Research Abstracts on Rural Development

1998 – 2009

2010

Documentation Centre for Women and Children
National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development
5, Siri Institutional Area, Hauz Khas, New Delhi - 110016
Project Team

Guidance and Support : Dr. Sulochana Vasudevan

Project In-Charge : Meenakshi Sood

Abstracting : Dr. Prekshi

Computer Assistance : Pawan Kumar
Foreword

Research on women and children reveals that there are several areas which require the attention of planners and programme implementers. Policy decisions based on research findings are rooted in ground reality, and therefore have the capacity to bring about tangible improvement in the situation, whether it is with regard to nutritional status, health practices, income generation, domestic violence or rights of women and children. Research on social issues in India is being conducted by a plethora of organisations, namely research institutes, government ministries and departments, autonomous organisations, home science colleges, social work departments of universities, medical colleges, international and national voluntary organisations. As research is a vital input for development, planners, administrators and researchers are on the look out for social factors which have the potential to impact the outcomes of various government programmes. With this aim in view, the Documentation Centre for Women and Children (DCWC) of the Institute is engaged in the process of collecting and documenting valuable research in the areas of women and children. DCWC collects research findings from many widely scattered sources for the use of researchers. Hence this project was undertaken to bring out compilations of research abstracts on various aspects related to women and children for the benefit of users.

"Research Abstracts on Rural Development, 1998-2009" has been compiled to present widely scattered research in a compact form, and assist in making encapsulated information and recommendations of research available to planners, programme implementers and researchers. Research studies conducted by various organisations during the period 1998 to 2009 have been summarised under various titles like DWCRA; employment including NREGA; information, education and communication; monitoring and evaluation; panchayati raj; poverty; sanitation and village industries, etc.

It is hoped that this document would be of immense value to all stakeholders working for the survival, development and empowerment of women and children. It would not have been possible to bring out this document without the cooperation of various organisations who have very kindly shared their research studies with NIPCCD. I wish to place on record my appreciation of the efforts put in by the staff of DCWC specially Smt. Meenakshi Sood, Deputy Director and Dr. Sulochana Vasudevan, Joint Director (WD) for overall guidance and support in completion of this project.

(Dinesh Paul)
Director
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Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. DWCRA 3. POOR WOMEN 4. RURAL WOMEN 5. MAINSTREAMING WOMEN 6. ROLE OF NGOs 7. ROLE OF VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS 8. PROBLEMS OF RURAL WOMEN 9. INCOME GENERATION 10. SELF HELP GROUPS.

Abstract: During the Sixth Five Year Plan period (1982-83), development of women and children in rural areas (DWCRA) was launched with the primary objective of focusing attention on women of rural families, living below the poverty line. By the end of VIII Five Year Plan, the scheme had covered about 1.686 million poor women in rural areas. In Gujarat, DWCRA was launched in 1984 in two districts, Ahmedabad and Junagadh, and by VIII Plan period about Rs.74.1 million were spent in the State covering 61,000 poor women organized into 4300 groups. To assess the impact of DWCRA Programme in Gujarat, partially structured questionnaire and open discussions were held. 91.28% DWCRA members ventured out alone while grazing only, 14.33% women visited district head quarters alone; this showed that women derived as much confidence in the company of fellow women, as in the presence of their husbands or other male relatives. Women were most ignorant about legal matters that concerned the economic sphere - the market site. There was a clear distinction between social and economic domains. About 15% women thought that they participated in important decision making like purchase of assets and sale or borrowing money. About 66% women felt that they did not face any problems. About 33% NGO supported groups chose embroidery as an income generating activity. Only 1.89% women members of NGO supported groups could make it to local political institutions like Gram Sabha or Gram Panchayat. About 27% women knew about the existence of laws relating to divorce and maintenance and only 6% to 8% were aware of legal protection. Findings indicated that organizing women's collectives was a relevant strategy for empowering them, as poor women demonstrated a strong
tendency to derive strength from being a member of the group. The intervention of NGOs had a positive impact on functional status of DWCRA groups. DWCRA's failure to make a mark on the development scene was due to problems in conceptualization, design and implementation. DWCRA needed to find a perfect fit between skills, resources, available technological options, markets and the chosen activity. Gramsevaks needed training about group mobilization and development. A system should be designed to record the feedback of women regarding functioning of groups and their role, Gramsevaks, animations and NGOs. The relevance and specific role of NGOs need to be debated more widely so that terms and areas of association between the state and private sectors would be clearer.
Employment

