaries:

- Project Directors of DRDAs;
- District Development Officers/Chief Development Officers /
- Deputy Development Commissioners;
- CEOs of Zilla Parishads;
- Project Directors of ITDAs; and
- Heads / Coordinators of Rural Development related line department
- such as Agriculture, Soil Conservation, Animal Husbandry, Horticulture,
- Cooperation, Rural Industries, Water Supply and Sanitation...

Elected Representatives of Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRI):

The number of PRI representatives is estimated at about 31 lakhs. Of these about 12 lakhs are considered as key functionaries. They include

### Check your progress - 1

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. Write the major goals of CAPART?
2. What are the mission of NIRD?

Chairpersons, Vice-chairpersons, and Heads of Standing Committees at Zilla, Block and Gram Panchayat level.

While NIRD is involved in the training of key district-level rural development functionaries as outlined, the SIRDs are also to train the sub-district and block level functionaries. The gram panchayat level functionaries are trained by the ETCs.

A brief about the category, type and nature of the Training Programmes conducted by the institute is given below:

The studies identify the critical areas affecting the process of implementation, deficiencies and also clearly suggest action points based on the causative analysis.

Some of the themes on which research studies have been done for the past few years are mentioned below:

- Tribal and dalit issues
- Governance for the poor
- Technology transfer to the poor
- Access to quality credit to the poor
- Public-private partnerships
- Contract farming
- Tenancy relations and livelihoods of the poor
- NREGA, SGSY, IAY
- Water and Sanitation

- Community mobilization
- Natural Resources Management

Consultancy assignments are regularly taken up by NIRD on behalf of the Central and State Governments, Public sector undertakings and premier international organizations namely United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), Department for International Development (DFID), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), World Health Organisation (WHO), International Labour Organisation (ILO), World Bank, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), Centre on Integrated Rural Development for Asia and the Pacific (CIRDAP) and Afro Asian Rural Development Organisation (AARDO).

The details of the research projects of NIRD which were completed during last few years and those presently are under progress are given below.

### **7.5 NATIONAL BANK FOR AGRICULTURE AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT (NABARD) GENESIS & VISION**

The importance of institutional credit in boosting rural economy has been clear to the Government of India right from its early stages of planning. Therefore, the Reserve Bank of India (RBI) at the insistence of the Government of India, constituted a Committee to Review the Arrangements For Institutional Credit for Agriculture and Rural Development (CRAFICARD) to look into these very critical aspects. The Committee was formed on 30 March 1979, under the Chairmanship of Shri B. Sivaraman, former member of Planning Commission, Government of India.

The Committee's interim report, submitted on 28 November 1979, outlined the need for a new organisational device for providing undivided attention, forceful direction and pointed focus to credit related issues linked with rural development. Its recommendation was formation of a unique development financial institution which would address these aspirations and formation of National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) was approved by the Parliament through Act 61 of 1981.

NABARD came into existence on 12 July 1982 by transferring the agricultural credit functions of RBI and refinance functions of the then Agricultural Refinance and Development Corporation (ARDC). It was dedicated to the service of the nation by the late Prime Minister Smt. Indira Gandhi on 05 November 1982. Set up with an initial capital of Rs.100 crore, its' paid up capital stood at Rs.10,580 crore as on 31 March 2018. Consequent to the revision in the composition of share

capital between Government of India and RBI, NABARD today is fully owned by Government of India.

## **VISION**

Development Bank of the Nation for Fostering Rural Prosperity.

## **MISSION**

Promote sustainable and equitable agriculture and rural development through participative financial and non-financial interventions, innovations, technology and institutional development for securing prosperity.

NABARD, the apex Bank in rural credit was set up in 1981 for providing credit for the promotion of agriculture, SSIs, cottage and village industries, handicrafts and other rural crafts and other allied economic activities in rural areas. The National Bank is empowered to provide by way of refinance assistance, long term loans extending upto a maximum period of 25 years including the period of rescheduling of such loans to the State Land Development Banks, RRBs, scheduled commercial banks, state cooperative banks or any other financial institutions approved by RBI for the purpose of making investment loans as well as for giving loans to artisans, SSIs, cottage and village industries.

NABARD aims at developing working skills and managerial traits in prospective entrepreneurs through the network of NGOs. Such promotional schemes include:

- Setting up of training cum production centres to impart training to prospective entrepreneurs in technical and managerial skills, market information quality control and technical skills;
- Grants to NGOs and banks involved in rural entrepreneurship developments to promote project guidance and to disseminate information about legal framework and accounting practices;
- Market oriented training for rural artisans aiming at helping rural artisans understand the composition of market, its references, product development and product diversification;
- Promotion of mother Unit Scheme under which mother units located in urban areas is expected to orient the promotion of decentralized units towards common market options through material, technology and brand (MTB) approach;
- Venture capital finance scheme to support risky but potentially viable rural innovative ventures through creation of Agricultural and Rural Enterprise Incubation Fund (AREIF) with a corpus of 5 crores for refinance, direct incubation assistance and issue of guarantees.

- Support schemes are extended to export oriented rural industries through allocation of separate budget for assisting hi-tech innovative export oriented and agro processing projects in liaison with export houses. Refinance is provided at the enhanced rate of 40 per cent for hi-tech export industries In association with National level Organizations like Export Promotion Councils, Export Associations and formulation of new model projects having export potential like horticulture, animal husbandry, fishery and storage houses are encouraged;
- Promotion of Rural Artisan Guild to facilitate collaboration among a cluster of working artisans so as to enhance the bargaining power in the market. Exclusive women oriented schemes implemented by NABARD. These are the following:
  - Assistance to rural women in Non Farm Development (ARWIND).
  - Linking women SHGs with banks under SHG Bank Linkage programmes.
  - Assistance to Rural Women for marketing of non farm products of rural women (MAHIMA) provides support to rural women entrepreneurs in marketing their products.
  - District Rural Industries Project (DRIP): NABARD launched DRIP, an integrated area based credit intensification programme in collaboration with government, banks and other development agencies with focus on district. It is being implemented I 106 districts to promote industries and employment opportunities.
  - Rural Entrepreneurship Development Programme (REDP): It is a promotional programme supported by NABARD to motivate and train educated unemployed youth to set up their own enterprises.

#### MICRO ENTERPRISE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (MEDP)

MEDP was launched by NABARD in 2006. The programme intends to nurture the entrepreneurial talents of members of mature SHGs to set up and run micro enterprises as a livelihood option in farm or non farm sector, either on individual basis or on group basis. Support is extended under this programme to members of such SHGs to enrich their knowledge on enterprise management, business dynamics and rural markets. Nearly 5000 skill upgradation training programmes have been conducted upto 2012 under these initiatives covering nearly 2 lakh members of mature SHGs. Most of the trained SHG members have become promising entrepreneurs by availing loans from their SHGs. West Bengal, Tamil Nadu and Chhattisgarh are the major states where maximum number of SHG members were given skill training.

## 7.6 REGIONAL RURAL BANKS

In Mid-1970's it was realised that more systematic and concerted efforts were needed to strengthen the flow of institutional rural credit, with a view to developing the rural economy by providing for the purpose of Agriculture trade commerce industry and other productive activities in mal areas particularly to the small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers, artisans and small entrepreneurs.

The Working Group under Shri M.Narsimhan in its report of July 30, 1975 recommended the establishment of a new type of institution to supplement the efforts of commercial and cooperative institutions in the rural sector. To begin with such Rural banks were to be established in regions where the existing credit structure was weak. This marked the beginning of Regional Rural Banks, which made rapid strides in the decade to follow. By the end of June 1987 there were 194 RRBs covering 151 districts of the country through 12838 branches. Their lending increased from more Rs. 100 crores to Rs. 1975 crores and deposits from Rs. 24 crores to Rs. 1715 crores. Admittedly, the RRBs have achieved considerable degree of success in taking banking services to the remote areas which had hitherto remained unbaked and making available institutional credit to the weaker sections in these areas.

Every RRB functions as a commercial bank and apart from granting short term and long term loans directly, it is empowered to mobilise savings. They sanction loans for agriculture, allied activities, retail trade and tiny industries in the rural sector. They also specifically cover the target group of small and marginal farmers, landless labourers, rural artisans etc. under the Integrated Rural Development Programme by extending credit to the poorest of the poor in the rural areas. These banks are also extending financial assistance to cooperative institutions of the region to strengthen their financial base and making it possible and feasible to take up the positive role as viable financial institutions engaged in rural development.

At the end of December, 1986, the deposits and advances of Regional Rural Banks were Rs. 1715 crores and Rs. 1785 crores respectively, and of the latter, 98 per cent of the amount was directly for agriculture and allied activities, retail trade and self-employment generation schemes.

However, the most disturbing aspect of the functioning of RRBs is that they are, by and large, incurring losses. The major factor which has contributed to the erosion of their profitability is that they are exclusively lending to the weaker sections at low rate of interest while their operational cost in handling small loans is quite high. Besides the recovery of loans is not satisfactory and the dues are increasingly piling up.

The Regional Rural Banks (RRBs) were set up consequent to the recommendations of the Working Group on Rural Banks (1975). The

main objectives of the Regional Rural Banks were to: (i) take banking to the doorsteps of the rural masses, particularly in areas without banking facilities; (ii) make available cheaper institutional credit to the weaker sections of society, who were to be the only clients of these banks; (iii) mobilise rural savings and channelise them for supporting productive activities in rural areas; (iv) generate employment opportunities in the rural areas and (v) bring down the cost of providing rural credit.

Although RRBs are essentially commercial banks, there are some important differences between the commercial banks and the RRBs. First, the area of the regional rural bank is limited to a specified region comprising one or two districts of a state. Secondly, unlike the commercial banks, the regional rural banks can only give direct loans for productive purposes to small and marginal farmers, rural artisans, and agricultural labourers and others of small means. Thirdly, the lending rates of RRBs should not be higher than the prevailing lending rates of cooperative societies in any particular state. The RRBs pay a lower rate of interest on borrowings from the RBI. Again, these banks are allowed to maintain a cash reserve ratio of only 3 percent and a statutory liquidity ratio of 25 percent and are provided refinance facilities through NABARD. The equity of RRBs is held by the central government, concerned state governments and the sponsor bank in the proportion of 50:15:35.

#### Progress of RRBs

The number of RRBs rose from just 5 in 1975 to 196 by 2004. The RRB branches now number over 14,000 covering 516 districts and serve a client base of close to 6.27 crore. During 1990-91 to 2003-04, RRBs registered a substantial increase in their deposits, but their credit did not rise proportionately. Consequently their C-D ratio has come down from 83.7 percent in 1991 to 52.9 percent in 2005. RRBs account for 30 percent of all rural branches of scheduled commercial banks. But, their share in total agricultural credit at the national level has remained at between six to nine percent right since their inception. (GOI, 2007)

For some time the RRBs performed well. But their performance deteriorated during the 1990s. Beginning with 2002, however, their performance has improved. Several Committees were set up to look into the problems of RRBs and suggest improvements. The Dantwala Committee (RBI, Report of the Review Committee on Regional Rural Banks, 1978) recommended that RRBs should also finance non-target group borrowers. It did not favour the merger of RRBs with the sponsoring bank as this would not solve the problem of losses but only conceal them. Most other committees were concerned with improving the financial health of RRBs through capitalisation or through reorganisation for which they recommended restructuring to improve

their functioning as viable financial institutions while simultaneously retaining their regional character and rural focus. The reforms initiated in stages would ultimately result in 20 state-level RRBs. RBI is also looking into the restructuring of RRBs.

### Recent Improvements

In view of their understanding of local people and geography, proximity to rural people and better scope for understanding local conditions, RRBs are better placed to undertake lending to small borrowers on a large scale than are commercial and cooperative banks. Since 2002, RRBs have registered a remarkable improvement in their functioning primarily as a result of their linkage with self-help groups. This linkage has not only helped them to improve their balance sheet but also enabled them to revert to their original mandate of serving the poorer sections of the rural population. The number of profit making RRBs has gradually increased from 147 in 1999 to 166 by 2005 and those reporting losses declined from 49 to 30. Moreover, the share of non-performing assets has declined considerably from 27.8 percent in 1999 to 8.5 percent by 2005. But there are regional differences. In particular, NPAs of the north-eastern region (16.3 per cent) continue to be very high (GOI, 2007). It has been decided to expand the rural branch network through the RRBs. In order to improve further the functioning of the RRBs, it is important to strengthen their links with SHGs as a part of the bank-linked credit institutions.

#### Check your progress - 2

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

3. Write the mission of NABARD?

4. Write short note on RRB?

### 7.7 DISTRICT RURAL DEVELOPMENT AGENCY (DRDA)

We have mentioned in the preceding sub-section that SFDA and MFALA programmes have been merged into the integrated rural development programme and a new agency called District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) was set up replacing both the earlier agencies. Here, we provide more details of DRDA.

DRDAs have been established for effective implementation of anti-poverty programmes in rural areas at the district level. It is an institution that acts as a delivery agency to support and facilitate the development process. The role of the DRDAs is to plan for effective implementation of anti-poverty programmes and to coordinate with all the agencies - Governmental, non-Governmental, technical and financial - for successful programme implementation. They enable the poor rural community to participate in the decision-making process.

DRDA was created originally to implement the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP). Thus, since its inception the DRDA has been the principal organ at the District level to oversee the implementation of different anti-poverty programmes of the Central Government. Subsequently, the DRDAs have been entrusted with a number of programmes of State government as well.

Centrally Sponsored Scheme for strengthening the DRDAs has been introduced. This scheme, which is funded on a 25:25 basis between Centre and States, aims at strengthening and professionalizing the DRDAs for effective functioning of the organization.

The main objectives of DRDA are to:

Effectively manage the anti-poverty programmes; and Effectively co-ordinate with other agencies and line departments like Panchayati Raj Institutions, Banks and other financial institutions, the NGO's and the technical and other institutions to gather support and resources required for poverty elimination at the District level.

### **DECENTRALISED RURAL DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION**

There has been a constant debate on the methods and sequence of enabling people to participate in the development process. Decentralisation has been advocated by development agencies and policy planners as an important factor broadening citizen participation and improving local governance, thereby promoting poverty reduction from the bottom-up (Jitling, et al, 2004).

Local self-governments can make a contribution to the health of a nation's democracy by offering opportunities for greater participation in the business of governance and by creating a democratic climate of opinion. Through a local electoral process, the political parties aggregate the demands of the dispersed population, represent political interests, ensure electoral competition and form governments, thereby facilitating the participation of people in governance.

Good governance is increasingly cited as a key component in any successful strategy to reduce poverty. Decentralization of authority and responsibility is a key factor in good governance. Good governance is concerned with institutionalizing democracy in such a way that the structure produces the expected functions, and thus the desired results.

The persistence of poverty in most countries has its origins in problems of governance rather than in inadequacy of resources. The basic argument about the role of governance in development holds that weak governance is the result of failure of the State to do the Project a developmental vision.

a Demonstrate a commitment, through putting in place policies and programmes as well as calibrating priorities, to realize the vision. Develop the administrative, technical and political capacity to mobilize the necessary support within the civil society to translate the vision into a reality.

Rural Development Decentralization of policy is generally regarded as critical for efficiency, equity and participation. With regard to efficiency, decentralization contributes to identifying local priorities, potentialities and resources for the appropriate preparation, implementation and sustainable management of projects. With regard to equity, local governments are often in a good position to administer services that have important redistributive implications, such as primary health care, education, childcare, housing and public transportation. With regard to participation, the identification and mobilization of all available resources and their deployment in accordance with popular needs requires direct participation.

Decentralisation has traditionally been motivated by the following two arguments: Decentralisation can lead to an increase in efficiency: Central and state authorities usually lack the "time and place knowledge" (Hayek, cited in Ostrom et al., 1993) to implement policies and programmes that reflect people's 'real' needs and preferences. If properly managed, decentralisation is seen as a way to improve allocative efficiency (Musgrave, 1983; and Oates, 1972).

Decentralisation can lead to improved governance: Decentralisation enhances accountability and monitoring of government officials and decision-makers. Unchecked authority and inadequate incentives encourage "rent-seeking behaviour" by government officials. Decentralisation undermines these opportunities by creating institutional arrangements that formalise the relationship between citizens and public servants. Political decentralisation, especially the election of local officials by citizens, when accompanied by a strong legal framework, can create local accountability and thereby foster officials' legitimacy, bolstering citizen involvement and interest in politics, and deepening the democratic nature of institutions (Blair, 2000; Crook and Manor, 1998; and Manor, 1999).

Both arguments are highly relevant for poverty reduction. Increased possibilities for participation, improved access to services and a more efficient way of providing public goods at the local level are major components of most anti-poverty programmes. Decentralisation aims at associating people with the government to the maximum extent possible. In India, the Panchayati Raj system enables people to participate in democracy in a more effective way and provides an opportunity for rural people to plan and administer their own affairs. The introduction of the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) in 1959 is considered to be an instrument of social revolution in India, the idea

which is based on the philosophy of decentralisation. The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments (for rural local bodies - the panchayats) and urban local bodies (the municipalities) in 1992 widened the democratic base of the Indian polity. Within a year, most of the states passed their own Acts in conformity with the amended constitutional provisions. As a result, India has moved towards what has been described as 'multilevel federalism'. Under the decentralised planning process, rural development programmes have assumed greater significance, as their implementation has been transferred to Panchayat Raj institutions.

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## **7.8 STATISTICS RELATED TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

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Rural development programmes in India are of vast dimensions requiring massive data for planning and implementation. Also, in the wake of their implementation and for the purpose of progress reporting, monitoring and concurrent evaluation, large volumes of data and information are being generated. In the following -\*we shall briefly discuss statistics-that are being collected for monitoring and concurrent evaluation of the major anti-poverty programmes.

### **Monitoring of Anti-Poverty Programmes**

Over the years, a fairly comprehensive system of monitoring of anti-poverty programmes has been developed. This is based on a regular system of progress reports and feedback. For this purpose statistical proforma have been prescribed. The monthly progress reports are brief and contain key information relating to physical and financial progress. Quarterly reports are more detailed which provide 'data and information relating to progress achieved, both quantitative & qualitative. Annual reports provide even more detailed statistics on progress achieved, problems faced and remedial corrective measures taken, and quantitative/qualitative information on the effects and impact of the programme. The primary reporting agency is the block office which maintains the basic details regarding the schemes and projects being implemented within the jurisdiction, of the block. The reports from different block offices are sent to the District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) where they are consolidated. The reports received from different DRDAs are consolidated at the state headquarters. National level progress reports are prepared by the Department of Rural Development of the Government of India on the basis of reports received from each state. The Department of Rural Development at the Centre has prescribed that the monthly progress reports from the states should reach the Centre by the 10th of the following month, the quarterly reports by the 25th of the month following the quarter and the annual report before the end of the first quarter following the year. Though monthly reports are, by and large, regularly received in time from most of the states, the same is not true in the case of quarterly and annual reports. This is mainly due to the time consuming process

of manual tabulation and record maintenance. A major constraint in this connection is the shortage of trained manpower for compilation of data which might affect the quality of reporting also. Whereas the Central and State Governments monitor the implementation of these programmes on the basis of certain key indicators on a monthly, quarterly and annual basis, closer day-to-day monitoring is the shared responsibility of the DRDAs and block offices. As such, the requirements at the lower levels of management are much higher. In practice, however, the collection and compilation of data are more often dictated by the requirements of the higher authorities.

In the case of IRDP, the basic data collected on a monthly basis for monitoring purpose include the number of families assisted, the sectoral distribution of the beneficiaries, the social class and gender distribution of the beneficiaries. On the financial side, the total investment, the per capita investment - by sector and social class, the share of subsidy and bank credit, the institutional distribution of bank loan etc. are collected. These are compared with the targets and norms provided. Significant deviations from the targets and norms are matters of concern needing corrective supportive action. The quarterly reports, apart from the above details, provide information on qualitative aspects of the implementation of the programme - problems faced and how they have been overcome. The annual reports provide, in addition, details of income generation from the assets, and changes in the overall income of the assisted families as well as details of loan repayments.

The progress reports of Jawahar Rozgar Yojana contain details regarding the number of mandays of employment generation, the social occupational class and gender of those who get work, the types of work taken under the programme, details of foodgrain distribution and so on. On the financial side, details of outlays, the share of wage and material component, average wage rate and average cost of generation of mandays of employment etc. are reported. Again, achievements are compared with the targets and norms and wherever major departures occur, these are indicated for follow up action and corrective (or supportive) measures.

## **SOURCES OF RURAL STATISTICS**

Depending upon the nature, extent of sophistication and level of disaggregation of planning, the statistical requirements vary considerably. For example, to prepare a proper IRDP plan at the block level, one requires all the statistics listed above plus a lot more detailed information about the poverty profile, ownership of income generating assets, income level and main sources of income, resource potential in the region which may include as diverse information as the ground water potential of the area, the skills and educational levels of the population, the health status and morbidity pattern of the population

and so on. Some of the data may not be readily available and may have to be collected through special surveys which may be costly and time consuming. We shall devote the following paragraphs to briefly discuss the sources and methods of collection of basic rural statistics, periodicity and timeliness, reliability and validity of the data and estimates, and uses to which statistics are put.

### **Administrative Statistics**

Broadly, the sources of basic rural statistics can Be divided into three types:

(i) Administrative records,

(ii) Census Records

(iii) Sample surveys

By and large, a significant amount of Basic rural statistics are available in the Administrative records of various government offices at the district, block and Taluk and village/panchayat levels. Some of these are generated byproducts of

Administration often as a result of a deliberate action, and others as products of certain

Government regulations. For example, as a byproduct of revenue administration, land. Ownership statistics and land utilization statistics are maintained by the village , patwad (revenue official). Similarly, the gram panchayat adhikari (official) maintains essential details of the inhabitants within the panchayat area for various official purposes. The primary school records contain details regarding school enrolment and dropout, while vital events like births and deaths are recorded in the registration office for the purpose. A major merit of such statistics is that they are connected/generated regularly without any additional explicit expenditure for data collection. Because of the legal authority of the administrative machinery, there is little & culty in getting cooperation from respondents to collect the requisite statistics. Often, the respondents have to furnish the requisite information to the - authority as a matter of routine to comply with certain administrative and regulatory Stipulations.

### **Check your progress - 3**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

5. Write the main objectives of DRDA?

6. Write short note on Statistics related to Rural Development ?

### **Statistics on Rural Development**

A major problem with the administrative statistics, however, is that they are a major problem with the administrative statistics, however, is that they often lie scattered in various administrative records of the

offices of various functional departments. From the &r's point of view, the first task will be to systemaacally compile these statistics from the records, 6les and progress reports maintained in the field offices as well as higher level offices. Quite often this may be a difficult task as the records may not be properly maintained or uptodate. Further, explanatory notes/definitions in regard to the data may be missing. For example; the records of ownership of land holding maintained by the patwari may not indicate the current ownership status as mutations due to partitions, sales etc., are not normally carried out promptly.

## Census Statistics

Censuses are the next major source of basic statistics including rural statistics. Census enumeration is conducted periodically to collect specific informaion relatingto the entire population. The population census is the most important of them. It is conducted once in ten years in India. The last census was in 1991. The first .population census in our country was conducted in 1871 and since then we have been having regular censuses. A variety of information relating to the entire population is collected during the census. These include statistics on demographic characteristics, housing and other infrastructure facilities, economic status, occupational details, employment status, literacy level, and other social statistics. Almost all census data provide a rural urban break-up. The Census Commissioner of India is responsible for the conduct of population census throughout the country. At the state level, there are state census commissioners. The field work or actual data collection is normally got done through school teachers and other government functionaries who are given special training and remuneration for this purpose.

Though the actual field work for census is only a onemonth operation (usually in Feburary of the census year), the preparations for census take a few y& and the compilation and analysis of census data and preparation of various census reports at the national, state and district levels take several years. Normally, the total population figrres and the important characteristics of the population at the national 'and state level are made available soon after the census. More detailed and disaggregated figures are normally available only with considerable time lag. The delays in the processing of census data are a matter of concern, and the expectation is that with the aid of computerisation this can be considerably reduced. Apart from national and state level aggregate estimates, the population census provides detailed disaggregated data at the district, block and village levels which are extremely useful for decendalised planning.

In addition to the population census, the other important censuses conducted in our country on a regularbasis are Agricultural Census, Economic Census and Livestock Census. Agricultural census has been conducted every five years since 1970-71. It throws up detailed

statistics on land holdings, distribution of operational holdings by size, area of operational holdings in different size, classes etc. - Economic Census collects data on household and unregistered economic enterprises. Besides, data on various village amenities - social and economic infrastructure facilities - are also collected under Economic Census which are extremely useful for planning of basic amenities in rural areas. So far, three economic censuses have been conducted, the first one in 1977. Livestock census collects detailed statistics on the livestock population in the country which is quite useful in planning for rural development.

### **Sample Survey Statistics**

One of the third major source of basic rural statistics is sample surveys. Unlike the census where information is collected from all the individuals (units) in the population, in sample survey; information is collected only from a representative sample of individuals from the population. On the basis of statistics collected through sample surveys, reliable estimates about the characteristics can be made for the population.

As compared to census, a sample survey is less time consuming, less costly and often more reliable as non-sampling errors can be minimised by having better trained professional enumerators. A major limitation of sample survey is that it will not provide reliable estimates of population characteristics at disaggregated levels (beyond what was decided at the time the sample design was prepared) due to limitations of sample size. Of course, sample surveys will not provide individual data relating to all the units of the population either.

The most important and best known sample surveys are those conducted by the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO). NSSO has been conducting socio-economic surveys on a regular basis since 1951. These surveys are of national coverage and are conducted in rounds of one year duration, after the initial few years when the duration of a round was less than one year. Each round covers selected facets of the economy and society. Over a period of ten years the subjects are covered in rotation. For instance, the 43rd round of NSSO survey was conducted during 1987-88 and covered employment and unemployment. It may be noted in this connection that the estimates of poverty line and the population below the poverty line are based on the consumer expenditure surveys conducted by the NSSO periodically.

For the collection of vital statistics, the Sample Registration System makes available every year for the country as a whole data on birth rates, death rates, infant mortality rates, age specific death rates etc. Sometimes special surveys are carried out by the Sample Registration System along with the regular surveys. The SRS was initiated in 1964-65 on a pilot basis in a few selected states but now covers the entire country.

Empirical research - exploratory, diagnostic, and evaluative - on different facets of rural society and economy are sponsored by organisations like the Indian Council of Social Science Research, Planning Commission and different Departments of the Government of India. These micro studies conducted by research institutes/university departments with the help of grants given by the sponsoring organisation provide useful feedback on the development scenario. Sometimes these studies are conducted throughout the country with the participation of different university department/research institutes following a common research design and a common core tabulation plan. The state and other state agencies occasionally conduct sample surveys to collect specific basic rural statistics for planning, monitoring and evaluation of various rural development programmes. Another agency which has nationwide field officers and survey teams for conducting socio-economic sample surveys is the Programme Evaluation Organisation (PEO) of the Planning Commission. The PEO conducts evaluation studies of important national programmes. In recent years, it has conducted evaluation studies of IRDP and NREP. The states, too, have their own evaluation wing, usually within the Directorate of Economics and Statistics.

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### 7.9 TRAINING OF PRI FUNCTIONARIES

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Importance of local governance in a democratic polity can hardly be underestimated. In developing countries local governance institutions not only make democracy more meaningful, but provide much needed participation of the masses in the socio-economic transformation of the nations.

The concept of self-governance is one of the cherished values of Indian society. Selfgoverning institutions at the grassroots played an important role in ancient India. Selfgoverning village communities had existed in India even in the times of Rig-Veda. In course of time these village bodies took the form of 'Panchayats,' which means an

#### E-Governance

assembly of five persons. The panchayats looked after the affairs of the village. It is believed that these bodies were the pivot of administration and centre of social life. Sir Charles Metcalfe, the provisional Governor General of India (1835-36) called the Indian village communities as 'the little republics.' Now days these little republics are known as Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) in rural areas.

After independence PRIs have come into existence in most of the states since 1959 consequent to the recommendations of Balwant Rai

Mehta Committee. The inception of PRIs opened a new chapter in the annals of Indian democracy. In the process of development of the country, PRIs have been playing a vital role as agents of rural transformation. These institutions help in purposeful understanding of the masses and articulation of their responses. Democracy is introduced to grassroots of the country through these institutions. Even the common people of the country are associated with administration through these institutions. Through PRIs, local people not only determine policies but they also guide and control the administration for the execution of these policies. The importance of Panchayati Raj system lies in the fact that it assures expansion of democracy at the grassroots and ensures public participation in development programmes.

Therefore, PRIs have become backbone of our democratic set up. PRIs have undergone many changes especially in its role from the days of the British Empire to the 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act in 1992. In the era of globalisation,

PRIs right from the village panchayats to the Zilla Parishad have to redefine their roles as that of catalysts and facilitators. Effective and meaningful functioning of these institutions would depend on active involvement, contribution and participation of citizens. The World Bank Report 2000 stated that 'development must address human needs directly, that institutions of direct democracy, such as, panchayats should be rooted in processes that are socially inclusive and responsive to changing circumstances'. Therefore, strengthening of PRIs as self-governance institutions at the grassroots level to run the administration of local affairs is much needed for more meaningful democracy. In this context, sincere efforts need to be taken to substantially enhance the knowledge, skills and capabilities of PRIs with the use of ICT. In this Unit an attempt is made to discuss ICT enabled initiatives undertaken in the country to reorient PRIs as self-governing institutions and make them vehicles of socio-economic transformation in rural India.

### CHANGING ROLE OF PRIs

Democracy does not become meaningful without strengthening the grassroots institutions. Local self-government institutions are those institutions constituted at the grassroots level to administer local affairs. These institutions comprise those representatives who are directly elected by the people at regular interval of time. They are constituted by the Acts of state governments. These institutions fulfill the local needs, relieve the administrative burden, secure economy in administration, promote political consciousness, decentralize power and authority and make democracy a success.

Popular participation and strengthening of local governments are essential to achieve development at the local level. Institutions of governance at the local level have a clinching role in promoting a new equilibrium in rural India. The development machinery at the grassroots level work under the control of PRIs. Prior to 1992, state governments adopted different patterns of PRIs and there was no uniformity in the structures, powers

**Panchayati Raj Institutions: Improving Self-Governance Through ICT and functions, election methods, allocation of financial resources etc.** of these institutions. Government of India has brought certain reforms in these institutions through 73<sup>rd</sup> Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992. This amendment aimed at creating uniform pattern of PRIs in all the states. It devolved a package of powers and functions to the PRIs. These institutions now perform a wide range of functions. This includes maintenance of public streets, proper drainage, electricity supply, lighting, medical relief, construction and maintenance of public toilets, registration of births and deaths, provision of primary education, water supply, maintenance of burial ground, etc. In addition, they are also expected to take up functions, such as, promotion of cottage industries, animal husbandry programmes, pollution control, famine relief, construction of culverts, maintenance of village roads, reading rooms, etc.

The XI Schedule added to the Constitution by the Act lists out 29 subjects to be transferred to Panchayati Raj bodies. They include agriculture, land reforms, minor irrigation, animal husbandry, fisheries, social forestry, small scale industries, rural housing, rural roads, rural electrification, poverty alleviation programmes, primary, secondary and vocational education; adult and non-formal education, libraries, rural markets, rural health centres, family welfare, women and child development, social welfare and welfare of weaker sections, public distribution system and maintenance of community assets. The Constitution through 73<sup>rd</sup> Amendment visualises panchayats as institutions of local self-government. It also devolves the powers, functions and responsibilities to panchayats in respect of 29 subjects to prepare their schemes and development plans and implementation of these programmes of economic and social development. The Constitution enjoins the state government to take steps for devolution of powers and functions to the panchayats to enable them to become 'institutions of self-government'. However, the available information reveals that the process of devolution has not yet been firmed up in most of the states. The extent of devolution of powers and functions is subject to the will of the state legislature. It is found that the steps have been taken in most states on piece-meal basis.

Experience of one decade of implementation of the 73<sup>rd</sup> Constitutional Amendment Act shows that PRIs in most of the states have not

delivered the services to rural people in accordance with the provisions made in the Act. Although the Act empowers them to prepare plans for economic development and social justice and implement the schemes of rural development as may be entrusted to them including those related to matters listed in the XI Schedule, they failed to become the real institutions of self-governance due to lack of community participation and insufficient capacity in running their activities. Therefore, capacity building measures need to be taken at local governance level to strengthen PRIs. Capacity building may be defined as support or intervention that empowers people, communities or organisation to achieve their objectives. Effective capacity building includes learning by doing, access to resources, facilitation, mediation and training. These measures comprise developing community audit skills, facilitating a strategic plan and phased operational measures and encouraging the monitoring and evaluation of progress. The challenges before the PRIs in the new millennium are formidable. Infact, these institutions are to transform themselves from being representative political institutions to being community institutions of direct democracy with support from the local community. These institutions have to work within the broad framework of good governance. The

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Positive challenges of these institutions are preserving democracy at the grassroots, initiating necessary steps for good governance, maintaining accountability and transparency with the purpose of social audit, exploring possibilities for new initiatives or new power equations, civil society activities through partnership with NGOs, achieving women empowerment and developing efficient service delivery mechanisms.

Poverty reduction should be the highest priority mission of PRIs in the new millennium. These institutions have to draw long-term plans for rural development and catalyse publicprivate partnership to realise them in the areas of health, education, roads, water supply and other infrastructure services. They have to ensure that their administration and functions are accountable to the people to facilitate empowerment. To meet these challenges a considerable number of ICT initiatives have been undertaken by the Central and state governments since 1990s. These initiatives have vast potential to ensure a more accountable, responsive and citizen friendly PRI. Positive harnessing of ICT can open new vistas for PRIs' efficiency and effectiveness.

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## 7.10 LET US SUM UP

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In this unit we have discussed the various Rural Development Agencies, and document the list of programmes like CAPART and National Institute of Rural Development, NABARD and Regional rural bankings also focuses on District Rural Development Agencies – Statistics related to Rural Development and also training of Panchayat Raj Institutions.

## 7.11 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. Write the major goals of CAPART?
2. What are the missions of NIRD?
3. Write the mission of NABARD?
4. Write short note on RRB?
5. Write the main objectives of DRDA?
6. Write short note on Statistics related to Rural Development ?

## 7.12 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. **The major goals of CAPART are:** To support voluntary organizations in implementing projects for sustainable development in rural areas. 2 0 To act as a national nodal point for development and promotion of appropriate rural technologies. 3 ) To promote and support voluntary action and people's participation for rural development, through capacity-building for voluntary organizations and rural communities. 4) To act as a data bank and clearing house for information on the voluntary sector, rural technologies and rural development.
2. **Mission :** To examine and analyse the factors contributing to the improvement of economic and social well-being of people in rural areas on a sustainable basis with focus on the rural poor and the other disadvantaged groups through research, action research, consultancy and documentation efforts.
3. **MISSION :** Promote sustainable and equitable agriculture and rural development through participative financial and non-financial interventions, innovations, technology and institutional development for securing prosperity.
4. Natural Factors, Technological Factors, Social Factors, Economic Factors, Cultural Factors, Political Factors
5. The Regional Rural Banks (RRBs) were set up consequent to the recommendations of the Working Group on Rural Banks (1975). The main objectives of the Regional Rural Banks were to: (i) take banking to the doorsteps of the rural masses, particularly in areas without banking facilities; (ii) make available cheaper institutional credit to the weaker sections of society, who were to be the only clients of these banks; (iii) mobilise rural savings and channelise them for supporting productive activities in rural areas; (iv) generate employment opportunities in the rural areas and (v) bring down the cost of providing rural credit.
6. A major problem with the administrative statistics, however, is that they are a major problem with the administrative statistics, however, is that they often lie scattered in various administrative records of the offices of various functional departments. From the researcher's point of view, the first task will be to systematically compile these statistics from the records, files and progress reports maintained in the field offices as well as

higher level offices. Quite often this may be a difficult task as the records may not be properly maintained or upto date. Further, explanatory notes/definitions in regard to the data may be missing. For example; the records of ownership of land holding maintained by the patwari may not indicate the current ownership status as mutations due to partitions, sales etc., are not normally carried out promptly.

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### 7.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

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# UNIT - VIII SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

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Social Development

NOTES

## Structure

- 8.1. Introduction
  - 8.2. Aims and Objectives
  - 8.3. Social Development
    - 8.3.1 Definition
    - 8.3.2 Approaches
    - 8.3.3 Indicators
  - 8.4. Social Development in India
    - 8.4.1 Historical and Social Context of India
    - 8.4.2 Pre and post Independence Period
    - 8.4.3 Government Measures and Five Year Plans in India
  - 8.5. Development Sectors –
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    - 8.5.4 Health
  - 8.6. Let Us Sum Up
  - 8.7. Unit- End- Exercises
  - 8.8. Answer to check your Progress
  - 8.9. Suggested Readings
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## 8.1 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 8, we examined the complex nature of social change. The dynamics of social change has stimulated the formulation of a host of concepts, of which the term ‘development’ has gained much currency. Today, we use this term to describe

the complex modes of social change, especially those which have been desired, planned, directed and stimulated in a society. We now have ‘sociology of development’. In order to understand the concept of social development, which has been defined and redefined over the years? This unit deals first with the broad nature and meaning of the concept of development. We describe the current views on social development, including a discussion on the ‘three worlds of development’ and some recent approaches to social development. Finally, we look at the ‘mixed’ path of development.

Social Development encompasses a commitment to individual well-being and volunteerism, and the opportunity for citizens to determine their own needs and to influence decisions that affect them. Social development incorporates public concerns in developing social policy and economic initiatives.

Until relatively recently, social development was conceived in terms of a set of desirable results - higher incomes, longer life expectancy, lower infant mortality, more education.

Recently emphasis has shifted from the results to the enabling conditions, strategies and public policies for achieving those results - peace, democracy, good governance, social freedoms, equal access, laws, institutions, markets, infrastructure, education and technology. But still little attention has been placed on the underlying social process of development that determines how society formulates, adopts, initiates, and organises, and few attempts have been made to formulate such a framework. However, there are some recognised theories and principles, which will be examined briefly.

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## 8.2 AIMS OF OBJECTIVES

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After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- define the concept of social development, and describe its nature;
- describe the prevailing ideas about social development; and
- give an account of the Indian experience of development

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## 8.3. SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

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Development is a broad concept and, though interrelated, it differs from social change. Change is a value-neutral concept whereas development is a value-laden concept. The notion of development is, in other words, the process of desired change. All cases of change do not indicate development. Only planned and desired changes can be described as development. Thus, it is important to keep in mind the distinct character of the concept of development. Secondly, we also need to distinguish between economic and sociological notions of development. This point becomes clearer as you read this unit. While speaking of social development, we emphasise the sociological understanding of the process of development. As a broad concept, social development refers to the overall transformation of individuals and society, which may enable every person to achieve moral, social physical and material well-being. Egalitarian development is a desired goal, but it remains only an 'ideal'. In spite of development efforts, disparities in various dimensions of development continue to widen between societies, regions and groups. Variations are observed when we compare various regions or countries. Out of such comparisons have emerged the concepts of underdevelopment mainly in economic terms, such as per capita income, gross national product, level of the standard of living and degree of technological advancement. There are many criteria of 'over' and 'under' development. The simplest one of them is the ratio of industrial capacity to social utility. It means that the countries which are unable to produce, sufficient goods to meet the requirements of their population, may be considered as underdevelopment, and those which produce more than what is required, as overdeveloped. In the overdeveloped category may be placed the countries such as America, and in the underdeveloped category, many Asian and African countries. It is, however, a controversial point whether underdevelopment and over development

can be identified with any particular country. Further the term underdevelopment is not acceptable, to some of the economically less developed countries, such as India. These countries consider themselves quite developed from social and cultural points of view. They prefer to be designated as 'developing' rather than as 'underdeveloped' countries. An important idea implicit in the classification of countries, into developed and developing, is that the former became a 'model' for the latter. The developing countries may like to imitate or adopt the economic and technological systems of developed countries. What is more important about this classification, with regard to the conceptual meaning of development, is the fact that the developing countries depended upon the developed ones for technology, skills and monetary aid. The latter tried to exploit the former. This is known as the dependency theory of development. Having realised the exploitative tendencies of the developed countries, the developing countries tried to be self-reliant in economic terms. Thus, substitution of economic dependence by self-reliance, emerged as an important indicator of development. The greater the self-reliance, the higher the levels of development. Endeavors towards self-reliance resulted in import substitution by stopping the purchase of goods from developed countries and producing them in their own country.

### **8.3.1 DEFINING SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT**

Social development is about putting people at the centre of development. This means a commitment that development processes need to benefit people, particularly but not only the poor, but also a recognition that people, and the way they interact in groups and society, and the norms that facilitates such interaction, shape development processes.

While the role of formal institutions and policies has become central to the development debate, the role of informal social institutions has received less attention. Debates on growth and poverty reduction have paid relatively little attention to the impact of, for example, norms of cooperation in villages and neighbourhoods, community oversight in the management of projects, or non-discrimination against women and minorities in education and health. Of course, micro-studies invariably highlight their importance, but can we measure such informal social institutions?

What exactly are these social institutions? We understand these as the behaviours, norms and conventions that pattern human interaction. Participation in local organisations, demonstrations, petitions, and elections are examples of such behaviours. Norms and conventions, often unwritten, govern human interaction, and are the lived relations between people. Norms of non-discrimination against groups based on ethnicity, language, or gender are examples of social institutions, as are norms of criminal behaviour and about civic activism.

Social development thus implies the change in social institutions. Progress toward an inclusive society, for example, implies that individuals treat each other (more) fairly in their daily lives, whether in the family, workplace, or in public office. Social cohesion is enhanced when peaceful and safe environment within neighbourhoods and communities are created. Social accountability exists to the extent that citizens' voices are expressed, and heard by the authorities. Formal institutional reform – for example, the provision of legally enshrined rights, better law enforcement, or more participatory governance – are part of the process by which institutional change is achieved, changing the way people relate to people is an equally important part of this.

The Indices of Social Development focus on measuring the informal social institutions, how they compare across countries, and how these changes over time. It does this by using existing databases, around the world, and combining these to find the best possible match with our definition of social development. Through an on-going process of expert discussion, and review of existing databases, we have organised the Indices of Social Development into five groupings:

Civic activism refers to the social norms, organisations, and practices which facilitate greater citizen involvement in public policies and decisions. These include use of media, access to civic associations, and involvement in activities such as nonviolent demonstration or petition.

Clubs and associations uses data on levels of engagement in local community groups, time spent socialising in voluntary associations, and membership of developmental organisations, to identify the extent to which people are part of social networks and potentially supported by community ties.

Inter-group cohesion refers to relations of cooperation and respect between groups in a society; where this cooperation breaks down, there is the potential for conflict and acts of terror and riots.

Interpersonal safety and trust measures the level of trust and confidence between individuals that do not know each other personally, specifically with regard to the likelihood of criminal violence and other forms of trust violation, and combines this with measures of rates of violence.

Gender equality estimates the extent of discrimination against women, whether in the labour market, education, healthcare, or in the home.

## **THE PREVAILING NOTIONS OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT**

For a discussion of the contemporary sociological concerns about development, we can begin by outlining some of the views based on historical events, on the sociocultural dimensions of development. But

before we examine these dominant concerns regarding development, it would be useful to undertake a brief description of the “three worlds of development” as it had existed prior to the break-up of the Soviet Union. This had become an important part of the social scientists parlance since the middle of the 20th century. Earlier the world was divided into two i.e. it was a bipolar world with the capitalist block of United States of America (USA), on the one side and the socialist block of the Soviet Union, on the other. After the break-up of Soviet Union, the ‘Cold War ‘ has ended and the world has become Unipolar, with USA as the most powerful nation of the world.

### **The Three Worlds of Development**

The First World consist of North America, Western and Southern Europe. The countries were seen to be following mainly a capitalist model of development. The Second World had consisted of Soviet Union and the East European group such as, Poland, East Germany, Hungary etc. Many socio-political changes have occurred in these countries now and they do not remain a communist bloc any more. They were associated with the socialist model of development. The Third World was and to certain extent still is generally used to refer to the less developed or developing societies of Asia, Africa and Latin America. Most of these countries emerged out of colonial rule to attain political independence only in the middle of the 20th century. The majority of the third world countries are characterised by low per capita income, high rates of illiteracy and infant mortality. These were generally agriculture-based economies where people had short life expectancies, low degree of social mobility and strong attachment to tradition (Estes, R.J., p. 92). The countries, though subject to influence by the erstwhile First and the Second World countries, have devised and Development their own national strategy and path of development. The First and the Second World’s models of development had laid primary emphasis on economic growth. i) The Capitalist Model of Development of the First World The main characteristics of the capitalist model of development are:

- a) provision for private ownership of property and means of production,
- b) promotion of economic activities through private enterprises, and
- c) minimum possible state regulation and control on private enterprises. Thus

the capitalist model is characterised by a free economy regulated by competition.

- ii) The Socialist Model of Development of the Second World The socialist path of development adopted by the Second World, was seen to be opposite or dichotomous to the capitalist path of development.

The former, contrary to the latter, is characterised by state ownership of property and means of production, public enterprises and complete state regulation of economic activities. Thus, the socialist model refers to a regulated economy. The main allegation against the capitalist model is that, since it permits minimum state regulation, its economic system becomes exploitative in the sense that the

working class people (proletariat) do not get their due share. The capitalists enjoy a major share of the nation's resources. Hence it contributes to inequalities so that a few are very rich and the majority is very poor. The capitalist model is, therefore, alleged to be exploitative and non-egalitarian. On the contrary, the socialist model was ideally considered as non-exploitative and egalitarian. Private ownership and the lack of state regulation, were considered to be important measures of exploitation of the weaker sections and hence the causes of income inequalities. Since, the socialist state did not allow private ownership of property, there was a strong belief that there was no room for exploitation and inequality in it. However, historical events proved this belief to be incorrect as the Soviet Union could not survive for long. The period of "Glasnost" and "perestroika" led by Gorbachev, the erstwhile Russian Prime Minister during the 1980's, dismantled the communist political and economic structure. The Soviet Union broke-up into several small countries and the socialist ideology gave way to capitalist tendencies. However, China still follows a socialistic socio-political order. The two models had also differed in their conception of development. Whereas the capitalist model lays greater stress on economic growth, than on equal distribution of the fruits of economic growth. The socialist model laid equal stress on both resource generation and equal distribution of income, and tried to change the social system in such a way that greater social justice could be ensured. In reality, socialist model did not give much space to individual initiative and consumeristic desires.

The foregoing discussion implies another difference between these models. The capitalist model does not see any major conflict in the interests of the two classes workers and capitalists. In its eyes both the classes are complementary to each other, they are functionally interdependent. The rules of society, particularly about ownership of property and distribution of income, are supposed to be based on consensus. Hence according to this model, there is no need to change the economic structure.

On the contrary, the socialist model saw inherent conflict in the interests of the workers and the capitalists. According to it, rules are not based on consensus but are imposed on the weaker section by the stronger one. This leads to the exploitation of the weak by the strong, which is likely to result in conflicts, and in revolution by the exploited people who want radical change in the

system itself. Thus, the capitalist model is sometimes designated as functionalist or consensual, and the socialist as a conflict, radical or revolutionary model. In practice, as observed by some researchers, these two models have entered a process of convergence. For instance now, there is an increased state regulation on private economic enterprises in the USA. There has been a relaxation in grants to private enterprises in Russia. One could see income inequalities, and a tendency to resist alterations in political and economic systems in both the Worlds.

However, the credit for “the worlds of development” belongs to sociologist Louis Irwing Horowitz. In his book, *Three Worlds of Development: The Theory and Practice of International Stratification* (1972), Horowitz used a variety of criteria to distinguish between groups of countries that share more or less similar patterns of socio-economic development. In recent times there has developed a new concept of “fourth world” of development as identified first by Manuel and Posluns (1974) and Hamalian and Karl (1974 : 13). They used this concept to describe “a community of the powerless, the oppressed and the dispossed”. According to them all the other “worlds of development” i.e. the First, the Second and the Third, share the people who belong to the Fourth world of development. In current usage, the countries which belong to the First world are referred to as “developed Market Economies” (DMEs); those belonging to the Second World are referred to as the “Eastern Trading Area (ETAs); and those belonging to the Third World are referred to as the “Developing Countries”. The countries of the Fourth World are referred to as “least Developing Countries” (LDCs). (Quoted in Estes, Richard J.’s” *World’s of Development*, [www. google.com](http://www.google.com) website).

### **iii) Development of the Third World**

It is difficult to specify the model of development, adopted by the majority of the Third World countries as there are variations among them, dictated mainly by their historical and socio-cultural circumstances. What they seem to share in common is that: a) They are economically and technologically underdeveloped in comparison to the countries of the so called developed world. b) Social planning is a key element in their development process. Their plans of development incorporate not only economic concerns, especially removal of poverty, but also concerns regarding nation building, national culture and social transformation.

Social Control, Change and Development c) They have been seeking technological and economic aid from the developed countries. The developed countries have given them economic assistance, but they have also been increasingly attempting to extend their political influence in the developing countries. It has been noted that the global military defence strategy is, the major consideration of the developed

countries, in extending their economic and political influence to the developing countries. In fact, the idea of the Third World is associated with the emergence of consciousness among developing countries, of being exploited by the developed countries in the garb of monetary help and expert advice. Some nations had become conscious of exploitation much earlier, but others, understood this fact only after seeing the disastrous role of big powers in the developing countries, e.g., the role of the USA in Vietnam or the USSR in Afghanistan. The social analysts have played a very significant role both in appreciating the help, as well as analysing the “games” of the big powers in the developing countries. Against this background of information about the First, the Second and the Third Worlds we will now proceed to look at some of the prevailing conceptions about development across the world.

### Activity 1

Interview at least five people of your Grandfather’s generation and ask them about their memories of the First & the Second World Wars. What were the impacts of these wars on Indian people. Write a one page note on the “Impact of First and Second World War on Indian Society”. Compare your note with the note of other students at your Study Centre.

### SOCIO-CULTURAL DIMENSIONS OF DEVELOPMENT

The concept of development has encompassed many dimensions over the years. One of the popular notions that economic growth, was a sufficient and a necessary condition to stimulate development of all the sections of a society has been proved incorrect. Economic advancement of a class of people has not, and does not trickle down to the entire population. Similarly, the attainment of high levels of economic growth by some of the developed countries has not helped to solve some of their serious problems. In fact affluence has given rise to new and more social problems. It is, therefore, now realised that if the ultimate aim of development is the improvement of the quality of life of every human being in society, it cannot be achieved as a consequence of economic growth or capital accumulation. Sociologists now believe that it is necessary to lay stress on socio-cultural dimensions of development. To elaborate, social development includes:

- Proper satisfaction of basic needs, such as, food, shelter and clothing.
- Availability of essential amenities such as electricity, transportation, communication and water.
- Good physical and mental health, measurable in terms of increased life chances, abolition of environmental pollution, nutritious diet, medical care etc.

- Economic welfare i.e. opportunities for employment in economic activities and high level of living.
- Development of human beings i.e. enhancement of literacy, vocational education, moral education, creative personality etc.
- Social integration i.e. involvement and participation of people in social, political
- and economic processes and establishment and maintenance of effective social institutions.
- Minimisation of disparities in access to various resources and opportunities - economic, social and political

Some sociologists have laid a special emphasis on the psychological, social and moral dimensions while talking about the “holistic” approach to development. They look at development as an improvement in the overall quality of life including physical, psychological, social and cultural. They emphasise that these dimensions are very closely interlinked. For instance, an improvement in the psychological quality of life, entails the idea of life satisfaction including positive mental health. This requires a proper and effective balance between material and non-material life-goals of people and between instrumental and intrinsic values of society.

### Check your progress -1

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. Write the concept of Social Development ?
2. What are the development of Third World?

## 8.3.2 APPROACHES TO SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Approaches to development may be discerned on the basis of two criteria, (i) centralisation versus decentralisation of development schemes and resources, and (ii) unit of development, i.e., the focus of development – individual, group, village etc. The first criterion given rise to two approaches, namely, development from the top and development from the bottom. The second criterion gives rise to the three approaches –sectoral development, areas development and target group development. Let us now review briefly the five approaches.

### i) Development from the top

The approach of development from the top envisages the planning and execution, of development schemes by the central or apex bodies of administration. In other words, the central organisations decide the nature and direction of plan, formulate projects and impose them on the people. For instance, the ministers and high officials sitting in the capital, make the development plans for rural people without fully realizing their problems.

Implicit in this approach is the assumption that the people who need development are incapable of understanding their needs, of devising development schemes and of executing them on their own. Hence the need for experts and outside agencies. In fact, this assumption is baseless. The elite at the top have a vested interest in making such assumptions. Their major interest is to hold control on resources and mobilise them for their own benefits. The people accept the development schemes, because they have neither sufficient resources of their own, nor any control on the resources of the community. As a result, most of the schemes imposed from the top fail to yield the desired results.

This happens in most of the cases. A large part of the funds of development schemes is eaten up in one way or the other, by the experts and executive personnel deputed or employed by the sponsors of the scheme, be it own government or any foreign agency. The major drawback of this approach is that it fails to involve the beneficiaries, in the development process. Instead, it generates a feeling of alienation among them. For these reasons this approach has been characterised by a higher degree of centralisation and bureaucratisation.

### **ii) Development from bottom**

The exponents of second approach of development from the bottom, on the contrary, believe the fairness of intentions and abilities of the people who need development. They are given an opportunity to articulate their problems as well as the ways to solve them. They are trained and made capable, and are prepared for self-help. Utilisations of resources for development schemes is decided, by the concerned people themselves or by their representatives at the local level. Thus, there is a greater decentralisation of plans and higher participation of people. While the planners realise the importance of development from the bottom, and claim that they adopt this approach, in practice, they often adopt the approach of development from the top. The result is ineffectiveness of the development schemes.

### **iii) Sectoral development**

on the basis of 'unit' of development, as mentioned earlier, three approaches are envisaged, viz., sectoral development, area development and target group development. Sectoral development approach refers to formulation and execution of schemes for development, of a particular sector of economy like agriculture or industry. For instance, the Indian planners thought of developing industries just after the Independence. Therefore they made plans to develop technology or borrow it from other countries. Stress was laid on technological education. Many institutes and colleges were established, independently or in collaboration with other countries, such as the United States of America, Russia and England. On the

other side, funds were made available for heavy industries such as textile, steel and cement. Later on, when the country faced a food problem in the early sixties, the planners thought of developing the agricultural sector. As a result, many agricultural universities were set up, which helped in evolving high yielding varieties of crops, insecticides and pesticides, and farm implements, like threshers. Extension services were made available to educate and persuade farmers, to adopt new agricultural technology, and loans were advanced to farmers quite liberally. You have seen the results of these efforts in the form of the green revolution. The country is now almost self-reliant in food.

#### **iv) Area development**

All regions are not equally developed. Some are more affluent than others. The underdevelopment of regions is due to the lack of infrastructural development—roads, railways, electrification etc. or due to the problems of floods and drought. When schemes are devised for the infrastructural development of an area or region, we call it area development approach. The Command Area Development Scheme, introduced in India in 1974 for the development of irrigation resources in certain regions, illustrates this approach.

#### **v) Target group development**

Target group approach has its focus on a particular category of people, such as small farmers, women and farm labourers. Schemes, such as Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA) and reservation of seats in schools and colleges, and in employment for scheduled castes, exemplify the target group approach. There is another approach to development, which has its focus on the overall development of the people residing in a locality – village or town. This is known as a community development approach. This approach lays stress on the development of education, health facilities, economic and social activities, and other infrastructural facilities.

### **Activity 2**

Visit the local Block Development Officers (BDO's) office in your area and interview one or two officers working there regarding the development activities going on in this area. The nature and types of programmes going on and its impact on the different communities in your area. Write a report of one page on "Social Development and the role of Government". Compare your note with other students at your Study Centre and discuss your findings with your Academic Counselor.

### 8.3.3 INDICATORS

To begin with, it would be useful to get familiar with the problems associated with using per capita GNP as a measure of development. The inability of this indicator to capture the problems arising from inequality in distribution of income is not the only drawback. One of the major criticisms arises from the fact that the figures for GNP do not include non-marketed and or non-priced activities. This includes, among other things, a significant part of the homemakers' work. This has two implications: first and more obvious implication is that this would result in the underestimation of the level of GNP. Over time, however, the activities, which were formerly not marketed, enter the market. To give an example, consider nursing. Attending to an activity of the household itself. But today, this service is a part. Not only does one pay for the service in hospitals and nursing homes, one can even obtain the service for an invalid at home. Such changes imply that comparison of the levels of per capita GNP over time could yield misleading information on the underlying standards of living. This problem also implies that using per capita GNP for inter-country comparisons too could be misleading if the countries have differences in the extent of marketed services and goods. As a result, there have been numerous efforts both to remedy these defects in the use of per capita GNP as a measure of the level of development, and to create other composite indicators that could serve as compliments or alternatives to this traditional measure. Basically, such indicators fall into two groups: those that seek to measure development in terms of a "normal" or "optimal" pattern of interaction among social, economic, and politics Factors and those that measure development in terms of quality of life. In all of these studies, the approach has been to assess the performance of the country in some key sectors: sectors, which are considered an integral part of any analysis of standards of living. Two of the key sectors used are education and health.

One of the early studies on the first group of composite indicators was carried out by the United Nations Research Institute on Social Development (UNRISD) in 1970. The study was concerned with the selection of the most appropriate indicators of development and an analysis of the relationship between these indicators at different levels of development. The result was the construction of a composite social development index. Originally 73 indicators were examined. However, only 16 indicators (9 social indicators and 7 economic indicators) were ultimately chosen

Table 1: List of Core Indicators of Socioeconomic Development  
United Nations Research Institute on Social Development (UNRISD)

1. Expectations of Life at Birth
2. Percentage of Population in localities of 20,000 and over
3. Consumption of animal protein, per capita, per day

4. Combined primary and secondary enrolment
5. Vocational enrolment ratio
6. Average number of persons per room
7. Newspaper circulation per 1,000 population
8. Percentage of economically active population with electricity, gas, water etc.
9. Agricultural production per male agricultural worker
10. Percentage of adult male labour in agriculture
11. Electricity consumption, kilowatt per capita
12. Steel consumption, kg per capita
13. Energy consumption, kg of coal equivalent per capita
14. Percentage GDP derived from manufacturing
15. Foreign trade per capita, in 1960 U.S. dollars
16. Percentage of salaried and wage earners to total economically active population

These indicators were selected on the basis of their high inter-correlation to form a development index using weights derived from the various degrees of correlation. The development index was found to correlate more highly with individual social and economic indicators than per capita GNP correlated with the same indicators. Rankings of some countries under the development index differed from per capita GNP rankings. It was also found that the development index was more highly correlated with per capita GNP for developed countries than for the developing countries. The study concluded that social development occurred at a more rapid pace than economic development up to a level of \$500 per capita income (1960 prices). In another study that sought to measure development in terms of a pattern of interaction among social, economic, and political factors was conducted by Irma Adelman and Cynthia Morris, who classified 74 countries according to 40 different variables relating to these aspects. Factor analysis was used to examine the interdependence between social and political variables and the level of economic development to arrive at a measuring yardstick. The researchers found numerous correlations between key variables and economic development.

This approach of factor analysis is based on an underlying normative assumption that there is a unique path of development. The performance of the developing countries is, therefore, sought to be judged in terms of the path traced by the developed countries. There seems to be no logical or historical justification for this assumption.

Furthermore, there is usually an emphasis on measuring inputs, such as the number of doctors or hospital beds per 1000 population or enrolment rates in primary schools to measure health and education, when outputs, such as life expectancy and literacy, are the actual objectives of development. This would not be a fallacy if the underlying production function transforms all 'inputs' into 'outputs'.

But this is rarely the case. The figures of number, of doctors per 100 population, for instance, would normally be concealing the differences in the levels between rural and urban areas, or between backward and advanced pockets of the same country. In response to these criticisms, several studies have sought to develop composite indicators that measure development in terms of meeting the basic needs of the majority of the population or in terms of quality of life.

### **Check your progress -2**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

3. Write the meaning of Development from top?

4. What are the indicators prescribed UNRISD?

For each indicator, the performance for individual countries is rated on a scale of 1 and 100, where 1 represents the worst performance by any country and 100 the best performance. For life expectancy, the upper limit of 100 was assigned to 77 years (achieved by Sweden in 1973) and the lower limit of 1 was assigned to 28 years (the life expectancy of Guinea-Bissau in 1950). Within these limits, each country's life expectancy figure is ranked from 1 to 100. For example, a life expectancy of 52, midway between the upper and lower limits of 77 and 28, would be assigned a rating of 50. Similarly for infant mortality, the upper limit was set at 9 per 1,000 (achieved by Sweden in 1973) and the lower limit at 229 per 1,000 (Gabon, 1950). Literacy rates, measured as percentages from 1 to 100, provide their own direct scale. Once a country's performance in life expectancy, infant mortality, and literacy has been rated on the scale of 1 to 100, the composite index for the country is calculated by averaging the three ratings, giving equal weights to each. Although the study found that countries with low per capita GNP tended to have low \*PQLIs and countries with high per capita GNP tended to have high PQLIs, the correlation between GNP and PQLI were not substantially close. Some countries, with high per capita GNP had very low PQLIs - even below the average of the poorest countries. Other countries with very low per capita GNP had PQLIs that were higher than the average for the upper-middle-income countries.

## **8.4. SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA**

The latest and most ambitious attempt to analyze the comparative status of Socio-economic development in both developing and developed nations systematically and comprehensively undertaken by the Nations Development Program (IJNDP) in its annual series of Human Development reports. The centre-piece of these reports, which were initiated in 1990, is the construction and refinement of a Human Development Index (HDI). Like the PQLI, the HDI attempts to rank all countries on a scale of 0 (the lowest human development) to 1

(highest human development) based on three goals or end products of development.

1) longevity is measured by life expectancy at birth;

2) Knowledge as measured by a weighted average of adult literacy (two-thirds) and mean years of schooling (one-third weights); and

3) Income as measured by adjusted real per capita income (i.e. adjusted for the differing purchasing power of each country's currency and for the assumption of rapidly diminishing marginal utility of income). - Using these three measures of development and applying a complex formula to 1990 data for 160 countries, the HDI ranks all countries into three groups: low human development (0.00 to 0.49), medium development (0.50 to 0.79) and high human development (0.80 to 1.00). It should be noted that HDI measures relative, and not absolute, levels of human development and that its focus is on the ends of development (longevity, knowledge, material choice) rather than the means (as with per capita GNP alone). Further, while PQLI focuses only on the physical indicators of health and education, HDI assigns a role to income as well, by including adjusted real per capita income as one of the indicators. In this sense, HDI could be considered a refinement of PQLI as well as of per capita GNP as indicators of development.

Although the HDI gives us a broader perspective on progress towards development, it should be pointed out that

- 1) its creation was in part motivated by a political strategy designed to focus attention on health and education aspects of development;
- 2) the three indicators used are good but not ideal (e.g. the U.N. team wanted to nutrition status of children under age 5 as their ideal health indicators, but the data were not available;
- 3) the national HDI may have the unfortunate effect of shifting focus away from the substantial inequality within countries;
- 4) the alternative approach of looking at- GNP per capita rankings and then supplementing this with other social indicators is still a respectable one; and
- 5) one must always remember that the index is one of relative rather than absolute development, so that if all countries improve at the weighted rate, the poorest countries will not get credit for their progress.

#### **8.4.1 HISTORICAL AND SOCIAL CONTEXT OF INDIA**

Turning to the capability side of the story, with the help from Amartya Sen, "Human Development Report (1996)" has invented a multi-dimensional measurement, calling it an index of Capability Poverty Index. The objective behind construction of this index is to focus on

deprivation rather than on availability. Participation of the people in the development process would be conditional on their capability. Captured in terms of the health and educational status: basic here being survival, and access to education and various public and private resources. The index, it is believed, represents a truer picture of those who are so deprived that they no longer have the chance or choice to improve their lives. The report measures human poverty in terms of deprivations:

- a) deprivations of life (nearly one-third of the people in the least-developed countries are not expected to survive to 40);
- b) deprivation<sup>7</sup> (particularly of girls); and
- c) deprivation of access to public and private resources, including safe water.

### **Social Indicators of Development**

The corresponding indicators are percentage of children under five who are underweight, percentage of women over the age of 15 years who are illiterate and percentage of births unattended by trained health personnel. The CPM therefore focuses on people's lack of capabilities in the country rather than on the average capabilities in the country.

While this constitutes the basis for the construction of this new indicator, it also alters the focus of recommendations for governmental intervention in these sectors. The goals of governmental intervention get suitable<sup>8</sup>, modified. In terms of per capita GNP (U.S. dollars) India is still one of the poorest countries of the world. even many of the poorer African countries have done better in their performance. Table 2 clearly shows that countries like Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Iraq, Gambia, Angola, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, even Sudan have a higher per capita GNP than India. But in terms of PQLI, Pakistan, Gambia, Angola, Sudan have a much lower ranking than India. So, it is vividly clear that Indian experience has been mixed in achieving growth as well as improvements in the standards of living of its population.

The figures for CPM for the less developed countries too are presented in Table 3. It should be noted that the performance of the countries as per the CPM does not correspond directly the ranking according to HDI. Looking more closely at Table 3, it can be noticed that South Korea and Kuwait have higher HDI (0.886 and 0.836 respectively) but the per capita GNP of South Korea is only about 40 percent of that of Kuwait. This indicates that higher level per capita income is necessary but not efficient condition for better human development. The case is similar for the pair of China and Iraq. Both have more or less equal HDI but China's per capita income is about 35 percent lower than Iraq's. Further, whatever be the measure that is being considered, the Table 3 also indicates that India has a long way

to go to achieve rapid growth and betterment of quality of life of its population in comparison to other countries of the globe.

#### **8.4.2 INDIAN EXPERIENCE OF DEVELOPMENT: BEFORE AND AFTER INDEPENDENCE**

There have been schemes and plans of development in almost all dimensions of socio economic life, such as health, education, population control, industry, transport, irrigation communication and agriculture. It is neither possible to present here a list of all the development schemes, nor are you expected to know about all of them. Therefore our main objective is to present a synoptic view of the development schemes in India, introduced after Independence with a view to illustrate some of the approaches to development, discussed in the preceding section.

After Independence, India did not follow either the First or the Second World, it Social Development adopted neither the capitalist (North American) nor the socialist model of development. It adopted a path of development in-between the two models, which is known as 'mixed economy'. On the one hand, India encouraged private business and industry and gave opportunity to big business houses, such as the Birla's and Tata's, and other medium and small size entrepreneurs. On the other hand it has almost full control, at least in principle, over all the entrepreneurial and business activities.

##### **Socialist Path and Mixed Economy**

The state also acts as an entrepreneur in setting up heavy industries, such as the manufacture of steel and generation of electricity. The banks have been nationalised. The state has full control over railways and postal departments. These measures are illustrative of a socialist path of development. On the other hand, certain industries are reserved for private entrepreneurs – both small and large. In some industries, such as textile and cement, both private and state enterprises have been allowed to operate. In many other activities, too, such as education, health and transport both private and state agencies work, either independently or in collaboration. It is true that India adopted a 'mixed' path of development, but scholars differ in their opinion about the real functioning of the economy. One view is that India's path of development is a capitalist one. Entry of state in heavy industries was, in fact, meant to support private enterprise, in the sense that these industries did not yield high profits and required a long gestation period and high capital investment. Hence they did not attract private entrepreneurs, and at the same time industrial development was not possible without basic industries. Similarly, it has been argued that big enterprises still dominate over the small ones, and the industrial sector over the agricultural one. Also there is a concentration of economic power in a few big business houses. The other view is that our bias has

been increasing towards a socialist model, as is evident from the facts such as nationalisation of banks. These are controversial arguments which cannot be sorted out here. The fact remains that India pursues a 'mixed' path of development.

### Sectoral Development

The sectoral approach got further accentuated in the 'green' and 'white' revolutions, i.e., development of cash crops, and dairy products, respectively. Such revolutions have not been widespread. They are confined to a few states, such as Punjab, Haryana, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat and Maharashtra. The important thing is that the farmers, even in these states, do not get remunerative returns from farm produce, because of an absence of check on the rise of prices of farm inputs – machines, fertilisers, insecticides, pesticides etc., which come from industrial sector, and also because of a strict control on the prices of farm outputs, with the rationale that high rise in the prices of food grains will adversely affect the masses. This indicates discrimination against the farm sector. The majority of people depend upon agriculture even today. Therefore non-remunerative farm return keep the agricultural sections in poverty

#### Check your progress -3

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

5. Write the Poverty measures in terms of Deprivations ?

6. Write the meaning of Sectoral Development ?

### Community Development and Cooperative Movement

Besides this sectoral approach, a community development scheme was initiated in 1952 for overall development of villages. The philosophy of this programme was to educate, encourage and enable the people to develop themselves, with their own efforts and resources. But the programme was not very successful. It was realized that a greater participation of the rural people in the preparation and execution of development schemes was essential. In other words, it required a greater administrative decentralisation. Hence Panchayati Raj System was introduced in 1957. It envisaged a three-tier system, viz., Village Panchayat (village level), Panchayat Samities (block level) and Zila Parishad (district level). This system involved the people at local level, in both planning and execution of development schemes. It was an effort towards development from the bottom. But unfortunately the unholy alliance between the rural elite (rich farmers), on the one hand, and the administrative and political elites, on the other, at the block and district levels made the system weak.

The same fate met the cooperative movement. India wanted cooperative cultivation on the Chinese pattern, in which the land is owned by the community (village) and the farmers have their shares. But this did not work in India due to the country's political system which did not permit abolition of private ownership of land, and because the farmers did not surrender land to the community voluntarily, in spite of the appeal of "Bhoo Dan" (land donation) movement of Vinoba Bhave. However, credit societies which granted short term agricultural credit did become popular. But today many of the credit societies have become defunct, or are not functioning effectively. The member borrowers usually become defaulters. The important point is that there is no spirit of cooperating among the local people, because most of the affairs of these cooperatives are managed by the government or semi-government officials, such as the Registrar, Managing Director, Administrator etc. In many cases the nationalised banks provide funds to cooperatives for advancing loans to their members.

The rural credit cooperative are relatively effective in Maharashtra, particularly among the sugarcane producers, who also have cooperative sugar mills. In other fields, too, there are exceptionally successful cases of cooperative, viz., Milk Producers Cooperative at Anand in Gujarat. Anand Milk Producers' Union Limited (AMUL) emerged out of the farmers' cooperative efforts at the village of Anand which now has an important place among the rural cooperatives in Asia.

### **Target Group Planning**

There are many other rural development programmes for certain target groups, under the 20-point economic programmes. Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) is one of them which combines both the area development and target group approaches, since it includes the Command Area Development Programme. Drought Prone Area Programme and Small Farmers' Development Agency. As a target group programme, its focus is on the poorest of the poor, and the unit of assistance is the 'family', and not a person. It proposes to cover about 3,000 families in each block over a period of five years. Under IRDP there are special programmes for employment, like Training Rural Youth for Self-employment (TRYSEM). Besides there are other programmes such as the National Rural Employment Programme (NREP). Evaluation reports of these programme, however,

Indicate the failure of the programme in reaching the real beneficiaries and in raising their economic status. The blame is laid on the executive personnel, and the rural elite who consume a large share of the resources, meant for these programmes. In other fields also India has made a good deal of progress. We have big hospital and primary healthcare centres. Life expectancy has increased and many diseases

such as malaria, Polio and small pox have been controlled, and infant mortality reduced. Now we have a large network of transport and communication. . But the results of development have reached largely the urban population. Rural people still do not have good schools, proper electrification, clean water and hospitals. There are no good teachers, or proper infrastructure in schools, such as furniture, including blackboards in many schools, and no doctors, nurse or medicines in many primary healthcare centres. Besides this we find increased unemployment, a state of lawlessness, an increase in social and communal tension, and a lack of social and national concern. This shows that the country has achieved more of a quantitative than qualitative development.

However, in terms of social political and economic awareness India and its villages are doing fairly well. Being one of the largest Democratic nations of the world, with an extremely vibrant political and economic structure, some amount of social unrest is inevitable. The policies of the Government are geared towards removing extreme inequalities and bringing about social justice.

### **8.4.3 GOVERNMENT MEASURES AND FIVE YEAR PLANS IN INDIA**

The Development Schemes through Five-Year Plans The community development programme was envisaged basically as a movement of the people supported, wherever necessary, by the State. The village community was expected to attain a state of self-sustained growth, dispensing with the need of outside support. The growth potential of the natural resources was expected to be fully developed by taking advantage of modern science and technology through a network of extension services which were established for the first time. A beginning was made in this regard with the establishment of Gram Panchayat as a part of the community development administration. It was envisaged that as we proceeded further and gained experience, these institutions would become stronger and assume increasingly higher responsibilities and finally graduate to the status of autonomous institutions, having under their purview all matters concerning the day-to-day political, social and economic life of the people. Thus, the Panchayat, the cooperative and the school, which represented three facets of life, would become three great pillars of community life in the village. The biggest achievement of the community development programme was the enthusiasm for development engendered throughout the country. People, for the first time, had the feel of an administration which was committed to serve them through its extension agency and a network of economic institutions, which was in striking contrast to the tradition of the administration established to rule them. The issues of poverty and rural development were too complex to be resolved within the frame of community development.

The community development movement itself with its original approach could not continue for long. Achievement of physical targets assumed priority and became an obsession leading to the neglect of sustained effort for engendering the spirit of self-reliance and developing capabilities for self-sustained growth. During the second Five-Year Plan and after there was emphasis on physical development in all sectors of the economy. The new strategy of the Second Five-Year Plan did help in building up a strong industrial sector, but the rural economy failed to pick up. The stagnating food production and growing deficits not only affected the rural people, but also created an imbalance in the whole national economy. It was clear that with a weak rural economy and growth even in the industrial sector could not be sustained beyond a point, let alone the finer issues of equity and justice. Consequently, there was again a shift in emphasis in favour of rural economy. But the main concern during the phase was agricultural production rather than the overall development of rural areas. The severe droughts that occurred in the late 60's which affected the national economy so adversely that the country was constrained to take a 'plan holiday' for three long years.

The Fourth Five-Year Plan marks the beginning of a new phase in our development strategy. There were two facets of the poverty issue, viz., (i) regional area-specific problems and (ii) socio-economic growth related problems. That some regions suffered from certain inherent handicaps was clear from the recurring droughts and scarcity conditions. In such regions the overall production capability is not adequate to support the entire population at a reasonable level. Therefore, special programmes were necessary for augmenting the production potential itself. It was expected that once the overall potential improved, the weaker sections would also get a reasonable share in the fruits of that development. The first in the series of area-specific programs initiated during the Fourth Plan related to the drought prone areas. In Fifth Plan hill areas and tribal areas were also taken as separate categories for special attention. In the case of the tribal areas the issues were rather complex, having a mixture of both area-specific and socio-economic elements. In the Sixth Five Year Plan desert areas were added to this list. In the meantime, the National Committee on the Development of Backward Areas examined the entire question of development of backward areas. They identified six basic categories of backward regions, viz., (i) Hill Areas, (ii) Tribal Areas, (iii) Drought-prone Areas, (iv) Desert Areas, (v) Chronically Flood-affected Areas and (vi) Areas affected by salinity.

### **Need for the Present Study**

The present study is an attempt to understand micro realities at the village and block level and successful or unsuccessful implementation of development schemes. The study will help in understanding salient features of various development schemes and will provide feedback to

policy makers to enhance efficacy of these schemes at grass-roots level. A major objective of the study is to find ground-realities and have perceptions and understanding of development schemes which can contribute in making them more efficacious, meaningful to the people. However, the specific objectives of the study are :

1. To identify the factors which affect the implementation of development schemes in concrete terms.
2. To see that benefits of which of the schemes are percolating down to the target groups. And to understand the pattern of success of these schemes whether distributed uniformly over larger area in the region or not, and the reasons their of.
3. To assess the extent of impact of development schemes concretely (as improvement in quantitative terms).
4. To understand what are actual bottlenecks from the first step to the last step, which result in failure or ineffectiveness of the respective schemes.
5. To suggest possible alterations that could be made to remove the bottlenecks observed, so as to get the desired results of percolating the benefits (of increased national income and access to scarce resources) down to the masses through the development schemes.

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## **8.5 DEVELOPMENT SECTORS**

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### **8.5.1 Agriculture**

Some of the major role of agriculture in economic development of a country are as follows:

Agricultural sector plays a strategic role in the process of economic development of a country. It has already made a significant contribution to the economic prosperity of advanced countries and its role in the economic development of less developed countries is of vital importance. In other words, where per capita real income is low, emphasis is being laid on agriculture and other primary industries.

“Increase in agricultural production and the rise in the per-capita income of the rural community, together with the industrialisation and urbanisation, lead to an increased demand in industrial production”- Dr. Bright Singh.

The history of England is clear evidence that Agricultural Revolution preceded the Industrial Revolution there. In U.S.A. and Japan, also agricultural development has helped to a greater extent in the process of their industrialisation. Similarly, various under-developed countries of the world engaged in the process of economic development have by now learnt the limitations of putting over-emphasis on industrialisation as a means to attain higher per capita real income. “Thus industrial and agricultural developments are not alternatives but are complementary and are mutually supporting with respect to both inputs and outputs.”

It is seen that increased agricultural output and productivity tend to contribute substantially to an overall economic development of the country, it will be rational and appropriate to place greater emphasis on further development of the agricultural sector.

According to Prof. Kinderberger, Todaro, Lewis and Nurkse etc., agriculture makes its contribution to economic development in several ways, viz.,:

(1) By providing food and raw material to non-agricultural sectors of the economy,

(2) By creating demand for goods produced in non-agricultural sectors, by the rural people on the strength of the purchasing power, earned by them on selling the marketable surplus,

(3) By providing investable surplus in the form of savings and taxes to be invested in non-agricultural sector,

(4) By earning valuable foreign exchange through the export of agricultural products,

(5) Providing employment to a vast army of uneducated, backward and unskilled labour. As a matter of fact, if the process of economic development is to be initiated and made self-sustaining, it must begin for agricultural sector.

### **Role of Agriculture in Economic Development:**

The agriculture sector is the backbone of an economy which provides the basic ingredients to mankind and now raw material for industrialisation.

Therefore, the role of agriculture for the development of an economy may be stated as below:

#### **1. Contribution to National Income:**

The lessons drawn from the economic history of many advanced countries tell us that agricultural prosperity contributed considerably in fostering economic advancement. It is correctly observed that, "The leading industrialized countries of today were once predominantly agricultural while the developing economies still have the dominance of agriculture and it largely contributes to the national income. In India, still 28% of national income comes from this sector.

#### **2. Source of Food Supply:**

Agriculture is the basic source of food supply of all the countries of the world—whether underdeveloped, developing or even developed. Due to heavy pressure of population in underdeveloped and developing countries and its rapid increase, the demand for food is increasing at a fast rate. If agriculture fails to meet the rising demand

of food products, it is found to affect adversely the growth rate of the economy. Raising supply of food by agricultural sector has, therefore, great importance for economic growth of a country.

### 3. Pre-Requisite for Raw Material:

Agricultural advancement is necessary for improving the supply of raw materials for the agro-based industries especially in developing countries. The shortage of agricultural goods has its impact upon industrial production and a consequent increase in the general price level. It will impede the growth of the country's economy. The flour mills, rice shellers, oil & dal mills, bread, meat, milk products sugar factories, wineries, jute mills, textile mills and numerous other industries are based on agricultural products.

### 4. Provision of Surplus:

The progress in agricultural sector provides surplus for increasing the exports of agricultural products. In the earlier stages of development, an increase in the exports earning is more desirable because of the greater strains on the foreign exchange situation needed for the financing of imports of basic and essential capital goods.

Johnson and Mellor are of the opinion, "In view of the urgent need for enlarged foreign exchange earnings and the lack of alternative opportunities, substantial expansion of agricultural export production is frequently a rational policy even though the world supply—demand situation for a commodity is unfavorable."

### 5. Shift of Manpower:

Initially, agriculture absorbs a large quantity of labour force. In India still about 62% labour is absorbed in this sector. Agricultural progress permits the shift of manpower from agricultural to non-agricultural sector. In the initial stages, the diversion of labour from agricultural to non-agricultural sector is more important from the point of view of economic development as it eases the burden of surplus labour force over the limited land. Thus, the release of surplus manpower from the agricultural sector is necessary for the progress of agricultural sector and for expanding the non-agricultural sector.

### 6. Creation of Infrastructure:

The development of agriculture requires roads, market yards, storage, transportation railways, postal services and many others for an infrastructure creating demand for industrial products and the development of commercial sector.

### 7. Relief from Shortage of Capital:

The development of agricultural sector has minimized the burden of several developed countries who were facing the shortage of foreign capital. If foreign capital is available with the 'strings' attached to it, it will create another significant problem. Agriculture sector requires less capital for its development thus it minimizes growth problem of foreign capital.

#### 8. Helpful to Reduce Inequality:

In a country which is predominantly agricultural and overpopulated, there is greater inequality of income between the rural and urban areas of the country. To reduce this inequality of income, it is necessary to accord higher priority to agriculture. The prosperity of agriculture would raise the income of the majority of the rural population and thus the disparity in income may be reduced to a certain extent.

#### 9. Based on Democratic Notions:

If the agricultural sector does not grow at a faster rate, it may result in the growing discontentment amongst the masses which is never healthy for the smooth running of democratic governments. For economic development, it is necessary to minimize political as well as social tensions. In case the majority of the people have to be kindled with the hopes of prosperity, this can be attained with the help of agricultural progress. Thus development of agriculture sector is also relevant on political and social grounds.

#### 10. Create Effective Demand:

The development of agricultural sector would tend to increase the purchasing power of agriculturists which will help the growth of the non-agricultural sector of the country. It will provide a market for increased production. In underdeveloped countries, it is well known that the majority of people depend upon agriculture and it is they who must be able to afford to consume the goods produced.

Therefore, it will be helpful in stimulating the growth of the non-agricultural sector. Similarly improvement in the productivity of cash crops may pave the way for the promotion of exchange economy which may help the growth of non-agricultural sector. Purchase of industrial products such as pesticides, farm machinery etc. also provide boost to industrial dead out.

#### 11. Helpful in Phasing out Economic Depression:

During depression, industrial production can be stopped or reduced but agricultural production continues as it produces basic necessities of life. Thus it continues to create effective demand even during adverse conditions of the economy.

#### 12. Source of Foreign Exchange for the Country:

Most of the developing countries of the world are exporters of primary products. These products contribute 60 to 70 per cent of their total export earning. Thus, the capacity to import capital goods and machinery for industrial development depends crucially on the export earning of the agriculture sector. If exports of agricultural goods fail to increase at a sufficiently high rate, these countries are forced to incur heavy deficit in the balance of payments resulting in a serious foreign exchange problem.

However, primary goods face declining prices in international market and the prospects of increasing export earnings through them are limited. Due to this, large developing countries like India (having potentialities of industrial development) are trying to diversify their production structure and promote the exports of manufactured goods even though this requires the adoption of protective measures in the initial period of planning.

#### Contribution to Capital Formation:

Underdeveloped and developing countries need huge amount of capital for its economic development. In the initial stages of economic development, it is agriculture that constitutes a significant source of capital formation.

Agriculture sector provides funds for capital formation in many ways as:

- (i) agricultural taxation,
- (ii) export of agricultural products,
- (iii) collection of agricultural products at low prices by the government and selling it at higher prices. This method is adopted by Russia and China,
- (iv) labour in disguised unemployment, largely confined to agriculture, is viewed as a source of investible surplus,
- (v) transfer of labour and capital from farm to non-farm activities etc.

#### 14. Employment Opportunities for Rural People:

Agriculture provides employment opportunities for rural people on a large scale in underdeveloped and developing countries. It is an important source of livelihood. Generally, landless workers and marginal farmers are engaged in non-agricultural jobs like handicrafts, furniture, textiles, leather, metal work, processing industries, and in other service sectors. These rural units fulfill merely local demands. In India about 70.6% of total labour force depends upon agriculture.

## Improving Rural Welfare:

It is time that rural economy depends on agriculture and allied occupations in an underdeveloped country. The rising agricultural surplus caused by increasing agricultural production and productivity tends to improve social welfare, particularly in rural areas. The living standard of rural masses rises and they start consuming nutritious diet including eggs, milk, ghee and fruits. They lead a comfortable life having all modern amenities—a better house, motor-cycle, radio, television and use of better clothes.

## Extension of Market for Industrial Output:

As a result of agricultural progress, there will be extension of market for industrial products. Increase in agricultural productivity leads to increase in the income of rural population which in turn leads to more demand for industrial products, thus development of industrial sector.

According to Dr. Bright Singh, “Increase in agricultural production and the rise in the per-capita income of the rural community, together with the industrialization and urbanization, lead to an increased demand in industrial production.” In this way, agricultural sector helps promote economic growth by securing as a supplement to industrial sector.

From the above cited explanation we conclude that agricultural development is a must for the economic development of a country. Even developed countries lay emphasis on agricultural development. According to Muir, “Agricultural progress is essential to provide food for growing non-agricultural labour force, raw materials for industrial production and saving and tax revenue to support development of the rest of the economy, to earn foreign exchange and to provide a growing market for domestic manufactures.”

### 8.5.2 COOPERATION

Cooperatives are community-based, rooted in democracy, flexible, and have participatory involvement, which makes them well suited for economic development (Gertler, 2001). The process of developing and sustaining a cooperative involves the processes of developing and promoting community spirit, identity and social organisation as cooperatives play an increasingly important role worldwide in poverty reduction, facilitating job creation, economic growth and social development (Gibson, 2005).

Cooperatives are viewed as important tools for improving the living and working conditions of both women and men. Since the users of the services they provide own them, cooperatives make decisions that balance the need for profitability with the welfare of their members and the community, which they serve. As cooperatives foster economies of scope and scale, they increase the bargaining power of

their members providing them, among others benefits, higher income and social protection. Hence, cooperatives accord members opportunity, protection and empowerment - essential elements in uplifting them from degradation and poverty (Somavia, 2002).

As governments around the world cut services and withdraw from regulating markets, cooperatives are being considered useful mechanisms to manage risk for members and keep markets efficient (Henehan, 1997). In a number of ways, cooperatives play important role in global and national economic and social development. With regard to economic and social development, cooperatives promote the “fullest participation of all people” and facilitate a more equitable distribution of the benefits of globalization. They contribute to sustainable human development and have an important role to play in combating social exclusion. Thus the promotion of cooperatives should be considered as one of the pillars of national and international economic and social development (Levin, 2002).

In addition to the direct benefits they provide to members, cooperatives strengthen the communities in which they operate. According to Somavia (2002) cooperatives are specifically seen as significant tools for the creation of decent jobs and for the mobilization of resources for income generation. Many cooperatives provide jobs and pay local taxes because they operate in specific geographical regions. According to Wikipedia (2006) and Levin (2002) it is estimated that cooperatives employ more than 100 million men and women worldwide. In Nigeria, cooperatives can provide locally needed services, employment, circulate money locally and contribute to a sense of community or social cohesion. They can provide their employees with the opportunities to upgrade their skills through workshops and courses and offer youth in their base communities short and long-term employment positions. Students could also be employed on casual-appointment basis during long vacations. Through these, cooperatives will contribute to economic development.

### **8.5.3 EDUCATION**

Government policies and interventions for development in various sectors and issues arising out of their design and implementation. India is developing country and has implemented growth strategies in different sectors to enhance its economic status. At global scale. It has continually shown high growth rate during the post-liberalisation period through the execution of economic reforms in the beginning of 1990s. After independence, development of the country and the community has always been the major objective of the government. It has attained excellence in several key areas that range from information technology and pharmaceuticals to automotive parts, and is currently considered as one of the rapidly growing economies of the

world. Though India has gained success in some areas and there are positive developments, it is still among the countries with some of the lowest indicators of human development. The levels of malnutrition, illiteracy and poverty are unsatisfactorily high in India. There are numerous issues like the increase in income disparities and regional discrepancies which disrupt the growth of nation. Though employment opportunities have increased but the jobs created are not of high quality. Although there has been an increase in several social services like health, nutrition and education, the quality of most of these services remains poor in most of the rural areas. Major issue is irresistible majority of the population deprived of basic social protection. Policy-makers are facing with inconsistency in the persistence of deprivations and increasing uncertainties among majority of public in growing wealth and prosperity for some groups. The Constitution of India authorized the Government to establish a democratic social order to secure the people and provide social, economic and political justice. Therefore, the country embarked onto a path of planned socio-economic development to attain the goals of justice. However, the patterns of development have changed with time based on experiences. During the early decades, development was considered in terms of economic development and the importance was on a growing public sector with huge investments in basic and heavy industries. Major objectives of development were formulated and prioritized by a centralized planning system. Actually, it was basically a 'government-led, bureaucracy managed and expert-guided' enterprise. Main aim of government for development was to attain material affluence through economic, industrial and infrastructural development. This basic approach to development continued to guide policy makers for the subsequent few decades until new realizations started dawning upon them.

Mahbubul Haq, the originator of the UN's HDR stated that "The basic purpose of development is to enlarge people's choices". It means creating and permitting environment for them to exercise choices. Any development strategy, must aim at human development by focusing on facilitating greater access to knowledge; Better nutrition and health services; More secure livelihoods; Security against crime and physical violence; Satisfying leisurely hours; Political and cultural freedoms; and A sense of participation in community activities. Likewise, Nobel laureate, Prof. Amartya Sen specified that "development meant expansion of human freedoms, i.e. enhancement of the capacity of individuals to fully lead the 'kind of lives they value'".

It has been said by economists that if certain basic rights of the individuals, such as right to elementary education, right to basic health care, right to work are secured then there will be rapid growth of country. In other words, development must move beyond economic

growth. It must incorporate major social goals such as reducing poverty, enhanced opportunities for better education and health and, in general improved quality of life.

Experts have categorized some areas where government has to play a vital role.

Creating a good policy environment for economic growth which is investor-friendly and supportive of inclusive growth. Such a policy environment will allow the creative spirit of farmers and entrepreneurs to get full expression. Creating such a policy environment will include Macro-economic stability, Efficient functioning of markets, Good financial system for allocating financial resources, Good governance with emphasis on transparency, accountability and rule of law.

Developing the critical infrastructure: It is required in both rural and urban areas to support broad and inclusive growth.

Introducing special programmes: For livelihood support for the poor and the vulnerable, aimed at directly improving their income earning capabilities and at mainstreaming them in the overall growth process.

Social development: It must be ensured that every inhabitant must have access to essential public services of acceptable quality in health, education, skill-development, safe drinking water, sanitation.

Furthermore, in many of these areas of governmental interventions, the state governments have the major implementing role.

The government of India has following strategy to improve the effectiveness of its interventions.

One of the strategies has been to target specific services. For instance, during the last decade, a number of programmes were initiated that aimed at improving the social services, or services relating to health, education and income opportunities for less advantaged in society, such as MGNREGA, NRHM, SSA, ICDS. Additionally, focus on social sector development will also address the objectives of human development and inclusive justice.

Another related strategy is the identification of the concentration of deficiencies among certain socio-economic groups, geographic groupings, gender, and demographic classes. This recognition has led to targeting of programmes to specific groups of populace.

Since convergence of interventions also improves the effectiveness of each intervention, government has gone about a multi-pronged intervention strategy. Such as offering access to health as well as education together with laying down critical infrastructure addresses multiple deficiencies concurrently.

Other strategy of government is to make better institutional arrangements and espousal of innovative technology solutions for effective and efficient service delivery. For instance, e-governance, DBT, PPP mode, partnering with NGOs.

### **Establishing collaboration between public and private sector providers of social services.**

Numerous flagship schemes were launched towards development of Social Sector including rural development. According to the 12th Plan document, “Economic growth, though important but cannot be an end in itself. Higher standards of living as well as of development opportunities for all, stemming from the greater resources generated by economic growth, are the ultimate aim of development policy of the government.” Therefore, Government’s policy documents recognise that ultimate objective of development is to guarantee improvement in incomes and living standards for the citizens. Government can accomplish this tough objective through quicker economic growth accompanied by economic and social support programmes.

### **Policies and Interventions for Development in various sectors:**

In earlier period, there was more focus of government to accumulate wealth. Economic growth itself was regarded as the function of capital inputs in the decades of 80s. The main quest of economic policy was to organize the resources required for achieving a desired rate of growth. Acceleration in the rate of growth was supposed to take care of both economic and social problems. Several contemporary developmental economists such as Mahboob-ul-Haq, Amartya Sen, Joseph Stiglitz and others stressed the failures of governance in terms of human and social development in the developing world including India. When evaluating the various sector development, the social sector development involves the following constituents:

- Poverty alleviation and employment generation
- Access to education
- Access to improved health services and public health
- Development of critical rural infrastructure, e.g. rural roads, housing, sanitation, availability of safe drinking water, electricity etc.
- Urban infrastructure, housing, sanitation, sewage, waste disposal, urban transport etc.
- Skill development for better livelihood means
- Enhanced social security
- Development of backward regions/ district in the country

Major Governmental Interventions in the Social Sector are as follows:

**Health:** The immediate policy objective in health sector is to follow an inclusive approach towards healthcare that included equitable and comprehensive individual healthcare, improved sanitation, clean drinking water, nutritious food, hygiene, good feeding practices, and development of delivery systems responsive to the needs of the people.

#### 8.5.4 HEALTH

**NRHM/NHM:** The NRHM launched during the 10th Plan, made an important start in expanding health care facilities in rural areas. The Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana (RSBY) was launched in October 2007 to offer health insurance cover to BPL families. This has been an important step in supplementing the efforts being made to provide quality healthcare to the poor and underprivileged population. It provides cashless health insurance cover up to Rs 30,000 per annum per family.