Adhikari, Anindita and Bhatia, Kartika. (2010).
NREGA wage payments: can we bank on the banks? Delhi: Delhi School of Economics, Centre for Development Economics. 8 p.

Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. NREGA 3. NATIONAL RURAL EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE ACT 4. RURAL EMPLOYMENT 5. BANKS 6. ROLE OF BANKS 7. WAGE PAYMENTS 8. PAYMENT OF WAGES.

Abstract: The Government of India has shifted from cash payment of wages under the renamed Mahatama Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS) to settlement through bank accounts. This has been done in order to prevent defrauding of workers and to give them greater control over their wages. A survey covered 2 blocks each in Allahabad district (Uttar Pradesh) and Ranchi district (Jharkhand). In Allahabad the sample blocks were Karchana and Shankargarh whereas in Ranchi the sample blocks were Mander and Angara. A total of 259 workers were surveyed of whom 201 (78%) were men and 58 (22%) were women. It was found that women workers did not have an account in their name and received their wages through their husband’s account. Almost half (45%) of the sampled workers were illiterate, with only 21% having completed Class 10. Members of the upper castes in Allahabad were economically better off. The blocks in Ranchi district had predominantly tribal population. Most of the survey respondents (87%) were bank account holders, while 13% (all in Angara block) had their accounts in post offices. 44% of the workers were accompanied by a gram panchayat official at the time of opening an account, 16% were accompanied by a contractor, and only 28% had opened their account on their own. 44% of the workers went unaccompanied to the bank and withdrew the money themselves, while 50% went and withdrew the money with someone’s help. 77% of the sampled workers preferred NREGA wages to be paid through banks or post offices rather than in cash. In Angara and Shankargarh blocks, 94% of the sampled workers stated preference for the bank system, whereas a more mixed view was found in Karchaha (85%) and Mander (49%) blocks. 89% of the workers who went to withdraw their NREGA wages found the banking staff helpful, but 38% of the illiterate workers who went unaccompanied to the bank to withdraw wages complained of some harassment by bank officials. 76% of the workers confirmed the accuracy of the bank records, while 13% found discrepancies, and the remain 11% were unable to verify their bank records. In 4 out of 19 gram panchayats, the survey teams found evidence of fraud associated with fake names in the payment order. In Banjhila panchayat of Mander block, most
of the workers listed on the payment order belonged to the abhikarta’s family. It was found that in Kakram gram panchayat of Allahabad district, names of many upper caste men were included in the payment order even through the villagers said that these men had never worked on NREGA worksites. In Akauria panchayat of the same district, almost half of the names on the payment order were fake. In Chatra panchayat in Angara block upto 10 fakes were found in the payment order. The survey pointed to some serious issues related to the use of post offices as a payment agency, including poor record keeping and their inability to cope with mass payments of NREGA wages. In remote areas, large distances to the nearest bank or post office also causes much hardship to the NREGA workers. Hence it was recommended that to facilitate efficiency in wage payments and monitoring, preference should be given to centralized banks and financial institutions with computerized records; to ensure accountability within this new system, banks must be brought under the ambit of the Act’s transparency provisions; to restore public scrutiny of wage payments, distribution of cheques or wage slips should be done in a public place along with reading aloud of muster rolls and maintenance of job cards. Ultimately, the best protection against embezzlement is the empowerment of NREGA workers.