**JSY (Janani Suraksha Yojana):** This scheme was launched to promote institutional deliveries, the scheme provides cash incentives to expectant mothers who opt for institutional deliveries. JSY is being proposed by way of modifying the existing National Maternity Benefit Scheme (NMBS) under National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) and is fully funded by GOI. Under this scheme, all pregnant women belonging to the below poverty line (BPL) households and of the age of 19 years or above for up to two live births are benefited. Benefits would be extended to a woman belonging to a BPL family even after a third live birth if the mother of her own accord chooses to undergo sterilisation immediately after the delivery.

#### National Vector-Borne Disease Control Programme

**PMSSY (Pradhan Mantri Swasthya Suraksha Yojana):** The programme is visualised to correct the imbalances in availability of affordable or reliable tertiary level health care in the country in general and to enhance facilities for quality medical education in the under-served states. This involves establishing of big health institutions like AIIMS and upgrading certain existing institutions across various states.

**AYUSH (Aayurveda, Yoga & Naturopathy, Unani, Siddhi, Homoeopathy):** Mainstreaming AYUSH into health services at all levels was also an important strategy for the 11th Plan.

Currently, India's health care system includes combination of public and private sector providers of health services. Networks of health care facilities at the primary, secondary and tertiary level, run mainly by State Governments, provide free or very low cost medical services. There is also an extensive private health care sector, covering the entire range from individual doctors and their clinics, to general hospitals and super specialty hospitals.

## 8.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed the concepts and definitions of social Development, with special reference to social Development of India the Historical context of the Social Development both in Pre and Post Independence period. This unit also focuses on the government measures and Five Year Plan in India. Further this chapter deals with the Development Sectors including agriculture and Cooperatives, Education and Health aspects very deeply with interest of the learner.

## 8.7 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. Write the concept of Social Development?
2. What is the development of Third World?
3. Write the meaning of Development from top?
4. What are the indicators prescribed UNRISD?
5. Write the Poverty measures in terms of Deprivations?
6. Write the meaning of Sectoral Development?

## 8.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Social development refers to the overall transformation of individuals and society, which may enable every person to achieve moral, social physical and material well-being. Egalitarian development is a desired goal, but it remains only an 'ideal'. In spite of development efforts, disparities in various dimensions of development continue to widen between societies, regions and groups. Variations are observed when we compare various regions or countries. Natural Factors, Technological Factors, Social Factors, Economic Factors, Cultural Factors, Political Factors
2. Third World countries as there are variations among them, dictated mainly by their historical and socio-cultural circumstances. What they seem to share in common is that: a) They are economically and technologically underdeveloped in comparison to the countries of the so called developed world. b) Social planning is a key element in their development process. Their plans of development incorporate not only economic concerns, especially removal of poverty, but also concerns regarding nation building, national culture and social transformation.
3. The approach of development from the top envisages the planning and execution, of development schemes by the central or apex bodies of administration. In other words, the central organisations decide the nature and direction of plan, formulate projects and impose them on the people. For instance, the ministers and high officials sitting in the capital, make the development plans for rural people without fully realizing their problems.
4. List of Core Indicators of Socioeconomic Development United Nations Research Institute on Social Development (UNRISD); Expectations of Life at Birth ; Percentage of Population in localities of 20,000 and over Consumption of

animal protein, per capita, per day; Combined primary and secondary enrolment ; Vocational enrolment ratio

5. The report measures human poverty in terms of deprivations: a) deprivations of life (nearly one-third of the people in the least-developed countries are not expected to survive to 40); b) deprivation (particularly of girls); and c) deprivation of access to public and private resources, including safe water.
6. The sectoral approach got further accentuated in the 'green' and 'white' revolutions, i.e., development of cash crops, and dairy products, respectively. Such revolutions have not been widespread. They are confined to a few states, such as Punjab, Haryana, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat and Maharashtra.

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## 8.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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# UNIT IX AGRICULTURE AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

NOTES

## Structure

- 9.1. Introduction
- 9.2. Objectives
- 9.3. Agricultural and Rural Development
  - 9.3.1 Share of Agriculture in the National Income
  - 9.3.2 Agriculture as a Source of livelihood, employment, raw materials, capital for development and man power
- 9.4. Agrarian and Land Reforms
- 9.5 Cooperatives and Rural Development
- 9.6 Education and Rural Development
- 9.7 Health and Rural Development
- 9.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 9.9 Unit- End- Exercises
- 9.10 Answer to check your Progress
- 9.11 Suggested Readings

## 9.1 INTRODUCTION

Agriculture plays an important and vital role in any economy generally, for developing countries particularly and for a country like India especially. Basically India is an agricultural country with 143 million hectares of land as net sown area, the highest percentage of land under cultivation in the world. The country accounts for 17 percent of world's population and ranks at second largest populated country. The country has about 69 percent of population living in its rural areas and villages and the sole source of their livelihood is agriculture and allied activities. Cereal and many ground crop production in agriculture has beset many problems and many scholars have admitted that agricultural diversification towards high value commodities will strengthen agriculture growth in future and will result high remunerative returns to farmers. Again the horticulture and other allied activities have lot of backward and forward linkages which resulted wide employment opportunities and income flow, equally distributed to all in these rural areas hence helps in the development of rural India

## 9.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through the unit you will be able to;

- Understand the importance of Agriculture and rural Development
- Gain the knowledge about agrarian and Land Reforms
- understand the linkages between Cooperatives and Rural Development
- Identify the scope of studying the Education and Rural Development
- Gain the knowledge about the rural health and Rural Development

### 9.3 AGRICULTURAL AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

There are only two parameters at major, through T. Shultz in 1979 has shared in his Nobel Prize speech which rural poverty and development can be “Most of the people in the world are poor, so if we addressed; one is development of agriculture sector, knew the economics of being poor we would know as land (agriculture) is only source of earning or much of the economics that really matters. Most of living to vast majority of rural population. Second is the world's poor people earn their living from human labour at their disposal which can be tapped agriculture, so if we knew the economics of by providing gainful, productive and remunerative agriculture we would know much of the economics employment. Both these parameters can be well of being poor” (Godoy & Dewbre, 2010). addressed via agricultural diversification towards Agriculture plays an important and vital role in any horticulture and high value crops which are high economy. It is directly and indirectly linked with the remunerative and labour intensive in nature hence economic activity, growth and development of other will lead to agricultural development and upliftment sectors in an economy and to overall welfare and of rural masses. development of an economy. India is an agrarian The paper will discuss the common role that economy and agriculture sector has still lot of agriculture sector is playing and can play for rural bearings on the overall growth and development of development and will present a case show of various the country generally and rural development linkages through which agricultural growth can be particularly. Although, the economic contribution of transformed to rural development and overall agriculture to India's GDP is steadily declining with economic growth. Almost all the studies related to the country's broad-based economic growth, still agriculture and development enshrines that agriculture is demographically the broadest agriculture sector has prime hand in the growth and economic sector and plays a significant role in the development transformation of any country. The overall socio-economic fabric of India. Agriculture, paper will like to describe how agriculture sector will with its allied sectors, is unquestionably the largest lead to rural growth and development but for that it livelihood provider in India, more so in the vast rural is mandatory that agriculture sector itself must grow areas. 69% of India's population lives in rural areas, and develop at a steady and consistent reasonable and three-fourths of the people making up these growth. rural populations depend on agriculture and allied After mid 1990s the agriculture sector in India starts activities for their livelihoods. to decelerate in terms of productivity of various The role of agriculture in economic development has cereals and overall agricultural growth. This was due been viewed as passive and supportive. Looking to stagnancy of demand for staples and somewhat the historical experience of western countries, fatigue of Green Revolution. Further the demand

economic development was seen as mechanism pattern was shifting towards high value requiring a rapid structural transformation of the commodities like fruits vegetables, milk, meat etc. economy from one predominantly focused on (Birthal et al. 2007). So to sustain the growth rate of agriculture activities to a more complex modern agriculture in the future it was emphasized that industrial and service sector. As a result, the primary agriculture sector should be diversified towards the role of agriculture was to provide sufficient low high value commodities for its role in high income priced food and man power to the expanding generation and employment creation (Joshi et al. industrial economy, which was thought to be a 2004; Barghouti et al. 2005). The fruit and vegetable - dynamic and leading sector in the overall strategy of economic development. Agriculture sector plays an Agricultural Diversification towards High Value indispensable part in any strategy of economic Commodities and Rural Development progress, especially for low income developing The gap between the number of new rural workers countries.

### 9.3.1 SHARE OF AGRICULTURE IN THE NATIONAL INCOME

There are three goals of agricultural development. These are: (a) achieving high growth by raising productivity; (b) inclusiveness by focusing on lagging regions, small farmers and women; and (c) sustainability of agriculture. In order to achieve these goals, we have to provide medium term strategy and action plan. This sections examines policies and reforms for attaining these goals. The 10 conclusions of the paper are given below.

(1) Need for change in narrative in the new context: Basically, we have to change the narrative on agriculture towards more diversified high value production, better remunerative prices and farm incomes, marketing and trade reforms, high productivity with less inputs, cost effective, less chemical and pesticide based, inclusive in terms of women and youth farmers, small farmers and rain fed areas, nutrition sensitive, environmental friendly and sustainable agriculture. The five 'I's in agriculture: Incentives, Investment, infrastructure, Institutions, Information' have to be modified to achieve the goals.

(2) Global trends and Macro policies are equally important for Indian agriculture: There are many challenges at global level such as climate change, geo-political and urbanization. These factors and anti-globalisation is the changing context for food systems and agriculture. Agricultural economists generally restrict to the policies relating to farm sector. However, there is a need to look at macro policies and non-agriculture.

(3) We have to Walk on two legs (agri. and non-agri.) in the changing context: Rural areas are changing. We have to invest in agriculture for raising the livelihoods but simultaneously shift population from agriculture to non-agriculture over time. Thus, both agriculture and non-agriculture are important for raising income of farm households. Two agricultures: There are two types of agricultures in India – one is cereal based and the other one is non-cereal based<sup>78</sup>. Government policies have been biased towards cereals particularly rice and wheat. There is a need to shift from rice, wheat-centric policies to millets based and non-cereal focused policies to promote diversification of cropping patterns.

(4) Doubling farm income (DFI): Estimates show that we need more than 10% per annum growth in income to achieve DFI in 2022. Government seems to be banking on agriculture (crop+livestock) sector for DFI. But, as shown above. Government should also promote much more opportunities in non-farm sector in rural areas. Also, one has to take into account heterogeneity among different classes of farmers. Similarly, environmental aspects of doubling farm incomes have to be assessed.

(5) Remunerative price is the most important factor for farmers: Even after 70 years of independence, we are not able to provide remunerative prices for farmers. Farmers have been getting low prices in normal, drought and good years because of distortions in price and marketing policies. Many reforms in marketing are needed.

(6) Beyond harvest and Freedom for farmers: Agriculture GDP+ indicates that we have to go beyond farming and develop value chain comprising farming, wholesaling, warehousing, logistics, processing, and retailing. Farmers want freedom from restrictions on market and exports. Private sector participation can be improved if some of the fears like the Essential Commodity Act, stock limit and export bans are removed. Banning exports hurts the farmers most. There have been new generation start-ups coming up in agriculture.

(7) Do not forget basics like water and technology: Basics like seeds, fertilizers, credit, land and water management and technology are important and they should not be forgotten. Similarly, investment in infrastructure and R&D are needed. But, we discussed the issues and policies in water and technology as both are crucial for agricultural development. Basically it is not investment alone but efficiency in water management in both canal and ground water is important. Some countries invested more in technology, extension, education, transport, energy and institutions. India is trailing behind in all these areas.

(8) Inclusiveness for broad based growth and equity: Inequalities in agriculture are high. There is a need to focus on small and marginal

farmers, women, youth, rainfed areas, Eastern and other lagging regions, social groups like SC and ST farmers. We discussed policy issues in each of these elements of inclusiveness in agriculture. The role of women in agriculture has been increasing. Women collectives and group farming can be encouraged to benefit female farmers. An emerging area of research relates to linkages between agriculture and nutrition. There can be three entry points namely, importance of agriculture for inclusive growth, agriculture for diversification of diets and role of women in agriculture for strengthening agriculture-nutrition linkages. Farmer households spend considerable amount of money on health and education. In fact, health expenditures on catastrophic illness lead to indebtedness in agricultural households. Otherwise, governments have to provide farmers income similar to universal basic income.

(9) Measures to take care of impacts of climate change and improving resilience in agriculture and sustainability: One can achieve higher agricultural growth but it has to be sustainable in terms of using lower resources and less input growth. Resilience in agriculture has to be improved. Climate smart agriculture is being discussed throughout the world to reduce GHG emissions and increase resilience. FAO says that there is a need for raising technical capacity of farmers particularly small holders to enable them adopt climate-smart agricultural practices. Conservation agriculture and zero budget natural farming are some of the methods that have to be used as part of adaptation and mitigation measures for climate change.

(10) Institutions and Governance: Strengthening institutions and governance is crucial for achieving growth, equality and sustainability of agriculture. Institutions throughout the agricultural value chains and food systems are important for better governance and effective implementation. They are also important for reducing inequality. There are several examples of best practices in institutions relating to alternative markets, contract farming, self help groups, farmer federations, farmer producer companies, women collectives like Kudumbashree programme in Kerala, self help groups of women, institutions relating to canal and ground water irrigation and natural resource management. We have to scale up some of these successful institutions for improving agricultural development. To conclude, agriculture is a state subject according to the Indian constitution. States have to play active role along with central government in achieving the three goals of growth, inclusiveness and sustainability. Achieving high growth is important. But, growth without inclusiveness and sustainability will not be useful. Agriculture transformation has to be viewed more holistically in terms of rural transformation and urban linkages. There is a need to

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give big push for Indian agriculture for transformation and achieving farmers' welfare.

### **9.3.2 AGRICULTURE AS A SOURCE OF LIVELIHOOD, EMPLOYMENT, RAW MATERIALS, CAPITAL FOR DEVELOPMENT AND MAN POWER**

The following points highlight the three types of contribution that agriculture has made towards economic development. The types are:

1. Factor Contribution 2. Product Contribution 3. Market Contribution.

#### **1. Factor Contribution:**

Development of agriculture releases some resources for being transferred to the other sectors. As these resources are productive in nature, we call the transfer of these resources to the non-agricultural sectors as 'factor contribution' of agriculture.

Factor contribution can be in the following forms:

The non-agricultural sectors require funds for acquiring material capital. In the initial stages of their development, these funds will be generated in the agricultural sector and then transferred to the other sectors. In a closed economy in the initial stages, it is the agricultural sector which commands most of the income, capital and also labour.

Even when an underdeveloped economy is an open economy, the outside source of capital like foreign aid or foreign commercial investment can make only a limited contribution to the economic development. Further, foreign political influence is likely to accompany such capital and this may not be acceptable to the present day underdeveloped economies.

The transfer of capital to non-agricultural sectors can be voluntary or compulsory. It is voluntary when the agriculturists themselves invest their savings in the industrial projects. The agriculturist industrialist of England and the land owners of Japan present an important example of this type of voluntary flow of capital to the non-agricultural sectors.

The compulsory flow of funds is generally brought about by the government of the day through taxation on the agricultural sector its net proceeds being spent for the development of the non-agricultural sectors.

Land tax in Japan is often quoted as an example of this compulsory transfer of funds from the agricultural sector to other sectors. It formed 80% of the total tax revenue of the Government in the last two decades of the 19th century.

Forced extraction of surplus from agriculture by taxation, confiscation, imposition of levies or arbitrarily kept low prices of agricultural products, can be the other measures taken by the government to transfer funds from the agricultural sector to the non-agricultural sectors.

However, compulsion is not always necessary for the transfer of funds. Agricultural development itself may bring down the price of agricultural produce, reduce the cost of production in manufacturing and other sectors, increase their profits and thus indirectly help in the generation of capital in these sectors.

There is yet another way through which agriculture can provide capital to the non-agricultural sectors. Nurkse has referred to this process. According to him in densely populated agricultural economies, there already exists zero value labour i.e. labour whose contribution at the margin to agriculture is zero.

This is what we call disguisedly unemployed labour. This labour can be taken away from agriculture and utilized for producing some overhead capital, though of crude nature e.g., embankment, canals etc., some of which can help in the development of non-agricultural sectors. We may, however, note that this source of capital is available only in over populated economies.

#### **(b) Provision of Labour:**

Another factor contribution of agriculture towards economic development is through the release of labour by the agricultural sector for the non-agricultural sectors.

There are three potential sources of labour supply for the developing non-agricultural sectors, namely:

- (i) Natural population growth,
- (ii) Immigration and
- (iii) Farm population.

The supply of labour from first two sources can never be smooth and adequate. Supply through population growth will be very slow in coming forth. It may also be noted in the interest of the nation to encourage population growth. Immigration has its own problems.

Differences in religion, language, customs, lack of knowledge etc., act as strong barriers for immigration. Under these circumstances, for a rapid development of the non-agricultural sectors, farm population remains the only dependable source of labour supply.

However, it may be noted that movement of farm labour to the non-agricultural sectors is not always easy. Transfer of labour from the agricultural sector to the developing non-agricultural sectors may not create a serious problem in over-populated countries.

There is already a surplus labour force in the agricultural sector of these countries and it can be easily drawn into the industrial sector without fall in agricultural output. The problem is more serious in sparsely populated countries.

There is no disguised unemployment there and any shifting of labour agriculture to non-agricultural sectors will bring down the agricultural production. However, a country moving on the development path cannot afford such a fall in agricultural production because of various reasons.

Firstly, it needs more raw materials from the agricultural sector and secondly, the labour shifting from agriculture to non-agricultural sectors will increase its consumption of food grains because of increase in its income.

So, in sparsely populated countries, it is desirable that the transfer of labour from the agricultural sector for the development of the non-agricultural sectors is also preceded or accompanied by an increase in the productivity in the agricultural sector itself.

This does not mean that agricultural development is not necessary for the overall economic development of an over-populated country. More agricultural output is needed for the developing industrial and other non-agricultural sectors even in over populated countries. Only difference is that labour may be more easily available for the developing non-agricultural section in over-populated countries.

Kuznet has expressed the importance of transfer of labour from the agricultural sector to non-agricultural sectors in another way. He feels that this transfer also, infect, implies a transfer of capital invested in the agricultural labour. He says "...we could still argue that internal migration of labour from agriculture represents a large transfer of valuable resources to the non- agricultural sectors and a large contribution to the country's growth."

May be, what he says is of somewhat doubtful validity in the initial stages, but it is perfectly correct in the later stages of economic development when agriculture has started using improved technology. The labour transferred to the non-agricultural sectors is now well trained and more educated.

## **2. Product Contribution:**

The product contribution of agriculture towards an overall economic development takes two forms.

These are described below:

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**(a) Provision of Wage Goods:**

When the non-agricultural sectors are to be developed, people will have to shift from agriculture to various occupations in these sectors. But they will require food for their sustenance even after shifting to new sectors. In fact their demand for food grains is likely to increase as a result of increase in their income after their transfer to the non-agricultural sectors.

The demand for food grains can also increase because of another reason. The farming population still left in agriculture might find its income increased due to higher prices of agricultural products as a result of increased demand. This may spur it to increase its own consumption also.

As the non-agricultural sectors develop, their dependence on agriculture for other contributions like that of capital, labour, raw material etc., is reduced. However, dependence of the non-agricultural sectors on agriculture for provision of wage goods will be as strong as ever unless, of course, new scientific innovations also result in the production of perfect synthetic substitutes for food grains.

**(b) Provision of Industrial Raw Materials:**

The other product contribution made by agriculture for the development of the non-agricultural sectors of the economy, especially the secondary sector, is in the form of provision of raw materials.

A study of the history of industrial development of advanced nations will show that the agro-based industries were the first to develop in such countries. There are many reasons for priority being given to agro-based industries in the initial stages of economic development.

Firstly, it is easier to produce raw materials in the agricultural sector. Minerals which form, the other source of industrial raw materials involve extensive use of capital which may be available in the beginning. Secondly, agro-based industries, generally, have flexible techniques of production.

These techniques range from the extremely labour intensive ones to the highly capital intensive ones. This is the case, for example, with agro-based industries like textiles, sugar, grain milling, hide processing etc. In case of such industries, it is open for a firm to

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produce the commodities with a technique, as determined by the availability of capital etc.

In the initial stages, for example, labour intensive techniques can be used to produce the commodities. Later on, where more funds are available, the producers can switch on to relatively more capital intensive techniques for production. In case of mineral based industries, the option to select a technique is very much limited. All the techniques are generally capital intensive.

There is yet another factor which favours the development of agro-based industries in the beginning. It is said that it is easy to shift a labourers from a farm to a factory if the factory uses a farm product as a raw material.

The subject (psychological) cost of transfer of labour from agriculture to industry in such a case is very low. It is felt if a labourer shifts from the agricultural sector (the major source of labour in the initial stages of industrial development), he will feel more at home while working in an agro-based industry than in a mineral-based industry.

The preceding discussion clearly implies that more of industrial raw materials have to be produced in the agricultural sector in the initial stages of development. This could be achieved either by bringing additional area under cultivation or diverting land from food crops to industrial raw materials or by increasing the productivity of various crops.

Division of land from food crops to raw material will not be desirable because as industrialisation proceeds, more of food grains may be required due to increasing income of the people. The other two methods can be or rather have to be adopted for increasing agricultural production if agro-based industries are to be set up in the economy.

### **3. Market Contribution:**

The contribution focuses attention on the flow of goods generated by the development of the agricultural sector-flow which helps the development of the other sectors.

This contribution can take various forms:

#### **(a) Expanded Market for the Products of Other Sectors:**

So far, we have been emphasizing that agricultural development is necessary for providing inputs necessary for the development of other sectors of an economy. However, any sector, for its development, does not only require the necessary inputs for production but also a wide market for its growing production.

Agriculture provides an expanding market for the products of the other sectors in the initial stages of development of the economy. Agricultural sector, while helping the development of the other sectors, also finds the income of its people increasing. This increased income, in turn, leads to an additional demand for the products of other sectors, not only for consumption purposes but also for production.

It may be noted here that, no doubt, the other sectors can sell their products in foreign markets, rather than depend on the domestic market provided by the agriculture sector. However, in practice, it is not wise to rely upon a foreign market in the initial stages of development.

Lack of sufficient knowledge about the foreign countries, excessive competition, unfavourable commercial policies of the foreign countries etc., will make the entry as operation of the domestic firms in foreign markets rather risky and unprofitable.

#### (b) Flow of Agricultural Products to Other Sectors of the Economy:

Development of agriculture makes another type of market contribution also to the economy. As agriculture develops and its production becomes more market oriented, many other institutions, generally non-agricultural in character, come into existence. These institutions include those providing processing, packing and distribution services.

David Metcaff focuses our attention on these two market contributions, 'In a more effective way. According to him, Agricultural development through providing market for agricultural input & consumers' good, promotes the development of industrial sector.

Developments industrial sector, in turn helps in the development of the agricultural sector through the spread of modern technology in agriculture and providing an expanded market for agricultural products. This is a virtuous circle which in the process gives rise to institutions facilitating two way exchange of commodities.

#### (c) Development of International Trade:

Surplus products from the agricultural sector, as a result of its development, can move to the international market. This, in turn, can result in the flow of necessary capital as well as consumer goods from outside.

The growth process of the economy as a whole can thus gain momentum. So, in a way, we can say that in the case of development

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of international trade, agriculture combines market contribution with factor contribution for the development of non-agricultural sectors

**Check your progress - 1**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

1. Write the three goals for Agriculture Development?
2. List the three types of agriculture and economic development?

**9.4. AGRARIAN AND LAND REFORMS**

Policies and programmes which are to be followed in different sectors of the economy during the second five year plan represent a balanced and combined approach to the central problems of economic development and social justice. Among these, measures of land reform have a place of special significance, both because they provide the social, economic and institutional framework for agricultural development and because of the influence they exert on the life of the vast majority of the population. Indeed, their impact extends much beyond the rural economy. The principles of change and reorganisation on which the scheme of land reform is based are part of a wider social and economic outlook which must needs apply in some degree to every part of the economy. They have therefore to be viewed in a somewhat larger context than that of effecting adjustments between the interests of different sections of the population which depend on land.

2. In setting out the land policy for the period of the First five year plan, while a proper emphasis was placed on the social aspect, it was pointed out that the increase of agricultural production represented the highest priority in planning over the next few years, and that the agricultural economy had to be diversified and brought to much higher levels of efficiency. These considerations have a special importance during the period of the second five year plan. In the first place, the ambitious programme of industrial development which is now being undertaken, implies large and steadily increasing claims both on raw materials and on food production. Increase in the supply of raw materials was the principal factor behind the growth of industrial production achieved during the first plan. India's ability to produce a range of agricultural commodities for which there is world-wide demand, such as tea, jute, cotton, oilseeds, and others is an element in her industrial potential which must be developed to the greatest possible extent. In recent years imports of food have been on a much smaller scale than before, but food production has yet to reach levels at which nutrition can be improved and domestic requirements are fully assured under all circumstances, and, at the same time, a margin remains to pay for imports of machinery and of industrial raw materials needed for rapid industrialisation. Moreover, with increase in population, growth of towns, cities and industrial centres, and improvement in incomes and standards of living, the internal demand for food is already increasing in volume and

becoming more diverse. Equally, as explained in earlier chapters, the large outlay to be undertaken in the second five year plan can only be sustained if internal production, especially of food and cloth, is rapidly stepped up. Thus, the need to enhance the capacity of Indian agriculture to provide the surpluses needed to support industrial development and the wider economic considerations on which the fulfilment of the plan depends both lead to the same conclusion, namely, that a substantial increase in agricultural production, diversification of the agricultural economy, and the building up of an efficient and progressive system of agricultural production are among the most urgent tasks to be accomplished during the second five year plan.

3. Against the background of these considerations, the objectives of land reform are twofold: firstly, to remove such impediments upon agricultural production as arise from the character of the agrarian structure; and secondly, to create conditions for evolving, as speedily as may be possible, an agrarian economy with high levels of efficiency and productivity. These aspects are interrelated, some measures of land reform bearing more directly on the first aim, others to a greater extent on the second. Thus, the abolition of intermediaries and the protection given to tenants are intended to give to the tiller of the soil his rightful place in the agrarian system and, by reducing or eliminating burdens he has borne in the past, to provide him with fuller incentives for increasing agricultural production. Similarly, to bring tenants into direct relation with the State and to put an end to the tenant-landlord nexus are essential steps in the establishment of a stable rural economy. In the conditions of India large disparities in the distribution of wealth and income are inconsistent with economic progress in any sector. This consideration applies with even greater force to land. The area of land available for cultivation is necessarily limited. In the past rights in land were the principal factor which determined both social status and economic opportunity for different groups in the rural population. For building up a progressive rural economy, it is essential that disparities in the ownership of land should be greatly reduced. In view of the existing pattern of distribution and size of agricultural holdings, redistribution of land in excess of a ceiling may yield relatively limited results. Nevertheless, it is important that some effective steps should be taken in this direction during the second five year plan so as to afford opportunities to landless sections of the rural population to gain in social status and to feel a sense of opportunity equally with other sections of the community. Reduction of disparities in the ownership of land is also essential for developing a co-operative rural economy, for, co-operation thrives best in homogeneous groups in which there are no large inequalities. Thus, programmes for abolishing intermediary tenures, giving security to tenants and bringing tenants into direct relationship with the State with a view to conferring ownership upon them are steps which lead to the establishment of an agrarian economy based predominantly on peasant ownership.

4. Small and uneconomic agricultural holdings have long been the most difficult problem in the development of the rural economy. There is general agreement that it is through reorganisation along cooperative lines that Indian agriculture can become efficient and productive. During the second five year plan it is proposed to take a series of measures which will

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lay the foundations for co-operative reorganisation of the rural economy. Once the vast majority of cultivators become owners or virtual owners of land in their own right, programmes for the consolidation of holdings assume a great deal of urgency both in themselves and as a stage in the development of cooperation. In carrying out these programmes sufficient experience has been gained in several parts of the country for marked progress to be achieved in this field during the second five year plan. Closely associated with consolidation is the adoption of improved land management practices. It is one of the primary aims of the national extension and community projects to help the people of each village and each area to organise themselves for greater production, to bring them technical guidance and other assistance and in particular, to assist weaker and under-privileged sections of the rural community in raising their standards. Conditions have to be created in which an increasing number of activities in rural economic life, both non-agricultural and agricultural, are undertaken through co-operative organisations. As the village is the most convenient unit for rural community development, various measures to be undertaken for developing co-operatives and panchayats and for strengthening rural economic life through the organisation of national extension services, credit, marketing and processing and village and small industries are intended to lead to the development in each area, according to its conditions, of suitable systems of cooperative village management. Co-operation in one field stimulates and supports co-operation in others. Co-operative development is a vast and growing field of constructive endeavour and, for cooperation to evoke a degree of sustained enthusiasm and effort, it is important that it should be organised with the utmost attention to efficiency in management.

5. As different phases of the land reform programme are implemented, care has to be taken to ensure that the positive aspects are especially stressed, and measures of land reform worked out with a view to increased agricultural production. From this aspect the national extension and community development programmes, and programmes for agricultural development, rural credit and marketing and others are as vital to the success of land reform as land reform is vital to their success. Naturally, while the direction may be clear, the pace and the precise content of land reform programmes have to be related closely to the conditions prevailing in each State. Land reform imposes upon the machinery of the Government large administrative responsibilities and, as pointed out later in this chapter, tasks of great complexity, to which many State administrations may not yet feel equal, have to be undertaken in the course of a few years. Almost all of them demand a wide measure of public support and understanding and much mutual adjustment within the community. There are also many intangible factors which each State has necessarily to take into account. These considerations have been kept in view during the first five year plan in the work of the Central Committee for Land Reforms, which includes members of the Planning Commission and the principal Central Ministers concerned, and reviews from time to time the progress of land reform in different parts of the country. They have also been kept in view by the Panel on Land Reform, which has assisted the Planning Commission during the past year in the study of various problems connected with tenancy reform, size of holdings, reorganisation of

agriculture and Bhoodan. The proposals for land reform and cooperative development set out in the plan are therefore in the nature of a broad common approach which has to be adapted and pursued in each State as part of the national plan with due regard to local conditions and in response to local needs.

### **Green Revolution**

At the time of its independence, India was an agricultural dependent economy. And yet the state of Indian agricultural sector was dismal. From the lack of investment, a dearth of technology, low yield per acre and many such problems plagued the industry. And so the Indian government took steps to bring about the Green Revolution using HYV seeds. Let us see how.

The Green Revolution started in 1965 with the first introduction of High Yielding Variety (HYV) seeds in Indian agriculture. This was coupled with better and efficient irrigation and the correct use of fertilizers to boost the crop. The end result of the Green Revolution was to make India self-sufficient when it came to food grains.

After 1947 India had to rebuild its economy. Over three-quarters of the population depended on agriculture in some way. But agriculture in India was faced with several problems. Firstly, the productivity of grains was very low. And India was still monsoon dependent because of lack of irrigation and other infrastructure.

There was also an absence of modern technology. And India had previously faced severe famines during the British Raj, who had only promoted cash crops instead of food crops. The idea was to never depend on any other country for food sufficiency.

So in 1965, the government with the help of Indian geneticists M.S. Swaminathan, known as the father of Green Revolution, launched the Green Revolution. The movement lasted from 1967 to 1978 and was a great success.

Green Revolution: Introduction, HYV Seeds, Impact on the Economy etc.

### **Features of the Green Revolution**

The introduction of the HYV seeds for the first time in Indian agriculture. These seeds had more success with the wheat crop and were highly effective in regions that had proper irrigation. So the first stage of the Green Revolution was focused on states with better infra – like Punjab and Tamil Nadu.

During the second phase, the HYV seeds were given to several other states. And other crops than wheat were also included into the plan

One basic requirement for the HYV seeds is proper irrigation. Crops from HYV seeds need alternating amounts of water supply during its growth. So the farms cannot depend on monsoons. The Green Revolution vastly improved the inland irrigation systems around farms in India.

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The emphasis of the plan was mostly on food grains such as wheat and rice. Cash crops and commercial crops like cotton, jute, oilseeds etc were not a part of the plan

Increased availability and use of fertilizers to enhance the productivity of the farms

Use of pesticides and weedicides to reduce any loss or damage to the crops

And finally the introduction of technology and machinery like tractors, harvesters, drills etc. This helped immensely to promote commercial farming in the country.

### **Market Surplus**

The Green Revolution by and far was a success. But now there was another aspect to it. The government had to ensure that the benefit of the higher productivity was passed on to the general public. If the farmers kept the grains for themselves then the benefit of the higher productivity would be lost.

But thankfully this did not happen. Due to the high yield and productivity of the farms, the farmers started selling their produce in the markets. The portion of the produce which is sold by them is known as market surplus.

And so the higher output caused due to the Green Revolution started benefiting the economy. There was a decline in the prices of grains and such food products. The common man was able to easily afford to buy them. The government was even able to stock grains and build a food bank in case of future food shortages.

### **Impact of the Green Revolution**

**Increase in Agricultural Production:** Foodgrains in India saw a great rise in output. It was a remarkable increase. The biggest beneficiary of the plan was the Wheat Grain. The production of wheat increased to 55 million tonnes in 1990 from just 11 million tonnes in 1960.

**Increase in per Acre Yield:** Not only did the Green Revolution increase the total agricultural output, it also increased the per hectare yield. In case of wheat, the per hectare yield increased from 850 kg/hectare to an incredible 2281 kg/hectare by 1990.

**Less Dependence on Imports:** After the green revolution, India was finally on its way to self-sufficiency. There was now enough production for the population and to build a stock in case of emergencies. We did not need to import grains or depend on other countries for our food supply. In fact, India was able to start exporting its agricultural produce.

**Employment:** It was feared that commercial farming would leave a lot of the labour force jobless. But on the other hand, we saw a rise in rural employment. This is because the supporting industries created employment opportunities. Irrigation, transportation, food processing, marketing all created new jobs for the workforce.

A Benefit to the Farmers: The Green Revolution majorly benefited the farmers. Their income saw a significant raise. Not only were they surviving, they were prospering. It enabled them to shift to commercial farming from only sustenance farming.

### **White Revolution**

The White Revolution in India was successful in transforming the country from a milk deficient nation to a world leader in milk production. It helped dairy-farming become India's largest self-sustaining industry and also, India's largest rural employment provider.

### **White Revolution: A Dire Need for India**

The pre and immediate post independence era witnessed India crying for milk. When the Britishers finally left India in 1947, they left India crippled with low production capacity, no technical know how to improve its economic condition. On the top of it, the partition led to political and military crisis. Yet India needed to rebuild itself.

The foundation for white revolution was laid in 1964-65's Intensive Cattle Development Program (ICDP), in which a package of improved animal husbandry was given to cattle owners to initiate the white revolution in India.

The milk man of India, 'Dr. Varghese Kurien' led India away from the darkness of lack of education, less productivity, use of obsolete means , poor conversion rate to the light of massive milk production, refinement in the dairy-agricultural sector, breaking of conventional barriers of caste and gender parity. Very rightly, he has been termed 'Father of the white Revolution'.

### **Operation Flood: Boost for White Revolution**

The revolutionary, 'Billion-litre idea' and execution of the world's largest dairy-agricultural development program, 'Operation Flood' transformed India from a nation with potential in the dairy industry to a nation with massive production of milk and dairy products.

Operation Flood is the program that followed in 1970, initiated by the National Dairy Development Board to speed up "the White Revolution." It created a national milk grid linking producers throughout India with consumers in over 700 towns and cities, reducing seasonal and regional price variations while ensuring that the producer gets a major share of the price consumers pay, by cutting out middlemen.

The bedrock of Operation Flood that made the White Revolution a success, was village milk producers' co-operatives, which procured milk and provided inputs and services, making modern management and technology available to members. Operation Flood's objectives included:

Increase in Milk Production

Augment rural incomes

## Fair prices for consumers

### Removing poverty in the rural areas

#### 3 Phases of Operation Flood: Surpassing the White Revolution Targets

Phase 1 (1970-80) of Operation Flood that provided a great boost to White Revolution programme, was Financed by the sale of skimmed milk powder and butter oil donated by the European Economic Community through the World Food Program. During this phase, 18 of India's premier milk sheds were linked with consumers in India's major metro cities.

Phase 2 (1981-85) of Operation Flood that flooded India with milk, surpassing the targets of White Revolution in India saw the Milk sheds going up from 18 to 136. Urban markets expanded the outlets for milk to 290. By the end of 1985, a self sustaining system of 43,000 village cooperatives had been covered.

Phase 3 (1985-96) of Operation Flood enabled the dairy cooperatives to expand and strengthen the infrastructure. Great technology upgrade in the dairy industry was a hallmark of this phase that made White Revolution an ongoing activity without looking back.

#### 10 Key Features of 'White Revolution in India'

- Adopting new methods in case of cattle in animal husbandry.
- Changing of composition of feed ingredients in different proportions.
- Fixing of different producer costs on a sliding scale of India.
- Small, farmer controlled network was created through the dairy cooperatives.
- India became highest dairy producer in the world from 1998 onwards surpassing the USA, in 2010-11 India contributed to about 17% of the global output in milk production.
- In 30 years, milk available per person doubled in India.
- India's total milk production output, increased by 4 times due to the successful implementation of the white revolution.
- Helped eliminate middlemen and provided 70-80% of the price by the consumers to the farmers.
- Phenomenal growth in Milk Production in the country from 20 million MT to 100 million MT in a span of 40 years.
- The dairy cooperative movement has spread across the length and breadth of the country, covering more than 125,000 villages of 180 Districts in 22 States.

Few critics do argue that due to white revolution in India, importance has been given to high yielding breeds only, resulting in decimation of the Indian breeds. They argue that although foreign breeds yield high they require greater feed and are not suitable to Indian conditions.

The entire white revolution can be summarized as a purpose for empowering the Indian farmers and the agriculture in India. It was a brave attempt to give the dairy farmers the control of their own fate and to tap

into the massive dairy resources present in India. Despite all the criticisms, the critics agree that the White Revolution very well transformed India into the dairy powerhouse of the world.

### **Yellow Revolution**

Dr. Ashok Vishandass, Member, Commission for Agricultural Costs and Prices (CACP), Government of India, was at IIM Bangalore on Tuesday (March 11) to address students on the Role of Agriculture in National Income and Agricultural Pricing in India. He answers questions on the rationale of MSP, the need for a yellow revolution in India and the buffer stock policy.

### **Food habits and dietary patterns in India are changing. What are the plans for providing rich protein diet, including pulses to the Indian Population?**

As income levels increase, food habits of people change. This happens across time and space; it has happened in countries across the world. People move from cereals to pulses to other protein-rich food like beef (if you are non-vegetarian) depending upon a person's needs. In India, we have realized that pulses are where we need to do more in terms of domestic production because we are deficient - we are importing a lot of pulses. Last year, we imported pulses worth more than Rs. 11,000 crore. For vegetarians, pulses are very important. So, we need to focus on pulses. In the Commission for Agricultural Costs and Prices, our mandate is to look after 23 commodities - we recommend the minimum support price (MSP) of these 23 commodities. Pulses come under these 23 commodities. If you look at the last 3-4 years, our emphasis has been disproportionate (when compared to other crops) on pulses - we have been increasing MSP for pulses (compared to other crops). This is the signal the CACP is sending out.

### **What is the reason for the ever increasing minimum support prices for food grains?**

Prices are not arbitrarily decided. We consider several factors when we decide MSP. Last year, we did not increase wheat prices. There are a few instances when we have not increased prices. On the other hand, we did increase MSP on cereals. We wanted to give the right signal to the farmers as regards the right price. When the situation so warrants, then we increase MSP. It is all based on economic sense; it is not arbitrarily done. And when the situation warrants, why not extend the MSP to our own farmers instead of extending it to farmers of other countries by importing food grains!

### **What is the rationale of MSP?**

When we decide the Minimum Support Price, we look at 5-6 factors. We consider the cost of production because farmers have to be taken care of; we consider the demand-supply pattern in the country; we consider the consumer - we have to execute a fine balancing act between the producers on one side and the consumers on the other; we consider domestic and

international prices; and we consider terms of trade between agriculture and non-agriculture sectors. Hypothetically speaking, if MSP wasn't in existence, there are studies which have established that there wouldn't have been public stocks of a commodity and the private players would have jacked up the prices, forcing the consumer to pay dearly for it. When we decide MSP, then the public authorities such as the Food Corporation of India (FCI) procure the commodity and once they procure, then the private players know that the government has so much stock and understand that they cannot arbitrarily jack up the prices. To give an example, onion prices shot up recently. Onion is not under the domain of MSP.

**In view of the falling crop area and fluctuating consumption of chemical fertilizers, how do we maintain high food production in India?**

In my view, it is not important how much area is being cultivated; it is more important to note how much we are able to produce. To meet demand, we have to increase productivity. If we are able to produce more with fewer resources, then we are being efficient. We should use our resources - human resources, land and water - efficiently because resources thus saved can be used elsewhere. That is how productivity increases and cost of production goes down. Then we become competitive both in domestic and international markets. Once we become competitive, then farmers' income will also increase and this will reduce rural poverty. Increased productivity will have a cascading effect.

**Is there a need for yellow revolution in India?**

Sure. On the one hand, our granaries are overflowing with rice and wheat, but on the other we are battling a shortage of oilseeds and pulses. To illustrate the point, we imported pulses and oil seeds worth Rs 74,000 crore in 2012-13. We are short in oilseeds by 50 per cent of our consumption. This is something we have to address on priority. So, yes, yellow revolution is definitely required.

**Check your progress - 2**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

3. Write the meaning of Green Revolution?

4. Write the meaning of White Revolution?

## **9.5 COOPERATIVES AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

India lives in villages where most of the inhabitants are small, marginal, landless farmers and artisans. After independence, agriculture was identified as one of the thrust areas for rural development. Even at that time, the policy makers had visualized the fact that without people's participation and institutional support, the rural development programmes could not be pushed through. Considering the situation of the rural sector,

the importance of the panchayati system and cooperatives was recognized and these institutions were assigned specific roles to play. The main task assigned to these institutions was to work for community development, to eradicate rural poverty, to reduce inequalities and to eliminate privileges. Since the 1960s, a number of rural development programmes, such as the Panchayati Raj and land reforms or the Green and the White Revolutions through technical and cooperative missions, have been initiated and implemented. In a village, the cooperative society enjoys a focal position as an important socio-economic institution. The objective of the cooperative society is to provide services to its members (i.e. the rural community) and these services, which you will study in later units, are multifaceted. Although the membership of cooperatives does not include the entire population of a village, it does include a major part and a broad spectrum of the rural population. Besides, in implementing any community development schemes by other agencies (for example, the removal of illiteracy, making people conscious of their environment, health care, poverty alleviation, water management, etc.), the involvement of cooperatives is envisaged to seek consensus of the village community, as the cooperatives comprise a majority and a cross section of the village community. Moreover, a cooperative is a legal entity. It has institutional networks and infrastructure facilities at the grass roots level. It is also involved in social welfare and social protection activities of the rural people, such as village adoption, insurance, promotion of schools, hospitals, development of social forestry, etc. It has also generated rural employment for large sections of rural people through its agro-ancillary activities. In what follows, you will study in detail about the emergence of cooperatives, cooperative principles and their values, structure, functions, institutional networks, types of activity and finally you work through a review of the performance of cooperatives in rural development.

The main aim of this unit is to familiarize you with the concept of cooperatives, their principles, values, policies and the role they have played in the development of agriculture and rural employment. Besides, it also aims at acquainting you with the various types of cooperatives operating in India and their socio-economic goals and development plans for the welfare of the rural people.

## MEANING AND DEFINITION OF COOPERATION

The word cooperation has many meanings, but in common discourse it means working, living and thinking together. In our existing socio-economic context, however, we need to define it somewhat differently—“Cooperation is a form of organization wherein persons voluntarily associate with each other as human beings on the basis of equality for the promotion of mutual economic interests”. As per the definition given by the International Labour Organization (ILO), a cooperative society is an association of persons, who assemble for their common

cause and work together voluntarily on democratic lines. According to the definition given by the “International Cooperative Alliance”(ICA), a cooperative is an association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise. It means that

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cooperatives are based on the values of self-help, self-responsibility, democracy, equality, equity and solidarity in the tradition of their founders.

Cooperative members believe in the ethical values of honesty, openness, social responsibility and caring for others. Therefore, the cooperatives are different from the private enterprise in their forms of ownership, control, distribution of profits, values of equality, equity, solidarity and social responsibility.

### **PRINCIPLES OF COOPERATION**

The principles and the guidelines by which cooperatives put their values into practice

are:

- i) **Voluntary and open membership:** It means that the membership shall be voluntary and available without any restrictions/discrimination on the basis of gender or social, political or religious affiliations. All the members can make use of the services of their cooperative and willingly accept the responsibilities of membership.
- ii) **Democratic member control:** Cooperatives are democratic organizations controlled and managed by their own members. The primary members of cooperative societies enjoy equal rights of voting (one member one vote) and participation.
- iii) **Members' economic participation:** Economic results arising out of the operations of the society belong to the members and shall be distributed among them proportionately according to the size of their transactions with the society, while a part of the funds will be kept aside for specified purposes as per the provisions.
- iv) **Autonomy and independence:** Cooperatives are autonomous, self-help organizations controlled by their members. If they enter into agreements with others including governments to raise capital from external sources they do so on terms that ensure democratic control by their members and maintain their cooperative autonomy.
- v) **Education, training and information:** Cooperative provide education and/or training for their members, elected representatives, managers and employees so that they may contribute effectively to the development of their cooperatives.
- vi) **Cooperation among cooperatives:** All cooperative organizations, in order to best serve the interests of their members and community, shall actively cooperate in every practical way with other cooperatives at local, national, and international levels.
- vii) **Concern for community:** Cooperatives work for the sustainable development of their communities through policies approved by their members.

### **EVOLUTION OF COOPERATIVES IN INDIA**

After having studied the concept, values, principles and functions of the cooperative enterprise, it will be appropriate to study the emergence of cooperatives in contemporary India, in particular the way they have evolved since independence.

Before we do so, however, let us have a brief account of the pre-independence scenario.

### **Pre-independence Scenario**

In India, the cooperative movement began its work with the objective of making breakthroughs in the stagnation of the poorer classes who were heavily indebted and were fully in the grip of Sahukars. With the enactment of the 1904 Act, the first cooperative credit society was registered on 8th May, 1905 in the then state of Bombay in the Gadag Taluka of the Dharwad district under the name of Kanginhal Agriculture Credit Cooperative. By 1911, the number of registered societies rose to 5321 with a membership of 305,060. Subsequently, the 1904 Act was replaced by another passed in 1912, with a broader base, opening registration to non-credit cooperatives also. The Reform Act was passed in 1919, when cooperatives became a state/provincial subject. The decade from 1919 to 1929 was a period of unplanned expansion and some re-organization. During the period 1930/31-1937/38, the movement underwent a number of changes. This period is known for the great depression, which was a major setback for the cooperatives in India, mainly due to our backward economy and the disturbed political atmosphere. The arrears of the loans of cooperatives rose from 39% in 1930-31 to 63% by 1937-38. But the Second World

War (1939 to 1946) came as a boon for agriculturists, as the prices of agricultural commodities rose significantly, and the cooperatives revived. The repaying capacity of the farmers increased significantly, they were able to clear off their old debts and the arrears came down from 63% in 1937-38 to 39% in 1945-46. This period is considered the recovery period.

### **Post-independence Scenario**

After the independence of India in 1947, the country adopted the policy of planned economic development for establishing an integrated and just society, providing individual liberty, equality of opportunity and a basic economic minimum for all. Cooperation was accepted as an effective and important instrument for achieving the objectives of rural economic development.

The first five-year plan (1950-51 to 1955-56) emphasized that all agricultural families/ households may join as members of primary agriculture cooperatives. In turn, these societies would take care of their needs and safe guard the interests of farmers and artisans. During this plan period, the number and membership of cooperatives went up from 115,462 and 5.2 million in 1950-51 to 159,939 and 7.8 million by 1955-56 respectively.

In the year 1951, the RBI set up a committee known as the All India Rural Credit Survey Committee and its report was published in 1954. At that time, the main thrust was on the viability concept. It was observed that only 20% of the cooperatives were found to be economically viable due to their limited operations and it was recommended that large size cooperative societies should be organized to procure more business. It was also recommended that a government, with a share capital to the extent of 51%, be allowed to become a partner in cooperatives. Beside, it was recommended that the credit delivery system be three-tier for short and medium term loans, and long-term credit be arranged through land development banks. Also, the need for an effective cooperative training system to develop a sound network of institutions from the village to the national level was emphasized in order to guide Rural Credit and Banking and implement the rural programmes effectively. Fortunately, the Government accepted all the recommendations of the committee.

### **Structure of the Cooperative Credit System**

By and large, the structure of production credit is a three-tier system comprising the State Cooperative Bank at the state level, the District Cooperative Bank at the district level and the Primary Agriculture Cooperative Society at the village level. The investment credit structure has two tiers, i.e. the State Cooperative Agricultural and Rural Development Banks at the state level and Primary Agricultural Cooperative Rural Development Banks at the grass roots level. But wherever there is no structure for providing the investment credit, it is rooted through the production credit system as explained in the diagram below. Beside, there are national level Federations which take care of policy, planning and promotional works in this case. The refinance to cooperative banks comes largely from the National Bank for Agricultural and Rural Development (NABARD)

### **GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE NON-CREDIT COOPERATIVES**

In the previous units, you have learnt about the importance and role of credit cooperatives in the development of agriculture in India. Equally important are the non-credit cooperatives and their role in rural development. The important segments of non-credit cooperatives are Marketing, Consumers, Dairy, Fishery, Fertilizers, Handloom and Handicrafts, Labour, Irrigation, Agro-processing, Transport, Weavers, Industry, Farming, Electricity, Poultry, etc. The non-credit cooperatives came into existence partly out of necessity and partly out of ideological reasons. The non-credit sector has played a significant role in developing infra-structural facilities, which have helped in providing value additions to the agricultural produce as well as boosted employment in the rural sector.

### **REGISTRATION PROCESS FOR COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES**

A society is an association of several individuals combined using a mutual accord to deliberate, govern and act cooperatively for some communal

purpose. Societies are usually registered for the advancement of charitable activities like sports, music, culture, religion, art, education, etc.

Society Registration, under, The Society Registration Act, in India, lays down certain procedures for the sake of society registration & operation. This act was implemented with the purpose of augmenting the legal stipulations of society registration for the advancement of literature, fine arts, science or distribution of awareness for bountiful purposes. The society registration act, 1860 has been accepted by several state governments without or with further amendments.

A society registration can be done for the development of fine arts, science, or literature or else for diffusion of purposeful knowledge or charitable purposes of political education. According to section 20 of Society Act, 1860, a society registration can be done for following purposes:

#### Steps for Registering a society In India

A Society can be created by a minimum of 7 or more persons. Apart from persons from India, companies, foreigners, as well as other registered societies can also register for the Memorandum of the society. Similar to Partnership firms, society can also be either unregistered or registered. But, only the registered societies will be able to withstand consigned properties and/or have an ensemble filed against or by the society.

Society registration is maintained by state governments. Thus, the application for society registration must be created to the specific authority of the state, where the registered office of society is situated.

For Society registration, the establishing members must agree with the name of society first and then prepare for the Memorandum, followed by Rules & Regulations of the society.

#### Selection of a Name

When selecting a name for society registration, it is vital to understand that according to Society Act, 1860, an identical or similar name of a currently registered society will not be allowed. Moreover, the proposed name shall not suggest for any patronage of state government or government of India or fascinate the provisions of Emblem & Names Act, 1950.

#### Memorandum of Association

The Memorandum of society along with Rules & Regulations of society must be signed by every establishing member, witness by Gazetted Officer, Notary Public, Chartered Accountant, Oath Commissioner, Advocate, Magistrate first class or Chartered Accountant with their official stamping and complete address. The memorandum must also contain details of members of the society registration along with their names, addresses, designations, and occupations. The following document has to be prepared, submitted and signed for the sake of registration:

- Requesting society registration by providing covering letter, signed by all establishing members

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- Duplicate copy of Memorandum of Association of society along with certified copy
- Duplicate copy of Rules & Regulations of society along with duplicate copy duly signed by all establishing members
- Address proof of registered office of society as well as no-objection certificate (NOC) issued by landlord
- Affidavit avowed by secretary or president of society declaring relationship among subscribers
- Few minutes of meeting regarding the society registration along with providing some essential documents.

### **Documents required to register a society In India**

list of required documents Following are the documents required for the Society Registration in India:

1. PAN Card of all the members of the proposed society has to be submitted along with the application.
2. The Residence Proof of all the members of the society also has to be submitted. The following can be used as a valid residence proof:

- Bank Statement
- Aadhaar Card
- Utility Bill
- Driving License
- Passport

3. Memorandum of Association has to be prepared which will contain the following clauses and information:

- The work and the objectives of the society for which it is being established
- The details of the members forming the society
- It will contain the address of the registered office of the society

4. Articles of Association also have to be prepared which will contain the following information:

Rules and regulations by which the working of the society will be governed and the maintenance of day to day activities

It will contain the rules for taking the membership of the society

The details about the meetings of the society and the frequency with which they are going to be held is to be mentioned

- Information about the Auditors
- Forms of Arbitration in case of any dispute between the members of the society
- Ways for the dissolution of the society will also be mentioned

- Once the rules have been formed, they can be changed but the new set of rules will be signed by the President, Chairman, Vice President and the Secretary of the Society.

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5. A covering letter mentioning the objective or the purpose for which the society is being formed will be annexed to the beginning of the application. It will be signed by all the founding members of the society.

6. A copy of the proof of address where the registered office of the society will be located along with a NOC from the landlord if any has to be attached.

7. A list of all the members of the governing body has to be given along with their signatures.

8. A declaration has to be given by the president of the proposed society that he is willing and competent to hold the said post.

All the above documents have to be submitted to the Registrar of Societies along with the requisite fees in 2 copies. On receiving the application, the registrar will sign the first copy as acknowledgment and return it while keeping the second copy for approval. On proper vetting of the documents, the registrar will issue an Incorporation Certificate by allotting a registration number to it.

The signed Rules & Regulations, as well as Memorandum, has to be filed with concerned society or registrar of state with a mentioned fee. If the registrar is fulfilled with society registration application, then they will certify that the society is registered.

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## 9.6 EDUCATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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The World Bank has defined Rural Development “as a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people- the rural poor.” Half of the population lives in the villages. The contribution of rural India towards the economic development is not hidden from any of us. Earlier the people used to correlate rural development with agricultural development and thus focus was only on the increased agricultural production. But with the changing time, this misbelieve has also changed. Today the concept of rural development is fundamentally different that it was used to be 2 or 3 decades ago. Now rural development includes development improving the quality of life of rural people. It constitutes improvement in their health and nutrition, education, safe and healthy environment, fairness in income distribution and no discrimination in gender.

The continuous growth of the Indian economy forces the Indian government to accelerate the process of developing all the branches of the Indian education system. As more than half of the population in India lives in villages, therefore the education system in rural area also plays a significant contribution in the growth of the economy. Education has a desirable controlling influence over development of the rural individual, family, community and society that leads to reduced poverty and controlled unemployment. Functions of education include imparting social change,

making rural people aware about their rights, improving individual standard of living, providing employment and income opportunities to rural people and so on. The present system of education in India was introduced by the British in the 20th century. The system so given has a western style and content, ignoring traditional structures and so has declined. After independence, the Central Government has taken the responsibility of technical and higher education. The central government through the Ministry of Human Resource Development's Department of Education and the governments at the states formulated the education policy

and planning. Present scenario of rural education in India: Right to Education is the primary right of every citizen of India, whether a child resides in a high profile society or in a far away not so developed secluded village. In India, condition of rural education is still improving, the conditions of these rural schools is still very poor. There are very few schools in the rural areas and children have to travel far away distances to avail these facilities and most schools in these locations do not provide drinking water. The quality of education is also very poor. The teachers get very less income so, most of the time the teachers are either absent or they do not teach properly.

Schools in rural areas are promoted to raise the level of education and literacy in rural India. The main aim of running these types of schools in India is to increase the rates of literacy in rural areas. More than 40 per cent of India's population is illiterate and cannot read or write. And schools in rural areas are inadequate and often equivalent to being non-existent. Thus, government's initiative to set up schools in rural areas came into picture. According to Just Indian Schools the conditions of rural education in India, is improving steadily and the government is also providing full support and

providing with many initiatives. The fee structure in these schools is also very low so that every child can study and afford it. . There are many initiatives taken by the government, but they are not implemented in the schools, so the present scenario remains the same. Though there are very few schools in rural areas, children and their parents are showing interest and availing school facilities in these remote locations. Children have to walk miles to reach their school. Rural schools pay special attention to children in these locations so that each child gets an equal and important opportunity. They promote reading and writing and enhanced basic education. These schools also provide study material to every student apart from, meals during school hours, uniforms etc. Rural village schools also have implemented library system, which provide books, newspapers and magazine to children. They not only provide science kits and equipment for hands-on-learning, but also notebooks, textbooks and pencils to poor children. Apart from that they also give scholarships to deserving students regularly, who wish to study ahead. They create community awareness, about the need for education and world literacy. Many indirect benefits of a basic rural education include poverty reduction, disease control, enhanced employment opportunities and increasing rate of literacy. The curriculum includes English, Mathematics, General Knowledge and Drawing. Apart

from that they also provide Value Education and Computer Education. With the help of rural education every family and child has excess to basic primary education. Individual's special talents are recognized. The teaching methodology ensures that each and every student is exposed to educational experience in an active and dynamic learning environment, so that they can achieve excellence. Teachers also encourage every student to express their views, observations and experiences. The main objectives of rural school's is to ensure that every child in rural India receives quality education which prepares them to compete in the competitive global environment. Rural education initiative has the following objective: – To provide free standard education to rural children – Supporting children for higher education. – Guiding and Supporting Research scholars in Educational Development. – Implementing new teaching methodologies and Assessment system. – Promoting all schools to stress free environment.

Urban education v/s rural education: – There are many schools in cities and towns whereas; there are very few schools in villages and the rural areas. – There are transportation facilities like bus pick and in urban schools where as children in rural areas have to walk miles to reach their schools. – Basic amenities like no drinking water in provided in some of the schools in villages. – Level of education in urban schools is far advanced as compared to the basic level taught in rural schools. – Computer education is given high importance in urban areas where as very few schools in villages give computer training. – Group classes are taken by using video conferencing and audio conferencing in urban schools where as no such facilities are provided for students in rural schools. – The teachers are given tools like laptops, printers to provide notes and other important notices to the children in urban schools while there are no such facilities in the rural schools. – School infrastructure in case of cities and urban areas is much more advanced as compared to that in schools in rural

areas where some times children are even made to sit on the floor due to non-availability of furniture. – School education in urban areas is more advanced especially since there is a lot of computer aided teaching. – Apart from the course curriculum rural schools are not able to involve children in other activities like sports, cocurricular activities and competitions. Such events and activities tend help in the over all development of the children.

### **Problems faced in rural education in India:**

India is developing rapidly and many initiatives had been taken for the development of rural India, still much more have to be done. There are several problems being faced by the schools running in rural India. Some of these problems are stated below:

#### **Lack of infrastructure:**

Many schools in villages lack proper infrastructure facilities. There are no proper facilities for sitting as sometimes children are even made to sit on the floor due to non-availability of furniture. The school building lacks doors and windows, and so the wind and animals enter unimpeded.

**Low income:**

Teachers in the villages also get very less income in comparison to the teachers that teach in urban schools. As teachers are not satisfied with their income, they generally do not give proper attention to the students.

**Lack of transportation facilities:**

This is one of the biggest problems being faced by the children going to village schools. As there are no proper transport facilities available children don't like to travel miles to come to school.

**Less in number:**

In comparison to the number of schools present in urban area i.e., cities or towns, there are very few schools in villages or rural areas.

**Lack of basic amenities:**

Even the basic amenities like drinking water, clean toilets etc are also not available in many of the schools at villages.

**Lack of extra-curricular activities:**

Apart from the course curriculum rural schools are not able to involve children in other activities like sports, cocurricular activities and competitions. Such events and activities tend help in the over all development of the children. – There is no excess to supplemental education.

**Deficiency of funds:**

One of the severe hurdles in the education system in rural India is the unavailability of funds. Some schools do not have funds even for purchasing benches, blackboards etc.

Reasons for the failure of rural education : – The teachers do not get any support from the parents in villages on the part of curriculum. Parents in villages want that their children should be provided with education related to agriculture so that they can help them. This thinking act as an obstacle in bringing the children to schools. – In several schools of villages, the premise of school is also not sufficient to accompany all the students. – Lack of illiteracy on the part of the parents also acts as an obstacle in attracting the students in rural areas. – As teachers in rural areas get very less salary in comparison to the teachers teaching in schools located in towns or cities, they do not give their 100%. – Students in the rural areas are also not interested in education because it is not appealing as any computers, laptops, internet facility made available for them. Suggestions for improving rural education in India:

Some of the suggestions that can be adopted for improving the education system in rural: – The curriculum of rural education can be updated and should accompany education related to farming, gardening etc. – To attract more number of students and creating enthusiasm in them for learning, visual aids like projectors, television etc. can be used to show some

educational movies. – To motivate the teachers they should be made to feel proud that by teaching in the rural or remote area they are acting as a helping hand in the development of economy. – Some special sessions or classes can be conducted for the parents to make them realize the significance of education for their children. – To appreciate the efforts of students, some type of scholarships either in the form of gifts or books can be given to them who perform well in the class.

### **Initiatives taken by the Government:**

For promoting the importance of education in India, Ministry of Law and Justice had introduced ‘The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009’. It is an Act introduced to provide free and compulsory education to all children between the ages of six to fourteen years. Several central and state level initiatives have been in operation from the early 1980s. The main objectives of all these initiatives include increasing girls enrolment, improving educational outcomes, strengthening community involvement, improving teaching and learning materials, and providing in-service teacher training in villages. Some of these initiatives are:

#### **Lok Jumbish Project:**

The Lok Jumbish (LJ) project has 75 blocks covering approximately 12 million of population. LJ works hand in hand with government agencies, teachers, NGOs, elected representatives and the people in an interactive group effort to promote universalization of primary education. It works on seven guiding principles. These are: – A process rather than a product approach. – Partnerships. – Decentralized functioning.

– Participatory learning. – Integration with the mainstream education system. – Flexibility of management. – Creating multiple levels of leadership committed to quality and mission mode.

#### **Shiksha Karmi Project:**

The Shiksha Karmi Project (SKP) is being implemented since 1987, with assistance from the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA). It aims universalisation and qualitative improvement of primary education in the backward and remote villages of Rajasthan, with special focus on girls. SKP has set up the Village Education Committees (VECs) in 2000 villages to promote community involvement in primary education and encourage village level planning. SKP also runs non-formal classes known as Prehar Pathshalas schools of convenient timings. For girl’s education, Angan Pathshalas are being run in three blocks. The programme at present covers over 150,000 students in 1,785 schools and 3,250 Prehar Pathshalas, involving over 4,271 Shiksha Karmis.

#### **Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA):**

The main goal of this program is that all children of 6-11 years of age should complete primary education by the year 2007 and all children of 6-14 years of age should complete eight years of schooling by 2010. This plan covers the whole country with special emphasis on girl education and

education of Schedule Caste (SC) and Schedule Tribe (ST) children and children with special needs. The SSA centers are mainly opened in those areas, which do not have any school or where schools are very far off. Special girl oriented programs include: Girl education at elementary level, National Program for Education of Girls at Elementary Level (NPEGEL) , Kasturba Gandhi Balika

### **Vidyalaya (KGBV), Mahila Samakhya Scheme**

District primary education program: This programme was launched in 1994 with the objective of universalization of primary education. Its main features are Universal Access, Universal Retention and Universal Achievement. It aims that the primary education should be accessible to each and every child of school going age, once a child is enrolled in school he/ she should be retained there.

The final step is achievement of the goal of education. The main components of this programme are: – Construction of classrooms and new schools – Opening of non-formal schooling centers – Setting up early childhood education centers. – Appointment of teachers. – Providing education to disabled children. The programme has been successful to the large extent as 1,60,000 schools and 84,000 alternative schools have been opened under this program. And work is going on for the

construction of new buildings of 52,758 schools. 4,20,203 disabled students have been successfully enrolled into the schools. National programme of nutritional support to primary education (school meal programme):

This programme was launched on 15th August 1995 with a view to increase enrolment, retention and attendance in primary schools by augmenting nutritional meal to children. Under this scheme children attending the school are given free cooked meal of 100gms every day and positive results have gained with this scheme. By 1997-98 this scheme has covered around 110million children of primary school. It is implemented for the students of classes' I-V. Operation blackboard: This scheme was launched in 1987 with a motto of improving the school environment. For the sake of retaining and enhancing the learning skills of children this has been started. This scheme has brought a remarkable improvement in primary education. Nearly 5,23,000 primary schools have been covered in the beginning.

### **Check your progress - 3**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

5. Write the meaning of Co Operatives?

6. Write the meaning of Sarva Shikshya Abhyas?

## **9.7 HEALTH AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

Rural Health care is one of biggest challenges facing the Health Ministry of India. With more than 70 percent population living in rural areas and low level of health facilities, mortality rates due to diseases are on a high. Download our Whitepaper Rural Health Care- Towards Healthy Rural India, on how technology can be leveraged for improving health care in Rural India, excerpts are below.

### Reality of Healthcare in Rural India

Healthcare is the right of every individual but lack of quality infrastructure, dearth of qualified medical functionaries, and non- access to basic medicines and medical facilities thwarts its reach to 60% of population in India. A majority of 700 million people lives in rural areas where the condition of medical facilities is deplorable. Considering the picture of grim facts there is a dire need of new practices and procedures to ensure that quality and timely healthcare reaches the deprived corners of the Indian villages. Though a lot of policies and programs are being run by the Government but the success and effectiveness of these programs is questionable due to gaps in the implementation. In rural India, where the number of Primary health care centers (PHCs) is limited, 8% of the centers do not have doctors or medical staff, 39% do not have lab technicians and 18% PHCs do not even have a pharmacist.

India also accounts for the largest number of maternity deaths. A majority of these are in rural areas where maternal health care is poor. Even in private sector, health care is often confined to family planning and antenatal care and do not extend to more critical services like labor and delivery, where proper medical care can save life in the case of complications.

### The Problems

Due to non accessibility to public health care and low quality of health care services, a majority of people in India turn to the local private health sector as their first choice of care. If we look at the health landscape of India 92 percent of health care visits are to private providers of which 70 percent is urban population. However, private health care is expensive, often unregulated and variable in quality. Besides being unreliable for the illiterate, it is also unaffordable by low income rural folks.

To control the spread of diseases and reduce the growing rates of mortality due to lack of adequate health facilities, special attention needs to be given to the health care in rural areas. The key challenges in the healthcare sector are low quality of care, poor accountability, lack of awareness, and limited access to facilities.

Various organizations are coming together for improvements in health care and technology plays a crucial role to facilitate this. Information and communications Technology provides hosts of solutions for successful implementation of these changes.

### Technology for Rural Health Care

## NOTES

Several organizations are working alongside the government and NGOs to help relieve the burden on the public health system using mobile technology. India has over 900 million mobile phone users and this fact can be leveraged to employ better practices in even the remote areas. Leading global organizations of healthcare industry are using our mobile technology to enhance the quality of care and bridge the gaps in healthcare services.

Gram Vaani provides cutting- edge mobile and IVR solutions to automate processes and applies best practices in the field. Our services cater to health care sector, social sector, and corporate organizations for connecting with the difficult to reach markets at bottom of the pyramid.

We have built simple technologies on mobile to suit the needs of different sectors and verticals. By improving the systems and functions of our clients we have impacted thousands of lives in rural India. Through mobile and IVR services we have an extensive reach across the demography. Our initiative is focused on delivering best tools and solutions to our partners for reaching out to the rural markets and gives a platform to be directly connected to them. Leading global organizations of healthcare industry are using our technology to enhance the quality of care and bridge the gaps in healthcare services in rural India.

### **Improving Healthcare on the ground**

We are employing mobile technology in several healthcare projects for leading global organizations. In partnership with the White Ribbon Alliance for Safe Motherhood, for a program of Merck for Mothers, we are working to upgrade the quality of maternity healthcare in India. There's growing evidence from developing countries confirming that patient's perception of quality of care and satisfaction with care are critical to utilization of health services. To this end, we are building a quality-of-care checklist for expectant mothers (and their families) to answer using mobile phones and rate on factors such as whether they were treated with respect during the delivery, whether they got entitlement for institutional delivery, whether the transportation provided was of good quality, etc.

### **This tool is constructive for:**

- Making women aware of their rights to demand good quality of care,
- Bringing accountability by highlighting lapses in the health delivery process, and,
- Increasing uptake of appropriate health services at the right venues

As a part of another healthcare program Ananya in Bihar, with NGO's PATH and PCI, we are mobilizing communities using our voice technologies to demand greater accountability from the health delivery infrastructure. Through simple education and discussion programs on mobile we make the marginalized communities aware of best practices in healthcare and sanitation, and about their rights and entitlements from the health delivery system. The community members are encouraged to engage

and share their stories with each other on our open mobile platform, and to demand grievance redressal and accountability from the health system.

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## 9.8 LET US SUM UP

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NOTES

In this unit we have discussed in details about the Agriculture and Development because agriculture share is playing vital role in the National income. Also discussed about the agriculture as a source of Livelihood, employment , raw materials, capital for development of man power. Further this unit also focuses on agrarian land reforms, green, white and yellow revolution. The role of Cooperatives is very important and also deals with education and health which is important components to interconnection with Rural Development.

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## 9.9 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

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1. Write the three goals for Agriculture Development?
2. List the three types of agriculture and economic development?
3. Write the meaning of Green Revolution?
4. Write the meaning of White Revolution?
5. Write the meaning of Co Operatives?
6. Write the meaning of Sarva Shikshya Abhyan?

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## 9.10 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. There are three goals of agricultural development. These are:  
(a) achieving high growth by raising productivity; (b) inclusiveness by focusing on lagging regions, small farmers and women; and (c) sustainability of agriculture. In order to achieve these goals, we have to provide medium term strategy and action plan
2. the three types of contribution that agriculture has made towards economic development. The types are: 1. Factor Contribution 2. Product Contribution 3. Market Contribution.
3. The Green Revolution started in 1965 with the first introduction of High Yielding Variety (HYV) seeds in Indian agriculture. This was coupled with better and efficient irrigation and the correct use of fertilizers to boost the crop. The end result of the Green Revolution was to make India self-sufficient when it came to food grains.
4. The White Revolution in India was successful in transforming the country from a milk deficient nation to a world leader in milk production. It helped dairy-farming become India's largest self-sustaining industry and also, India's largest rural employment provider.
5. The word cooperation has many meanings, but in common discourse it means working, living and thinking together. In our existing socio-economic context, however, we need to define it somewhat differently—"Cooperation is a form of organization wherein persons voluntarily associate with each other as human beings on the basis of equality for the promotion of mutual economic interests". As per the definition given by the International

Labour Organization (ILO), a cooperative society is an association of persons, who assemble for their common

6. **Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA):** The main goal of this program is that all children of 6-11 years of age should complete primary education by the year 2007 and all children of 6-14 years of age should complete eight years of schooling by 2010. This plan covers the whole country with special emphasis on girl education and education of Schedule Caste (SC) and Schedule Tribe (ST) children and children with special needs. The SSA centers are mainly opened in those areas, which do not have any school or where schools are very far off. Special girl oriented programs include: Girl education at elementary level, National Program for Education of Girls at Elementary Level (NPEGEL) , Kasturba Gandhi Balika

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## 9.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

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NOTES

# UNIT-X COMMUNICATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

## Structure

- 10.1. Introduction
- 10.2. Objectives
- 10.3. Communication and Rural Development
  - 10.3.1 Meaning and Scope of Communication
  - 10.3.2 Channels and Stages of Communication
  - 10.3.3 Methods of Communication
  - 10.3.4 Skills of Communication
  - 10.3.5 Theories and Models of Communication
  - 10.3.6 Barriers of Communication
- 10.4. Communication and its role in Rural Development
- 10.5 Satellite Instructional Television Experiments (SITE)
- 10.6 Use of Mass Media in Communication
- 10.7 Traditional Local folk media
- 10.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 10.9 Unit- End- Exercises
- 10.10 Answer to check your Progress
- 10.11 Suggested Readings

## 10.1 INTRODUCTION

All of us are born and live in a society. As members of a society, we will have to establish relationships with individuals, groups and institutions either permanently or on a temporary basis. Communication helps us to belong to a society and benefit by such relationships. Communication simply means moving and receiving messages or information from one point to another point. Individuals communicate with each other. They may also communicate with others as members of a group. Individuals also communicate with organizations and with larger audiences. Therefore, there are a number of situations in which communication takes place.

One needs a channel or medium to move these messages. In addition to face-to-face verbal communication (sign language in case of the deaf & dumb) a variety of other means such as newspaper, book, magazine, radio and TV, tape recorders, VCRs, teleprinters, facsimiles etc., are available as other channels of communication. The advancement of technologies have helped the speed of the transmission of messages over the different media.

Soon we will be discussing the history of communication, its several definitions, what constitutes communication, the various stages and variables in the process of communication and the functions and effects of communication.

There is really nothing that is difficult to understand about communication provided you analyze a daily communication situation - like when you talk to others or vice-versa or ask yourself

questions like who publish newspapers, why you watch television and what benefits do you derive from watching. It is all simple as you will learn from the following text.

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## 10.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

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This unit is aimed at familiarizing you with the concept and meaning of communication. You will realize that it sounds simple but in reality the concept is complex. This is why, we break it into its several components, an analysis of each of which will help you to understand the whole. After going through this unit, you will be able to: understand the meaning of communication;

- i) analyze the various elements making up co & communication process;
- ii) describe communication models;
- iii) show different levels at which communication takes place;
- iv) map out the scope and functions of communication.

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## 10.3 Communication and Rural Development

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Communication is what you and I do and for that matter, everyone does every day. When I speak to you or you speak to me, it is communication. When I write to you, I am communicating with you. Suppose I want to call a person who is not within hearing distance, I wave my hand.

This Waving also is communication. If I draw a chart showing the increase in prices, this chart becomes communication. You might have noticed in all these examples that someone is saying something to someone else - transmission of a message or information.

The person who is saying something is the source; what he is saying is the message and the person he addresses or talks to is the receiver. However, you cannot talk to another person unless there is air which carries the sounds of your speech. The air thus becomes the channel.

Thus you will see that there are four major elements in the communication process – the source wishing to say something, the message or what the source wishes to say. the channel or the medium which came the message to its destination and the receiver who is the target of the message. So, we have (i) source, (ii) message, (iii) channel and (iv) receiver as the four major constituents in the process of communication.

No society or community can survive without communication. In fact, without communication, every person becomes an island. Human beings form a society or community with the help of communication. The word communicate is derived from the Latin word "Communis",

When we communicate, we establish a communication bond among ourselves, derive a common learning, common understanding and so on. Communication is an effort to explain ourselves to others and in

turn understand others. In this effort, we succeed or fail in varying degrees.

We give below a number of definitions listed by J. Black and Freed J. Whitney in their book "Introduction to Mass Communication " (Win. C. Brown Publishers. low, USA, 1988). Each of them looks at communication from a different angle. They are:

Communication is the process of transmitting meaning and source between individuals; Communication is the process by which an individual (the communicator) transmits stimuli (usually verbal symbols) to modify the behavior of other individuals (my nicatees); Communication occurs whenever information is passed from one place to another; Communication is not simply the verbal, explicit and interaction transmission of messages; it includes all those processes by which people influence one another; . communication ~omnlunicalhdn occurs when person A communicates message B through channel C to person D with effect E. '

Some authors describe communication as S - R for the stimulus - response process, or the interaction between a source and receiver, thus S and R standing for two referents each. Stimulus is anything that sets our sensory organs into motion and sends messages to the mind. Flor example, fragrance stimulates our nose and sends a message to our brain. The sensory prgans are nose, ears, eyes, tongue and skin. Response is the reaction of the receiver to stimulus. In other words, S and R stand for sender or source and receiver. It is enough for us to know at this stage that communication is a process that takes place between two sides or points between which there is an exchange of messages in the forin of ill formation, knowledge, thought, attitudes and beliefs through a variety of channels.

These channels may be just air which carries the sounds of communication or on which pamphlets, posters, books, magazines, newspapers, letters etc., are printed or electronic meha like radio and TV or simple stone (sculpture, milestones) or cloth (painting). These are channel9 or carriers of messages. But all of us need syinbols or signs which stand for something we want, to say, We may call this language or code. We use the word "dog" to refer to a dog. We have a word which stands for every animal, plant, thing, human being, thought, idea and experience known to us. These words constitute the language of a society; which can be written down if that society has a script. There are societies or communities in the world which do not have a script. In such a case, the reach of communication is limited.

Apart from the channel, a language (not necessarily spoken or written) is necessary to express or convey the message over or through a channel. In dance, messages are transferred or communicated through body language consisting of body postures,

body stance, body gyrations, movement of feet, hand gestures, eye movements etc., known as the language of dance. Just as spoken languages differ from one community to the other, dance language also differs. In India, we have Bharatanatyam, Kuchipudi, Odissa, etc., which are dance languages. In the West, we have Walk, Fox Trot etc. Just as communication requires both the sender and the receiver to know the same or common language, in dance too, the receiver must know the language of dance to understand (receive) the messages sent by the dancer.

A milestone is a form of communication. It tells you how many miles you are away from your destination. Lights are communications which tell you to stop or to go or to be ready.

The barking of a dog is a communication telling you that a stranger is on the prowl. Man also communicates with animals in a language known to him and the animal.

An angry man need not express anger in words. He can show it simply through facial expression. Just as a person can communicate happiness or grief through tears.

Thus there is no end to the number of ways in which communication takes place. We will wind up the definition of communications by quoting an expert : "Communications the form of interaction that takes place through symbols. The symbols may be gestural, pictorial, plastic, verbal or any other as stimuli to behavior which would not be evoked but by the symbol itself in the spectral contradictions of the persons who respond."

Communication thus includes a very wide range of activity and has a variety of meanings and covers all forms of expression aimed at achieving mutual understanding.

Thus we see that communication is what keeps the society going because each of us is a part of a society and has to communicate with its other members. This we do through speech, writing, songs, body motion etc. We have also become familiar with definitions of communication which tell us that a communication needs a source, a message, a channel and a receiver. You might have noted the word "process" recurring in many of the definitions.

### 10.3.1 MEANING AND SCOPE OF COMMUNICATION

We live in a society. Besides ourselves, there are others who may be rich or poor, living in big houses or in huts, literate or illiterate. They may also belong to different religions and communities, often speaking different languages. But still all of them can speak or interact with one another. Such interaction is essential for societies to

survive. We ask questions and get answers, seek information and get it.

We discuss problems and come to conclusions. We exchange our ideas and interact with others. For doing all these we use communication. Imagine a situation where we are not able to speak and interact with others or think of a family living in the same house without speaking to each other? Such situations can create plenty of problems. When we get angry don't we stop talking to our friends or family members at least for some time? Soon we talk it over or discuss matters and begin normal conversation.

If we do not speak to each other we cannot understand each other. So communication can help us to understand each other and solve problems. But what is communication?

So far we have seen how we use communication. Now let's try and define communication. But defining communication is not very easy. It means many things to many people. Unlike definitions of a theory or some scientific term 'communication' has no definition accepted by all experts.

We know that when we convey something by words, we may call it a message. If you are used to a mobile phone you would know the term 'SMS'. This SMS is the short form for 'Short Message Service'. Here the messages are short sentences or just a word or a phrase or a sentence like "I am in a meeting". "Please call me at 4:00 p.m" or "congratulations" or "see you at home". These are all messages. They are short and when someone receives them they 'understand' it. For example, take the message "I am in a meeting". Please call me at 4:00 p.m". It does not need any explanation. The moment you read it, you can understand it. Suppose someone has passed an exam. Just send a message "congratulations". The person who gets it immediately follows it. So shall we use these two words, namely 'message' and 'understand', and define communication. Let's try.

"Communication is a message understood". Unless a message is understood we cannot say that communication has taken place. Let's send a message to someone else's phone, "where came first". The person who gets this message would wonder what it means. It does not make any sense. The receiver of the message just does not understand it. So for communication to take place, there are two conditions. First, there should be a clear message. Secondly, that message must be understood by the receiver, for whom it is meant. In society, we all interact with messages.. Without interactions, a society cannot survive. Social interaction is always through messages. So we can also define communication in the following words.

“Communication is social interaction through messages.” Think of telling someone, “It is very warm today” or “I am bored with the history classes.” In both these cases, we are communicating what ‘we experience’. The weather being warm is what you feel or experience physically. Getting bored with a subject is a different feeling which needs some amount of education or experience in a class room. In both cases we are sharing our feeling or experience with someone else. So we may say that “communication is sharing of experience.”

## SCOPE OF COMMUNICATION

Scope of communication means the normal functioning area of this subject. Since communication is essential in every sphere of human life, its scope is wide and pervasive. From cradle to grave, human beings are somehow engaged in communication. No one can pass even a day without communication. In the following a brief discussion on scope of communication is given...

**Communication in personal life:** Communication is closely related with every sphere of human life. From dawn to sleep at night, a person communicates with others. This reveals that communication is the part and parcel of human life.

**Communication in social life:** Now we are on the verge of human civilization and living in an integrated society. In social life, people need to develop social bondage. Communication helps us in creating and strengthening this social bondage.

**Communication in the state affairs:** Communication is also pervaded in all areas of state affairs. Without communication, state neither can administer its various wings nor can maintain relationships with the other part of the world. Due to revolutionary change in communication technologies, the whole world has turned into a global village.

**Communication in business:** In this post-modern age, we cannot think of business without communication. Communication is the lifeblood of business as it provides necessary information in formulating business plans and policies. It also ensures effective performance of business activities like production, distribution, finance, warehousing etc. Thus; ultimate success of the business depends on successful communication.

**Communication in management:** Management is the means of achieving organizational goals. Efficiency and effectiveness of management depend on effective communication with the various internal and external parties. Every function of management depends on communication. In fact, without information plans cannot be formulated, activities cannot be organized, directives cannot be issued and control cannot be ensured.

**Communication in industrial relations:** Industrial relation means a labor management relationship in the industry or in an organization. Congenial industrial relation is a precondition for business success. On the other hand, free and fair communication is a pre-requisite for creating good industrial relation. Free flow of information lessens doubt, confusion and controversies between workers and management. As a result, harmonious relationship develops in the organization.

**Communication in international affairs:** In this age of globalization, communication is not merely confined within the national boundary. Countries are exchanging their cultural, economical, social, political, educational and technological affairs with each other continuously. In order to facilitate cooperation and communication among countries, various regional and international bodies namely the United Nations, World Bank, NAFTA, SAFTA, ASEAN, SAARC, EU etc. Have been formed. Through these bodies, countries communicate various bilateral and multilateral issues among them.

**Communication in religion:** Communication is also present in perching, spreading and circulation various religious doctrines. Prophets and saints have preached the verses of almighty to their followers and even now, many religious thinkers are performing the duty of preaching and circulating religious verses.

From the above discussion, we can draw the conclusion that the scope of communication is so wide that encompasses almost every sphere of our personal, social, national, international and religious lives.

### **10.3.2 CHANNELS AND STAGES OF COMMUNICATION CHANNELS**

In an organization, information flows forward, backwards and sideways. This information flow is referred to as communication. Communication channels refer to the way this information flows within the organization and with other organizations. In this web known as communication, a manager becomes a link. Decisions and directions flow upwards or downwards or sideways depending on the position of the manager in the communication web.

For example, reports from lower level manager will flow upwards. A good manager has to inspire, steer and organize his employees efficiently, and for all this, the tools in his possession are spoken and written words. For the flow of information and for a manager to handle his employees, it is important for an effectual communication channel to be in place.

**The Working of a Communication Channel Through a modem of communication,** be it face-to-face conversations or an inter-

department memo, information is transmitted from a manager to a subordinate or vice versa. An important element of the communication process is the feedback mechanism between the management and employees.

In this mechanism, employees inform managers that they have understood the task at hand while managers provide employees with comments and directions on employee's work. Importance of a Communication Channel A breakdown in the communication channel leads to an inefficient flow of information. Employees are unaware of what the company expects of them. They are uninformed of what is going on in the company.

This will cause them to become suspicious of motives and any changes in the company. Also without effective communication, employees become department minded rather than company minded, and this affects their decision making and productivity in the workplace. Eventually, this harms the overall organizational objectives as well. Hence, in order for an organization to be run effectively, a good manager should be able to communicate to his/her employees what is expected of them, make sure they are fully aware of company policies and any upcoming changes.

Therefore, an effective communication channel should be implemented by managers to optimize worker productivity to ensure the smooth running of the organization. Types of Communication Channels The number of communication channels available to a manager has increased over the last 20 odd years. Video conferencing, mobile technology, electronic bulletin boards and fax machines are some of the new possibilities.

As organizations grow in size, managers cannot rely on face-to-face communication alone to get their message across. A challenge the managers face today is to determine what type of communication channel should they opt for in order to carryout effective communication. In order to make a manager's task easier, the types of communication channels are grouped into three main groups: formal, informal and unofficial.

### **Formal Communication Channels**

A formal communication channel transmits information such as the goals, policies and procedures of an organization. Messages in this type of communication channel follow a chain of command. This means information flows from a manager to his subordinates and they in turn pass on the information to the next level of staff. An example of a formal communication channel is a company's newsletter, which gives employees as well as the clients a clear idea of a company's goals and vision. It also includes the transfer of information with regard to memoranda, reports, directions, and

scheduled meetings in the chain of command. A business plan, customer satisfaction survey, annual reports, employer's manual, review meetings are all formal communication channels.

### **Informal Communication Channels**

Within a formal working environment, there always exists an informal communication network. The strict hierarchical web of communication cannot function efficiently on its own and hence there exists a communication channel outside of this web. While this type of communication channel may disrupt the chain of command, a good manager needs to find the fine balance between the formal and informal communication channel.

An example of an informal communication channel is lunchtime at the organization's cafeteria/canteen. Here, in a relaxed atmosphere, discussions among employees are encouraged. Also managers walking around, adopting a hands-on approach to handling employee queries is an example of an informal communication channel.

Quality circles, team work, different training programs are outside of the chain of command and so, fall under the category of informal communication channels.

### **Unofficial Communication Channels**

Good managers will recognize the fact that sometimes communication that takes place within an organization is interpersonal. While minutes of a meeting may be a topic of discussion among employees, sports, politics and TV shows also share the floor.

The unofficial communication channel in an organization is the organization's 'grapevine.' It is through the grapevine that rumors circulate. Also those engaging in 'grapevine' discussions often form groups, which translate into friendships outside of the organization. While the grapevine may have positive implications, more often than not information circulating in the grapevine is exaggerated and may cause unnecessary alarm to employees. A good manager should be privy to information circulating in this unofficial communication channel and should take positive measures to prevent the flow of false information. An example of an unofficial communication channel is social gatherings among employees.

### **Check your progress - 1**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

1. Write the meaning of Communication?

2. Write the Scope of Communication?.

## STAGES OF COMMUNICATION

Communication is a key component to living a successful life. Possessing effective communication skills can improve your career, your relationships, and increase your people skills. There are seven stages to basic communication. By knowing and understanding these stages you will be able to better communicate in your personal and professional life.

**Sender** – Know the message you want to communicate and make sure that message contain useful and correct information.

**Encoding** – Encoding is the process where the information you would like to communicate gets transferred into a form to be sent and decoded by the receiver. The ability to deliver the message clearly as well as be able to discard any confusing or potentially offensive themes such as cultural issues, or missing information is imperative in this stage.

**Channel** – Channels are the way you convey your message. These channels include verbal such as telephone, and face-to-face conversations as well as non-verbal such as e-mail and text messaging. Each individual channel has its strengths and weaknesses in terms of communicating. For example, it is better to give instructions non-verbally rather than expecting the person you are communicating with will remember everything you tell them. You would also never critique or criticize anyone through a non-verbal channel at the risk of having a misunderstanding.

**Decoding** – Decoding is on the receiving end of communication. This stage is just as important as encoding. Communication can go downhill at this stage if the receiver is not practicing active listening skills or if they do not possess enough information to accurately decode the message.

**Receiver** – Know your audience. Each individual person on the receiving end of your message already has their own ideas and thoughts that will absolutely influence the way they translate your message. By getting to know your audience better you will be able to have a better understanding of how they will react to what you are trying to communicate.

**Feedback** – As you are communicating your message your audience will provide you with non-verbal and verbal reactions. You will be able to asses while communicating your message if it is being

conveyed accurately by paying close attention to non-verbal cues first such as returning eye contact, head nodding etc.

**Context** –Context is the environment in which your message is being delivered. For example, If you're making a work presentation chances are you will be speaking more professionally, than if you were conversing casually with a neighbor or friend.

### **10.3.3 METHODS OF COMMUNICATION**

#### **Methods of Communication**

The standard methods of communication are speaking or writing by a sender and listening or reading the receiver. Most communication is oral, with one party speaking and others listening.

However, some forms of communication do not directly involve spoken or written language. Nonverbal communication (body language) consists of actions, gestures, and other aspects of physical appearance that, combined with facial expressions (such as smiling or frowning), can be powerful means of transmitting messages. At times, a person's body may be "talking" even as he or she maintains silence. And when people do speak, their bodies may sometimes say different things than their words convey. A mixed message occurs when a person's words communicate one message, while nonverbally, he or she is communicating something else.

Although technology such as e-mail has lessened the importance of nonverbal communication, the majority of organizational communication still takes place through face-to-face interaction. Every verbal message comes with a nonverbal component. Receivers interpret messages by taking in meaning from everything available. When nonverbal cues are consistent with verbal messages, they act to reinforce the messages. But when these verbal and nonverbal messages are inconsistent, they create confusion for the receiver.

The actions of management are especially significant because subordinates place more confidence in what managers do than what they say. Unless actions are consistent with communication, a feeling of distrust will undermine the effectiveness of any future social exchange.

#### **Oral communication skills**

Because a large part of a manager's day is spent conversing with other managers and employees, the abilities to speak and listen are critical to success. For example, oral communication skills are used when a manager must make sales presentations, conduct interviews, perform employee evaluations, and hold press conferences.

In general, managers prefer to rely on oral communication because communication tends to be more complete and thorough when talking in person. In face-to-face interactions, a person can judge how the other party is reacting, get immediate feedback, and answer questions. In general, people tend to assume that talking to someone directly is more credible than receiving a written message. Face-to-face communication permits not only the exchange of words, but also the opportunity to see the nonverbal communication.

However, verbal communicating has its drawbacks. It can be inconsistent, unless all parties hear the same message. And although oral communication is useful for conveying the viewpoints of others and fostering an openness that encourages people to communicate, it is a weak tool for implementing a policy or issuing directives where many specifics are involved.

Here are two of the most important abilities for effective oral communication:

**Active listening.** Listening is making sense of what is heard and requires paying attention, interpreting, and remembering sound stimuli. Effective listening is active, requiring the hearer to “get inside the head” of the speaker so that he or she can understand the communication from the speaker's point of view. Effective listeners do the following:

- Make eye contact.
- Schedule sufficient, uninterrupted time for meetings.
- Genuinely seek information.
- Avoid being emotional or attacking others.
- Paraphrase the message you heard, especially to clarify the speaker's intentions.
- Keep silent. Don't talk to fill pauses, or respond to statements in a point-counterpoint fashion.
- Ask clarifying questions.
- Avoid making distracting gestures.
- Constructive feedback. Managers often do poor jobs of providing employees with performance feedback. When providing feedback, managers should do the following:
  - Focus on specific behaviors rather than making general statements
  - Keep feedback impersonal and goal-oriented
  - Offer feedback as soon after the action as possible
  - Ask questions to ensure understanding of the feedback
  - Direct negative feedback toward behavior that the recipient can control

## **Written communication skills**

Written communication has several advantages. First, it provides a record for referral and follow-up. Second, written communication is an inexpensive means of providing identical messages to a large number of people.

The major limitation of written communication is that the sender does not know how or if the communication is received unless a reply is required.

Unfortunately, writing skills are often difficult to develop, and many individuals have problems writing simple, clear, and direct documents. And believe it or not, poorly written documents cost money.

Managers must be able to write clearly. The ability to prepare letters, memos, sales reports, and other written documents may spell the difference between success and failure. The following are some guidelines for effective written communication:

- Use the P.O.W.E.R. Plan for preparing each message: plan, organize, write, edit, and revise
- Draft the message with the readers in mind
- Give the message a concise title and use subheadings where appropriate
- Use simple words and short, clear, sentences and paragraphs
- Back up opinions with facts
- Avoid “flowery” language, euphemisms, and trite expressions
- Summarize main points at the end and let the reader know what he must do next

#### **10.3.4 SKILLS OF COMMUNICATION**

Communication skills are those skills which are needed to speak and write properly. A person who is able to speak appropriately whilst maintaining eye contact with the audience, uses varied vocabulary and articulate speech to suit the need of the audience is generally said to be an effective speaker. Similarly, an effective writer should be able to use written words in various styles and techniques to communicate his/her message and ideas to the readers. One should have the ability to listen carefully and write and speak clearly in any situation.

Therefore good reading, writing, speaking and listening skills are essential for effective communication. As a student, you may study any language, but it is important that you are able to read, write, speak and listen well in order to communicate properly. Speaking more than one language can help you to communicate well with people around the world. Learning English can help you to communicate with people who understand English besides the language you have been exposed to speaking the language from easily

childhood, for example, your mother tongue. In the present time, a thorough knowledge of the language with communication skills is very important in any occupation or to set up a business.

## **The Importance of Communication Skills**

Having strong communication skills aids in all aspects of life – from professional life to personal life and everything that falls in between. From a business standpoint, all transactions result from communication. Good communication skills are essential to allow others and yourself to understand information more accurately and quickly.

In contrast, poor communication skills lead to frequent misunderstanding and frustration. In a 2016 LinkedIn survey conducted in the United States, communication topped the list of the most sought-after soft skills among employers.