Commendable Act : field reports suggest that the anticipated benefits of employment guarantee are beginning to show in the pioneer districts. New Delhi : Delhi Univ, Dept. of Sociology. 5 p.

**Key Words**: 1.RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2.EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE ACT 3.EMPLOYMENT RURAL AREAS 4.EMPowerment WOMEN.

**Abstract**: The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) came into force in 200 districts in February 2006. Many districts were unable to put the required systems in place before the summer months, which tend to be the period of works. The field report suggests that the anticipated benefits of employment guarantee are beginning to show in the pioneer districts. The study reports that the levels of NREGA employment and expenditure were higher in 2007-08. NREGA generated 900 million person-days of employment in 2006-07, at a cost of about Rs. 9000 crore. This is much below the employment and expenditure level that would materialize if the Act were implemented in letter and spirit. There are startling differences in the levels of NREGA employment in different states. Some state governments have clearly decided to own the NREGA and have seized this opportunity to provide large scale employment to the rural poor at the cost of the central government. The best performing states were Rajasthan (nearly 100 days),
Surprisingly, Kerala was at the rock bottom due to the low demand for NREGA employment in the state, rather than that of a failure to provide it. The large north Indian states generally lag far behind in the implementation of schemes. But in the case of NREGA, the pattern was reversed - only one of the southern (Karnataka) or western states has generated more than 10 person-days of employment per rural household in 2006-07, while the eastern and northern states have done comparatively well. It was encouraging to find that NREGA made an early start in these deprived regions. Women's share of NREGA employment is nearly 50% at the all India level, rising to a startling 81% in Tamil Nadu. The study found that the economic dependence of women on men in rural India plays a major role in the subjugation of women, and in this respect NREGA is an important tool of social change. However, many states are violating the Act by failing to ensure that the share of women in NREGA employment is at least 33%: Jammu and Kashmir (4% only), Himachal Pradesh (12% only) and Uttar Pradesh (17%). The labour component of the NREGA is supposed to account for at least 60% of total expenditure. This requirement is comfortably met in most states, though some of them have marginally lower ratios, and Himachal Pradesh spends only 52% of NREGA funds on the labour component. Some states are evidently paying less than the statutory minimum wage, in flagrant violation of the Act. The most glaring offender in this respect is Rajasthan, where NREGA workers earned a meagre Rs. 51 a day on an average in 2006-07 even though the statutory minimum wage was Rs. 73 a day. The report suggests that it would be naive to think that the long history of fraud in public works programmes has already come to an end. But recent experience shows that it is possible to remove mass corruption from NREGA. This calls for a strict implementation of transparency safeguards, as well as firm action whenever corruption is exposed.


Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. NREGA 3. NATIONAL RURAL EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE SCHEME 4. RURAL EMPLOYMENT 5. EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE SCHEME.