## **How to Improve Your Communication Skills**

Here are some pointers to look out for when looking to improve your ability to effectively communicate with others:

### **1. Listening**

To become a good communicator, it is important to be a good listener. It is important to practice active listening – pay close attention to what others are saying and clarify ambiguities by rephrasing their questions for greater understanding.

### **2. Conciseness**

Convey your message in as few words as possible. Do not use filler words and get straight to the point. Rambling will cause the listener to tune out or be unsure of what you are talking about. Avoid speaking excessively and do not use words that may confuse the audience.

### **3. Body language**

It is important to practice good body language, use eye contact, utilize hand gestures, and watch the tone of the voice when communicating with others. A relaxed body stance with a friendly tone will aid in making you look approachable by others.

Eye contact is important in communication – look the person in the eye to indicate that you are focused on the conversation. But make

sure to not stare at the person as it can make him or her uncomfortable.

#### **4. Confidence**

Be confident in what you say and in your communication interactions with others. Being confident can be as easy as maintaining eye contact, maintaining a relaxed body stance, and talking with concision. Try not to make statements sound like questions and avoid trying to sound aggressive or demeaning.

#### **5. Open-mindedness**

In situations where you disagree with what someone else has to say, whether it be with an employer, a co-worker, or a friend, it is important to sympathize with their point of view rather than simply try to get your message across. Respect the opinion of others and never resort to demeaning those who do not agree with you.

#### **6. Respect**

Respecting what others have to say and acknowledging them is an important aspect of communication. Being respectful can be as simple as paying attention to what they have to say, using the person's name, and not being distracted. By respecting others, the other person will feel appreciated, which will lead to a more honest and productive conversation.

#### **7. Using the correct medium**

There are several different forms of communication to use – it is important to choose the right one. For example, communicating in person about serious matters (layoffs, salary changes, etc.) is more appropriate than sending an email regarding the matter.

#### **Good Communication Skills for a Great Career**

Succeeding in your career requires good communication skills. You need to know what you want and how you are going to attain it. Being an excellent communicator can help propel your career.

Good communication skills can aid in helping you land an interview and pass the selection process. Being able to articulate well provides a significant advantage! To do your job effectively, you have to discuss problems, request information, interact with others, and have good human relations skill – these are all part of having good communication skills. They help in being understood well and in helping understand the needs of those around you.

#### **Bad Communication in the Workplace**

Communication drives workplace success. Although the detriments of poorly communicating with others may not be apparent in the short term, it has a crippling effect on the workplace in the long-term. Here are some signs of bad communication:

- Lack of specific communication
- Using the incorrect mediums to convey important messages
- Passive-aggressive communication
- Lack of follow-through and consideration
- Blaming and intimidating others
- Failing to listen

An example of poor communication would be the RadioShack layoff notices in 2006. The electronics chain laid off 400 employees by notifying employees by email. The company faced significant backlash following the move, with many surprised that it used email instead of face-to-face meetings.

### 10.3.5 THEORIES AND MODELS OF COMMUNICATION THEORIES & MODELS

The term ‘theory’ is often intimidating to students. Theories provide an abstract understanding of a process, Miller says. It is simply a summary of a process. Hoover (1984) defines it as “a set of inter-related propositions that suggest why events occur in the manner that they do”. Foss, Foss and Griffin (1999) defines theory as, “a way of framing an experience or event—an effort to understand and account for something and the way it functions in the world”. Any thoughts or ideas about how things work in the world or one’s life are personal theories. Theories are essentially frameworks for how the world works, and therefore guide how to function in the world. Theory is an idea of how something happens. It is an attempt to explain or represent an experience. The term communication theory may refer to a single theory or an entire set of theories related to communication. “Theories are not just things to be read and learned. They are constantly evolving works.” (Littlejohn, 2002, p. 25)

The origin of the word ‘Model’ could be traced to the French word *modèle*; Italian *modello*, diminutive of *modo*, form, and Latin *modus*, measure, standard; Model refers to representation/replica of the original. A model is thus a schematic description of a system, theory, or phenomenon that accounts for its known or inferred properties and may be used for further study of its characteristics. Communication models seek to represent the structure and key elements of the communication process.

## 2. COMMUNICATION THEORIES

In a field like Communication, theories are important to understand because they directly impact our daily lives. The first function communication theories serve is that they help us organize and understand our communication experiences. A second function is that they help us choose what communicative behaviours to study. A third function is that they help us broaden our understanding of human communication. And the fourth function is that they help us predict and control our communication. A fifth function of theories is that they help us challenge current social and cultural realities and provide new ways of thinking and living.

While theories serve many useful functions, these functions do not really matter if we do not have well-developed theories that provide a good representation of how our world works. Littlejohn considers a communication theory to be "any conceptual representation or explanation of the communication process"

## COMMUNICATION THEORIES

To quote Robert T Craig, from his landmark article, Communication Theory as a Field in 1999, "(...) Although there exist many theories of communication (...) there is no consensus on communication theory as a field". Craig "proposes a vision for communication theory that takes a huge step toward unifying this rather disparate field and addressing its complexities." Craig focused on communication theory as a practical discipline and shows how "various traditions of communication theory can be engaged in dialogue on the practice of communication." Craig identifies seven different traditions of Communication Theory and outlines how each one of them would engage the others in dialogue.

- Rhetorical
- Semiotic
- Phenomenological
- Cybernetic
- Socio-Psychological
- Socio-cultural
- Critical

## RHETORICAL THEORY

Rhetorical theory is said to have begun on the Island of Sicily when a dictator was overthrown, leaving landowners to argue in court over who rightfully owned the land - the original owners or those who had been given the land during the tyrant's regime? Under the Greek legal system of the time, individuals had to present their own cases in court - creating the need for individuals to become adept at the art of rhetoric. Corax can be credited with the first formal rhetorical theory; he wrote a treatise 'The Art of Rhetoric' to assist those involved in

the land disputes. In this, he highlighted the importance of probability to rhetoric; a speaker should argue from general probabilities or create a probable connection or basis for belief when actual facts cannot be established. No longer confined to the public domains of classical Greece, rhetorical theorists study every kind of context in which symbol use occurs. Today, this means studying everything from intrapersonal to interpersonal to public discourse to social movements and mediated discourse. Rhetorical theories address what makes public, personal diaries as rhetoric, and television, the Internet, and Web sites as rhetorical arte facts. Thus rhetorical theory includes the study of visual and nonverbal elements, such as the study of art and architecture, buildings and all design elements of cities, and dress and

appearance, to sports, to name a few. There is hardly anything that is part of the human experience that cannot be looked at from a rhetorical perspective. Rhetorical theory has also seen a shift away from a strict focus on persuasion. For some rhetorical theorists, all human symbol use is inherently persuasive – no matter what our intent, anything we say or write, whether intentional or not, affects those around us. Other rhetorical theorists continue to focus on delineating how persuasion works in new arenas for theorizing. Yet others question the persuasive act itself. In general the focus on persuasion and its possibilities has led to an ongoing interest among rhetorical theorists in rhetoric's relationship to social change.

## SEMIOTIC THEORY

John Locke (1690) introduced the term 'semiotics' into the English language as a synonym for "doctrine of signs" (Latin: doctrina signorum, the oldest name for the study of what is now called 'semiosis' or "the action of signs"). There already existed in Locke's time (and long before) the Greek term Σημειωτική, "semeiotics", to name that branch of medical science concerned with the study of symptoms of disease or σημεια - 'natural signs' in today's language. Research into sign systems began with the ancient Greeks, and in the course of Western history many writers and scholars have studied the various processes by means of which signification is produced. In the modern world the major areas which have been the object of semiotic study are literature, environmental and social structures, visual and plastic arts, ritual, myth, pedagogy, and gesture. Consequently, semiotics is very much an interdisciplinary science. Semiotics is the science of communication and sign systems, of the ways people understand phenomena and organize them mentally, and of the ways in which they devise means for transmitting that understanding and for sharing it with others. Although natural and artificial languages are central to semiotics, it covers non-verbal signaling and extends to domains whose communicative dimension is

perceived only unconsciously. Knowledge, meaning, intention and action are thus fundamental concepts in the semiotic investigation of phenomena.

## PHENOMENOLOGICAL THEORY

Phenomenological theorists emphasize that each person actively constructs her or his own world. According to the Phenomenological approach to personality, the specific ways each person perceives and interprets the world make up personality and guide one's behaviour. People's view of reality/perspective is important in guiding their behaviour and is shaped by learned expectations. These expectations form personal constructs which are generalized ways of anticipating the world. Carl Roger's Self Theory emphasized self-actualization which he described as the innate tendency toward growth that motivates all human behaviour. Rogers distinguished between the actual self and the ideal self. Problems develop when the two self concepts do not match or when one's expectations or ideals don't match reality.

Abraham Maslow (Humanistic Psychology) believed that self-actualization is not just a human capacity but a human need. Maslow argued that there was a hierarchy of needs that all humans have, and beginning at the bottom of the hierarchy, each need in the hierarchy must be satisfied before one can move to the next level.

## CYBERNETIC THEORY

In 1948, Norbert Wiener coined the term "cybernetics" to elaborate on the existing theory of the transmission of messages by incorporating his idea that people send messages within a system in an effort to control their surrounding environment (Wiener, 1954). The basic function of communication, which Wiener defines in his theory as the processing of information, is to control the environment in which one lives. This idea suggests that the goal of human communication is to become familiarized with a certain environment while simultaneously influencing aspects of it. With this, Wiener asserts that, 'the purpose of Cybernetics to develop a language and techniques that enable us to attack the problem of control and communication in general and find the proper repertory of ideas and techniques to classify their particular manifestations under certain concepts' (Wiener, 1954, p.16). Thus, he defines the problem in terms of control and system malfunctions through the understanding of the Cybernetic theory. Wiener (1954) introduces the ideas of entropy and feedback into his theory (p. 20). A shortcoming is that Wiener's theory assumes people are built like complex machines and so, are capable of interpreting and processing feedback and making changes in order to fit in to an environment. Watzlawick et al. (1967)

go beyond Wiener's theory of Cybernetics to explain why problems in human relationships are not easily influenced by feedback.

## **SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY**

Social Psychology is a branch of Psychology that studies individuals in the social context. It focuses on the individual and also relies on the scientific research to generate the theories of social behaviour. Social Psychology offers a considerable insight into the individual and society, and into the human condition. One of the major currents of theory in this area sprang from the work of philosopher and sociologist George Herbert Mead at the University of Chicago from 1894. Mead is credited as the founder of symbolic interactions. Social exchange theory emphasizes the idea that social action is the result of personal choices made in order to maximize benefits and minimize costs. A key component of this theory is the postulation of the "comparison level of alternatives", which is the actor's sense of the best possible alternative (i.e., the choice with the highest benefits relative to costs). However, social exchange theories differ from economic theories by making predictions about the relationships between persons, and not just the evaluation of goods.

## **SOCIO-CULTURAL THEORY**

Socio-cultural theory looks at the contributions that society makes to individual development. This theory stresses the interaction between developing people and the culture in which they live. Socio-cultural theory grew from the work of seminal psychologism. Lev Vygotsky, who believed that parents, care givers, peers and the culture were largely responsible for the development of higher order functions. According to Vygotsky, "Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (inter-psychological) and then inside the child (intra- psychological). As his work became more widely published, his ideas have grown increasingly influential in areas including child development, cognitive psychology and education. Socio-cultural theory focuses not only on how adults and peers influence individual learning, but also on how cultural beliefs and attitudes impact how instruction and learning take place. An important concept in socio-cultural theory is known as the zone of proximal development. The zone of proximal development "is the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers." Essentially, it includes all of the knowledge and skills that a person cannot yet understand or perform on their own yet, but is capable of learning with guidance.

## **CRITICAL THEORY**

Critical theory was first defined by Max Horkheimer of the Frankfurt School of Sociology in his 1937 essay *Traditional and Critical Theory*. Critical theory is a social theory oriented toward critiquing and changing society as a whole, in contrast to traditional theory oriented only to understanding or explaining it. Horkheimer wanted to distinguish critical theory as a radical, emancipatory form of Marxian theory. Critical theory questions and challenges the conviction that what is, or what is in the process of becoming, or what appears to be, or what is most commonly understood to be, or what is dominantly conveyed to be, is also at the same time right and true, good and just, and necessary and inevitable: critical theory does not, at least not automatically, accept any of this. Critical theory is always particularly concerned with inquiring into the problems and limitations, the mistakes, the contradictions and incoherence, the injustices and inequities in how human beings operate within particular kinds of structures and hierarchies of relations with each other, facilitated and regulated by particular kinds of institutions, engaged in particular kinds of processes and practices, have formed, reformed, and transformed ourselves, each other, and the communities, cultures, societies, and world in which we live.

## **MODELS OF COMMUNICATION**

In this section, you will learn about three models of communication:

- Linear model
- Interactive model
- Transactional model

### **Linear Model**

The linear model views communication as a one-way or linear process in which the speaker speaks and the listener listens. Laswell's (1948) model was based on the five questions below, which effectively describe how communication works: Shannon and Weaver's (1949) model includes noise or interference that distorts understanding between the speaker and the listener. It is a one way model to communicate with others. It consists of the sender encoding a message and channelling it to the receiver in the presence of noise. Its major drawback is that it assumes that there is a clear cut beginning and end to communication. It also displays no feedback from the receiver; e.g. Mass communication - television, radio, newspapers. It is any method in which there is no possible way for feedback (even nonverbally). Letters, text messages, and e- mail can be responded to. A lecture would not fit in this model because listeners can still give feedback nonverbally.

### **Interactive Model**

The main flaw in the linear model is that it depicts communication as a one-way process where speakers only speak and never listen. It also implies that listeners listen and never speak or send messages. Schramm (1955) in Wood (2009) came out with an interactive model that saw the receiver or listener providing feedback to the sender or speaker. The speaker or sender of the message also listens to the feedback given by the receiver or listener. Both the speaker and the listener take turns to speak and listen to each other. Feedback is given either verbally or nonverbally, or in both ways. This model also indicates that the speaker and listener communicate better if they have common fields of experience, or fields which overlap.

Effectively, this is two linear models stacked on top of each other. The sender channels a message to the receiver and the receiver then becomes the sender and channels a message to the original sender (feedback). This indicates that communication is a two way process. Feedback is not simultaneous, e.g., Instant Messaging (IM). The sender sends an IM to the receiver, and then the original sender has to wait for the IM from the receiver to react.

### **Transactional Model**

The main drawback in the interactive model is that it does not indicate that communicators can both send and receive messages simultaneously. This model also fails to show that communication is a dynamic process which changes over time. The transactional model shows that the elements in communication are interdependent. Each person in the communication act is both a speaker and a listener, and can be simultaneously sending and receiving messages. The model implies:

Transactional” means that communication is an ongoing and continuously changing process;

- In any transactional process, each element exists in relation to all the other elements. There is this interdependence where there can be no source without a receiver and no message without a source;
- Each person in the communication process reacts depending on factors such as their background, prior experiences, attitudes, cultural beliefs and self-esteem.

Figure 4 shows a transactional model of communication that takes into account “noise” in communication as well as the time factor. The outer lines of the model indicate that communication happens within systems that both communicators share (e.g., a common campus, hometown, and culture) or personal systems (e.g., family, religion, friends, etc). It also takes into account changes that happen in the communicators’ fields of personal and common experiences.

The model also labels each communicator as both sender as well as receiver simultaneously.

This model assumes:

- That people are connected through communication;
- They are engaged in transaction.
- It recognizes that each of player is a sender-receiver, not just a sender or a receiver.
- It recognizes that communication affects all parties involved. .
- The transactional model also contains ellipses that symbolize the communication environment.

### **10.3.6 BARRIERS OF COMMUNICATION**

#### **BARRIERS OF COMMUNICATION**

#### **Stereotyping**

Stereotyping causes one to typing a person, a group, an event or a thing on over simplified conceptions, beliefs or opinions. Stereotyping can substitute for thinking, analysis and open mindedness for a new situation. Stereotyping is a barrier to communication when it causes people to act as if they already know the message that is coming from the sender or worse, as if no message is necessary because everybody already known. But senders and listeners should continuously look for and address thinking, conclusions and actions based on stereotypes.

#### **Wrong Channel**

Using the wrong channel in communication is most likely to lead to misunderstanding, and can cause mistrust in others. Selecting the wrong communication channel can cause communication obstacles including information overload and inadequate feedback. Information overload occurs when receiving information faster than processing. For example, receiving too many emails dilutes the meanings of the emails' messages. The dilution of messages can lead to messages becoming lost. Selecting a communication method which offers the appropriate opportunity for feedback proves important.

#### **Language Barrier**

Increased globalization is forcing a growing number of business managers and employees to interact across linguistic boundaries. According to Henderson (2005), since language affects almost all

aspects of everyday life, there needs more of a focus on communication barriers by researchers and practitioners engaged in international business and management.

The issue of language barriers is particularly critical during intercultural service encounters. Intercultural service encounters, where the customer and the service provider are from different cultures, is very common in the service sector, especially in the western countries.

Such intercultural service encounters may be influenced not only by cultural differences but also by language barriers. Customers may find it difficult to communicate or even get necessary information regarding products or services.

Despite its importance, the effects of language barriers on ESL (English as a Second Language) customers' service experiences have been largely neglected in academic research. Language is not only a medium of communication, but also linked to an individual's or social identity.

### **Lack of Feedback**

Feedback is the mirror of communication. Feedback mirrors what the sender has sent. Feedback is the receiver sending back to the sender the message as perceived. Static communication creates a vacuum. The speaker assumes the message is received but has no feedback from the listener. This lack of feedback means the speaker fails to modify the message to help the listener better understands the speaker's attitude and position. When businesses fail to create open feedback channels, they operate in a communication vacuum.

Without feedback, communication is one way process. Feedback happens in a variety of ways. Asking a person to repeat what has been said, for example, repeats instructions, and is a very direct way of getting feedback. Feedback may be as subtle as a starve, a puzzled look, and or failure to ask any questions often complicated instructions have been given. Both sender and receiver can play an active role in using feedback to make communication truly two ways. Feedback should be helpful rather than harmful. Prompt feedback is more effective that feedback served up until the right moment. Feedback should deal in specific rather than generalities. Feedback should be approached as a problem in perception rather than a problem of discovering the facts.

### **Poor Listening Skills**

Listening is difficult. A usual speaker says about 125 words per minute. The usual listener can receive 400-600 words per minute. Thus, about 75 per cent of listening time is free time. The free time

often sidetracks the listener. The solution is to be an active rather than a passive listener. One important listening skill is to be prepared to listen. Thus, our thoughts about other people and other problems search for meaning in what the person is saying. A mental outline or summary of key thoughts can be very helpful. Avoid interrupting the speaker. To be quite is a useful listening guideline. To be quite for some more is useful extensions of this guideline withhold evaluation and judgment until the other person has finished transmitting messages. A listener's premature frown, shaking of the head or bored look can easily indicate the other person that there is no need to communicate his or her idea again providing feedback is the most important active listening skills.

Ask questions, nod in agreement. Look the person straight into the eye. Lean forward. Be an animated listener. Focus on what the other person is saying. Repeat key points. Active listening is particularly important in dealing with an angry person. Encouraging the person to speak i.e., to vent feelings, is essential to establishing communication with an angry person. Repeat what the person has said. Ask questions to encourage the person to say again what he or she seemed most anxious to say in the first place. An angry person will not start listening until they have cooled down. Telling an angry person to cool down often has the opposite effect. Getting angry with an angry person only assures that there are now two people not listening to what the other is saying. Interruption

The interruption in communication may be due to something more pressing, rudeness, lack of privacy for discussion, and a drop in visitor, an emergency or even the curiosity of someone else wanting to know what two other people are saying. Regardless of the cause, interruptions are a barrier to communication. In the extreme, there is a reluctance of employees and family members even to attempt discussion with a manager because of the near certainty that the conversation will be interrupted. Less extreme but serious is the problem of incomplete infrastructure because someone come by with pressing questions.

### **Check your progress - 2**

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

3. Write the meaning of Coding and Decoding?

4. Write the Models of the Communication?.

### **Physical Distraction**

Physical distractions are the physical elements that get in the way of communication. Examples of such things include the telephone, a

pick-up truck door, a desk, an uncomfortable meeting place and noise. The physical distractions are common on farms. If the phone rings, the tendency is to answer it even if the caller is interrupting into a very important or even delicate conversation. A bad cellular phone line or a noisy restaurant can destroy communication. If an E-mail message or letter is not formatted properly, or if it contains grammatical and spelling errors, the receiver may not be able to concentrate on the message because the physical appearance of the letter or E-mail is sloppy and unprofessional.

The supervisor may give instructions from the driver's seat of a pickup truck. Talking through an open window and down to an employee makes the truck door a barrier. A person sitting behind a desk especially if sitting in a large chair, talking across the desk is talking from behind a physical barrier. Two people talking, facing each other without a desk or truck-door between them have a much more open and personal sense of communication. Uncomfortable meeting places may include a place on the farm that is too hot or too cold. Another example is a meeting room with uncomfortable chair that soon changed people to stand even if means cutting short the discussion. Noise is a physical distraction simply because it is hard to concentrate on a conversation if hearing is difficult.

#### **10.4. COMMUNICATION AND ITS ROLE IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

Communication is the core activity of human association in general and progress as well as development in particular. No human life can exist in isolation. A man can survive only in society and the survival ~~in society is possible with communication.~~ Therefore, communication is identified as the oldest continued activity of human being since birth and goes on and on till death. More precisely, communication is the basic need of human beings and web of society which makes the survival, growth, progress and development of man possible and holds the society intact and progressive. Communication is a vital part of personal life in the society. It is equally important in business, education, civilization, administration and other situations where people encounter with each other to satisfy their needs and wishes. Communication maintains and animates the life. It leads people from instinct to inspiration, through process and system of enquiry, command and control. It creates a common pool of ideas, strengthens the feeling of togetherness through the exchange of messages and translates through into action. As the world has advanced, the task of communication has become more complex. However, unless some basic structural changes are introduced, the potential benefits of technological and communication development will hardly be put at disposal of the majority of mankind. The rural poverty and its related incidences may decline if one puts efforts for sustained growth in agricultural

production. The extension communication system and network is the key input in increasing the performance in agricultural production. Therefore, the communication is the most powerful input which brings substantial development in socio-economic status of an individual.

Present Indian extension system is under numerous pressures where the extension workers, have to cater not only vast population but also to perform administrative, election, input supply and other works. Under these circumstances, it is not practically possible to serve all the farmers, all the time for all the problems when ratio of extension worker and farmer, the sender and receiver is more than 1:1000. Therefore, the potential of mass media can be exploited to serve the rural population in this direction. Electronisation and mechanization in communication systems have provided opportunity to access the information rapidly, accurately and repeatedly. To reach the unreach modern electronic gadgets and systems have been introduced to cope-up the requirements. The government of India has realized the need and utility of these electronic equipments for rural population. Therefore, massive programmes of cyber extension, digital interactive distance learning, online networks, computers aided multimedia; internet and free online telephones etc. have been launched for the farmers. Some of the major extension technology systems and approaches are being used presently like kisan call centre (1551), Cyber Extension, computer-internet connectivity etc.

The use of present extension and communication technology system is based on the initiative of the farmers-the receiver itself. This is possible only when the farmer is conversant with the knowledge of handling system, approach etc. about present communication technology system as well as the positive attitude towards the system. In view of the progressive farmers, its use is judicious as they have high level of positive communication behaviour has resulted the desired results in their agricultural profession. As far as the farmers of hilly areas of Jammu and Kashmir, U.P., Bihar and like backward areas are concerned they are traditionalist-hardliners and shy in nature with poor communication behaviour. They hesitate to adopt recent technologies. The reason of poor communication behaviour is not only because of their personal weaknesses but there are number of constraints which come in the way and restrict them to make use of extension personnel's and communication channels.

Communication in agriculture is not only to inform and create awareness among the farmers but also to implement new ideas that change the mode of farming. Village extension workers (VEWs) inform the farmers about the new technologies, but they are not keeping pace with the advancement of technical know-how.

Secondly, the message has to travel through many stages from its source to the ultimate users. Due to this hierarchical transfer sometimes it loses its meaning and originality. Communication is the vital aspect to change the behaviour of the receiver. As a matter of fact, no executive can be successful without communicating effectively with his superiors or subordinates. Messages could be in the form of words, symbols, signs, letters or actions. The importance of communication has been greatly emphasized by all the management experts. Communication is like a part of an individual's life as well as organizational existence. Its importance is self-explanatory and is having common experience of all as well. The transfer of science to rural people in India and gradual inoculation of scientific attitude in their everyday life, need to demonstrate in the language which will be understood and appreciated by the rural people. In order to make the farming community enlightened and better skilled in the use of improved management practices, fast communication devices are required to break through the message effectively.

### **10.5 SATELLITE INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION EXPERIMENTS (SITE)**

SITE was the largest communication experiment in the use of satellite in support of developmental and educational programmes in modern times. The main impetus for the SITE project came from Prof. V. A. Sarabhai. In 1969, India and USA started an experiment called SIET by means of Satellite-based Education Applications Technology Satellite (ATS-6). On May 30, 1974, the Satellite was launched from Cape Canaveral in USA. The telecast via this satellite began in India from August 1, 1975. Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO) with All India Radio (AIR) took the responsibility of broadcasting ETV programmes to the selected villages in six states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan, selected on the basis of their educational backwardness.

The experiment continued from August 1975 to July 1976. The instructional objectives of SITE were in the fields of education, agriculture, health and family planning and national integration. About 2400 Direct Reception Television Sets (DRS) deployed for SITE were located in different cultural, linguistics and agricultural regions of the country. Different socio-economic environments were also chosen for the purpose. Television broadcasts via satellite were made available for four hours a day, one and half hour in the morning and two and half hours in the evening. Morning times were utilized for broadcasting programmes for children which were enrichment programmes for the age group 5 to 12 years; evening programmes were directed to adults.

SITE covered four different language regions but children of other regions also watched these programmes on school days. Though the programmes were meant for children, others also viewed the programmes within the school. These were not based on school syllabi but intended to provide general enrichment. Governments of each state receiving SITE programmes were responsible for electrifying the school, which housed the television receiver.

The contents of the programmes were identified by a group of educationists drawn from National Council of Education Research and Training (NCERT). It was then placed before the senior officials of Department of Education of each of the State Institutes of Educational Technology (SIET) in the respective states. ISRO produced a series of programmes in science, which aimed at developing scientific thinking. Production studio was also set up by ISRO in Bombay and its staff developed one of the educational series. Programmes were produced at three Base Production Centers: Delhi (Hindi), Cuttack (Odia) and Hyderabad (Telgu and Kannada). The format of the programmes was lecture demonstration followed by documentary, drama and discussion. Before approaching the programmes for broadcast purpose, a few prototypes were produced and pretested in different villages. The purpose of this pretesting was to test the acceptability of the programmes.

Experience during SITE period was quiet encouraging for further expansion of television service in the country. Government decided to start the SITE continuity community-viewing programme. Forty percent of the villages were provided community-viewing facility in six SITE cluster areas by setting terrestrial transmitters. This was possible because the infrastructure existed and studio facilities developed during SITE Terrestrial transmission was made available from 1977 to 1982 and educational programmes were available in the morning hours along with other programmes in the evening. An important highlight for SITE was teacher training through multimedia. Nearly 50,000 teachers were exposed to this training in two installments. Experts planned the lessons. SITE experiment drew attention of the world. Two international teams, one sponsored by United Nations and other by Commonwealth Broadcasting Association toured the SITE areas and gave favorable reactions.

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## **10.6 USE OF MASS MEDIA IN COMMUNICATION**

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The history of organised development communication in India can be traced to rural radio broadcast in the 1940's. Independent India's earliest organised experiments in development communication started with communication development projects initiated by the union government in the 1950's. Different medium was used in the following manner for development purpose:

**NEWSPAPER as a medium of Development Communication:** The power of the press arises from its ability of appearing to the minds of the people and being capable of moving their hearts. However, it has been noticed that the press has not met the requisite interest in developmental communication. In order to correct the imbalances noticed in the media coverage of Rural Development Programs and to ensure that these program are portrayed in proper perspective, several steps are taken to sensitize the media about issues relating to rural development.

The Ministry on a regular basis interacts with the Press mainly through the Press Information Bureau (PIB). Review press conference, press tours and workshops are organised through PIB, with the financial assistance from the Ministry, so as to sensitize press persons about Rural Development Program. For the purpose of creating awareness in respect of rural develop programs among the general public and opinion makers and for disseminating information about new initiatives, the Ministry issues advertisements at regular intervals in national and regional press through DAVP. To enable people in rural areas to access information on Rural Development Program a booklet ‘Gram Vikas’ Programs at a glance is brought out in regional languages.

**RADIO as a means of development communication:** Radio from its very inception played an important role in development communication; this is mainly due to its advantage of reaching to a large number of people from difference section of the society. Universities and other educational institutes’ especially agricultural universities, through their extension networks and international organisations under the UN umbrella carried the development communication experiment. Community radio is another important medium which is growing in importance especially in rural India. Here, NGOs and educational institutions are given license to set up a local community radio station to broadcast information and messages on

Participation of local community is encouraged. As community radio provides a platform to villager to broadcast local issues, it has the potential to get positive action.

**Radio Rural Forum:** All India Radio has been the forerunner in the process of implementing communication strategy adopted by the government. The Radio Rural Forum experiment of 1956, covered 156 villages. It contained 30 minute duration program two days a week on different issues like agriculture and varied subjects that could promote rural development. Efforts are being constantly made to use radio for social change. Apart from radio rural forum, other continuous efforts are being made to bring in development. As in the case of project taken up to promote adult literacy in the 1980s. More

recently, NGOs have helped broadcast program on women and legal rights etc.

**Local Service of AIR:** On the basis of the Verghese Committee (1978) report which recommended a franchise system for promoting local radio for education and development. Several NGOs use local radio to further their development activities. For instance, Chetana of Kolkata records their program on adult education, in the field using local talents.

**School Broadcast:** Programs for school are broadcast from the metros and other centers of AIR. Many teachers make excellent broadcast through this platform. AIR draws up these programs on the advice of Consultative Panels for School Broadcast.

**TELEVISION as a Medium for Development Communication:** TV in India was introduced in 1959, on an experimental basis. Its very inception was with the aim to see what TV could achieve in community development and formal education. From this we can very well understand the importance of television for development communication. Today, after 50 years of Indian television, we see that broadcasters still broadcast program with an eye on social responsibility, serials that incorporate socially relevant themes, interactive talk shows and open forums with government representatives responding to audience queries are popular programmes. In 1967, Delhi Television centre launched Krishi Darshan Program at the behest of Dr. Bikram Sarabhai and Prof R. S. Swaminathan. The object of this program was popularisation of modern method in agriculture through the television.

TV has been used as an aid to satellite communication technology to effectively bring in development. Satellite communications technology offers unique capability of being able to reach out to very large numbers spread over large distances even in the most remote corners of the country. In India, ISRO has continuously pursued the utilization of space technology for education and development. This has been done through different projects like Educational TV (ETV), SITE, Kheda project and Country wide classroom (CWC) project.

Over a period of last 30 years, these programmes have been designed to cater to the country's need for education, training, and general awareness among the rural poor. Among them few efforts shall be discussed in the following categories. These are: **Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE, 1975-76):** This one year project was primarily undertaken to develop special development programmes through the satellite communication to six rural clusters, which included a total of 2330 villages of 20 districts spread over six states—Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Gujarat. Its objectives were:

1. Improve the rural primary education.
2. Provide training to teachers.
3. Improve agriculture, health, hygiene, and nutritional practices and
4. Contribute to family planning and national integration.

The success of SITE can be judged from the fact that, after the completion of the project evaluation studies showed that exposure to developmental messages through television had contributed to the widening of horizon of the villagers.

Kheda Communication Project (KCP, (1975-89): SITE demonstrated that the centralization, inherent in the technology of direct broadcasting, was a limitation, hence the idea of 'limited rebroadcast' was conceived, giving birth to the KCP. This project was launched in 1975. 607 community television sets have been installed in 443 villages of Kheda district of Gujarat. Doordarshan and space application centre produces programme for one hour every day. The programmes mainly concentrate on and discussed the problem of the poorer classes. Evaluation of Kheda project revealed that women in particular gained knowledge from TV viewing. The serials generated self-confidence, realization of equality etc. Educational Television (ETV): Education is a vital instrument of social transformation and important input in development effort. The Indian National Satellite (INSAT) is being used to provide Educational TV (ETV), services for primary school children in six states. University Grants Commission (UGC) is using this for its countrywide classroom programme on higher education (college sector). INSAT is also used by the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) for distance education programmes and Doordarshan for Science Channel programmes. To meet the needs of development ISRO has taken up the 'TeleEducation'

by launching EDUSAT, a satellite totally dedicated to the nation's need for education. EDUSAT strengthens education efforts by augmenting curriculum based teaching, providing effective teachers' training, and community participation. The networks are capable of facilitating live lectures/power point presentations with student interaction, web based learning, interactive training, virtual laboratory, video conferencing, data/video broadcast, database access for reference material/library/recorded lectures etc., on line examination and admissions, distribution of administrative information, etc.

**NEW MEDIA** as a medium of Development Communication: New media or computers started creeping in the Indian Society around 1986. The actual transition in India happened after 1996 when several independent media houses brought out news website. Today,

new media has become an active tool in the run to development communication. This takes various forms like E-Governance, E-Choupal, Telecentres etc.

### **Check your progress - 3**

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

5. Write the meaning of Site ?

6. Write the use of mass media in Communication?

**E-GOVERNANCE:** In simple terms, electronic governance is the delivery of public services and information at the doorstep of the people with the help of computers. Citizens can use the Information Community Technology (ICT) as administrative tools to pave the way for a silent, social change. E-governance can play the role of a catalyst for sustainable inclusive growth. E-governance uses the ICT for planning, implementation, and monitoring of government programmes. Through e-governance, government can carry out effective Management Information System (MIS) and get real time information and reports of activities at the Block level. The Karnataka government's Bhoomi project has led to the computerisation of the centuries-old system of handwritten land records in the rural area. E-medicine, through use of new media, can reach quality healthcare in a remote village. A Kolkata-based hospital leverages e-governance for tropical medicine. The hospital employs telemedicine to assist doctors in rural areas. This method does away with patients having to travel all the way to Kolkata, from remote villages, for treatment. A villager gets the benefit of being treated by both a local doctor and a specialist in the state capital.

**E-CHOUPAL:** Traditionally, choupal is known as the central gathering place in the village, a kind of rural forum, where people discuss, debate and decide on their course of action about some burning issues in the community. E-choupals in the digital age share information through the Internet while retaining their pristine, democratic character. The Internet has started revolutionising the way Indian farmers do business. The system constitutes an Internet enabled kiosk in a village, manned by a villager. He is familiar with computers and known as the choupal sanchalak (one who conducts the forum). The sanchalak acts as the interface between the computer and the farmer. Farmers can use the kiosks to check the current market prices of agricultural commodities, access market data better farming practices. Initially apprehensive, farmers have slowly but steadily familiarised themselves with the new system. New Media's interactivity and easy access have made it a commendable medium for development communication.

## 10.7 TRADITIONAL LOCAL FOLK MEDIA

In the first two units of the block, we had described the origin and development of the mass media the Press, Radio, Television and Cinema. As distinguished from these modern media, in this unit we shall dwell on the traditional folk media, which are deep-rooted in our culture and have been with us naturally for ages. We shall explain the nature of these folk media, enumerate the different types and suggest methods for increasing their efficiency. After this, in the concluding unit of this block, we shall move on to the latest communication technologies of computer, mobile & In India satellite and the like. These are aptly called the "New Communication Technologies".

### TRADITIONAL FOLK MEDIA: WHAT ARE THEY?

"Traditional Folk Media" is a term used to denote "people's performances". It describes folk dance, rural drama and musical variety of the village people. This term speaks of those performing arts which are cultural symbols of a people. These performing arts pulsate with life and slowly change through the flux of time. During the past five decades they have been increasingly recognized as viable tools to impart even development messages, both as live performances as also in a form integrated with electronic mass media. They have rightly come to be called "Traditional Folk Media" for communication. For millions of people living in remote areas in developing countries, to whom information is to be quickly imparted, mass media channels of sound and sight do hold a glamour but often enough they mask the message. Therefore, a premium is now being put on traditional folk performances which were once considered mere. Museum pieces. Traditional folk media have been consciously persuaded to come out of their shell to give a personal touch to the otherwise impersonal mass media programmes. Behavioral changes are most easily brought about by personal interaction. And traditional folk media are personal forms of communication, of entertainment. These forms of art are a part of the way of life of a community and provide acceptable means of bringing development issues into the community on its own terms. Traditional folk media are playing a meaningful role in the affairs of developing countries in Asia and Africa. As a much loved body of interpreters of indigenous culture, they have proved to be highly influential with the rural masses. For policy makers and administrators, they are matchless as persuasive means of communication. For mass media personnel they are an inexhaustible treasure of colorful forms and meaningful themes.

### ROLE OF TRADITIONAL FOLK MEDIA IN COMMUNICATING MODERN THEMES

India is a treasure-house of people's performing arts. There is a tremendous wealth and variety in traditional folk media of India. Conventionally the traditional folk performances have been theme-carriers, usually carrying themes of morality. They have served as

"night schools"? in rural areas. Among the rural performances the "flexible" ones like the puppet and katha-kirtan have shown their capacity to absorb any modern message, and reflect it in terms that are easily understood by the village masses. Several song types have handled vital contemporary themes like the green revolution, scientific temperament, eradication of illiteracy and superstition, family welfare, health and sanitation. The rural drama, with its stock characters, has also come across modern messages, without, in any way hurting the community's

Traditional culture. When handled with care and consideration, the sensitive folk media have proved themselves to be meaningful and effective tools of communication for development. During the past four or five decades, they have slowly acquired a functional dimension without losing their cultural roots.

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### 10.8 LET US SUM UP

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In this unit we have discussed Communication and Rural Development, starting from meaning, scope, channels and stages of communication. Also classified interpersonal and group communication, mass communication. Further theories and models of communication. Discussed about the satellite in support of developmental and educational programmes in modern times and uses of Mass Media communication in Rural Development.

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### 10.9 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

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1. Write the meaning of Communication?
2. Write the Scope of Communication?.
3. Write the meaning of Coding and Decoding?
4. Write the Models of the Communication?.
5. Write the meaning of SITE?
6. Write the use of mass media in Communication?

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### 10.11 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. Communication is what you and I do and for that matter, everyone does every day. When I speak to you or you speak to me, it is communication. When I write to you, I am communicating with you. Suppose I want to call a person who is not within hearing distance, I wave my hand.
2. Scope of communication means the normal functioning area of this subject. Since communication is essential in every sphere of human life, its scope is wide and pervasive. From cradle to grave, human beings are somehow engaged in communication. No one can pass even a day without communication. In the following a brief discussion on scope of communication is given...
3. **Encoding** – Encoding is the process where the information you would like to communicate gets transferred into a form to be sent and decoded by the receiver. The ability to deliver the message clearly as well as be able to discard any confusing or

potentially offensive themes such as cultural issues, or missing information is imperative in this stage.

**Decoding** – Decoding is on the receiving end of communication. This stage is just as important as encoding. Communication can go downhill at this stage if the receiver is not practicing active listening skills or if they do not possess enough information to accurately decode the message.

4. Three models of communication: (1) ;Linear model; (2) Interactive model ; (3) Transactional model
5. SITE was the largest communication experiment in the use of satellite in support of developmental and educational programmes in modern times. The main impetus for the SITE project came from Prof. V. A. Sarabhai. In 1969, India and USA started an experiment called SIET by means of Satellite-based Education Applications Technology Satellite (ATS-6). On May 30, 1974, the Satellite was launched from Cape Carnival in USA. The telecast via this satellite began in India from August 1, 1975.
6. NEW MEDIA as a medium of Development Communication: New media or computers started creeping in the Indian Society around 1986. The actual transition in India happened after 1996 when several independent media houses brought out news website. Today, new media has become an active tool in the run to development communication. This takes various forms like E-Governance, E-Choupal, Telecentres etc.

## 10.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

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# UNIT-XI COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

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Community Participation

NOTES

## Structure

- 11.1. Introduction
  - 11.2. Objectives
  - 11.3. Community Participation
    - 11.3.1 Meaning of Community Participation
    - 11.3.2 Elements Community Participation
    - 11.3.3 Principles and obstacles in Community Participation
  - 11.4. Participatory Communication
    - 11.4.1 Concept and Methods of Participatory Communication
    - 11.4.2 Use of Communication for Community Participation
  - 11.5 Participatory Communication for Rural Development
  - 11.6 Let Us Sum Up
  - 11.7 Unit- End- Exercises
  - 11.8 Answer to check your Progress
  - 11.9 Suggested Readings
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## 11.1 INTRODUCTION

While planning and developing rural development programmes, the government or a voluntary agency may follow different approaches. You have seen that very often government schemes and programmes are prepared at the state capital and are handed down to district and block level for implementation, following the same schematic pattern. Such programmes usually end up by remaining government activities as the beneficiaries themselves are neither involved nor have access to planning/decision making processes and systems. There is little scope for flexibility to make changes in response to local needs. We see today passive dependence on government initiatives and the implementation of programme according to the government's perception of what is good and necessary for the community. The people, for whom these programmes are meant, participate only as beneficiaries. In this unit we shall discuss how to develop a rural development programme that is community based. First, we shall analyse the meaning of a community based programme. Secondly, we shall learn how to plan a community based programme followed by a brief analysis on the techniques in working with the community.

## 11.2 OBJECTIVES

This unit aims at familiarizing you with the process and methods involved in developing programmes and projects that are community based. After reading this unit you will be able to :

- ❖ Outline the concept of community based programmes;
  - ❖ Indicate the steps involved in identifying community needs;
  - ❖ State the process of identifying beneficiaries and resources; and
  - ❖ Describe the principles of working with communities.
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## 11.3 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

### 11.3.1 Meaning of Community Participation

Hansen et al (2003) supported this, identifying that the overall objective of community participation is twofold in that it is a mechanism to empower and facilitate an improvement in the lives of the world's poor people. Kelly

*Self-Instructional Material*

(2001:15) did not clearly identify the importance of community decision-making but does identify the crucial role of power in decision-making:

‘participation is a range of processes through which local communities are involved and play a role in issues which affect them. The extent to which power is shared in decision-making varies according to type of participation’.

Numerous other definitions of participation can be found in the literature for example (Bamberger 1988; van Asselt Marjolein and Rijkens-Klomp 2002; Warner 1997 ). The key finding for Fals-Borda (1991) is that participation is a real and endogenous experience of and for the common people, that reduces the differences between experts and community and between mental and manual labor. O’Neill and Colebatch (1989) identified that participation is real when participants are able to determine their outcomes (cited in (Sarkissian, Walsh et al. 1997) page 17).

The most common misinterpretation occurs when people fail to understand the difference between participation and consultation (Coakes 1999). Sarkissian, Walsh et al (1997: 17) made the distinction: ‘community participation indicates an active role for the community, leading to significant control over decision’ while consultation is taken to mean ‘sharing of information but not necessarily power’. Often the terms participation and consultation are used interchangeably, particularly in Australia (Sarkissian, Walsh et al. 1997). Coakes (1999:1) provided an example when she used the term consultation inappropriately stating that ‘consultation is about involving the public in decision making in a structured and rigorous way’.

It is clear that there is confusion surrounding the definition of participation and that what is needed is a more baggage-free, or more easily understood term or terminology. Terminology that would replace participation is ‘collective action’ or ‘collective governance’, as these terms emphasizes the power relationships and the need for equity which defines genuine participation in the development literature (Kelly 2001). ‘Good governance’ is another possibility although it is considered to be too broad a term to be of immediate operational relevance in its totality. ‘Participatory governance’ adopts a narrower perspective that is more useful in development situations (Schneider 1999).

### **11.3.2 ELEMENTS COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION**

Communities are defined by the people who live and work within the buildings and occupy the streets, each defining the unique fabric of the neighborhood. One of the founding philosophies at Rebuild by Design is that the community members are the experts who should have agency over the development of their communities. Embedding that philosophy in each of our projects ensures the development of sustainable relationships between community members, design teams and government. Since the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) announced the funding of seven projects in the Hurricane Sandy region in June 2014, state and city governments have studied, tested and refined each project in preparation for implementation. In that time, governments with the help of designers, engineers, architects, planners, specialists and other experts have used various techniques to engage the community and successfully prepare the Sandy region for a changing climate. Rebuild by Design continues to follow the progress of the funded projects and has observed many creative

and innovative community engagement strategies. The success of the seven funded projects depends largely on the degree, quality and continuation of community collaboration. This document captures and synthesizes Rebuild by Design's observations of community engagement, highlighting the best practices among the seven projects as they are implemented.

As project teams continue to engage their communities, these best practices can inspire project teams to effectively engage communities and develop innovative projects with sustainable results.

### **11.3.3 PRINCIPLES AND OBSTACLES IN COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION**

Community participation is seen by some as a way for stakeholders to influence development by contributing to project design, influencing public choices, and holding public institutions accountable for the goods and services they provide. Some view participation as the direct engagement of affected populations in the project cycle—assessment, design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation—in a variety of forms. Still others consider participation an operating philosophy that puts affected populations at the heart of humanitarian and development activities as social actors with insights, competencies, energy, and ideas of their own. Community engagement has numerous benefits and is critical in every stage of post-disaster recovery and reconstruction. This chapter encourages agencies involved in reconstruction to offer affected communities a range of options for involvement in reconstruction. It addresses the organization of affected communities and participation by individuals, communities, and community-based organizations (CBOs).

- ❖ Reconstruction begins at the community level. A good reconstruction strategy engages communities and helps people work together to rebuild their housing, their lives, and their livelihoods.
- ❖ Community-based approaches require a somewhat different programming flow that begins with mobilizing social groups and communities and having the community conduct its own assessment.
- ❖ A very strong commitment and leadership from the top are needed to implement a bottom-up approach, because pressure is strong in an emergency to provide rapid, top-town, autocratic solutions.
- ❖ “The community” is not a monolith, but a complex organism with many alliances and subgroups. The community needs to be engaged in order to identify concerns, goals, and abilities, but there may not be consensus on these items.
- ❖ The scale at which community engagement is most effective may be quite small, for example, as few as 10 families.
- ❖ Engagement of the community may bring out different preferences and expectations, so agencies involved in reconstruction must be open to altering their preconceived vision of the reconstruction process.
- ❖ Numerous methods exist for community participation, but they need to be adapted to the context, and nearly all require facilitation and other forms of support.

- ❖ Transparency and effective communication are essential to maintaining engagement and credibility with the community and within the community during the reconstruction process.
- ❖ The reconstruction approach may affect the type and level of direct participation in reconstruction.

### **Risks and Challenges**

- ❖ Government forgoing genuine participation, due to political and social pressures to show that the reconstruction process is advancing.
- ❖ Lack of support by the community for the reconstruction project because of limited involvement of stakeholders, particularly the affected community, in planning and design.
- ❖ Failing to understand the complexity of community involvement and believing that “the community” is a unified, organized body.
- ❖ Ignoring how the community is already organized when introducing participatory activities.
- ❖ Underestimating the time and cost of genuine participatory processes.
- ❖ Conducting poorly organized opinion surveys and believing that the responses to those surveys are representative of the community.
- ❖ Failing to find or develop facilitators and trainers who understand and believe in the community-based approach.
- ❖ Rejecting established models of community organization—or alternatively blindly adopting models from other countries or contexts—without evaluating how they should or could be adapted to the specific conditions of the locality in question.
- ❖ Thinking that all community organizations are democratic and representative, or forgetting that they have their own agendas.
- ❖ Confusing the role of national NGOs with that of genuine CBOs.
- ❖ Agencies believing that they are being participatory by establishing a relationship with one specific local organization or spokesperson.

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## **11.4. PARTICIPATORY COMMUNICATION**

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Participatory communication has been defined as “a dynamic, interactional, and transformative process of dialogue between people, groups, and institutions that enables people, both individually and collectively, to realize their full potential and be engaged in their own welfare” (Singhal, 2003). Participatory communication initiatives create opportunities for people to articulate their views, identify common concerns, and seek solutions from within their community. The teachings of Paulo Freire, the Brazilian educator and activist, had a major influence on the development of the participatory model. According to Freire, the process of raising questions and engaging in dialogue sparks “critical consciousness,” which enables the shift from reflection to action (Freire, 1970). Since participatory communication emerged in the 1960s, non-governmental organizations and community-based groups have led the way in practice and innovation.

### **Key elements of participatory communication include:**

- ❖ Identification and prioritization of needs, goals, measures of change, and desired outcomes by community members

- ❖ A focus on “horizontal” interactions, such as dialogue and exchange (versus “top-down” or “vertical” activities)
- ❖ An emphasis on self-representation to promote collective well-being
- ❖ A focus on collaborative processes rather than on “products”
- ❖ A focus on identifying solutions and positive models of change from within the community, rather than applying examples from outside
- ❖ Explicit integration of social empowerment and capacity-building goals
- ❖ Recurring cycles of reflection and action

### 11.4.1 CONCEPT AND METHODS OF PARTICIPATORY COMMUNICATION

Stakeholders often have very different visions and definitions of participation in development. Therefore, for development practitioners to be clear on their conceptual approach to participation, No consensus exists around a common definition of participation: it varies depending on the perspective applied. Some stakeholders define participation as the mobilization of people to eliminate unjust hierarchies of knowledge, power, and economic distribution. Others define it as the reach and inclusion of inputs by relevant groups in the design and implementation of a development project. These examples represent two of the main approaches to participation: a social movement perspective and a project based or institutional perspective. These perspectives share a common understanding of participation as the involvement of ordinary people in a development process leading to change. Their scope and methods, however, can differ.

#### **Six phases of planning**

Communication planning for development is a logical process guided by a systematic and rational framework. This framework could be developed through situation-specific data gathered using participatory research techniques

#### **Preliminary situation assessment**

Situation assessment could be done most effectively in a participatory manner through PRCA or participatory rural communication appraisal. Three kinds of analysis are done in PRCA: audience analysis, programme analysis, and situation analysis. Audience analysis Audience analysis is essentially "listening" to what potential users of information need. They are the ones whom the communication program intends to reach. Users of information are also referred to as stakeholders of a communication program. Collecting baseline information about these stakeholders is an essential preliminary step towards developing a communication strategy. Segmentation, or dividing large groups of stakeholders into smaller groups, helps achieve focus in communication strategy development. Segmentation is usually done in two ways:

- ❖ Conventional segmentation according to socio-economic status (income, education, age, sex, etc.), place of residence (urban-rural), and language/ethnic group

- ❖ Innovative segmentation based on behaviour, needs, and values and lifestyles.
- ❖ Situation analysis: In doing situation analysis, planners look at both the possible problem to be addressed by the communication program and the conditions surrounding such problem.

What are the factors which cause a gap between the existing and desired behavior of stakeholders? Is the problem due to the stakeholders' lack of awareness or knowledge of the nature of the problem? Or is it attitudinal in nature? Could the gap be due to their lack of skills to carry out certain practices? Situation analysis likewise includes assessing the communication resources in the area which could be tapped for the communication program. Knowledge of the area's mass and small media, as well as interpersonal means of communication, should contribute substantially to strategy development. Programme analysis When doing program analysis, program planners need to take both an inward and an outward look at the situation that is, looking at the organization's own vision, policies, resources, strengths, and weaknesses relevant to the problem. Are there adequate resources to realize this vision? How well are program managers using available resources? At the same time, it is important to scan the environment for existing programs that could affect, positively or negatively, the communication strategy to be developed.

### **Methods of participation**

Participation can be used as a goal or as a tool for specific projects. The four categories below refer to different levels of participation and communication:

#### **Passive participation**

The stakeholders of a project essentially act as "empty vessels" and receive information. Feedback is minimal if at all and participation is assessed through methods such as head counts.

#### **Participation by consultation**

Researchers or "experts" pose questions to the stakeholders. Input can be provided at different points in time but the final analysis and decision-making power lies in the hands of the external professionals whom may or may not take the stakeholders' decisions into consideration.

#### **Participation by collaboration**

Groups of primary stakeholders are formed in order to participate in discussion and analysis. Objectives are predetermined. This method incorporates components of horizontal communication and capacity building among all stakeholders.

#### **Empowerment participation**

Primary stakeholders are capable and willing to become involved in the process and take part in decision-making. Outsiders are equal partners, but the stakeholders make the final decisions as ownership and control of the process rests in their hands. Knowledge exchange leads to solutions.

### **Minga Peru case study**

Minga Peru is a non-profit organization formed to address issues of "social justice, gender equality, reproductive health, and human rights". Minga has targeted the northern Loreto region for its development of "communicative spaces" which hope to spark debate and participation from

the community. In order to achieve these goals they have produced a radio program, started a community empowerment and leadership program and supported income generating activities.

These activities are community-based approaches as evidenced by editorial letters being sent to the radio program, use of youth correspondents which provides the community with access to and voice within the broadcast, and emphasis on social networking which has resulted in stronger social cohesion. The most prominent outcomes in the empowerment of women through self-confidence. Women are better able to develop professional and social networks and have improved capacity to handle health challenge

### **Check your progress - 1**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

1. Write the meaning of Community participation?

2. Write the concept of Passive participation?

## **11.4.2 USE OF COMMUNICATION FOR COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION**

We have discussed the need to go beyond transmitting messages or information and persuading people. The role of the researcher or development practitioner in using communication does not consist in transmitting or disseminating messages, but in facilitating participation in local development. The success of communication activities is closely linked to the perception of the researcher or development practitioner's role as facilitating that process of community participation. If you see your role as conceiving and disseminating messages, you will no longer be of help to community groups in identifying development problems and implementing action. Similarly, you must be careful not to substitute yourself, often unsuccessfully, for the competent local technical resources; instead you must facilitate their collaboration and participation in the development initiative identified. As well, you must learn to involve community groups more closely in the communication strategy, and help them take ownership of the initiative rather than seeing themselves as beneficiaries of a research or development intervention. To facilitate this participation, the researcher or development practitioner must be prepared to assume several different functions:

- ❖ Facilitate dialogue and the exchange of ideas among different groups and specific individuals: this presupposes a sound understanding of the local setting.
- ❖ Encourage thinking about local development problems and possible solutions or about a common goal to achieve the desired results: this presupposes a thorough understanding of the subject, or enlisting people who have such an understanding.
- ❖ Support the identification and realization of a concrete set of actions for experimenting or implementing the solutions identified or for achieving an identified development goal: by facilitating the different groups involved in those actions to share their views.

- ❖ Support efforts at awareness-building, motivation, learning and implementing the development action: by using communication strategies appropriate to each group of participants.
- ❖ Ensure the effective circulation of information among different participants: by using communication tools and channels appropriate to the groups involved.
- ❖ Support decision-making: by facilitating consensus among different categories of players.
- ❖ Develop local collaboration and partnerships by establishing alliances with local resource persons and agencies and serving as a conduit between the groups and these partners.
- ❖ Monitor the development initiative: by ensuring that actions taken are followed and evaluated.
- ❖ Make sure that the authorities or resource agencies in a position to assist the development action are aware of local viewpoints and needs.

### **11.5 PARTICIPATORY COMMUNICATION FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

Rural development concerns usually focus on determining what rural people need in order to move up the socio-economic ladder. Most interventions revolve around investments and technologies that would improve livelihood, and the inputs necessary to put these technologies into use. While these are considered necessary conditions to help bring about development, they are not necessarily sufficient to sustain the desired progress.

Development efforts in recent years have started to focus on other equally important factors such as human capacity and access to relevant information, knowledge and services. Documented experiences and lessons from the field have in fact indicated that development tends to fail for two basic reasons (Mefalopolus, 2008):

- ❖ lack of participation
- ❖ ineffective communication

This has increasingly drawn attention from purely technological aspects to the institutional and social gaps that can affect rural development, such as (Leeuwis and Hall, 2010):

- ❖ lack of information and knowledge about correct technologies and practices for managing the fragile natural environment;
- ❖ unresolved social and political conflicts that prevent communities from working together to address communal needs and interests;
- ❖ far-flung and isolated rural communities with no access to information that could help them prepare for any eventuality;
- ❖ poor skills or capacity of rural actors to undertake development initiatives on their own;
- ❖ weak capacity of local institutions to respond to local needs;
- ❖ lack of physical and social infrastructures support at the local level that would enable to enhance human and social capital.

In all the above, it is clear that the element of good communication becomes part of the solution. Responding to these challenges requires a combination of immediate, medium and long-term measures directed towards:

- ❖ strengthening rural knowledge institutions;

- ❖ Improving knowledge and information sharing among the variety of rural actors and stakeholders (national agricultural research and extension systems, educational institutions, private service providers, grassroots organizations, NGOs, etc.);
- ❖ Encouraging people's participation to promote concerted action.

Rural development involves participatory innovation and social learning. For innovation, it makes use of small-scale, low-cost and simple technologies made possible by whatever resources local communities have. For social learning, stakeholders engage in processing lessons gained from experience and share these among themselves as a basis for improving practices. Building local capacity therefore begins with the identification of local talents, good practices and know how within rural communities. This requires multi-stakeholder participation and dialogic communication. People's empowerment, both as a means and an end, lies at the heart of this approach to rural development where information, knowledge and communication are to be considered strategic assets.

### **Check your progress - 2**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

3. What are the institutional gaps that can develop the RD?

4. What is the Rural Development and Participatory Innovations?

## **11.6 LET US SUM UP**

In this unit we have discussed Community Participation in details meaning, Elements, base, Principles and obstacles in Community Participation and also document the participatory Communication, concept and methods use of communication for community participation and participatory communication for Rural Development.

## **11.7 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

1. Write the meaning of Community participation?
2. Write the concept of Passive participation?
3. What are the institutional gaps that can develop the RD?
4. What is the Rural Development and Participatory Innovations?

## **11.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

1. Hansen et al (2003) supported this, identifying that the overall objective of community participation is twofold in that it is a mechanism to empower and facilitate an improvement in the lives of the world's poor people. Kelly (2001:15) did not clearly identify the importance of community decision-making but does identify the crucial role of power in decision-making:
2. **Passive participation :** The stakeholders of a project essentially act as "empty vessels" and receive information. Feedback is minimal if at all and participation is assessed through methods such as head counts.

3. This has increasingly drawn attention from purely technological aspects to the institutional and social gaps that can affect rural development, such as (Leeuwis and Hall, 2010):
4. Rural development involves participatory innovation and social learning. For innovation, it makes use of small-scale, low-cost and simple technologies made possible by whatever resources local communities have. For social learning, stakeholders engage in processing lessons gained from experience and share these among themselves as a basis for improving practices. Building local capacity therefore begins with the identification of local talents, good practices and know how within rural communities. lack of information and knowledge about correct technologies and practices for managing the fragile natural environment.

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### 11.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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# UNIT XII RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

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## Structure

- 12.1. Introduction
  - 12.2. Objectives
  - 12.3. Rural Development Programme
    - 12.3.1 Drought prone Area Programme (DADP)
    - 12.3.2 Hill area Development Programme (HADP)
    - 12.3.3 Tribal Area Development Programme (TADP)
    - 12.3.4 Command Area Development Programme (CADP)
    - 12.3.5 Desert Development Programme (DDP)
    - 12.3.6 Watershed Development Programme (WDP)
    - 12.3.7 Intensive Agriculture Area Programme (IAAP)
  - 12.4. High yield variety Programme
  - 12.5 Hariyali
  - 12.6 MP's Area Development Programme
  - 12.7 MLA's Area Development Programme
  - 12.8 Let Us Sum Up
  - 12.9 Unit- End- Exercises
  - 12.10 Answer to check your Progress
  - 12.11 Suggested Readings
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## 12.1 INTRODUCTION

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Rural development has been one of the important objectives of planning in India since Independence. Intervention of the Government in rural development is considered necessary in view of the fact that a sizeable population continues to reside in rural areas despite growing urbanization. It is also required, as the market forces are not always able to improve the welfare of the rural masses because of certain structural rigidities and institutional deficiencies existing in these areas. As a result, there is a danger of large sections of the rural population to remain outside the ambit of market driven growth processes. To enable the poorer sections of the rural population to participate more effectively in the economic activities has, therefore, remained the prime objective of Indian planning and the basic underlying theme of rural development programmes. This unit aims to familiarize you with the various approaches to rural development in the post-Independence phase. We will cover the evolution of various programmes and schemes from the 1st Five Year Plan to the 10th Five Year Plan (1951-2007), in order to understand how these have been changed/modified over time to respond to the emerging needs and situations.

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## 12.2 OBJECTIVES

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After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- ❖ Describe the different approaches to rural development as they have evolved over time;
- ❖ Explain the form, content and important features of the major rural development schemes introduced during the last 5 decades;
- ❖ Critically comment on the rationale for and the context in which they were formulated;
- ❖ Identify the strengths and the weaknesses of each programme; and

- ❖ Outline the emerging challenges and draw your own conclusions regarding the possible appropriate approaches

## **12. 3 RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME**

### **12.3.1 DROUGHT PRONE AREA PROGRAMME (DADP)**

Sizable proportion of the total land area of the country falls under arid, semi-arid or/and dry sub-humid categories and is either subject to desertification or identified as drought prone dependent on dry land agriculture. A drought is a long period of dry weather caused by a shortfall in the usual rainfall in a given time period of more than a certain percentage, usually 50% in the sowing season. A drought prone area is characterized by continuous degradation of land, depleting water resources, decreasing productivity of crops, livestock and human resources, hunger and malnutrition and out-migration of both human and cattle populations in times of distress. Most of our arid land mass falls in the desert category and due to very low rainfall, low productivity and extreme climatic conditions is also subject to frequent droughts. For the overall development of land, water and other natural resources, there are many programmes under implementation in our country. In this unit, we are going to discuss two of these important area development programmes, namely the Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP) and the Desert Development Programme (DDP).

#### **AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF DPAP AND DDP**

The DPAP and the DDP aim at restoring the ecological balance through soil and moisture conservation measures on watershed basis. In the present framework, these 'area development programmes' aim at involving village communities more meaningfully in planning, implementation and the management of the economic development activities within watershed projects in rural areas through the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs).

#### **The objectives of DPAP and DDP are:**

- i) Developing wastelands/degraded lands, drought-prone and desert areas on watershed basis, keeping in view the capability of land, site-conditions and local needs.
- ii) Promoting the overall economic development and improving the socio-economic conditions of the resource poor and disadvantaged sections of the society.
- iii) Mitigating the adverse effects of extreme climatic conditions such as drought and desertification on crops and human and livestock populations for the overall improvement.
- iv) Restoring ecological balance by harnessing, conserving and developing natural resource base, i.e. land, water and vegetative cover.
- v) Encouraging village the community for active participation in the planning and implementation of developmental projects and the sustainable maintenance of the assets created through their collective wisdom and indigenous technology.

#### **NEED FOR DPAP**

The first systematic effort to tackle the problem of drought and desertification started during the Second and the Third Five Year Plans. The problem of drought-affected areas was mainly addressed through Dry Farming projects, spread over a few areas, with emphasis on moisture and water conservation measures.

The origin of DPAP may be traced to the Rural Works Programme (RWP) that was launched in 1970-71 to create assets designed to reduce the severity of drought in the affected areas. For this, the programme entailed long-term strategy in the context of conditions and the potential of the drought prone districts. RWP identified 54 districts, along with parts of another 18 districts contiguous thereto, as drought prone for its purposes. The programme initiated labour-intensive schemes, viz. medium and minor irrigation, road construction, soil conservation, and afforestation measures, which then covered 12% of the country's population and about 20% of geographical area.

The mid-term appraisal of the Fourth Five Year Plan re-designated the RWP as the Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP) launched in 1973-74 to tackle the special problems faced by those areas that were constantly affected by severe drought conditions.

### **12.3.2 HILL AREA DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (HADP)**

The mountain ranges and hill areas of India have a crucial role to play in determining the climate and physiography of the country and are prime determinants of socio-economic development of plain areas as the rivers have their genesis here and the protection and climatic control they provide have enabled India to sustain its position as an economic power. Keeping in view the increasing population pressure in the hill areas and the need to preserve their fragile ecology, the Central Government has been allocating Special Central Assistance to these areas through the Hill Areas Development Programme/Western Ghats Development Programme which have been in operation from the Fifth Five Year Plan in designated hill areas. Under these programmes, Special Central Assistance is given to designated hill areas in order to supplement the efforts of the State Governments in the development of these ecologically fragile areas. Areas under HADP were identified in 1965 by a Committee of the National Development Council (NDC) while WGD areas were recommended in 1972 by the High Level Committee set up for the purpose.

#### **Designated Hill areas included:**

- a) Two hill districts of Assam-North Cachar and Karbi Anglong.
- b) Eight hill districts of Uttar Pradesh – Dehradun, Pauri Garhwal, Tehri
- c) Garhwal, Chamoli, Uttar Kashi, Nainital, Almora and Pithoragarh
- d) Major part of Darjeeling District of West Bengal.
- e) Nilgiris District of Tamil Nadu.
- f) One hundred and thirty two talukas of WGD comprising of Western
- g) Ghats in Maharashtra (51 talukas), Karnataka (28 talukas) Tamil Nadu (23 talukas), Kerala (27 talukas) and Goa (3 talukas).

Consequent on the creation of the State of Uttaranchal and its categorization as a Special Category State, the Hill Areas Development Programme is no longer in operation in the erstwhile hill districts of Uttar Pradesh Further, the Western Ghats Development Programme is currently being implemented in 171 talukas of Western Ghats viz. Maharashtra (63 taluka), Karnataka (40 talukas), Kerala (32 talukas), Tamil Nadu (33 talukas) and Goa (3 talukas) as some of the original talukas have been sub-divided.

## NOTES

The approach and strategy of the programme have evolved through the Plans. The programmes implemented during the Fifth Plan period were mainly beneficiary oriented. During the Sixth Plan, though the emphasis shifted to ecodevelopment, the general tenor of HADP remained substantially the same as that of normal State Plan following the same sectoral approach. The Seventh Plan laid particular emphasis on the development of ecology and environment, namely eco-restoration, eco-preservation and eco-development. The aim was to evolve plans and programmes which would stimulate socio-economic growth, development of infrastructure and promotion of ecology of the areas covered by HADP. During the Eighth Plan, the approach was substantially the same as that in the Seventh Plan with special focus on involvement of the people and meeting their basic needs through improved management of their land and water resources. The measures outlined towards this end include (i) an energy policy which would reduce pressure on forests and provide alternate sources of energy, (ii) afforestation of denuded forest land with species which can provide both fuel and fodder, (iii) provision of adequate and safe drinking water by development of gravitational sources of water, (iv) emphasis on improvement of health facilities including infrastructural facilities in primary health institutions, (v) development of skilled manpower, (vi) evolving a proper land use pattern keeping the socio-economic and ecological parameters in view, (vii) development of horticulture and plantation crops, (viii) improvement of livestock, (ix) development of industries such as electronics which do not pollute the atmosphere and lead to high value addition, (x) development of network of transport and communication facilities with emphasis on feeder paths and roads; 3 and (xi) evolution of appropriate technology and scientific inputs which would suit local conditions and harness local resources. In the Ninth Plan, the main objectives of the Programme were ecopreservation and eco-restoration. All development schemes were to be planned within this framework with emphasis on preservation of bio-diversity and rejuvenation of the hill ecology. Traditional practices were to be dovetailed with appropriate technology to serve the needs of the people of these areas. Traditional knowledge was to be used as the starting point for introduction of modern science and technology. Schemes were to be rooted in the existing cultural system so that they were easily acceptable and would provide maximum benefit to the people. The strategy for the programme has been centred on the sub-plan approach under which a separate Sub-plan for the hill areas in the concerned State was prepared indicating the flow of funds from the State Plan and Special Central Assistance (SCA) so that convergence could be achieved and duplication avoided. Thus the State Governments prepare a sub-plan showing the flow of funds from different sources. Funding under HADP is used somewhat on the lines of a mini State Plan i.e. the Special Central Assistance is used to fund critical gaps in diverse sectors. During the Tenth Plan, for the hill areas of Assam and West Bengal the multi- sectoral approach followed in the previous plans has continued but with increasing emphasis on watershed development and ecological restoration/preservation.

### Issues and Recommendations

These programmes were initiated during the Fifth Five Year Plan and therefore a fresh look is required into the need for further continuation

of these programmes. The Task Group came to the conclusion that the programme needs to be continued with renewed vigour backed by a substantial increase in the allocation based on the following: (i) The need for preserving the fragile ecology of the hill areas has to be underlined so that not only do the people of the hills benefit, the detrimental impact of unsustainable use of resources of the hills particularly land and forests, is mitigated. Traditionally, people living in the hill areas adapted themselves to the physiographic and climatic conditions through responses such as terracing, etc. However, in recent years the intensification of resource use and weakening of traditional adaptations have led to unsustainable use of local resources. One of the ways to reverse this process is to have a special programme which not only provides additional resources but also sends a signal that the people of hill areas need special treatment as they are responsible for conserving and preserving the hill areas for posterity. (ii) The evaluation studies which have been carried out to assess the efficacy of these programmes have shown that while it is not possible to isolate the impact of this programme, the outcomes of these programmes are visible in the form of increase in the level of the water table, preservation of forest area, increase in income, etc. An evaluation of the Western Ghats Development.

### **12.3.3 TRIBAL AREA DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (TADP)**

Tribal communities have been geographically, ecologically and culturally linked to forest habitats. In India, there are several local communities who depend on forest for primary or supplementary nutrition, ethno medical practices, energy and various other life supporting needs. Communities have been affected by restrictions to forest access under protection laws. Most often, these laws draw their validation from a western perception of nature, very unlike the reciprocal relationship perceived by these communities. Most forest-dependent local communities in India are either marginally settled cultivators or shifting cultivators supplement their nutritional sources with some hunting and gathering. A few communities depend almost exclusively on hunting and gathering from forests. Large tracts of forest are essential to their survival strategies.

#### **Programmes for Tribal Development**

The tribal majority areas in the country are broadly divided into three categories, viz.

1. Predominantly tribal states / union territories,
2. Scheduled area, and
3. Non-Schedule areas in the states.

All the tribal-majority States and Union Territories are placed in a special category for availing funds. Tine development and administration of tribal areas is accepted as a special responsibility of the central government even though they are integral parts of the concerned states. Several programmes and schemes have been divided into two categories, viz.

- a) Central sector programmes which are fully financed by the central government, and
- b) The centrally sponsored programs which are partly financed by the central government and rest of the expenditure meted out by the concerned State government.

The statuses of tribal's, special programmes were launched, during 1980's mainly:

- a) The Asset Programme, and
- b) The Employment Programme.

The Asset Programme aims at the overall integrated development of rural life through the removal of poverty and unemployment in rural areas. In this programme, productive assets are directly given to the poor. It is believed that income generated from these productive assets would not only be sufficient to repay the bank loans but will help the assisted families to cross the 'poverty line'. This programme is popularly known as Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP).

The Employment Generation Programmes, on the other hand, aim at providing employment through public works during the adverse agricultural season. The employment programme asserts that poverty persists because of the lack of employment opportunities. The earlier employment schemes were ad hoc in nature but the employment programme launched from 1980 onwards became popularly known as National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) and considered as permanent plan programme.

A number of employment-oriented and developmental programmes for tribals have been introduced by the government of India. In all the major programmes of country emphasis has always been laid on tribals among other weaker and backward sections of the society. These include Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), Jawahar Rosgar Yojana (.TRY), Prime Ministers Rosgar Yojana (PMRY) and Training of Rural Youth For Self -Employment (TRYSEM). IRDP scheme is absolutely for rural people those belonging to below poverty line and other programmes are for both rural as well as urban youth. All these schemes are implemented in the state by District Rural Development Agencies (DRDA's) in collaboration with Commercial and Co-operative Banks.

#### **12.3.4 COMMAND AREA DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (CADP)**

The low productivity of canal irrigated lands has been traditionally ascribed to poor water management in command areas. Among the more important factors that have been held responsible are inadequacies in water delivery and drainage systems at the micro level, the failure of level and reshape all the fields situated within the command of an individual outlet in conformity with the demands of flow irrigation and, above all, unreliable supplies of water at times and in the quantities required by the crops. Although these deficiencies are sought to be removed by the Command Area Development Programme. Yet this has still to get off the ground. In this unit, we to introduce you to the genesis of CAD, and its functions, state and central government contribution, achievements made, weaknesses, CAD Programmes in India, and Future strategy adopted improvement, and training needs of beneficiaries i.e. farmers and engineers.

### **FUNCTIONS**

The programme envisages execution of 'on-farm' development works. Warabandi or rotational system of water distribution is undertaken with a view to

ensuring equitable and timely supply of irrigation water. However, one of the main objectives under CAD Programme is to raise irrigation utilization to the level of created potential. The main functions of the Command Area Development Programme in the Irrigation Projects are:

1. Modernization and efficient operation of the irrigation system as well as development of main drainage system,
2. Construction of field channels and field drains,
3. Land shaping and land leveling along with consolidation of holdings,
4. Lining of field channels water courses,
5. Exploitation of ground-water, installation of tube wells etc.,
6. Adoption and enforcement of a suitable cropping pattern,
7. Enforcement of an appropriate roistering system on irrigation,
8. Making timely and adequate supply of inputs like fertilizers, pesticides, improved seeds, credit etc., and
9. Strengthening of existing extension training.

### Check your progress - 1

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. Write the Objectives of DPAP and DDP?

2. What are the objectives and Functions of TADP?

### STATE AND CENTRAL GOVERNMENT CONTRIBUTION

It now includes around 155 irrigation projects covering a culturable command area of about 19 m.ha. In 20 States and 2 Union Territories implemented through 54 CADAs. A massive investment in the Central and State Sectors have been made amounting to around Rs. 2600 crores from inception to the end of Seventh Plan, in which the contribution of Government of India alone is around Rs. 900 crores. In addition, investments through Institutional finance have also contributed significantly towards taking up various activities under this programme. From a capacity utilization of around 70% at the end of the Fifth Plan, it has risen to a maximum of around 77% in 1986-87 and came down to 73% in 1987-88 which was, however, a severe drought year. The productivity though has shown considerable improvement in selected projects such as Girna in Maharashtra, Sharda S.ahayak in U.P. Lower Bhawani Tamilnadu, 13VC in West Bengal etc. in terms of improvement in .annual average growth rate for crops such as paddy, wheat, sugarcane etc. Nevertheless the increase has been far from satisfactory.

### 12.3.5 DESERT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (DDP)

The desert areas of the country had remained backward in many respects due to difficult physiography varying agro-climatic conditions and distinct socio cultural features. Since the people living in these areas were facing hardships owing to geo-climatic conditions, the desert development programme was introduced as a centrally sponsored scheme in 1977-78. This is a special programme for the hot desert areas; the Desert Development Programme (DDP) was launched by the Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India during the year 1977-78. In Haryana, this programme has been launched by the Ministry of Rural Development,

## NOTES

Government of India during the year 1995-96. The Centre share under the funding pattern under DDP is 75 per cent and State share is 25 per cent (till 1998-99 100 per cent share of Centre for hot arid sandy areas). This programme is implemented in 45 blocks of the 7 districts that are Bhiwani, Hisar, Fatehabad, Sirsa, Rewari, Jhajjar and Mahendergarh. Now this scheme is completed in Haryana 31 Dec, 2012 (HRDD, 2014). and watershed development projects going under the Integrated Watershed Management Programme (IWMP). The activities being taken up for the districts are need based keeping in the view of the conditions of the area to be covered. Generally water conservation work, stock ponds, water channels, gully plugging, percolation embankment, field bunding, afforestation, check dams, pasture development, land levelling, piped water supply for irrigation etc. The main objectives of watershed development projects are developing wasteland/degraded lands, drought prone and desert areas; promoting overall economic development and improving socio-economic condition of the resource poor and disadvantage sections; mitigate the adverse affects of the extreme climate conditions such as drought and desertification of crops; harvesting every drop of rain water for the purpose of irrigation, plantations, fisheries, pasture development etc; resorting ecological balance by harnessing, conserving and developing natural resources i.e. land, water, vegetative cover; encouraging village community toward sustained community action for operation and maintenance of the assets created and further development of the potential of the natural resources in the Watershed.

The recommendations of the National Commission on Agriculture, in its Interim Report (1974), the *hot desert areas* were identified for the implementation of a programme comprising afforestation and livestock development. As for the *cold desert areas* of Jammu & Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh, the National Commission (in its Final Report, 1976) recommended that their specific problems of should be studied in depth.

The above recommendations lead to the Desert Development Programme (DDP) in the year 1977-78. DDP programme was implemented on sectoral basis to develop poor areas in the long-term. It was launched in both the hot-desert areas of Rajasthan, Gujarat and Haryana, and the cold-desert areas of Jammu & Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh. Till 1994-95, DPAP and DDP were implemented in the *programme states* in a segmented and isolated manner and watershed as a unit of *area development* was completely lost sight of. The sectoral autonomy leading to over-centralization of the process of making decisions, giving sanctions and administrative control completely diluted the Integrated Watershed Development as the key to the restoration of ecological balance. Investments under these programmes as well as those for other drought-desert mitigation measures were liberally used for sectoral activities, such as soil conservation, minor irrigation, ground water exploitation, social forestry, sericulture, horticulture, etc. without paying any attention to the integration and comprehensive development of land and water resources. Within each sector, separate allocations were made for each activity to be undertaken in the programme area. Isolated implementation of wide ranging sectoral activities over widely disjointed areas of very small sizes failed to bring about any noticeable impact and the programme objectives were remained unfulfilled.

## Objectives

The basic object of the programme is to minimize the adverse effect of drought and control desertification through rejuvenation of natural resource base of the identified desert areas. The programme strives to achieve ecological balance in the long run. The programme also aims at promoting overall economic development and improving the socio-economic conditions of the resource poor and disadvantaged sections inhabiting the programme areas.

## Coverage

Upto 1994-95, Desert Development Programme was under implementation in 131 blocks of 21 districts in 5 States. The Hanumantha Rao Committee recommended:-

- Inclusion of 32 new blocks; and
- Transfer of 64 blocks from DPAP to DDP.

Inclusion of new blocks and transfer of blocks from DPAP to DDP was agreed to. Thus, from 1995-96 total blocks covered under DDP became 227 in 40 districts of 7 States. Subsequently, with the re-organization of Districts and Blocks, the programme is now covered in 235 blocks of 40 districts in 7 States. The corresponding physical area under the programme is about 4.57 lakh sq. kms.

## 12.3.6 WATERSHED DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (WDP)

Watershed is a geo-hydrological unit of an area draining to a common outlet point. It is recognized as an ideal unit for planning & development of land water and vegetation resources. According to 1999-2000 statistics a net sown area of 141.23 million hectare is under cultivation, out of which 84.58 million hectare is rainfed area.

Watershed Development as a means for increasing agricultural production in rainfed, semi-arid areas. There are nearly 85 million hectares of land as rainfed area in the country. These areas were bypassed by the Green Revolution and so experienced little or no growth in agricultural production for several decades. By capturing the Water Resources Management and improving the management of soil and vegetation, Watershed Development aims to create conditions conducive to higher agricultural productivity while conserving natural resources.

## Objectives

- a) To mitigate the adverse effects of drought on crops and livestock.
- b) To control desertification.
- c) To encourage restoration of ecological balance and
- d) To promote economic development of village community.

Water shed development originally managed by national wasteland development board under Ministry of Environment and forest .It is now placed under Ministry of Rural Development and Department of Land Resources. The main objective of this programme for development of waste lands in non-forest areas, checking of land degradation, putting such waste land into sustainable use and increasing bio mass, availability of fuel wood, fodder and restoration ecology etc. .Thus concept of watershed development is a integrated nurture with multi disciplinary activities in the area. At present Ministry of Rural Development and Department of Land Resources, Government of India funding watershed development programmes under D.P.A.P., D.D.P., and Integrated Wasteland

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Development Plan (I.W.D.P.) etc. This programme is intended to be taken up in rain-fed and drought-prone areas especially predominated by SC/ST population and preponderance of wasteland. There are six major projects/programmes in watershed development programme namely,

- ❖ National Watershed Development Project for Rainfed Areas (NWDPA)
- ❖ Watershed Development in Shifting Cultivation Areas (WDSCA)
- ❖ Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP)
- ❖ Desert Development Programme (DDP)
- ❖ Integrated Wasteland Development Project (IWDP)
- ❖ Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS)

These six projects/ programmes also account for about 70 percent of funds and area under watershed programmes in the country.

Through various watershed development programmes, about 30 million ha. of land has so far been developed at an expenditure of Rs.9343 crores, including external funding upto the end of IX Five Year Plan. During X Five Year Plan about 11.4 million ha. is proposed to be developed at an outlay of Rs.7440 crore. Besides, an area of 1.24 million ha. is likely to be treated under watershed programmes at a cost of Rs.1872 crore through ongoing externally aided projects.

### **Implementing Agency**

The watershed programme is being carried out in desert, drought prone and rain fed areas. DRDA/Zilla Parishad selects the villages for development of watershed projects. Project implementation agency is also selected by DRDA / Zilla Parishad. Besides, DRDA / Zilla Parishad, there are other institutions through which this programme is being implemented like agricultural universities, research institutions, government undertakings, non-governmental organizations etc.

### **Beneficiaries**

- i) Local resident inside the of the watershed area.
- ii) Poor families specially SC/ST persons in rain-fed areas where economic condition of the people is relatively less due to problems of less production, scanty rain and degradation of land.
- iii) Members of SHG and UGs.
- iv) Usufruct right given to landless persons out of common resource management.

watershed development programme is peoples centered programme and peoples participation in the programme has been made mandatory. The people have to form a watershed association and watershed committee for each watershed project. Watershed association, comprising all adults residing within a watershed project area. The committee is responsible for planning and development of watershed project for its area while developing the plan for the area, the committee has to take technical assistance from project implementation agency. Besides, the beneficiaries of the programme have to give voluntary donations / provide contribution in terms of labour, raw material, cash etc. for development activities and for operation and maintenance of assets created.

### **Information available**

About this programme, the detailed information is available with DRDA / Zilla Parishad and Agricultural Department at District level and Panchayat Samiti at block level.

## **Funding Agency**

The Ministry of Rural Areas and Employment, Government of India, funds watershed development schemes under Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP), Desert Development Programme (DDP) and Integrated Watershed Development Programme (IWDP). 50 per cent of funds under the intensified Jowhar Rozgar Yojana (IJRY) and 50 per cent of Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS) are given for watershed development projects. Adding the state governments contribution under these centrally sponsored schemes it is expected that substantial funds would be available for watershed development projects. The funds are being made available at the rate of 4000 per hectare for the development of the area.

## **Activities Undertaken**

The activities undertaken in these programmes include soil and moisture conservation measures like construction of check dams, water harvesting structures, desilting of village ponds, treatment of drainage lines/ gullies, land levelling, bunding of farms, treatment of problem soils, agro-forestry, agri-horticulture, silvi-pasture, organic farming, use of bio-fertilizers, value addition and marketing of produce through farmers groups, training & Capacity Building of stakeholders.

## **Land Treatment**

### **(a) Soil and Moisture Conservation:**

Land leveling, graded binding, contour bonding, vegetative bonding, contour cultivation, drainage line treatment, gullies stabilization, gully plugging, percolation tanks and farm ponds.

### **(b) Afforestation:**

Tree plantation in degraded forests, Panchayat lands, community lands, private lands etc.

### **(c) Pasture Development:**

In village community lands, pasture lands with suitable grass and fodder species.

## **Production Activities**

### **Cropping Pattern**

- ❖ Introduction of suitable crops, improved crop varieties, inter-cropping, contour cultivation and crop management practices;
- ❖ Sericulture;
- ❖ Horticulture;
- ❖ Live stock development fodder cultivation, milch cattle distribution, establishment of milk co-operatives
- ❖ Integration of other activities such as sheep rearing, fisheries, piggery, poultry, bee-keeping etc.

## **Employment Generation Activities**

- ❖ Creating more employment through land based and productive activities;
- ❖ Raising backyard nurseries;
- ❖ Wage earning through community assets creation such as community buildings, village roads etc.
- ❖ Cottage industries based on bamboo, wood craft, cane craft etc.

## **Role of Panchayats**

**Planning:** The Panchayats can extend their organizational help in providing adequate information about the local resources and the

## NOTES

requirement of the people of proper planning of watershed programme for the area to project implementing agency.

**Implementation:** With practical solutions and helping the agency in smooth implementation of the project in the area, Panchayats can put their influence over beneficiaries to remain present in their respective fields at the time of land treatment activities. This will help the beneficiaries in the follow-up activity in maintaining the assets created and developing their lands with future prospects.

Local Panchayats, as per the terms and conditions should transfer the land and other common properties resources to the agency in advance for timely implementation of the conceived development programme. With regard to afforestation and pasture development activity in community lands, Panchayats can help the agency in selecting the species, of their choice for plantation and pasture development.

**Formation of Watershed Committee:** Panchayat should take the responsibility for assisting in constituting user / beneficiary committee in the watershed for their direct participation in the execution of the project.

**Maintenance and Protection of Assets Created:** the Panchayat should shoulder the responsibility of the assets created in the watershed area, such as gully structures, check dams, community forestry and pasture lands, Panchayat can adapt a well defined system on lines of Joint Forest Management.

### **Watershed Programmes**

#### **Ministry of Agriculture**

National Watershed Development Project for Rainfed Areas (NWDPA) was launched during 1990-91 (VII Five Year Plan) on pilot basis. In the VIII Five Year Plan, the NWDPA was extended to 25 States and 2 Union Territories (Andaman & Nicobar Islands and Dadar & Nagar Haveli). Up to the end of the X Plan, an area of nearly 9 m ha was expected to be treated under NWDPA. Keeping in view, the importance and the urgency of development of rainfed areas, the Ministry of Agriculture, Govt. of India has set a target of nearly 45 m ha under watershed related programmes over a period of 10 years starting from the first year of the XI Plan as against the initial target of XI Plan was 30 m ha. The average unit cost of watershed treatment for less than 8% slope is Rs. 4,500 per ha and for higher than 8% slope is Rs. 6,000 per ha

A "Common Approach for Watershed Development" was jointly formulated and adopted by the Ministry of Agriculture (MoA) and the Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD), Government of India, incorporating the strength of their earlier first generation-based watershed programmes. These guidelines have been developed for implementing the NWDPA of the Ministry of Agriculture. The restructured NWDPA provides for decentralization of procedures, flexibility in choice of technology and active involvement of the watershed community in planning, execution and evaluation of sustainable watershed programmes.

#### **Externally Aided Projects for Watershed Based Development**

The Ministry of Agriculture is also undertaking the externally aided watershed development projects for the development of degraded and rainfed areas with special emphasis on components like natural resource management, livestock, infrastructure and institutional development etc.

Under the externally aided projects, an area of 1.81 m ha was covered till the end of the X Plan.

### **Ministry of Rural Development**

Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP) funded by the Central Govt. was launched in 1973-74 to tackle the special problems of areas affected by severe drought conditions. At present, the programme is being implemented in 972 blocks of 182 districts in 16 states. At the end of 2005-06, 12.3 m ha rainfed area has been treated (5.7 m ha since inception to 1995-2006 and 6.6 m ha between 1995-96 and 2005-06).

The Ministry of Rural Development is also servicing externally aided watershed projects for the development of degraded and wasteland areas. These programmes' lay special emphasis on components like natural resource management, livestock development, infrastructure and institutional development etc. Under the above projects, an area of 0.50 m ha was proposed to be covered till the end of the X Plan.

### **Watershed Based Programmes with Planning Commission**

The Planning Commission of India has taken the Hill Areas Development Programme (HADP) and Western Ghats Development Programme (WGDP) from the V Plan onwards.

### **Watershed Programmes Implemented by NABARD**

Watershed Development Fund (WDF) has been established at NABARD with a total corpus of Rs.200 crore which included Rs.100 crore by NABARD and a matching contribution of Rs.1 00 crore by the Department of Agriculture & Cooperation, Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India.

### **12.3.7 INTENSIVE AGRICULTURE AREA PROGRAMME (IAAP)**

Even with the short coming of IADP, the spectacular results in improved crop yield obtained in IADP, prompted the Government to think of extending the benefits of improved technology in agriculture in large areas over the country at less cost and with reduced staff strength. This resulted in launching of the INTENSIVE AGRICULTURAL AREA PROGRAMMES (IAAP) in 1964. This was similar to but a less intensive extension programme in comparison to that of the IADP. 114 districts were selected in the year 1964 and later extended to 150 districts.

#### **Achievements**

- ✓ Achieved increased production by exploiting the land resources.
- ✓ Package approach were covered in 1410 communities blocks spread over 114 districts in India. In Karnataka 57 C.D. Blocks spread over 14 districts were covered.
- ✓ Increased production by 20-25 per cent of the cultivated area was achieved.
- ✓ Effective coordination between officials and nonofficial was achieved.
- ✓ Multiplication of improved seeds and its distribution to all cultivated areas was possible.

#### **Objectives**

- ❖ The objective of the IAAP was to extend the concept of IADP to other potential areas to cover at least 20-25% of the cultivated area in the country.

- ❖ This programme was recommended by the third Five Year Plan midterm appraisal committee.
- ❖ The main criteria for selection of districts was based on areas having predominant crops and well developed infrastructure facilities
- ❖ One hundred and fifty districts including fourteen districts of Karnataka were covered under these programmes.

#### 12.4. HIGH YIELD VARIETY PROGRAMME

The Green Revolution in India refers to a period when Indian agriculture was converted into an industrial system due to the adoption of modern methods and technology such as the use of high yielding variety (HYV) seeds, tractors, irrigation facilities, pesticides, and fertilizers. It was mainly found by M.S. Swaminathan. This was part of the larger Green revolution endeavor initiated by Norman Borlaug, which leveraged agricultural research and technology to increase agricultural productivity in the developing world.

The Green Revolution within India commenced in the early 1960s that led to an increase in food grain production, especially in Punjab, Haryana, and Uttar Pradesh. Major milestones in this undertaking were the development of high-yielding varieties of wheat, and rust resistant strains of wheat. However, agricultural scientists like M.S. Swaminathan and social scientists like Vandana Shiva are of the opinion that it caused greater long term sociological and financial problems for the people of Punjab and Haryana.

The main development was higher-yielding varieties of wheat, for developing rust resistant strains of wheat. The introduction of high-yielding varieties (HYV) of seeds and the increased quality of fertilizers and irrigation technique led to the increase in production to make the country self-sufficient in food grains, thus improving agriculture in India. The methods adopted included the use of high-yielding varieties (HYVs) of seeds with modern farming methods.

#### Check your progress - 2

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

3. Write the Objectives of DDP?

4. What are the objectives and Functions of WDP?

The production of wheat has produced the best results in fueling self-sufficiency of India. Along with high-yielding seeds and irrigation facilities, the enthusiasm of farmers mobilized the idea of agricultural revolution. Due to the rise in use of chemical pesticides and fertilizers, there was a negative effect on the soil and the land (e.g., land degradation).

Marginal farmers found it very difficult to get finance and credit at economical rates from the government and banks and hence, fell as easy prey to the money lenders. They took loans from landlords, who charged

high rates of interests and also exploited the farmers later on to work in their fields to repay the loans (farm labourers). Proper financing was not given during the Green Revolution period, which created a lot of problems and sufferings to the farmers of India. Government also helped those under loans.

Due to traditional agricultural practices, low productivity, and a growing population, often food grains were imported — draining scarce foreign reserves. It was thought that with the increased production due to the Green Revolution, the government could maintain buffer stock and India could achieve self-sufficiency and self-reliability.

Agriculture was basically for subsistence and, therefore, less agricultural product was offered for sale in the market. Hence, the need was felt to encourage the farmers to increase their production and offer a greater portion of their products for sale in the market. The new methods in agriculture increased the yield of rice and wheat, which reduced India's dependence on food imports.

### **Impact of the Green Revolution**

- **Increase in Agricultural Production:** Food grains in India saw a great rise in output. It was a remarkable increase. The biggest beneficiary of the plan was the Wheat Grain. The production of wheat increased to 55 million tonnes in 1990 from just 11 million tonnes in 1960.
- **Increase in per Acre Yield:** Not only did the Green Revolution increase the total agricultural output, it also increased the per hectare yield. In case of wheat, the per hectare yield increased from 850 kg/hectare to an incredible 2281 kg/hectare by 1990.
- **Less Dependence on Imports:** After the green revolution, India was finally on its way to self-sufficiency. There was now enough production for the population and to build a stock in case of emergencies. We did not need to import grains or depend on other countries for our food supply. In fact, India was able to start exporting its agricultural produce.
- **Employment:** It was feared that commercial farming would leave a lot of the labour force jobless. But on the other hand, we saw a rise in rural employment. This is because the supporting industries created employment opportunities. Irrigation, transportation, food processing, marketing all created new jobs for the workforce.
- **A Benefit to the Farmers:** The Green Revolution majorly benefited the farmers. Their income saw a significant raise. Not only were they surviving, they were prospering. It enabled them to shift to commercial farming from only sustenance farming.

### **Features of the Green Revolution**

- The introduction of the HYV seeds for the first time in Indian agriculture. These seeds had more success with the wheat crop and were highly effective in regions that had proper irrigation. So the first stage of the Green Revolution was focused on states with better infra – like Punjab and Tamil Nadu.
- During the second phase, the HYV seeds were given to several other states. And other crops than wheat were also included into the plan

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- One basic requirement for the HYV seeds is proper irrigation. Crops from HYV seeds need alternating amounts of water supply during its growth. So the farms cannot depend on monsoons. The Green Revolution vastly improved the inland irrigation systems around farms in India.
- The emphasis of the plan was mostly on food grains such as wheat and rice. Cash crops and commercial crops like cotton, jute, oilseeds etc were not a part of the plan
- Increased availability and use of fertilizers to enhance the productivity of the farms
- Use of pesticides and weedicides to reduce any loss or damage to the crops
- And finally the introduction of technology and machinery like tractors, harvesters, drills etc. This helped immensely to promote commercial farming in the country.