Abstract: National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS) is a legislation enacted on August 25, 2005, which provides a legal guarantee for 100 days of employment in every financial year to adults of rural households willing to do public work related unskilled manual work at the statutory minimum wage. The present study was conducted in 2 gram panchayats namely Imipur Grant and Runcot of Tripura in northeastern India (87 days), Assam, Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh.
Khairabad block of Sitapur district. A total of Rs 7555 crores was allocated under NREGA for Sitapur district during 2007-08. Each block of the district got 5-6% of the total allocation. Among 19 blocks of the district, Pahla block received maximum 9.16% while Aliya block received minimum 3.52% of the total allocation. During 2006-07 and 2007-08, 4 types of work were undertaken like Ponds, Kharanja, Minor Irrigation and Plantation. In 2007-08, utilization of the sanctioned amount on wage component was low for ponds (60.49%) and minor irrigation (21.55%) as compared to Kharanja (93.62%). During the initial year of implementation of the NREGA, total job card holders were 894 but in the subsequent year 2007-08 their number was only 132. Women job card holders were only 12, SC card holders were in the majority (96), followed by OBCs (26) and minorities (10) in 2007-08. This showed that people were not coming forward to demand jobs as the pace of the programme is increasing while the situation should have been otherwise. Beneficiaries reported that only 50% families were listed under BPL category, 38% beneficiaries were landless and 52% beneficiaries had less than 1 acre holding. 56% of the NREGA beneficiaries reported that women's participation was not 33%. Majority felt that roster based applications for the work was not followed and most of them did not go beyond their village for work. On an average 1 person per family got employment and during 2006, 2007 and 2008, each person got employment of 78 days, 75 days and 90 days respectively, which was less than the promised 100 days of employment. Thus, more employment days need to be provided to workers under NREGA in the district. Around 70% of the beneficiaries reported that project work was prepared in Gram Sabha (village) meetings and 66% informed that they participated in these meetings. Only 50% of the NREGA beneficiaries reported that the details of sanctioned work and its amount was read out in Gram Panchayat meetings and list of the work was displayed on the notice board of Gram Panchayats. Various discrepancies were reported in the payment of wages by the NREGA workers. It is mandatory in the NREG Act that workers must be paid within 7 days of end of work, but 30% of them reported that they did not get the payment within the stipulated time. 50% said that their payment remained due after completion of the work, and only 50% of the total workers were paid the minimum wages prescribed under the NREG Act. Women are given less wages on the pretext of their being women. When workers failed to finish work within the stipulated time, their wages were reduced. Impact of the NREG Programme on providing greater employment and income opportunities to rural workers has been positive. Assets created under the programme have been mostly of durable nature. The programme has boosted the overall development of villages. It was recommended that the stipulated number of days of employment should be provided.

Report on evaluation study of rural employment generation programme. 
Mumbai : VMRCDI. 384 p.

Key Words : 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT  2. EMPLOYMENT GENERATION  3. RURAL EMPLOYMENT  4. ENTREPRENEURS  5. RURAL ENTREPRENEURS.

Abstract : The Khadi and Village Industries Programmes (KVIP) have a unique capacity for generation of large scale employment in rural areas with less capital cost. The Rural Employment Generation Programme (REGP) is not a poverty alleviation programme but a compendium of all other such schemes under Khadi and Village Industries (KVI) sector which were merged into REGP when they were streamlined and approved by the Government of India. The principal objective of the study was to study the impact on rural employment of the magnitude, nature, quality and linkages developed by the enterprises for ensuring sustainability, and to study the optimal level of investments required. Basic data collected for the study revealed that 1,18,466 projects were sanctioned under REGP as on March 31, 2001 in 34 States and U.Ts of the country. The mandate was to cover a sample of 10% of projects by selecting samples State-wise on probability proportional to the total number stratified into three. A State-wise analysis indicated that Gujarat led other States in creating employment with 17 persons employed per enterprise. State-wise, Agro and Food based industry were highly preferred in Punjab (71.8%); Andhra Pradesh (63%); Tamil Nadu (55.6%); Uttar Pradesh (46.5%); Meghalaya (44%), and West Bengal (35%). Projects receiving direct assistance from banks were mostly working satisfactorily, with 359 service projects comprising 80.13% of the total, followed by mineral based industries with a total of 353 projects comprising 74.47% of the total. In Andhra Pradesh, out of 23 districts where projects were assisted, Mahabubnagar had the highest number of projects assisted (9.69%). In Rajasthan, districts where enterprises were concentrated were Jaipur (10.9%), Banswara (10%), Tonk (8.6%) and Ajmer (8.6%), etc. The percentage of enterprises assisted by banks that were working satisfactorily was highest in Andhra Pradesh (97.3%), and Madhya Pradesh (94%), while the projects not working satisfactorily were in Gujarat (28.5%), and West Bengal (27.9%). The local sale of bank assisted enterprises was higher in Andhra Pradesh (95.5%) and West Bengal (93.7%), and lowest in Maharashtra (40%). Rajasthan had the most number of enterprises (15.5%). In the General Category, the State Board assisted 45.3% enterprises or 23.2% started by entrepreneurs. The appraisal aspect of the project should be left to the prerogative of the Branch Manager, who finances the proposal. Bankers were happy in prompt release of margin money but requested for post-sanction follow up by the KVIC/ KVIB. REGP has, in a majority of the cases, encouraged cementing the
relationship between financial institutions and entrepreneurs. The overall additional employment generated under the projects was 10 persons per enterprise on an average. The annual average income of Rs.43,000 was not uniform over the different levels of investment per enterprise. There may be adequate and improved technologies available, but knowledge about them and their application requires innovate entrepreneurial skills. REGP also needs to be reoriented to promote upward social mobility by focusing on certain down trodden social groups in society.


Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. NREGS 3. NATIONAL RURAL EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE SCHEME 4. RURAL EMPLOYMENT 5. EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE 6. ROLE OF PANCHAYATS.

Abstract: Gandhiji said, "If villages prosper the country will prosper, if villages sink the country will sink". Keeping this in view, the Indian State has initiated a number of development measures for all round development of India. Poverty and unemployment are two major problems India faces. The central Government launched “National Employment Guarantee Scheme”, the NREG Act received President’s assent on 5th September 2005, and was notified on 7th September 2005. It was initially introduced in 200 backward districts on 2nd February 2006, and later extended to another 130 districts from 1st April 2006, thus covering a total of 330 districts. From 1st April 2008 the scheme has been launched in 604 districts in India. In UP the scheme was launched in the first phase in Hamirpur and Sonbhadra districts. The study assessed impact of the scheme on livelihood conditions; participation of the under-privileged sections; female empowerment; strengths and weaknesses of the scheme; and aimed at suggesting measures for effective implementation. 2 villages from all 8 blocks of Sonbhadra district were selected for the sample survey, covering a total of 16 villages. The sample was 400 households who participated in the scheme and 135 non-beneficiary households. 4 sets of questionnaires were used namely Block Level Schedule, Gram Panchayat Level Schedule, Beneficiary Level Schedule and Non-Beneficiary Level Schedule. Sonbhadra is one of the most backward districts of UP, and SC population is 48.57% in rural areas and 13.22% in urban areas. Out of the total work force (main + marginal), 73.13% were engaged in the primary sector; 34.79% were cultivators and 38.34% were agricultural labourers. Other occupations and Household Industry had
24.38% and 2.49% workers respectively. This indicates the importance of NREGS for poverty alleviation and employment generation in rural areas of the district. The scheme was found to be beneficial as rural connectivity improved, water conservation has helped crops and cattle, khet talab (field ponds) improved the condition of the population, migration to urban areas reduced, etc. In 2006-07, 22.41% works were completed while in 2007-08, only 18.74% works were completed. 87.50% block officials said that funds reached the Gram Panchayat within 15 days, but this was not confirmed. 97% admitted that workers do not receive dated receipts for their application for work. The number of families who got 100 days of employment in 2006-07 and 2007-08 was 7.02% and 8.32% respectively. Women's participation has been satisfactory at 29.59% and 32.35% respectively during 2006-07 and 2007-08, which was higher than Hamirpur, where it was 23.25% and 23.67%. Majority of the beneficiaries were in 15-45 years age group. Sources of income revealed that NREGS was the 6th source in 2007-08, contributing 11.11% share of the income. 99.50% beneficiaries were unaware of unemployment allowance and 99.25% mentioned that shade, medical, and crèche facilities were not available at work sites. Their standard of living was low as 92.59% people were living in temporary homes and none of them had electricity connection. 70% were engaged in non-agricultural activity and 94% in construction sector. 89% said that officials did not accept their application for registration, 64% applied but were still waiting for job cards, 40.74% reported that discrimination prevailed on the basis of caste, religion and sex. More than 59% respondents wanted to work but did not get work, 30% reported that they did not have job cards, in almost 5% cases payment was pending, and 6.36% faced problems as they had small children. It was suggested that Office of Block Programme Officer and Gram Panchayat should be strengthened by increasing manpower. Technical staff should be properly paid for better coordination between staff and NREGS staff. Number of Panchayat Mitras should be increased through written exam. Families who got 100 days of employment in both years was low, which must be checked. Non-completion of on-going projects needs strict monitoring. People’s participation can be increased through meetings of gram sabha, rallies, nukkad natak (street plays), etc. Committees, grievance cells, etc. should be made functional, and training and orientation programmes for NREGS staff should be organized. Newly elected Pradhans must be a part of capacity building programmes. A copy of NREG Act should be made available at Gram Sabha level.