### **Yellow Revolution**

India's oilseeds output in 2008-09 were estimated to be 28.16 million tonnes, which is quite deficient as the demand stood at 45.46 million tonnes. The output in 2009-10 is projected to fall due to deficient monsoon this year. It has stood at 25 million tonnes since 1998-99. Oilseeds production accounts for 7.4 per cent of the global production and is considered as the fourth-largest edible oil country in the world.

The earlier policy allowing free import of oilseeds was detrimental to the interests of oilseeds growing farmers and a set-back on development of oilseeds for achieving self-sufficiency. As a result, the country remained dependent on imported edible oils. There has been a significant increase in imports of crude palm oil from Malaysia and Indonesia.

The 'yellow revolution' in oilseeds owes its earlier success to a spectacular increase in output to 24.75 million tonnes in 1998-99 from 10.83 million tonnes in 1985-86. But thereafter, we have not been able to achieve self-sufficiency in oilseeds. Current production is not enough to meet the needs of cooking oils of our growing population.

The annual demand has risen to over 125 lac tonnes whereas, production is hardly around 75 lac tonnes. The shortage is met by imports every year from Argentina, Brazil, Malaysia and Indonesia. Annual oilseeds imports, which account for about five million tonnes, cost Rs. 15,873.6 crores in 2008-09 from Rs. 10,942.54 crores in 2007-08. It is estimated that the demand in 2020 may touch 20.8 million tonnes, requiring a production of 60 million tonnes of oilseeds, and that the per capita oil consumption may rise to 16 kg annually.

### **Consumption of Yellow Revolution**

Edible oil is an important constituent of the Indian diet. Besides being a source of energy, they add a special flavour and palatability to food. The annual per capita consumption is 11.1 kg against the world average of 14.5 kg and the average of 26 kg in developed countries. Edible oil consumption is likely to increase with rising of per capita income.

However, the daily in-take of fat should not contribute more than 15-20 per cent calories. There is potential to produce about 25 lac tonnes of oil from non-conventional sources, but hardly about eight lac tonnes are being utilized. It is important to work out a strategy to exploit maximum potential from these sources.

## 12.5 HARIYALI

The Ministry of Rural Development has issued this scheme for Watershed Projects. We know many times rain water and other water resources get wasted without its proper use. Therefore Haiyali sceme is initiated to make proper use of these resources in rural areas. To make livelihood better and to promote irrigation, fishiculture and other farming activities.

### Objective:

1. Harvesting every drop of rainwater for purposes of irrigation, plantations including horticulture and floriculture, pasture development, fisheries etc.
2. Overall development of rural areas through the Gram Panchayats and creating regular sources of income for the Panchayats from rainwater harvesting and management.
3. Employment generation, poverty alleviation, community empowerment and development of human and other economic resources of the rural areas.
4. Mitigating the adverse effects of extreme climatic conditions such as drought and desertification on crops, human and livestock population for the overall improvement of rural areas.
5. Restoring ecological balance by harnessing, conserving and developing natural resources i.e. land, water, vegetative cover especially plantations.
6. Encouraging village community towards sustained community action for the operation.
7. Promoting use of simple, easy and affordable technological solutions and institutional arrangements.

### Eligibility:

- ❖ All states in India
- ❖ Criteria for selection of watershed projects-
- ❖ Watershed areas having acute shortage of drinking water.
- ❖ Watersheds having large population of scheduled castes/scheduled tribes dependent on it.
- ❖ Watershed having a preponderance of non-forest wastelands/degraded lands.

### Benefits:

- ❖ The Central Government will provide funds to concerned department for sanction of project.
- ❖ The funding pattern will be Rs.6000 per hectare.
- ❖ Fisheries Development in village ponds/tanks, farm ponds etc.
- ❖ Afforestation including block plantations, agro-forestry and horticultural development, shelterbelt plantations, sand dune stabilization etc.
- ❖ Promotion and propagation of non-conventional energy saving devices, energy conservation measures, bio fuel plantations etc.

## NOTES

## 12.6 MP'S AREA DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Members of Parliament Local Area Development Scheme (MPLADS) is a scheme formulated by Government of India on 23 December 1993 that enables the members of parliaments (MP) to recommend developmental work in their constituencies with an emphasis on creating durable community assets based on locally felt needs. Initially, this scheme was administered by Ministry of Rural Development. Later, in October 1994, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation (MOSPI) has been looking into its working. Elected Members of Rajya Sabha representing the whole of the State as they do may select works for implementation in one or more district(s) as they may choose. Nominated Members of the Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha may also select works for implementation in one or more districts, anywhere in the country. MPs can also recommend work of upto Rs. 25 lakhs per year outside their constituency or state of election to promote national unity, harmony and fraternity. MPs can recommend work of upto 25 lakh for Natural Calamity in the state and upto Rs. 1 crore in the country in case of Calamity of Severe Nature (e.g. Tsunami, major cyclones and earthquakes). A State level nodal department is chosen, which is responsible for supervision and monitoring and maintaining coordination with line departments. District authorities (DAs) sanction the work recommended by MPs; sanction funds; identify implementation agency and user agency, implement the work on ground, transfer assets to user agency, and report back to ministry about status of MPLADS in the district.

Each MP is allocated Rs. 15 crore per year since 2011-12 which has been increased from Rs. 5 lakh in 1993-94 and Rs. 2 crore in 1998-99. MoSPI disburses funds to district authorities, not directly to MPs. This annual entitlement is released conditionally in two instalments of Rs. 2.5 crore each. Funds are non-lapsable in nature i.e. in case of non-release of fund in a particular year it is carried forward to the next year. MPs need to recommend work worth at least 15% and 7.5% of their funds to create assets in areas inhabited by Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) respectively. Funds for MPLADS can be converged with Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS) for creating more durable assets and with National Program for Development of Sports (Khelo India).

Infrastructure development on land belonging to registered societies/ trusts is permissible, provided the society/trust is engaged in social welfare activity, and is in existence for three years. No more than Rs. 50 lakh for one or more works in the lifetime of the society/trust can be spent. MPLADS funding is not permissible for those societies where the concerned MP and his/ her family members are office bearers. For societies or charitable homes which look after deprived segments of the society, the relaxed grant is Rs. 1 crore.

"As on 2nd July 2018, 47572.75 crores have been released by G.O.I. since 1993 of which 94.99% have been utilized under the scheme. Presently close to 4,000 crores are disbursed annually for MPLADS scheme".

Top-5 states with highest utilisation-to-released fund ratio are Telangana (101.42%), Sikkim (100.89%), Chhattisgarh (99.6%), Kerala

(99.3%) and West Bengal (98.65%). The Bottom-5 states are Uttarakhand (87.22%), Tripura (88.46%), Jharkhand (88.93%), Rajasthan (90.16%) and Odisha (90.54%). Top Union Territories (UT) with highest utilisation-to-released fund ratio are Lakshadweep (111.68%), Andaman & Nicobar Islands (105.68%) and Delhi (104.1%).

For the current year 2017-2018, majority spending of MPLADS funds happened in two sectors: 'railways, roads, pathways and bridges' (43%) and 'Other public activities' (23%). Education, health, water and sanitation sectors received less funding.

### **Type of recommended work:**

Works which will serve greater public purpose and not purpose of few individuals need to be recommended. MPs can only recommend, but District Authorities have the ultimate power to sanction it.

### **Key priority sectors:**

Drinking water facility, education, electricity facility, non-conventional energy resources, healthcare and sanitation, irrigation facilities, railways, roads, pathways and bridges, sports, agriculture and allied activities, self-help group development, urban development.

### **Works not permitted:**

construction of office and residential buildings for public and private agencies, land acquisition or paying compensation, naming assets after individuals, grants or loans to state/central relief fund, assets for individual benefits, works on lands belonging to religious groups, execution of works in unauthorized colonies.

### **Other works permitted:**

construction of railway halt station, providing CCTV camera in strategic locations, installation of bio-digesters at stations, schools, hospitals, provision for fixed weighing scale machines for farmers, installation of rainwater harvesting systems in public spaces, construction of shelters for skill development.

Since start there have been reports of malpractices in running the scheme and there have been demands to scrap it. In 2006, a scandal was exposed by a TV Channel that showed MPs taking bribe for handing over project work under the MPLADS. A seven - member committee was set up to probe the matter.

### **Some new guidelines for MPLADS were announced by MOSPI :-**

Projects implemented by government agencies would now be provided 75 per cent of the project cost as the first instalment, while those implemented by non-governmental agencies would be provided 60 per cent.

For smaller projects costing less than ₹2 lakh (US\$2,900), the entire amount would be released at one go.

No project costing less than ₹1 lakh (US\$1,400) would be sanctioned with exception in the case of essential projects, such as installation of hand pumps, and purchase of computers and their accessories, solar electric lamps, chaupals and equipments .

The basket of works that could be taken up under the scheme had been widened to include projects such as the purchase of books for libraries, and ambulances and hearse vans that would be owned and controlled by district authorities.

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The purchase of Microsoft Office software along with the training of two teachers per school would be now allowed as part of an effort to promote computer literacy in the country.

Guidelines are given to maintain transparency of work done:

1. A plaque should be permanently erected at the work place mentioning MP's name, year, cost involved etc.
2. List of complete and ongoing works under MPLADS should be displayed at District Authority office and MPLADS website ([www.mplads.gov.in](http://www.mplads.gov.in)).
3. Citizens can file RTI to know about the status of funds and work.
4. Funds utilised should be audited by chartered accountants, local fund auditors, or any statutory auditors as per state/UT Govt. procedure.
5. Review meetings should be held by MoSPI in states and centre regarding fund utilization under MPLADS scheme.
6. Respective district authorities should also review work implementation with the implementation agency every month, or at least once in a quarter.

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### 12.7 MLA's Area Development Programme

The MLACDS is fully funded by the State Government and each MLA identifies and proposes the works to be executed in his Constituency. The Scheme is implemented both in rural and urban areas. The main objective of the Scheme is to identify and implement the essential works to bridge the critical infrastructure gaps in the Assembly Constituencies. The allocation of funds under the Scheme had been increased from Rs.1.75 crore to Rs.2.00 crore per Constituency per annum from 2011-2012 onwards.

The District Collector will accord administrative sanction for the chosen works and will also identify the implementing agency. An amount of Rs.1.125 crore shall be earmarked for priority works, exclusively fixed by the Government and out of the remaining Rs.0.875 crore, the MLAs can choose works of their choice in tune with the guidelines of the scheme.

#### Salient Features

A sum of Rs.1.125 crore shall be earmarked for works prescribed under "Tied Component". In order to provide infrastructure facilities to schools, a sum of Rs.25 lakh per MLA has been earmarked for provision of infrastructure facilities like toilet, water supply, etc., to schools and kitchen sheds which are in dilapidated conditions both in rural and urban areas. Further, each MLA should allot Rs.20 lakh for construction of Anganwadi Buildings, Noon Meal Centres and kitchen sheds in rural as well as urban areas from MLACDS funds. The MLAs should also allot Rs.5 lakh each for aids & appliances for differently abled persons. Out of Rs. 5.00 lakh, a sum of Rs. 2.00 lakh has been allocated for the purchase of scooters with side wheels attached, modernized prosthetic device and behind-the-ear hearing aid. Apart from this, a sum of Rs.10 lakh shall be earmarked for modernization of Anganwadi Kitchen Centres with Gas connection etc., at the rate of Rs.6,050/- per Anganwadi centre as one time expenditure. After taking all the eligible Anganwadi Kitchen Centres in the Constituency, the

remaining funds shall be utilized for modernization of School Kitchen Centres at the rate of Rs. 22,000/- per Centre as one time expenditure as per G.O.(Ms).No. 294 Social Welfare and Nutritious Meal Programme (SW.7) Department dated 11.12.2012. Further, the Hon'ble Finance Minister has announced during his budget speech for the year 2013-14 that the existing Government buildings will be provided with solar installations at a cost of Rs.11.70 crore by earmarking Rs.5.00 lakh out of MLACDS funds for each assembly constituency.

From the remaining amount of Rs.47.50 lakh under Tied Component, the MLA can choose one or more of the following works for any amount according to his or her choice, subject to the overall ceiling of Rs. 47.50 lakh.

#### In Rural Areas

- ❖ Installation of Solar Street Lights
- ❖ Upgradation of Gravel / WBM Roads to BT standard
- ❖ Renewal of badly worn-out BT roads (laying of BT layer only with filling up of potholes, if necessary)
- ❖ Laying of Cement Concrete Roads
- ❖ Provision of buildings and/or compound walls for Government and Local Body Hospitals, Primary Health Centres, Government Veterinary Hospitals and also for Government Schools, Panchayat Union Schools, Adi Dravidar Schools, Kallar Reclamation Schools, Government Colleges and Government Hostels
- ❖ Provision of infrastructural facilities to Government Special Schools for the differently abled and Government Orphanages
- ❖ Construction of Bridges
- ❖ Provision of additional Burial Grounds / Cremation Grounds to the Village Panchayats not having such facilities.
- ❖ Provision of compound wall / fencing in the burial grounds belonging to public Wakfs registered with Wakf Board. Since the Wakf Board does not have any Engineering wing, this work may be entrusted with the Local Bodies concerned.

#### In Urban Areas

- ❖ Installation of Solar Street Lights
- ❖ Upgradation of Gravel / WBM Roads to BT standard
- ❖ Renewal of badly worn-out BT roads (laying of BT layer only with filling up of potholes, if necessary)
- ❖ Laying of Cement Concrete Roads
- ❖ Provision of buildings and/or compound walls for Government and Local Body Hospitals, Primary Health Centres, Government Veterinary Hospitals and also for Government Schools, Panchayat Union Schools, Adi Dravidar Schools, Kallar Reclamation Schools, Government Colleges and Government Hostels.
- ❖ Provision of infrastructural facilities to Government Special schools for the differently abled and Government Orphanages
- ❖ Construction of Bridges
- ❖ Provision of infrastructure facilities to Burial Grounds / Cremation Grounds
- ❖ Provision of Concrete Pavements with storm water drains, if so required
- ❖ Formation of new Public Parks

## NOTES

- ❖ Construction of Public Toilets
- ❖ Purchase of Jetrodding Machines and hydraulically operated sewerage machines
- ❖ Provision of compound wall/fencing in the burial grounds belonging to public Wakfs registered with Wakf Board. Since the Wakf Board does not have any Engineering wing, this work may be entrusted with the Local Bodies concerned.

**Check your progress - 3**

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

5. Write the meaning of Yellow revolution?

6. What are the objectives MP Areas Development programme ?

**12.8 LET US SUM UP**

In this unit we have discussed rural Development programme in detail manner. This unit also documented Drought prone Area Programme (DPAP) and Hilla Area Development Programme (HADP ), Tribal Area Development Programme and also Comman Ara Development Programme (CADP). This unit also aimed to analyse Wasteland Development programme, Desert Development Programme (DDP) and also documented all the Development Programmes very detailed manner.

**12.9 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

1. Write the Objectives of DPAP?
2. Write the meaning of TADP?
3. What are the objectives and Functions of DDP?
4. What are the objectives and Functions of WAD?
5. Write the meaning of Yellow revolution?
6. What are the objectives MP Areas Development programme?

**12.10 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

1. The DPAP and the DDP aim at restoring the ecological balance through soil and moisture conservation measures on watershed basis. In the present framework, these 'area development programmes' aim at involving village communities more meaningfully in planning, implementation and the management of the economic development activities within watershed projects in rural areas through the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs).
2. Tribal communities have been geographically, ecologically and culturally linked to forest habitats. In India, there are several local communities who depend on forest for primary or supplementary nutrition, ethno medical practices, energy and various other life supporting needs. Communities have been affected by restrictions to forest access under protection laws. Most often, these laws draw their validation from a western perception of nature, very unlike the reciprocal relationship perceived by these communities. Most

forest-dependent local communities in India are either marginally settled cultivators or shifting cultivators supplement their nutritional sources with some hunting and gathering. A few communities depend almost exclusively on hunting and gathering from forests. Large tracts of forest are essential to their survival strategies.

3. i) Developing wastelands/degraded lands, drought-prone and desert areas on watershed basis, keeping in view the capability of land, site-conditions and local needs. ii) Promoting the overall economic development and improving the socio-economic conditions of the resource poor and disadvantaged sections of the society.
4. Watershed Development as a means for increasing agricultural production in rain fed, semi-arid areas. There are nearly 85 million hectares of land as rain fed area in the country. These areas were bypassed by the Green Revolution and so experienced little or no growth in agricultural production for several decades. By capturing the Water Resources Management and improving the management of soil and vegetation, Watershed Development aims to create conditions conducive to higher agricultural productivity while conserving natural resources. **Objectives :**
  - a. To mitigate the adverse effects of drought on crops and livestock.
  - b. To control desertification.
5. **Yellow Revolution:** India's oilseeds output in 2008-09 were estimated to be 28.16 million tones, which is quite deficient as the demand stood at 45.46 million tones. The output in 2009-10 is projected to fall due to deficient monsoon this year. It has stood at 25 million tons since 1998-99. Oilseeds production accounts for 7.4 per cent of the global production and is considered as the fourth-largest edible oil country in the world.
6. Members of Parliament Local Area Development Scheme (MPLADS) is a scheme formulated by Government of India on 23 December 1993 that enables the members of parliaments (MP) to recommend developmental work in their constituencies with an emphasis on creating durable community assets based on locally felt needs. Initially, this scheme was administered by Ministry of Rural Development. To encourage restoration of ecological balance and to promote economic development of village community

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## 12.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

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# UNIT-XIII TARGET BASED PROGRAMMES

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Target Based Programmes

NOTES

## Structure

- 13.1. Introduction
- 13.2. Objectives
- 13.3. Target Programmes
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  - 13.3.2 TRYSEM
  - 13.3.3 NREP
  - 13.3.4 RLEGP
  - 13.3.5 JRY
  - 13.3.6 Indira Awaas Yozana
  - 13.3.7 Millions wells scheme
  - 13.3.8 Swarna Jayanthi Grama Swarajgar Yojana (SJGSY)
  - 13.3.9 Employment Assurance Scheme
- 13.4. Employment guaranty legislation
  - 1.4.1 Salient features
- 13.5 Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme.
- 13.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 13.7 Unit- End- Exercises
- 13.8 Answer to check your Progress
- 13.9 Suggested Readings

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## 13.1 INTRODUCTION

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Rural Development in India is one of the most important factors for the growth of the Indian economy. India is primarily an agriculture-based country. Agriculture contributes nearly one-fifth of the gross domestic product in India. In order to increase the growth of agriculture, the Government has planned several programmes pertaining to Rural Development in India. Rural development can be richer and more meaningful only through effective participation of the target-groups of development. People's participation is one of the foremost pre-requisites of development process both from philosophical and procedural perspectives. Therefore, for the rural development it is important that the planners and administration sincerely solicit the participation of different groups of rural people to make the plans truly participatory. People's participation is essential because the policies and programmes have been designed with the aim of alleviation of rural poverty, which has been one of the vital objectives of planned development in India. It has been realized that a sustainable strategy of poverty alleviation has to be based on increasing the productive employment opportunities of the deprived and the marginalized in their growth process itself. In fact, it is elimination of their poverty, ignorance, diseases and inequality of opportunities and providing a better and higher quality of life that formed the basic premise upon which all the plans, strategies and programmed schemes have been prepared. Rural development, thus, aims at improving rural people's livelihoods both socially and environmentally, through better access to assets (natural, physical, human, technological and social capital) and services, and control over productive capital (in its financial or economic and political forms)

*Self-Instructional Material*

that enable them to improve their livelihoods on a sustainable and equitable basis.

## 13.2 OBJECTIVES

Rural development aims at both the economic betterment of people as well as greater social transformation through formulation, development and implementation of programmes relating to various spheres of rural life and activities ranging from income generation to environmental replenishment. In this Unit, we will, therefore, focus on such diverse programmes that have relevance to promotion of rural development. After going through various programmes presented in this Unit, we expect you to be able to:

- ❖ Identify and describe different programmes of rural development;
- ❖ Analyse the possible effects of these programmes on the rural people;
- ❖ Discuss the implications of the programmes for the economic development and quality of life of rural population; and
- ❖ Explore the possibilities for people's participation in advancement of the programmes as well as the target-groups concerned.

## 13.3 TARGETED PROGRAMMES

### Role and Functions of the Government in Rural Development

We know that the Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD) in India is the apex body for formulating policies, regulations and Acts pertaining to the development of the rural sector. Agriculture, handicrafts, fisheries, poultry and dairy are the primary contributors to the rural business and economy. While there have been many programmes and schemes since independence, recent introduction of Bharat Nirman project by the Government of India in collaboration with the State Government and the Panchayat Raj Institutions is a major step towards the improvement of the rural sector. The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act 2005 was introduced by the MoRD for improving the living conditions and its sustenance in the rural sector (<http://www.nistads.res.in/indiasnt20081t6ruraVt6rur3.htm>). As mentioned above, the MoRD is engaged in legislations for the social and economic improvements of the rural populace. Initially the Ministry consisted of three departments, viz. i) Department of Rural Development, ii) Department of Land Resources and iii) department of Drinking Water Supply. Presently there are two departments, viz. Department of Rural Development and Department of Land Resources, as the Department of Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation has been formed into a separate Ministry of Drinking Water and Rural Sanitation on 13.07.2011.

Under the Department of Rural Development, there are three autonomous bodies, viz. Council for Advancement of People's Action and Rural Technology (CAPART), National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD) and National Rural Road Development Agency (NRRDA). Broadly, the objectives of the Ministry are (Chattopadhyay and Baghel, 2009):

- ❖ to encourage, promote and assist voluntary action in implementation of the projects for enhancement of the rural prosperity;

- ❖ to strengthen and promote voluntary efforts in rural development with focus on injecting new technological inputs;
- ❖ to act as the national nodal point for co-ordination of all efforts at generation and dissemination of technologies relevant to rural development in its wide sense; and
- ❖ to assist and promote programmes aimed at conservation of LIC environment and natural resource.

However, various Ministries such as the Ministries of Agriculture, Health and Family Welfare, New and Renewable Energy, Science and Technology, Women and Child Development, and Tribal Affairs, etc. in the central government are engaged directly or indirectly in implementation of many programmes and schemes for the development of rural areas. In addition, to strengthen the grassroots level democracy, the Government is constantly endeavoring to empower Panchayat Raj Institutions in terms of their functions, powers and finance. Gram Sabha, NGOs, Self-Help Groups and PIUS have been accorded adequate roles to make participatory-democracy meaningful and effective.

### **Strategies and Programmes for Rural development: An Overview**

In this section, we present a brief overview of the strategies and programmes of rural development. As we know, the rural economy is an integral part of the overall Indian economy. As majority of the poor reside in the rural areas, the prime goal of rural development is to improve the quality of life of the rural people by alleviating poverty through the instrument of self-employment and wage-employment programmes, by providing community infrastructure facilities such as drinking water, electricity, road connectivity, health facilities, rural housing and education, and by promoting decentralization of powers to strengthen the Panchayat Raj institutions, among others. The various strategies and programmes of the Government for rural development are summed up below.

#### **13.3.1 IRDP (INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME)**

Integrated Rural Development Programme was first introduced in 1978-79, beginning with 2300 administrative blocks. IRDP has provided assurance to the rural poor in the form of subsidy and bank credit for productive employment opportunities through successive plan periods. The target group under IRDP consists of small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers, rural artisans, the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes and socially and economically backward classes having annual income below Rs.11,000 (re-defined as poverty-line for the Eighth Plan). Since the inception of the programme till 1996-97, 50.99 million families have been covered under IRDP at an expenditure of Rs. 11,434.27 crore. The total investment during this period has been Rs.28,047.65 crore which includes a subsidy component of Rs.9,669.97 crore and a credit disbursement of Rs. 18,377.68 crore. Of the total families assisted under this programme, 44.75 per cent were Scheduled Castes / Scheduled Tribes and 27.07 per cent were women.

In quantitative numbers, 10.82 million families were covered under IRDP against the initial target of 12.6 million families fixed for the entire Eighth Plan period. However, from 1995-96 physical targeting under the programme was abolished with the focus shifting to financial targets and qualitative parameters. Of the families covered during this Plan, 50.06 per

cent were Scheduled Castes Scheduled Tribes and 33.59 per cent women. The coverage of women was still lower than the target of 40 per cent

IRDP is a centrally-sponsored scheme with funds shared on 5050 bases between the Centre and the States. In case of union territories, cent per cent funds are provided by the Central Government. The IRDP has been successful in providing incremental income to the poor families, but in most cases the incremental income has not been adequate to enable the beneficiaries to cross the poverty line on a sustained basis mainly because of a low per family investment. As per the results of the Concurrent Evaluation (September 1992 -August 1993), of the total beneficiaries assisted under the programme, 15.96 per cent of the old beneficiary families could cross the revised poverty line of Rs. 11,000 (at 1991-92 prices), while 54.4 per cent of the families were able to cross the old poverty line of Rs. 6,400 per annum.

But, the analysis by income group of families revealed that in case of those within initial income of Rs.8501-11,000,48.22% of beneficiary families could cross the poverty line of Rs. 11,000, which is quite encouraging. The analysis of the family income of the beneficiaries reveals that a large percentage (57.34%) of the families had annual family income from assets of more than Rs.2,000. The annual income from the assets was more than Rs.6,000 in 29% cases (Bid).

Subsequently, the following programmes were introduced as sub-programmes of IRDP to take care of the specific needs of the rural population.

- ❖ Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM),
- ❖ Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWACRA),
- ❖ Supply of Improved Tool-kits to Rural Artisans (SITRA), and
- ❖ Ganga Kalyan Yojana (GKY).
- ❖ We describe these programmes in brief below.

### **13.3.2 TRYSEM (TRAINING OF RURAL YOUTH FOR SELF-EMPLOYMENT)**

TRYSEM was launched as centrally-sponsored schemes on 15 August 1979. It aims at providing basic technical and managerial skills to rural youth in the age-group of 18- 35 years from families below the poverty-line to enable them to acquire skills and technology to take up vocations of self-employment in agriculture and allied activities including industry, services and business. Training is imparted in 30 different trades.

Liberalization of norms for expenditure under recurring assistance, greater emphasis on systematic marketing, and exploring possibility of setting up of groups for manufacture / assembly of non-traditional items for which there is good demand in the market are some of the steps taken to improve the implementation of the scheme (<http://www.preservearticles.com/2012020322532/short-notes-on-integrated-rural-development-programme-in-india.html>).

After the training, the TRYSEM beneficiaries are assisted under the IRDP. Between 1980-98 a total of 41,48,425 rural youths were trained of which 17,74,395 belonged to SCs/STs and 19,12,514 to women categories and among these trained youths 23,32,274 are now employed.

**Check your progress - 1**

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. What are role and functions of the Government in RD?
2. Write the meaning of TRYSEM?

### **13.3.3 NREP (NATIONAL RURAL EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMME)**

The NREP initiated in 1980 to replace the food-for-works programmes, aimed to “generate additional gainful employment for the unemployed and underemployed persons in rural areas, to create productive community assets for direct and continuing benefits to poverty groups and to strengthen the rural, economic and social infrastructure to bring about a general improvement in the overall quality of life in rural areas. It also aims to improve the nutritional standards of rural poor through the supply of food grains as part of wages” (GOI Seventh Plan Mid-Term Appraisal, 1988).

The percent distribution of employment under the NREP closely parallels the state-wise percent distribution of the ‘ultra-poor’ (see Figure 13). Kakwani & Subbarao (1990) calculate a rank correlation of  $r = +0.74$  (significant at  $p < 0.01$ ) between the distribution of the ultra poor and the man-days of employment generated. Nonetheless, the states of Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh (as well as Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Kerala & Karnataka) seem to have received a greater share of NREP employment than would be justified by the percent of the ‘ultra poor’. The eastern states of West Bengal, Assam and Bihar (the more needy) have received less than their fair share.

### **13.3.4 RLEGP (RURAL LABOUR EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE PROGRAMME)**

The RLEGP was launched in 1983-84 to provide an employment guarantee to at least one member of every landless labour household up to 100 days in a year and create durable assets for strengthening rural infrastructure. Programme design and implementation is almost identical to the NREP, and most of the issues discussed above are relevant here as well. Employment targets have been overshoot as in NREP, but the ‘guarantee’ has not been implemented, because of non-feasibility in small trials. The RLEGP was merged with the NREP in the 1989-90 annual plan. According to recent press reports, the 1992-93 annual plan has dropped all employment guarantee schemes from the Central Planning Budget. However, Tamil Nadu has announced an employment guarantee scheme similar to the widely acclaimed Maharashtra Employment Guarantee Scheme. A sum of Rs 100 million has been allocated for this scheme which is to be initiated in four districts i.e. Dharamapuri, Pudukottai, Pasumpon and Ramanathapuram (The Times of India, Feb 8 1992). The scheme also envisages payment of a small dole (Rs 2/day) to each registered person for whom employment cannot be provided.

### **13.3.5 JAWAHAR ROZGAR YOJNA**

Jawahar RozgarYojna (JRY) is one of the major wage-employment programmes of the Government of India, taken up in April 1989 after

merging the earlier wage-employment programmes, namely, National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) and Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP). The main objective of the programme (JRY) is to generate additional gainful employment for the unemployed and under-employed men and women in the rural areas as well as creation of community assets (Meenu Jail;, 201 I).

The expenditure of the programme is shared in the ratio of 80:20 between the Centre and the States. 22.5 per cent funds are earmarked for SC/STs at all levels of Panchayat Raj Institutions. Preference to parents of child-labour withdrawn from hazardous and non- hazardous occupation who are below the poverty line, to persons with disabilities and to distribution of food-grains as part of wages are other typical features of the Yojna (<http://www.preservearticles.com/2012020322532/short-notes-on-integrated-rural-development-programme-in-india.htm>)

### **13.3.6 INDIRA AWAAS YOZANA**

This Yojana aims at providing dwelling-units free of cost to the members of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and freed bonded-labourers living below the poverty line in rural areas. In June 1985, the Union Finance Minister made an announcement in the Parliament earmarking apportion of the RLEGP funds for the construction of houses for SC/ST people and freed bonded-labour. The IAY was a result of that announcement. Considering the magnitude of the problem, the central government announced in 1988 a National Housing and Habitat Policy (NHHP) which aims at providing 'Housing for all'. The government had set the goal of ending all shelterlessness by the end of the Tenth Five Year Plan.

The IAY came part of JRY when it came into being after the merger of NREP and RLEGP in April, 1989. According to the 1991 census around 3.1 million households were without shelter and another 10.3 million households resided in unserviceable kutcha houses. Until 1992-93, the scheme had provided housing to SC/ST persons and freed bonded-labourers living below the poverty line in rural areas. In 1993-94, the scope of the scheme was broadened to cover non-SC/ST rural poor and in 1995-96 families of servicemen of the armed and paramilitary forces killed in action were also brought under its fold.

The Central and State Governments fund IAY in the ratio of 75:25 respectively. In the case of UTs cent per cent fund is provided by GOI. Funds of the IAY are allocated to the districts in proportion to the SCIST population in the district. IAY funds are operated by the District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs) / Zilla Parishads (ZPs) at the district level. (<http://www.preservearticles.com/2012020322~32/short-notes-on-integrated-rural-development-programme-in-india.h>). At least 60 per cent of the total IAY allocations should be earmarked for construction / upgradation of dwelling units for SCIST families living below poverty line. A maximum of 40 per cent of IAY allocations should be earmarked for non-SWT families of BPL category. All the rural BPL families living in kutcha / semi-pucca houses and also the families living in unserviceable old IAY dwelling units are eligible for upgradation of unserviceable dwelling Rural Development Programmes units under IAY.

All rural families with annual income of Rs.32,000 or less are eligible for construction of new dwelling units under credit-cum-subsidy

scheme. The allotment of the house is done in the name of the female member of the beneficiary household. As far as possible, houses are built in clusters in order to provide common facilities.

The cost norms under LAY have been changed from time to time. With effect from 1 August, 1996, the ceiling of assistance for house construction under IAY is Rs.20,000 per unit in the plains and Rs.22,000 per unit in hilly and other difficult areas. The construction of the house is the responsibility of the beneficiary. As per the information received from the state governments, 9.39 lakh houses had been constructed up to November 2007 (GOI, 2008).

### **13.3.7 MILLIONS WELLS SCHEME**

In India, though the small and marginal farmers, with holdings of less than 2 hectares, account for about 78 per cent of the total operational holdings, they only cultivate about 32.2 per cent of the cropped area (Agricultural Census 1990-91). To increase the productivity of these holdings they must be ensured an assured source of water supply. Ground water made available through wells is an important source specially in the remote areas of the countryside, where canal or tank irrigation is not feasible. Though the fixed capital investment in well irrigation is fairly high, it has many advantages such as flexibility in operation, dependability of source, timing of water deliveries and low conveyance losses.

The Million Wells Scheme (MWS) was launched as a sub-scheme of the National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) and the Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) during the year 1988-89. After the merger of the two programmes in April 1989 into the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY), the MWS continued as a sub-scheme of JRY till December 1995. The MWS was delinked from JRY and made into an independent scheme with effect from 1.1.1996.

The scheme was primarily intended to provide open irrigation wells, free of cost, to individual, poor, small and marginal farmers belonging to Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and freed bonded labourers with a 20 per cent earmarking of JRY funds. Tube wells and bore wells are not permitted under the Scheme. Where wells are not feasible due to geological factors, other minor irrigation works can be undertaken such as irrigation tanks, water harvesting structures as also development of land belonging to small and marginal farmers. From the year 1993-94 the scope of the MWS has been enlarged to cover non-Scheduled Castes/non-Scheduled Tribes small and marginal farmers who are below the poverty line and are listed in the IRDP register of the village. The sectoral earmarking which was 20 per cent up to 1992-93 had also been raised to 30 per cent from 1993-94 with the stipulation that the benefits to non-Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes would not exceed one third of the total funds utilized during the year.

The MWS is also a Centrally Sponsored Scheme. The cost/area norms in regard to works under MWS are decided upon by a Committee comprising of Chief Secretary, Secretary (RD), Secretary (Planning), Secretary (Irrigation) and Chief Engineer (Minor Irrigation) of the State. The beneficiaries themselves are asked to undertake construction of their wells through their own labour and local labour for which they are paid. Contractors are banned under this programme. The wage to material ratio is required to be maintained at 60:40. Supplementary material costs, if any,

can be met from other private/public sources. Though lifting devices are not provided under the scheme, the beneficiaries who intend to install a lifting device, are given the preference under IRDP and other relevant programmes.

The MWS is being implemented throughout the country. Allocations are made to the States/UTs on the basis of the proportion of rural poor in the State/UTs to the total rural poor in the country. The District-wise allocations are made by the States from their allocation in relation to the unirrigated land held by the target group with a potential for well irrigation.

### **13.3.8 SWARNA JAYANTHI GRAMA SWARAJGAR YOJANA (SJGSY)**

SwarnaJayanthi Gram Swarozgar Yojana has been launched during the year 1999- 2000. This Yojana is a holistic package covering all aspects of self-employment such as organization of the poor into Self-Help Groups, Training, Credit, Technology, Infrastructure and Marketing. The beneficiaries under this scheme are called 'Swarozgaries'. The objective of SGSY is to bring the assisted poor families above the poverty line, by providing them income-generating assets. This scheme is a credit-cum-subsidy programme. Subsidy under SGSY is uniform at 30 percent of the project cost subject to a maximum limit of Rs.7500. In respect of SCs/STs and disabled persons the maximum limit is 50 percent and Rs. 10,000 respectively. For groups of Swarozgaries (SHGs), the subsidy is 50 per cent of the project cost, to per capita subsidy of Rs. 10,000 or Rs. 1.25 lakh whichever is less. Accordingly, the SCs 1 STs account for the 50 per cent of swarozgaries, women for 40 per cent and the disabled for 3 per cent. The scheme is being implemented on 7525 cost sharing-basis between the Centre and the State.

#### **Check your progress - 2**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

3. Write the Meaning of RLEGP?

4. Write the objectives of Indira Awas Yojana ?

### **13.3.9 EMPLOYMENT ASSURANCE SCHEME**

Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS) was launched on 2nd October, 1993, covering all the 1778 blocks under RPDS. These blocks were identified mainly in DPAP, DDP, Hill and Tribal areas.

The main objective of the EAS was also on the lines of JRY, i.e. to provide gainful employment during lean agriculture season in the form of manual works to all able bodied adults who were in need and desirous of working, but unable to find anything to do. The secondary objective was to develop economic infrastructure and community assets and resources for sustained employment and development.

#### **Important Features of EAS**

In order to operationalize the programme to achieve its objectives, initially the main features of the programme design were as follows:

- ❖ The scheme was operative in 1778 blocks of the country.
- ❖ The funding of the scheme was on an 80:20 basis between the Centre and States.
- ❖ The Central share of funding was directly released blockwise to the ZP/DRDAs based on the demand for wage employment and expenditure.
- ❖ The scheme was demand driven and therefore there was no fixed budgetary provision for the scheme.
- ❖ A maximum of two adults per family were to be provided the wage employment up to 100 days in a year. New works were not to be started if the employment potential was available through plan and non-plan works already in progress in a particular area and the assurance could be fulfilled by utilizing the same.
- ❖ The work should be labour intensive as well as result in the creation of durable and productive assets.
- ❖ An individual beneficiary project based on the lands of BPL families was allowed for horticulture development.
- ❖ The persons who desire for wage employment should get registered with the Village Development Officer or Gram Panchayat which would issue a family card for the purpose.
- ❖ When more than 10 workers demand work, new projects could be started.
- ❖ The scheme is implemented by the DRDA and other District Officers of various departments, Block Development Officers and the Panchayats at all the three levels, i.e., Zilla Panchayat, Panchayat Samiti and Gram Panchayats.
- ❖ The state level Coordination Committee for the Rural Development Programme has the responsibility for overall supervision, guidance and monitoring of EAS.

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### 13.4 EMPLOYMENT GUARANTY LEGISLATION

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The prevailing daily wage rate for manual labour in 2004-05, it was necessary for at least three members of an agricultural labour household to get employment for more than 200 days in a year in order to maintain itself above the poverty level. We also noted that since in reality it is difficult for many households to get this much employment, the poverty level in rural households is still high. The ground reality continues to reveal disturbing trends. While the availability of food grains has come down in general (i.e. rural + urban) from about 510 grams in 1990-91 to about 444 grams in 2009, the per capita consumption of foodgrains in rural households has declined relatively more from 373 grams in 1987-88 to 313 grams in 2009-10. Further, besides a continued increase in the proportion of marginal farmers over time, among all the three classes of agricultural households (viz. landless, marginal and small farmers), there is a significant income deficit (to a tune of 20 to 40 percent) to meet their minimum consumption needs. As a result, the rural households are indebted with the landless/marginal/small farmers segment being more dependent on informal lending sources to meet their minimum consumption needs. More specifically, while in the aggregate close to 50 percent of rural households are indebted, more than 60 percent of landless labour incur debt for meeting their consumption expenditure. The wages paid to rural labour are often far below the statutory minimum wage and

are differentiated by gender, location and nature of work/activity. Due to these disturbing trends, the government in its midterm appraisal of the Tenth Plan (2002-07) raised serious concern on the 'distress' experienced by agricultural labourers and marginal/small farmers. Following this, as noted in unit 22, the government has since taken many steps to mitigate their hardship experienced. One of the notable initiatives of the government in the direction of providing guaranteed wage employment opportunities for rural unskilled manual labour was to enact a legislation (viz. the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, NREGA) in 2005. The Act guarantees employment at statutory minimum wages for all those persons who sought manual unskilled labour for at least up to 100 days in a year. Subsequent to this, a National Policy for Farmers was announced in 2007 stressing the need for focusing on the 'economic well-being of the farmers, rather than just on production'. An assessment of the implementation of NREGA for its initial years of performance revealed that while there are critical lapses in its implementation, there are also signs of the programme catching up on many fronts. With these insights, the scheme has since been reoriented with many 'new initiatives' introduced to improve its effectiveness. Against this background, the present unit appraises you with the specific features of NREGA, 2005 and the modifications introduced into its rechristened version in 2009 viz. the MGNREGA. Towards which the efforts of the government in the MGNREGA has since been sought to be dovetailed with those of many other efforts initiated by the government.

### **13.5 MAHATMA GANDHI NATIONAL RURAL EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE SCHEME**

The earlier experience of implementing poverty alleviation programmes like IRDP, RLEGP, DPAP, EGS, SGSY, SGRY, etc. had two objectives, one regarded as primary and the other regarded as secondary. The primary objective was to generate wage employment opportunities for the unskilled manual labour and the secondary objective was to generate productive/durable assets as an outcome of works undertaken in those programmes/schemes. While the degree to which the two objectives were achieved have varied, one of the most disconcerting findings of many evaluation studies of such programmes was that due to leakages in the system (e.g. expenditure on administrative machinery, presence of intermediaries and the consequent low wages paid to labourers, engagement of contractors for works, etc.), the actual benefit of increased income from wages received by the beneficiaries was very low. In the light of this experience, one of the priority objectives of NREGA was to institute mechanisms by which not on such leakages was minimized but the effective payment of wages paid to the workers was the highest. In order to achieve this, two of the specific objectives stated by the Act were to: (i) strengthen the grassroots processes of democracy by infusing transparency and accountability in governance; and (ii) adopt a decentralized approach by according a pivotal role to the PRIs (panchayati raj institutions) in planning, monitoring and implementation. The other objectives of the Act are to: (i) improve the livelihood status of rural poor by strengthening the natural resources management through works that address the causes of chronic poverty like drought, deforestation and soil erosion, and thereby, (iv) encourage the adoption of sustainable development practices through

the works undertaken. Thus, what is particularly significant about this Act is that: (i) it is a first programme/Act which is based on the 'right to work' approach; and (ii) it makes significant contribution to the social security of the unorganized workers in the rural areas.

### Key Processes in Implementation

The process of implementation of the Act/scheme works in stages as follows.

**1) Submission of Names and Issuing of Job Card:** Adult members of rural household can submit details of their name, age, address and photo to the Gram Panchayat (GP). The particulars of job seekers in the applications made are verified by reliable local sources in order that job cards are not issued wrongly. After due enquiry, the GP registers and issue a job card containing the details and the photograph of the member.

**2) Eligibility for Applying for Work:** A registered person becomes eligible to apply for work. Applicants are required to apply for at least 14 continuous days of work. The Panchayat or the Programme Officer accepts valid applications and issue a receipt. Letter of providing work would be sent to the applicant and also displayed at the Panchayat Office.

**3) Offer of Employment or Unemployment Allowance:** Employment would be provided within a radius of 5 km within 15 days of receipt of application. While the wage rates may be different for different regions, the per day wage for work provided shall not be less than Rs. 60 per day. The employment provided would be at least 100 days of employment per household per year. If work is not provided within this time limit, daily unemployment allowance will be paid to the applicant. If the distance for work offered is more than 5 km, extra wage is paid. The rate of unemployment allowance paid is to be notified by the state government and shall not be less than 25 percent of wages fixed by the state for the first 30 days during a financial year and not less than 50 percent of the wages during the remaining part of the financial year. Further, in the event of inability to disburse the unemployment allowance in time, the programme officer shall report the matter to the district programme coordinator with reasons for the non-payment duly specified.

**4) Cost Sharing:** The central and the state governments would share the cost of works initiated under the Act in the ratio of 3:1 i.e. 75 percent by central government and 25 percent by state government.

### Check your progress – 3

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

5. What are the features of Employment Assurance Scheme?

6. Write briefly about the MGNREGA?

## 13.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed about the Target based Programmes like Integrated rural Development Agency, TRYSEM, NREP, RLEGP, JRY, Indira Awas Yojana, Millions Wells Scheme and also documented the

programmes like WJGSY, employment assurance scheme and also highlighted salient features employment guarantee scheme. Also focuses on Mahatma Gandhi National rural Employment Guarantee Scheme.

### 13.7 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. What are role and functions of the Government in RD ?
2. Write the meaning of TRYSEM?
3. Write the Meaning of RLEGP?
4. Write the objectives of Indira Awas Yojana ?
5. What are the features of Employment Assurance Scheme?
6. Write briefly about the MGNREGA?

### 13.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. We know that the Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD) in India is the apex body for formulating policies, regulations and Acts pertaining to the development of the rural sector. Agriculture, handicrafts, fisheries, poultry and dairy are the primary contributors to the rural business and economy. While there have been many programmes and schemes since independence, recent introduction of Bharat Nirman project by the Government of India in collaboration with the State Government and the Panchayat Raj Institutions is a major step towards the improvement of the rural sector.
2. TRYSEM was launched as centrally-sponsored schemes on 15 August 1979. It aims at providing basic technical and managerial skills to rural youth in the age-group of 18- 35 years from families below the poverty-line to enable them to acquire skills and technology to take up vocations of self-employment in agriculture and allied activities including industry, services and business.
3. The RLEGP was launched in 1983-84 to provide an employment guarantee to at least one member of every landless labour household up to 100 days in a year and create durable assets for strengthening rural infrastructure. Programme design and implementation is almost identical to the NREP, and most of the issues discussed above are relevant here as well. Employment targets have been overshot as in NREP, but the 'guarantee' has not been implemented, because of non-feasibility in small trials.
4. This Yojana aims at providing dwelling-units free of cost to the members of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and freed bonded-labourers living below the poverty line in rural areas. In June 1985, the Union Finance Minister made an announcement in the Parliament earmarking apportion of the RLEGP funds for the construction of houses for SC/ST people and freed bonded-labour. The IAY was a result of that announcement.
5. The main objective of the EAS was also on the lines of JRY, i.e. to provide gainful employment during lean agriculture season in the form of manual works to all able bodied adults who were in need and desirous of working, but unable to find anything to do. The secondary objective was to develop economic infrastructure and community assets and resources for sustained employment and development.
6. The earlier experience of implementing poverty alleviation programmes like IRDP, RLEGP, DPAP, EGS, SGSY, SGRY, etc.

had two objectives, one regarded as primary and the other regarded as secondary. The primary objective was to generate wage employment opportunities for the unskilled manual labour and the secondary objective was to generate productive/durable assets as an outcome of works undertaken in those programmes/schemes. While the degree to which the two objectives were achieved have varied, one of the most disconcerting findings of many evaluation studies of such programmes was that due to leakages in the system (e.g. expenditure on administrative machinery, presence of intermediaries and the consequent low wages paid to labourers, engagement of contractors for works, etc.), the actual benefit of increased income from wages received by the beneficiaries was very low.

### 13.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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## UNIT XIV –WELFARE PROGRAMMES

### Structure

- 14.1. Introduction
- 14.2. Objectives
- 14.3. Welfare Programmes
  - 14.3.1 Minimum needs programme
  - 14.3.2 Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas
  - 14.3.3 Integrated child development scheme (ICDS)
  - 14.3.4 Tamil Nadu integrated nutrition programme (TNINP)
  - 14.3.5 Antyodaya Programme
  - 14.3.6 Annapoorana Scheme
  - 14.3.7 Programme of rural health and total sanitation
- 14.4. Five year plans and strategies for rural development
  - 14.4.1 Role of social workers
  - 14.4.2 Provision of urban infrastructure in rural areas (PURA)
- 14.5 Role of voluntary organization in rural community development, problems and limitations.
- 14.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 14.7 Unit- End- Exercises
- 14.8 Answer to check your Progress
- 14.9 Suggested Readings

### 14.1 INTRODUCTION

In this unit we will look into human aspects of poverty and the various approaches to and programmes for human development. Poverty in a broader sense is not merely concerned with food, clothes and shelter, but it is also related to the living conditions which directly impinge on the quality of life. Thus, economic and human development are two sides of the same coin and without developing both the components of poverty simultaneously, no effort for poverty alleviation can be sustained. It also takes into account the basic objective of development, i.e. growth with social justice. To realize this objective various programmatic efforts were made beginning with the First Five-year Plan. In the initial phase, it was assumed that accelerated economic growth would automatically flow to all the sections of the people because of the 'trickle-down effect'. And Community Development Programmes, Land Reforms, Special Agricultural Development Programmes, Cooperatives, etc., put together were thought to be the best way of accelerating economic growth in rural areas.

A review of these programmes during the Fifth Five-year Plan revealed that while in the field of agricultural production we were able to achieve self-sufficiency, there was need to improve social services to improve living conditions in rural areas. Accordingly, to meet specific needs of the rural people in general and the poor in particular, the concept of Minimum Needs was evolved and also the Minimum Needs Programme (MNP) conceived as an important strategy for rural development. In this unit you will read about this concept, its components and the related objectives and targets.

### 14.2 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, we should be able to:

- ❖ describe the need for and the concepts of minimum needs and basic needs;
- ❖ list out the related policies and strategies;
- ❖ explain various components of the MNP;
- ❖ explain the objectives and targets of various programmes; and
- ❖ assess the progress made in the implementation of MNP.

### 14.3 WELFARE PROGRAMMES

Welfare is a type of government support for the citizens of that society. Welfare may be provided to people of any income level, as with social security (and is then often called a social safety net), but it is usually intended to ensure that people can meet their basic human needs such as food and shelter.

#### 14.3.1 MINIMUM NEEDS PROGRAMME

In this section we will explain the concept of minimum needs and also the approaches adopted by the Government to fulfil them.

The assumption was that with economic growth people would be able to improve their social consumption, i.e. they would be able to make use of various social services like better housing, health care, drinking water, sanitation, education, communication, etc. This, however, did not happen during the first two decades of planned development. While the availability of food increased, access to various social services in rural areas, particularly for the poor, did not improve. Many villages did not have schools, health facilities, safe drinking water, roads, etc., which are essential to improve the social consumption of the people.

The concept of Minimum Needs pertained to improving the social consumption with increased incomes of the poor on the one hand, and improving the availability and the quality of social services to the people at affordable costs on the other.

The approach paper for the Fifth Plan (1974-79) stated that the alleviation of poverty required a multi-pronged attack and suggested a separate National Programme for developing social services in relation to basic requirements. It observed “Even with expanded employment opportunities, the poor will not be able to buy for themselves all the essential goods and services which should figure in any reasonable concept of a minimum standard of living. There is a need to supplement the measures for providing greater employment opportunities and resultant increase in income of the poorer sections and investment in social sectors like education, health, nutrition, drinking water, housing, communications and electricity”.

The first step in the formulation of the Minimum Needs Programme (MNP) as stated in the Fifth Five-year Plan (draft) was “to identify the priority areas of social consumption and to lay down for each of these a minimum norm for attainment by the end of the Fifth Plan Period”. Giving the rationale for MNP, it observed that social consumption needs had received low priority particularly in the economically backward states. There was little integration or convergence of services and facilities and budgetary constraints affected these programmes rather adversely. The Fifth Plan therefore proposed MNP “with the objective of establishing a network of basic services and facilities of social consumption in all areas up to nationally accepted norms within a specified time frame. The

programme was designed to assist in raising living standards and reducing regional disparities in development”

### Basic Concept

Earlier we discussed the concept of Minimum Needs. In this section we will discuss the Basic Needs concept and compare it with that of minimum needs.

The ILO document on Employment, Growth and Basic Needs: a One World Problem (1977) put forward the basic needs concept formally at the Tripartite World Conference on Employment, Income Distribution and Social Progress (1976). The document stated that “The definition of a set of basic needs, constituting a minimum standard of living, identification of the poorest groups and provide concrete targets to help them and to measure progress”. The satisfaction of basic needs was defined as consisting of following two elements:

- ❖ Meeting the minimum requirements of a family for private consumption: food, shelter and clothing are obviously included in this; also, some household equipment and furniture is included; and
- ❖ Access to essential services such as safe drinking water, sanitation, public transport, health and education, i.e. items of social consumption. Other elements emphasized in the document as relevant to the basic needs strategy are:
  - ❖ Participation of the people in decision making;
  - ❖ Putting satisfaction of the absolute level of basic needs within the broader framework of “fulfillment of basic human rights which are not only ends in themselves but also contribute to the attainment of other goals”; and
  - ❖ Fuller employment, rapid rate of economic growth, improvement in the quality of employment and in conditions of work, and redistribution on considerations of social justice.

The document also stated that basic needs represent the “minimum objective of society, not the full range of desirable attributes”. Further, the basic needs concept is of universal applicability, though the importance and the relative weight of components will vary with the level of development, social and cultural values, etc. One of the implications of the basic needs approach is that a person seeking employment will have an adequately remunerated job with which he can meet the needs of personal consumption and have access to and utilize essential social services.

A merit in the basic needs approach is that it gives primacy to the need for a minimum standard of living for the poor as a central concern of development planning. It therefore contributes to the formulation of a development strategy that aims at reducing poverty and inequality, and at promoting growth of employment (and consequently reduction of unemployment and under-employment) and distributive justice. By stating that basic needs have to be put in the broader framework of human rights, the concept does not confine its scope to material needs only but also extends to non-material needs which, even though abstract and difficult to concretize, are nonetheless very important even for the poor.

### 14.3.2 DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN RURAL AREAS (DWCRA)

In the preceding unit you studied details about IRDP, the main poverty alleviation programme in the country. As we discussed in that unit, after the first few years our planners realized that women did not reap as much benefit out of IRDP as they were expected to. Besides, women have some unique problems in taking up self-employment activities. These are: (i) women have the responsibility of managing household chores which keep them engaged for a considerable time every day, (ii) women with infants around them find it difficult to leave them unattended and (iii) most of the poor women being illiterate lack even the minimum entrepreneurship capabilities and therefore it is necessary to organize them into groups so that, supported by cooperative group effort, they may perform better. Hence, it was felt necessary to devise a special programme which could overcome the above mentioned problems of the poor women and children in rural areas. Accordingly, DWCRA was introduced in 50 districts on a pilot basis in the year 1983. Steadily, more and more districts were brought under DWCRA and by 1990-91 its coverage was extended to all the districts in the country. Initially, it was also a component of IRDP. In 1990, however, it was made an independent programme by itself.

#### Objectives and Strategy of DWCRA

The basic objective of DWCRA is to provide rural women with productive income generating assets and credit, and also enhance their skills. Further, it seeks to provide an effective organizational support structure so that, to be more effectively, the women involved may receive assistance in the production of goods and services. The target group of DWCRA is the same as that of IRDP and TRYSEM. The basic deviation from IRDP, however, lies in the fact that under DWCRA, it is not individual families which receive assistance but the group. The DWCRA scheme envisages the formation of groups, each consisting of 15 to 20 women. It is expected that the women would come together for activities which are mutually beneficial to them. The financial assistance which is available for a group is as follows:

a) Rs. 15,000 in the form of a one-time grant, as a rotating fund contributed in equal shares by the Government of India, the State Government concerned and UNICEF, which may be used as:

- Working capital to procure raw materials, and for marketing purposes.
- Honorarium to the group organizer (it should not exceed Rs. 50 per month for a period of one year).

- Infrastructural support for income generating activities.

- Funding for childcare facilities by establishing Anganwadies in all the villages where DWCRA groups are organised.

b) Travelling allowance at the rate of Rs. 2000 per year for one year for the group organizers.

Although DWCRA is basically a programme to generate productive assets, it is not confined to providing economic benefits. It includes supportive services like mother and child care, adult education, immunization, etc. To this end, coordination is maintained with various other departments such as Education, Health and Family Welfare, and Women and Child Development.

#### Administrative and Organizational Aspects of DWCRA

DWCRA has an administrative structure for carrying out operations related to the programme. At the state level, a woman of the rank of Deputy Secretary to the State Government is in charge of the programme. At the district level, a woman officer may be appointed as an Assistant Project Officer (APO, Women's Development) to assist the Project Officer of the District Rural Development Agency (DRDA). You have already studied the functioning of DRDA in an earlier unit on Rural Administrative Structure in Block 3, MRD-101. At the block level, on the Community Development pattern, the norm is to provide a team comprising one woman BDO (Mukhya Sevika), two women VLWs (Gram Sevikas) and one Gram Sevika per DWCRA Block. It is to be ensured that the Project Officer of DRDA remains the coordinating officer at the district level and the BDO at the block level.

The task of planning, implementing and monitoring of DWCRA has been entrusted to DRDA, as DWCRA was a part of IRDP. The staff provided for DWCRA were an APO, a Mukhya Sevika and Gram Sevikas who were expected to spend adequate time with the target groups, which you have read about in the previous sub-section. They must explain the nature and purpose of the group to the women concerned, help them analyse their situation so that solutions can be considered, give ideas, information and assistance regarding possible income generating activities which the group can undertake, and provide encouragement, guidance and support.

#### **Funding Support System for DWCRA**

The main financial assistance is provided by the Central Government. The Central Government releases the Central share of Rs. 5,000 per group and travelling allowance for the group organizers directly to the DRDAs. It also releases the share of UNICEF equivalent to Rs. 5,000. Equipment and input costs subject to a ceiling of Rs. 50,000 per centre and cost of staff are also provided. The State Governments in turn release their shares in the grant and travelling allowance to groups and group organizers respectively.

The groups utilize the grants for various purposes. They use it to build up infrastructural support and marketing facilities, purchase of raw materials, etc. and the grant by UNICEF is used to purchase training kits, equipment for childcare facilities, etc. If no childcare programme is available, some childcare facilities could be provided so that children are not neglected when their mothers go to work. For the DWCRA groups that are registered under the Registration of Societies Act, 1860, there is a provision for a multi-purpose centre in the blocks covered under DWCRA so that women can use them for training and economic activities.

#### **14.3.3 INTEGRATED CHILD DEVELOPMENT SCHEME (ICDS)**

Launched in 1975, Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) is a unique early childhood development programme, aimed at addressing malnutrition, health and also development needs of young children, pregnant and nursing mothers. ICDS consists of 4 different components, namely:

1. Early Childhood Care Education & Development (ECCED)
2. Care & Nutrition Counselling
3. Health Services

#### 4. Community Mobilization Awareness, Advocacy & Information, Education and Communication

The ICDS, Centrally Sponsored Scheme, is anchored by Ministry of Women and Child Development (MoWCD), Government of India (GoI). The Anganwadi Services (under Umbrella Integrated Child Development Services) is a Centrally Sponsored Scheme and the Government of India releases grants-in-aid to the States / UTs presently on the following cost sharing ratio between Centre and States/UTs.

##### **Objectives of the Scheme are broadly classified as follows:**

Institutionalize essential services and strengthen structures at all levels:

- ❖ Implementing ICDS in Mission mode to prevent under nutrition
- ❖ Strengthen ICDS- AWC as the first village post for health, nutrition and early learning
- ❖ Focusing on children under 3 years
- ❖ Focusing on early child care and learning environment
- ❖ Moving from outlays to child-related outcomes
- ❖ Fostering decentralisation and community based locally responsive childcare approaches

##### **Enhance capacities at all levels:**

- ❖ Vertical integration of training of all functionaries to strengthen field based joint action and teamwork to achieve desired results and objectives
- ❖ Establish national training resources centres at Central & State levels

##### **Ensure appropriate inter-sectoral response at all levels:**

- ❖ Ensure convergence at the grassroots level by strengthening partnerships
- ❖ with PRIs, Communities, Civil Societies to improve Child development services
- ❖ Coordinate and network with all Government & Non- Government Organisations providing services for children

##### **Raise public awareness and participation:**

- ❖ Strengthen maternal and child care, nutrition and health education
- ❖ Raise public awareness at all levels about vulnerabilities of children
- ❖ Inform beneficiary group and public about availability of core services
- ❖ Promote social mobilisation and voluntary action

##### **Create database and knowledge base for Child development services:**

- ❖ Strengthen ICDS Management Information System (MIS)
- ❖ Use Information, Communication Technology (ICT) to strengthen the information base and share & disseminate information
- ❖ Undertake Research and Documentation

#### **1.3.4 TAMIL NADU INTEGRATED NUTRITION PROGRAMME (TNINP)**

The Tamil Nadu Integrated Nutrition Program (TINP) has been lauded as one of the few large-scale "successful" nutrition interventions in the world. Nevertheless, published data to support this claim have been ambiguous.

This review of the TINP is among the few independent published reviews of the program. The primary data analyzed in the fourth section, as well as much of the information about program operation, were collected as part of a large epidemiological study in forty-two village -based TINP centers in

the pilot block of TINP. This study, on Positive and Negative Deviance in Child Growth (Phase I), was funded by the Thrasher Research Fund. Additional information on the monitoring and information system were collected during a two-week follow-up field visit to Tamil Nadu in June 1989. The first draft of this report was prepared in October 1989.

The report has been organized into six sections. The first two sections detail the background and operational details of TINP. The third section reviews published data on TINP, pinpointing the lack of persuasiveness of this evidence. The fourth section presents results from more rigorous analyses of primary data to investigate the impact of TINP. Section five attempts to synthesize the successful design and implementation features of TINP. The last section focuses specifically on the monitoring and information system in TINP to ferret out the factors that may have contributed to the success of the program.

It is hoped that the end product will be useful to the health and nutrition community, including program managers and designers.

### **Nutrition Programs in Tamil Nadu**

Of the many programs currently operating in Tamil Nadu, only two need mention here - the national -level Integrated Child Development Services Scheme (ICDS) , and the state-sponsored NMP. Both of these programs aim at direct nutrition and health intervention and are not designed to be income-transfer programs like the Integrated Rural Development Program, the Public-Distribution System, Employment Guarantee Program, etc.

### **The Integrated Child Development Services Scheme**

The ICDS, a program sponsored by the central Government of India and implemented by state governments, has been in operation in all the states in the country (including Tamil Nadu) in selected blocks since 1975. It aims at reducing child malnutrition, morbidity, and mortality through a defined package of services that include supplementary feeding, nutrition and health education, immunization, and health referral services. In addition, it also provides preschool education for the 3-5+ age group. While initial evaluations of the ICDS have claimed a fair degree of success for the program (Tandon 1983), recent reports even by sympathetic reviewers are more guarded. Gopalan (1988) writes: '... it seems doubtful if the AM (Anganwadi worker of the ICDS) had really succeeded in bringing about attitudinal changes with respect to habits of personal hygiene, dietary practices or childrearing practices, or in achieving sustained and substantial improvement in nutritional status of mothers and children in the villages studied - this despite some significant successes that have been reported in local situations.' However, the ICDS is the major large- scale national -level endeavor at combating infant and child malnutrition in India and enjoys strong political and bureaucratic commitment.

### **Check your progress - 1**

**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.**

**b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

1. Write the basic concepts of Welfare Programme?
2. What are the strategy and objectives of DWCRA?

In March 1990, 1,962 ICDS projects were functioning in the country (out of a total of 2,424 projects sanctioned by the government), covering a population of nearly 200 million. In Tamil Nadu, of the 111 central sector ICDS projects sanctioned, 79 were operational in March 1990. There are no state-sponsored ICDS projects in Tamil Nadu unlike in the states of Haryana, Karnataka, Jammu and Kashmir, Kerala, West Bengal, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh, and Uttar Pradesh, which have state-sponsored projects (Central Technical Committee 1986, 1987). Thus Tamil Nadu's commitment to ICDS is limited to implementing the centrally-sponsored projects.

#### **14.3.5 ANTYODAYA PROGRAMME**

The Antyodaya programme was instituted for the upliftment of the poorest of the poor in the country. Launched first by the Government of Rajasthan in 1977, the programme was taken up by the Governments of Himachal Pradesh, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Manipur in 1978. The type of benefit schemes under the programme included land allotment, agriculture and land development, animal husbandry, village and cottage industries, wage employment, old age pension and housing subsidy, etc. The criterion adopted for the selection of beneficiary families was purely economic. Different norms were fixed by the States for identification of Antyodaya families. However, priority was given to those families which did not have any economic assets, nor any source of income. In 1978, the Programme Evaluation Organisation PEO undertook an evaluation study of the working of the Antyodaya Programme in Rajasthan. In view of the widespread attention attracted by the study report, the Estimates Committee of the Parliament suggested that the P.E.O. should take up a countrywide evaluation of the Programme. Accordingly, the P.E.O. carried out an evaluation study of the programme during 1979-81 and published its report in 1982.

#### **14.3.6 ANNAPOORANA SCHEME**

The Ministry of Rural Development launched the scheme in 2000-2001. Indigent senior citizens of 65 years of age or above who though eligible for old age pension under the National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS) but are not getting the pension, are covered and 10 kgs. of food grains per person per month are supplied free of cost under the scheme.

From 2002-2003 it has been transferred to State Plan along with the National Social Assistance Programme comprising the National Old Age Pension Scheme and the National Family Benefit Scheme. The funds for the transferred scheme are being released by the Ministry of Finance as Additional Central Assistance (ACA) to the State Plan and the States have the requisite flexibility in the choice of beneficiaries and implementation. The food grains are released to the State Governments on the existing norms at BPL rates.

Under this scheme, 10 Kgs of food grains is distributed per month free of cost to destitute above the age of 65 years with no or meager subsistence. The Government of India fixed the target at 52215, being 20% of the number of persons who are eligible for National Old Age Pension, but not getting the pension for some reasons. The scheme is implemented in the State with effect from 14-2-2001.

Though the scheme was originally implemented as a Central Sector Scheme, the pattern of central assistance was changed in 2002-03. Now,

the scheme is implemented with additional central assistance and the level of expenditure reached during the year 2000-01 is treated as the mandatory commitment of the State Government.

#### **14.3.7 PROGRAMME OF RURAL HEALTH AND TOTAL SANITATION**

Individual Health and hygiene is largely dependent on adequate availability of drinking water and proper sanitation. There is, therefore, a direct relationship between water, sanitation and health. Consumption of unsafe drinking water, improper disposal of human excreta, improper environmental sanitation and lack of personal and food hygiene have been major causes of many diseases in developing countries. India is no exception to this. Prevailing High Infant Mortality Rate is also largely attributed to poor sanitation. It was in this context that the Central Rural Sanitation Programme (CRSP) was launched in 1986 primarily with the objective of improving the quality of life of the rural people and also to provide privacy and dignity to women.

The concept of sanitation was earlier limited to disposal of human excreta by cesspools, open ditches, pit latrines, bucket system etc. Today it connotes a comprehensive concept, which includes liquid and solid waste disposal, food hygiene, and personal, domestic as well as environmental hygiene. Proper sanitation is important not only from the general health point of view but it has a vital role to play in our individual and social life too. Sanitation is one of the basic determinants of quality of life and human development index. Good sanitary practices prevent contamination of water and soil and thereby prevent diseases. The concept of sanitation was, therefore, expanded to include personal hygiene, home sanitation, safe water, garbage disposal, excreta disposal and waste water disposal.

**The components to be undertaken under the TSC are as follows:**

##### **A. Start-Up Activities:**

The start-up activities includes initial publicity, motivational campaign, conducting of preliminary surveys to assess the demand and thereafter preparation of the district TSC project proposals for seeking Government of India assistance etc.

##### **B. IEC Activities:**

Information, Education and Communication (IEC) are the important components of the Programme so as to create the demand for sanitary facilities in the rural areas. The activities carried out under this component should be area specific and should also involve all the sections of the rural population in a sustained manner so that the willingness of the people to construct latrines is translated/interpreted as demand generated. The motivator can be given his/her incentive from the funds earmarked for IEC. The incentive will be based on his/her performance i.e. in terms of motivating the people to the extent that they construct the latrine and soakage pits and also use it subsequently. The IEC campaign should also include focus on health and hygiene practices as well as environmental sanitation aspects in holistic manner.

##### **C. Rural Sanitary Marts/Production Centres:**

The Rural Sanitary Mart is an outlet dealing with the materials required for the construction of not only sanitary latrines and other sanitary facilities in rural areas but also those items which are required as a part of

the sanitation package. It is a commercial enterprise with a social objective. The main aim of having a sanitary mart is to provide materials and guidance needed for constructing different types of latrines, technologically and financially suitable to the areas and other sanitary facilities. Production Centres are the means to improve the access and production of cost effective affordable sanitary materials. The Production Centres/Rural Sanitary Marts could be opened and operated by NGOs/Panchayats. For this purpose less than 5% (subject to a maximum of Rs. 35.00 lakh) of the total TSC district project cost has been earmarked. Moreover Rs. 3.5 lakh per Rural Sanitary Mart/Production Centre can be provided.

#### **D. Construction of Individual Household Latrines:**

As stated earlier, for the purpose of this Programme, a duly completed household sanitary latrine shall comprise of a Basic Low Cost Unit (without the super structure). In the first phase, the Programme is primarily aimed at the Below Poverty Line families.

#### **E. Women Complex:**

Village Sanitary Complex for women can be provided under the Programme. The maintenance of such complexes is very essential and for this purpose Panchayat should own the responsibility or make alternative arrangements at the village level. Upto 6% of the total Project Cost can be used for construction of Sanitary Complex for Women. The beneficiary contribution can be given by the Panchayat.

#### **F. Total Sanitation of Village**

Disposal of liquid and solid wastes and clean surroundings are important components of sanitation. I village per block of TSC district can be taken up. The maximum assistance for a Total Sanitation Village is to be restricted to Rs. 5.00 lakh. Facilities such as drainage, individual latrines, women complexes, environmental components etc., can be taken up.

#### **G. School Sanitation:**

Children are more receptive to new ideas and, therefore, the school is the best suitable institution in changing the conditioned habits of people from open defecation to the use of lavatory through motivation & education. The experience gained by children through use of toilets in school and sanitation education imparted by teachers would definitely be carried home and passed on to parents, who in most cases do not have formal education. School Sanitation, therefore, forms an integral part of every TSC. The Central subsidy per unit will be restricted to Rs. 12,000/- for a unit cost of Rs. 20000/-. Separate toilets for girls and boys are to be made, which can be treated as two separate units and each unit will be entitled to Central Subsidy upto Rs. 12000/- each. However, State/UT Govts and Panchayats are allowed to contribute from their own resources over and above the prescribed amount.

#### **SPECIAL PROVISIONS**

For adequate coverage of the weaker sections of the people, while selecting the districts, blocks, villages and demand for sanitary latrines, preference should be given to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Out of the total funds earmarked for construction of individual latrines under CRSP, a minimum of 25% should be earmarked for the individual households from Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Further, 3%

reservation for individual toilets to the disabled persons shall be provided. It may also be noted that while constructing toilets in the institutions, the construction should be made in such a way that the facilities can also be used by the disabled students.

### **Check your progress - 2**

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

3. Write the meaning and Objectives of ICDS?

4. What are the basic assumptions of Annapurna Scheme ?

## **14.4. FIVE YEAR PLANS AND STRATEGIES FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

Even before 1947, the Indian National Congress indicated its commitment to planning and prepared a set of reports, which generated a lot of interest and discussion. Apart from this, some prominent industrialists published in 1944 the document, A Brief Memorandum Outlining a Plan of Economic Development for India. Much earlier in 1934, M. Visveswaraya had published a Ten Year Plan, aimed at doubling the national income.

Jawaharlal Nehru, the nation's first Prime Minister, is generally regarded as the architect of planning in India. He viewed planning as a way of developing the country avoiding the unnecessary rigours of an industrial transition in so far as it affected the lives of the masses living in India's villages. Moreover, he recognized that planning was a positive instrument for resolving imbalances and contradictions in a large and heterogeneous country, such as India. The first three Five Year Plans are generally regarded as the liveliest phase in India's planning exercise.

Though the First Five Year.

### **The Early Years of Planning**

Plan (1950-55) was basically a simple exercise of putting together programmes, targets and outlays, it provided the first milestone in rural development through the launching of the Community Development Programme and National Extension Service.

India's tryst with planning came with the formulation of the Second Five Year Plan. P.C. Mahalanobis, an eminent statistician, and a man with a wide range of ideas, is generally credited with preparing the blueprint of the Second Plan. At that point of time, this plan was the most self-conscious attempt at planning in any newly independent country in the Third World. Almost all major contemporary economists, who took an interest in the study of development economics, interacted with Indian planners during these years – and so did several of today's Nobel Laureates.

The Second Plan (1955-60) laid a strong emphasis on industry. The idea was that this strategy will relieve the excess population in rural India. The strategy sought to increase employment in heavy industry and the capital goods sector, so that the load on the agricultural sector could be lightened. It was primarily a strategy of industrialization, which hoped to succeed by forging strong industry linkages, both forward and backward. As a result of this emphasis, the performance of India's capital goods sector

improved substantially during this period. It also laid a solid ground for a vibrant and self-reliant industrial base in India.

Though the Second Plan is widely regarded as an “industrial plan”, there were other path-finding formulations made by Indian planners during this period, as well. For example, the Plan document included a very lucid chapter titled “Land Reform and Agrarian Reconstruction”. Emphasis and hopes were placed on cooperative farming practices in Indian agriculture. The formulation also envisaged a vast network of community development programmes, national extension services and an irrigation network financed by public budgets. The concept of democratic decentralization for assigning development responsibilities to Panchayati Raj institutions was also advocated (by the Balwantrai Mehta Committee). Thus, while it would be inaccurate and unfair to say that the Second Plan lacked an agricultural strategy, it would not be unwarranted to maintain that planners were grossly over-optimistic as to what traditional Indian agriculture, with its conventional input-output basis and deepseated social stratification, could do within the political constraints.

**Role of Planning During the Years of Crises** Among the priorities listed in the Third Plan, it was generally recognized that agriculture had the first place. Thus, in its initial formulation at least, the Third Plan differed from the Second Plan. It is generally recognized that there was a general de-emphasis of agriculture in the Second Plan. The Third Plan attempted to reverse this.

Indian planning suffered two major shocks caused by exogenous factors in the 1960s. The first came in the shape of the war with China in 1962 and the second in the form of successive harvest failures in 1965 and 1967. The first shock caused a sharp increase in India’s defence outlays and a severe curtailment in public investment of the government. Consequently, the capital goods sector was badly hit. The crises on the food front was met with wheat import from the USA. This situation, for the first time, seriously exposed India’s dependence on international aid. However, Indian planners woke up to the need to build food self-sufficiency as a result of these crises. The response of the government to the crises came in the shape of the abandonment of the Five Year Plans. As a result, the period between 1966 and 1969 – the Annual Plans Phase – is often labelled as the ‘Plan Holiday’ period.

The Annual Plans were notable for the formulation of a clear-cut strategy of agricultural development. This strategy carried over into the Fourth Plan and was notable for its shift in perception of the binding constraints on Indian agriculture. It had hitherto been maintained that a conservative rural social and economic structure, coupled with inefficient agricultural practices, acted as major constraints on the agricultural sector. Further, land reform had largely been avoided; in practice, however, their need was felt as vital. On the other hand, the new strategy made a perceptible shift from this perception of the problem of the agricultural sector. Instead, technological modernization was felt to be the main problem. In other words, it called for a strategy that would make it possible to “bet on the strong”.

**Planning and Agricultural Transformation** The new strategy came to be implemented during the course of the Fourth Plan and was more popularly known as the “Green Revolution” in agriculture.

Even as the “Green Revolution” in agriculture was ushered, it was realized that “distributive justice” still remained a distant dream. Thus arrived the popular slogan of Garibi Hatao (Remove Poverty) and with it came the emphasis on poverty.

alleviation as a distinct planning objective in its own right. In fact, a document prepared by the Planning Commission, though never officially published, for the first time put the problem of poverty eradication in the forefront of political and public discussion.

The Approach Paper to the Fifth Plan followed the recommendation of Working Group in its definition of poverty in terms of nutritional inadequacy and ventured to put the explicit redistribution of incomes towards the lowest three deciles as an objective in itself. Thus, the basic approach of the Fifth Plan was growth with redistribution. However, on account of the serious harvest failure of 1972-73 and the oil crises of 1973, inflationary pressure forced Indian planners to seriously curtail the ambitious programmes they had envisaged. Public investment continued to be under strain and, as a result, many of the programmes had to be postponed to the next Five Year Plan. The 1970s are significant because of the Minimum Needs Programmes, IRDP, Rural Employment Programmes and some area development programmes about which you have read in the previous courses.

### **Poverty Alleviation and Indian Planning**

The Sixth Plan, (1980-85) again undertook eradication of poverty as its primary aim. Consequently, the programmes to eradicate poverty – NREP, RLEGP (later merged into Jawahar Rozgar Yojana). TRYSEM, DWCRA Integrated Rural Development Programme – were strongly emphasized. The IRDP, coupled with rural employment programmes, the Minimum Needs Programme and the area development programmes, meant that the Sixth Plan had a strong emphasis on the rural sector.

Poverty alleviation continued to be a central concern in the Seventh Plan. Growth of employment opportunities, human resource and infrastructure development, removal of inequalities, an expanded system of food security, increase in productivity in agriculture and industry, participation of people in development and substantial improvement in agricultural and rural development administration, were identified as priority areas. In the course of the Seventh Plan, the emphasis had shifted towards the concept of modernization again – this time in industry. With this came the relative de-emphasis on the public sector as an engine of growth. Modernization and diversification of industry, adoption of new technology, a generally satisfactory level of industrial performance (more so in some sectors), broad based entrepreneurship development and growth of new industries like petro-chemicals have also been considered as positive developments.

A number of imbalances cropped up during the Plan Period. First, the massive inflow of imports under the liberalization regime had meant an adverse movement in India’s balance of payment position. During the plan period, the continuous strain on the fiscal resources of the government was so severe that it generated inflationary pressure despite the record levels of agricultural output. The decline in the ability of India’s economy (the organised sector) to generate employment out of investments was manifest during the Seventh Plan. As the Approach to the Eighth Plan 199095

pointed out, “The large reduction in the share of the agricultural sector in GDP has been accompanied by only a marginal reduction in the proportion of people dependent on this sector. Consequently, the agriculture non-agriculture disparities in terms of output (and incomes) per head”.

The Ninth Plan emphasized “priority to agriculture and rural development with a view to generate adequate productive employment and eradication of poverty”. The Tenth Plan continued the three programme strategies of the Ninth Plan to (i) increase farm productivity and growth of other activities in rural areas, (ii) poverty alleviation programmes, and (iii) public distribution system, especially to those below the poverty line.

### **The Tasks Ahead**

It is widely recognized that India’s planning process has been one of the most consistent among such efforts undertaken in the Third World. The Plan efforts have contributed significantly in many fields, most notably in the increase in food production. However, a number of problems still remain.

The desire for planning at multiple levels remains largely unrealized despite the commitment made by successive governments. This contradiction has seriously undermined the concept of making planning more democratic and responsive to people’s aspirations. Further, regional inequalities and income inequalities persist in India despite planned economic development. This is a serious problem, which if uncorrected, can lead to more strain on the political fabric of the Indian state. Centre state relations, particularly in regard to planning functions and powers to mobilize financial resources, have been under stress. These issues mean that decentralization of the planning process has become an issue of top priority, which if not seriously implemented, may well jeopardize the concept of planned economic development itself.

The problem of inequalities in the distribution of incomes and assets and low productivity continues to be a major problem facing Indian planners. As you may recollect, we had focused attention on these aspects in the first Block of course 1. Tardy progress in land reforms and major institutional rigidities still hamper the development of Indian society. The problem of the rural poor – particularly, the landless and marginal farmers – still remains a major issue on the agenda of Indian planning. Social services in rural areas continue to be at unsatisfactory levels. The development of women, Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes and other backward classes are other areas of concern.

#### **14.4.1 ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKERS**

Social worker plays various types of roles in catering the needs of his clients. As care giver he counsels and support people with problems in a therapeutic way to promote change. As a consultant he works with individual and groups to assist in their problems and programs. As a broker he helps people to reach services they need and make the system more useful. As a mobilizer he tries to bring new resources to individual and groups.

As an evaluator he evaluates the weakness and strengths of individual and groups, their need and problems. As an advocate he works for the improvement of policies and laws in order to make system more effective.

Barker (1987) has described the following roles of social workers:

**Enabler Role**

The enabler role is the responsibility to help the client become capable of coping with situation of transitional stress. Specific skills used in achieving this objective include conveying hope, reducing resistance and ambivalence, recognizing and managing feelings, identifying and supporting personal strengths and breaking down problems into parts that can be solved more readily, and maintaining a focus on goals and the means of achieving them.

**Facilitator Role**

The facilitator role is the responsibility to expedite the change effort by bringing together people and lines of communications, channeling their activities and resources and providing them with access to expertise.

**Mobilizer Role**

The mobilizer role is the responsibility to help people and organizations combine their resources to achieve goals of mutual importance. This is accomplished by bringing clients together, enhancing lines of communication, clarifying goals and steps to achieve them and devising plans for gaining greater support.

**Educator Role**

The educator role includes the responsibility to teach clients necessary adaptive skills. This is done by providing information in a way that is understandable to the client, offering advice and suggestions, identifying alternatives and their probable consequences, modeling behaviors, teaching problem solving technique and clarifying perceptions.

**Activist Role**

According to Barker social activists alert the general public about social problems or injustices and garner support to alleviate these conditions. Social activists mobilize resources, build coalitions, take legal actions and lobby for legislation. They create just social policies as well as initiate new funding or funding reallocations which address their identified priority issues. Social activists empower community based efforts to resolve community issues, redress social injustice and generate social reform.

**What Does a Social Worker Do?**

Social workers help people resolve problems that affect their day-to-day lives.

People see social workers when they are going through a difficult period in their personal, family and/or work life.

**Social workers help clients:**

- ❖ Identify and understand the source of stress or difficulty
- ❖ Develop coping skills and find effective solutions to their problems
- ❖ Find needed resources
- ❖ By providing counselling and psychotherapy.

**Specializations**

Within the field of social work, there are many different specializations and industries that professionals can pursue and focus on. While these different fields all require practitioners to show the cornerstones of social work: empathy, flexibility, and persistence, and respect for different circumstances; there are some skill sets and knowledge that social workers will need to utilize in order to become the as effective at their jobs as possible. Social workers can be required to aid

with issues directly caused by trauma, disability, poor family circumstances, abuse, mental and emotional problems, addiction, and acute, chronic, or terminal illnesses. Some social workers prefer to focus their skills on one area of expertise by going into specific fields.

Family, child or school social work involves providing assistance and advocacy to improve social and psychological functioning of children and their families. These social workers attempt to maximize academic functioning of children as well as improving the family's overall well-being. These professionals may assist parents, locate foster homes, help to arrange adoptions, and address abuse. In schools they address problems such as truancy, bad behavior, teenage pregnancy, drug use, and poor grades. They also advise teachers and act as liaisons between students, homes, schools, courts, protective services, and other institutions.

Public health social workers are often responsible for helping people who have been diagnosed with chronic, life threatening or altering diseases and disorders, helping connect patients with plans and resources in order to help them cope. One of the most difficult things a person can go through is dealing with acute, chronic, and terminal illnesses and these social workers provide services to ease these patients' process. These services include advising family care givers, providing patient education and counseling, making referrals to other services, case management interventions, planning hospital discharge, and organizing support groups. These social workers are often employed at health care centers, assisted living homes or in hospitals.

Addictions and mental health social workers offer support and services to those struggling with unhealthy grounding techniques, connecting them with facilities that serve to teach healthier behaviors and get patients back on track. These patients often struggle with mental and emotional problems as well as addictions and substance abuse problems. Services that mental health and substance abuse social workers provide include individual and group counseling, intervening during crises, case management, client advocacy, prevention, and education. They also focus on counseling families to assist in understanding and dealing with the patient's problems.

#### **14.4.2 Provision of urban infrastructure in rural areas (PURA)**

The speed of urbanization poses an unprecedented policy change – yet India has barely engaged in a national discussion about how to handle this seismic shift in the make-up of the nation. The population of India residing in urban areas will increase from 340 million to 590 million by 2030. Urbanization is expected to speed up across India, impacting almost every state. As India expands, India's economic make-up will also change. In 1995, India's GDP split almost evenly between its rural and urban economies. In 2008, its urban GDP is accounting for 58% of its overall GDP and if the current trend continues it is expected that urban India will generate 70% of India's GDP by 2030. The challenge for India will be to ramp up investment in line with economic growth

Indian cities are failing to provide a basic standard of living to their urban residents, and life could become tougher as cities expand. As the urban population and its incomes increase, demand for every key service will increase five to sevenfold in cities of every size and type. If India continues to invest in urban infrastructure at its current rate -- very low by

international comparison -- gridlock and urban decay will result. India urgently needs to adopt a new approach to manage urbanization. Urban India today is distributed in shape with a diverse range of large and small cities, spread widely around the nation. To address the issue of urbanization, India should continue to aim at a distributed model of urbanization because this suits its federal structure and also helps to ensure that migration flows are not balanced towards any particular city or cities. To control the migration from rural to urban areas, it is necessary to provide basic amenities and facilities in rural areas which are similar to those in urban areas. Schemes like PURA attempt to bridge these gaps in order to ensure that the rural areas have amenities which are at par with those in urban India. This would help in whittling down the migration from rural to urban area.

### **Objective of the Scheme**

The objective of the scheme is to provide urban amenities and livelihood opportunities in rural areas to bridge the rural-urban divide, thereby reducing migration from rural to urban areas.

### **Salient features of the scheme**

The key characteristics of the scheme are:

- ❖ Simultaneous delivery of key infrastructure in villages leading to optimal use of resources
- ❖ Provision of funds for O&M of assets for 10 years post-construction, along with capital investment for creation of assets
- ❖ Transformation of several schemes into a single project, to be implemented as per set standards in a defined timeframe, with the requirements of each scheme being kept intact
- ❖ Combining livelihoods creation with infrastructure development
- ❖ Enforcement of standards of service delivery in rural areas almost at par with those
- ❖ obtaining in urban areas Enforcement of service standards through a legally binding arrangement.

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## **14.5 ROLE OF VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATION IN RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT, PROBLEMS AND LIMITATIONS.**

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Here we shall discuss the intervention and implications of voluntary action by understanding the factors that motivate voluntary action, the present scenario of voluntary organisations and their objectives, and voluntary services in the Indian context.

### **Factors Motivating Voluntary Action**

The factors, which motivate people to take voluntary action or the sources of voluntarism, may be identified as religion, government, business, philanthropy and mutual aid. The missionary zeal of religious organisations, the commitment of government of public interest, the profit-making urge in business, the altruism of the 'social superiors' and the motive of self-help among fellowmen are all reflected in voluntarism. Bourdillon and William Beveridge viewed mutual aid and philanthropy as two main sources from which voluntary social service organisations would have developed. They spring from the individual and social conscience respectively. The other factors may be personal interest, seeking benefit

such as experience, recognition, knowledge and prestige, commitment to certain values, etc.

Further, a variety of impulses are responsible for the formation of voluntary associations with the purpose of serving their fellowmen or the unfortunate lot of society. Voluntary organisations are strong agents of political socialization in a democracy, and educate their members about social norms and values and help combat loneliness. Psychological impulses lead people to join voluntary action for security, self-expression and for satisfaction of interests. Thus, the psychological joining motivation for voluntary association is a complex phenomenon. It may vary from one individual to another and one group of individuals to another depending upon their culture, social milieu and political environment.

### **Voluntary Organisations at a Glance.**

By and large voluntary action is generated through social, religious and cultural organisations. This is made possible by organisations appealing to people for help. But this does not mean that volunteers always work through or in a particular organisation. With the turn of the century people are increasing by turning to political solutions to tackle social and religious reforms and movements.

The sphere of social is still very largely the domain of voluntary workers and voluntary organisations. No complete or reliable data is available about the total number of voluntary organisations in the country, as many of them are not receiving 'government aid and are working with their own resources. Some of these are all- India organisations concerned with a wide range of activities; others are state or district level organisations. At present in India quite a large number of non-governmental organisations (IVGOs) are working for various causes. They help groups and individuals with diverse political and other interests, contribute to the strengthening of a feeling of national solidarity and promote the participative character of democracy. They have a role to play not only in areas which are accepted as state responsibilities, they can also venture into new fields, work in new areas, unveil social evils and give attention to any unattended or unmet needs. Many of the NGOs act as a stabilizing force by welding together people into groups that are not politically motivated and are not concerned about the fortunes of any

### **Objectives of Voluntary Organisations**

The following are the main objectives for which various organisations are working:

1. Protection and development of children
2. Welfare of women in the rural areas.
3. Services for youth.
4. Community welfare.
5. Promotion of educational facilities.
6. Promotion of public conscience on social problems.
7. Promotion of moral standards and family welfare.
8. Prevention of disease, health care, etc.
9. Protection and welfare of the handicapped.
10. Eradication of social handicaps for certain groups.
11. Spiritual upliftment
12. Promotion of international brotherhood.
13. Promotion of natural interests through voluntary effort.

14. Training of workers for fieldwork.

15. Protection of nature, animals, etc.

### **Role of Voluntary Organisations in Social Welfare**

The development of voluntary organisations in India, in its historical perspective, has been dealt with earlier in this chapter. We will now focus on the role of voluntary organisations in social welfare and planned development. In fact, the social and economic development programme, enunciated in the fourteen point constructive programme of Gandhiji, was used as a spring-board to accelerate the process of political struggle for independence and a way to activate the under-privileged and down-trodden masses to develop themselves economically and socially, on a "self-help through mutual help" basis. A network of voluntary agencies was created to promote different constructive programmes like village industries,

Khadi, Nai Talim, Leprosy Work, Harijan Seva, etc. with the help of thousands of selfless and dedicated workers. This was the basis of social welfare programmes by the voluntary organisations in the post-independence period.

The main objective of planned development is to mobilise the known as well as the hidden, material and human resources in such a way as to improve the socio-economic living conditions of the people to the maximum at a given time. In general, voluntary organisations have a role to play in the economic and industrial development of the country and also to motivate people to eliminate the evil influences of the industrialization. Though the voluntary organisation do not have much of a role to play in transport and communication, they did play an important role in the construction and maintenance of fielded and village roads.

One of the major problems that faces NGOs is lack of resources, both financial and human. Since most of the activities undertaken by them are in the nature of extension work, they cannot become self-supporting. They are dependent for funds on the government, whose procedures are often slow and time-consuming, on foreign donor agencies and industries whose grants may not be available on regular basis. Often, voluntary agencies do not have information about the government resources earmarked for the development of the area in which they operate, nor about the methods and procedures to be adopted to avail themselves of these resources. It is, therefore, not unusual to come across a situation where, on the one hand, the voluntary agency complains of lack of funds and, on the other, the government provisions lapse for lack of suitable projects to utilise them. NGOs have also weaknesses that include

- (a) limited financial and management expertise,
- (b) limited institutional capacity,
- (c) low levels of self-sustainability,
- (d) lack of inter-organizational coordination,
- (e) small scale interventions, and (f) lack of understanding of the broader socioeconomic context. Professionals from rural development, management, medicine, and allied disciplines dominate some NGOs. These professionals have desired knowledge and skills, but their attitudes towards grassroots are not unquestionable. They have deadened the activist edge of NGOs and made the NGOs cold, calculating, and 'business-like' in approach. Some other NGOs gather funds to implement projects beyond

their capacity. Being close to the corridors of power and pampering the officialdom for pushing files, making deals, and failing to achieve project objectives in the field, these NGOs are near moral bankruptcy.

### **Check your progress - 3**

**Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

5. Write the concept of Poverty Alleviation Programme?

6. Write about the PURA Scheme?

## **14.6 LET US SUM UP**

In this unit we have discussed Welfare Programmes including – noon meal scheme – development of Women and Children in rural Areas (DWCRA), Integrated Child Development Scheme, Tamil nadu Integrated Nutrition Programme, Antyodaya Programme, Annapoorna Scheme, programme of rural Health and Total Sanitation, five year plans and Strategies for Rural Development, Role of Social Workers, concepts of Provision of Urban Infrastructure in Rural Areas, Role of Voluntary organization in rural Community Development, Problem and Limitations.

## **14.7 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

1. Write the basic concepts of Welfare Programme?
2. What are the strategy and objectives of DWCRA?
3. Write the meaning and Objectives of ICDS?
4. What are the basic assumptions of Annapoorna Scheme?
5. Write the concept of Poverty Alleviation Programme?
6. Write about the PURA Scheme?

## **14.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

1. Welfare is a type of government support for the citizens of that society. Welfare may be provided to people of any income level, as with social security (and is then often called a social safety net), but it is usually intended to ensure that people can meet their basic human needs such as food and shelter.
2. The basic objective of DWCRA is to provide rural women with productive income generating assets and credit, and also enhance their skills. Further, it seeks to provide an effective organizational support structure so that, to be more effectively, the women involved may receive assistance in the production of goods and services. The target group of DWCRA is the same as that of IRDP and TRYSEM. The basic deviation from IRDP, however, lies in the fact that under DWCRA, it is not individual families which receive assistance but the group. The DWCRA scheme envisages the formation of groups, each consisting of 15 to 20 women. It is expected that the women would come together for activities which are mutually beneficial to them. Natural Factors, Technological Factors, Social Factors, Economic Factors, Cultural Factors, Political Factors
3. Launched in 1975, Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) is a unique early childhood development programme, aimed at

addressing malnutrition, health and also development needs of young children, pregnant and nursing mothers. ICDS consists of 4 different components, namely:

1. Early Childhood Care Education & Development
  2. Care & Nutrition Counseling
  3. Health Services
  4. Community Mobilization Awareness, Advocacy & Information, Education and Communication
4. The Ministry of Rural Development launched the scheme in 2000-2001. Indigent senior citizens of 65 years of age or above who though eligible for old age pension under the National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS) but are not getting the pension, are covered and 10 kgs of food grains per person per month are supplied free of cost under the scheme.
  5. The Sixth Plan, (1980-85) again undertook eradication of poverty as its primary aim. Consequently, the programmes to eradicate poverty – NREP, RLEGP (later merged into Jawahar Rozgar Yojana). TRYSEM, DWCRA Integrated Rural Development Programme – were strongly emphasized. The IRDP, coupled with rural employment programmes, the Minimum Needs Programme and the area development programmes, meant that the Sixth Plan had a strong emphasis on the rural sector.
  6. The speed of urbanization poses an unprecedented policy change – yet India has barely engaged in a national discussion about how to handle this seismic shift in the make-up of the nation. The population of India residing in urban areas will increase from 340 million to 590 million by 2030. Urbanization is expected to speed up across India, impacting almost every state. As India expands, India's economic make-up will also change. In 1995, India's GDP split almost evenly between its rural and urban economies. In 2008, its urban GDP is accounting for 58% of its overall GDP and if the current trend continues it is expected that urban India will generate 70% of India's GDP by 2030. The challenge for India will be to ramp up investment in line with economic growth

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## 14.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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