**Key Words:** 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. NREGS 3. NATIONAL RURAL EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE SCHEME 4. RURAL EMPLOYMENT 5. EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEE SCHEME.

**Abstract:** In the 59th year of Independence, Indian Parliament passed "National Rural Employment Guarantee Act" (NREGA) in September 2005, towards partial fulfillment of a Constitutional obligation under Article 41, which provides non-justifiable 'Right to Work' to every citizen of the country. NREGS was initially introduced in 200 most backward districts on 2nd February 2006, and later extended to 130 districts from 1st April 2006, thus covering a total of 330 districts. From 1st April 2008 the scheme has been launched in all 604 districts of India. The objective of the study was to analyse the processes during initiation and execution of NREGS in UP. 350 beneficiary households (BH) from 14 villages of Hamirpur district were selected, and 115 non-beneficiary households (NBH) were also covered. The study was conducted during 2006-07 and 2007-08. The total BPL population was 339258, of whom 183185 were males and 156073 were females. The total BPL population comprises 56798 (31%) males and 47654 (30.53%) females of SC category, 86254 (47.08%) males and 72869 (46.68%) females under OBCs, 22388 (12.23%) males and 19860 (12.73%) females under General Category, and 17745 (9.69%) males and 15690 (10.06%) females under Other Category. In 2007-08, Rs. 20197 lakh was sanctioned and Rs. 11748 lakh was utilized i.e. 58.17% of the sanctioned funds. Flow of funds from block to panchayat and beneficiary level was delayed due to reasons like favouritism and unethical demands made by block officials and unfavourable behaviour of bank employees, etc. Number of families employed for 100 days during 2007-08 was 18.13%. Women's participation was 23.67% in 2007-08, which was less than 33% norm of the scheme. NREGS is the 7th major source of income of beneficiary households. In 2007-08, 2225 offers were obtained and accepted, and 904 works were completed. Selection of work is done through open meeting of local panchayat and is approved by district panchayat. Main works selected by Gram Panchayat are water conservation, connecting roads, construction of dams, medh bandi (28.57% each), plantation of trees, construction of bridge/culverts and ponds (14.29% each). To make NREGS successful, wide publicity was given - messages, notices and information including the labour rate were given in newspapers (71.42%), meetings of Gram Sabha, through writing on walls (57.14%), nukkad natak (street plays) and pamphlets (28.57%), and departmental meetings (14.29%). Work distribution was communicated through munadi/nagada (drums), meetings (28.57%), gram panchayat officers, telephone and weekly staff meetings (14.28%). 85.71% respondents did not get offers either from
Forest Department or Irrigation Department. 85.71% officials said that they attended meetings of social audits, discussed the works with villagers, and formed committees to look at the under construction and constructed assets under NREGS. 71.43% block officials said that there was no provision for maintenance of assets created under NREGS. 98.57% panchayat pradhans said that on-going projects have been prepared at district level and 1.47% pradhans mentioned that it was done at panchayat level. 90% pradhans said that wages were now paid through banks, 7.14% mentioned post offices, and 2.86% said it was paid in cash. 90% respondents admitted that applicants got work within 15 days, 7.14% said that it took a month, and 2.85% said that it took more than a month. Only 30% pradhans admitted that Gram Panchayats read in front of Gram Sabha the projects sanctioned, amount granted and expenditure incurred on projects in the past 6 months. To improve the implementation of NREGS it was recommended that money should reach in time (42.85%), sufficient funds should be allotted, there should be increase in number of bank employees, technical staff should be appointed in gram panchayats at block level (28.57%), there should be separate staff for NREGS, solution should be found to problems in opening of bank accounts, and arrangement of conveyance for field staff (14.29%) should be made.


Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT  2. PRIME MINISTER’S ROZGAR YOJANA  3. EMPLOYMENT  4. EMPLOYMENT RURAL YOUTH  5. ENTERPRISES  6. RURAL ENTERPRISES  7. RURAL EMPLOYMENT  8. EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES  9. EMPLOYMENT RURAL AREAS  10. ANDHRA PRADESH.

Abstract: The Prime Minister’s Rozgar Yojana (PMRY) is one of the important schemes aimed at promoting self-employment of the educated unemployed youth in the country. The present study assessed the inter-district variation in achievement of targets in terms of number of loans disbursed for setting up self-employment enterprises against the targets; extent of profit generation to the beneficiaries and its determining factors; level of repayment of loans and influencing factors; and the issues and problems involved in the utilization of bank loans in the state of Andhra Pradesh. Data was collected through primary and secondary sources. The PMRY scheme was launched in the middle of financial year 1993-94 in urban areas with a target of 3335 beneficiaries, and was extended in rural areas with a target of 18,200 beneficiaries in the year 1994-95. In the years,
1995-96 to 2002-03, the target number of beneficiaries increased from 31,000 to 35,000. Data showed that cumulative achievement of targets against the numbers sanctioned was 87.3%. The achievement of target in terms of cases disbursed with loans by the banks was highest at 74% in the year 1994-95 which declined to 61% in the year 2003. It was found that PMRY programme was more attractive to the educated unemployed youth in backward districts than in developed districts. The study showed that the profitability in different income class intervals was comparatively better in urban than in rural areas. Better results in urban areas were due to higher investment, better market conditions due to the availability of a better economic and social infrastructure, and concentration of people with regular incomes to purchase goods and services. It was observed that the net profit was equal or more than equal to their expectations in the case of 22.3% of the total beneficiaries. On the other hand, the net profit generated from the enterprise was below their expectations in the case of 66.28% beneficiaries. The poor performance of profit generation was due to lack of adequate demand of product/services, etc. The recovery of loan was nil in the case of 6.9% beneficiaries and it was up to 25% of the demand in 19.9% cases. The main reasons were inadequate profit and diversion of funds. The success of the scheme largely depends on finding solutions to the issues involved in implementation and also problems faced by beneficiaries in running the enterprises.
Food


Key Words : 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT  2. FOOD FOR WORK   3. FOOD FOR WORK PROGRAMME  4. SAMPOORNA GRAMEEN ROZGAR YOJANA   5. EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMMES. 6. UTTAR PRADESH

Abstract : Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojna (SGRY), with an outlay of Rs 10,000 crores, was launched on 25 September 2001. The primary objectives of the programme were to ensure food security cum wage employment in rural areas, to create durable community, social and economic assets, and to develop infrastructure in rural areas. Both secondary and primary data were collected from both, unpublished documents and published data. The sample was drawn from four districts namely Chitrakoot, Pratapgarh, Deoria and Pilibhit. The literacy rate ranged between 31% and 43%, the male literacy rate ranged between 43-60% compared to a very low female literacy rate which ranged between 13% to 24%. During 2002-03, Chitrakoot and Deoria showed high utilization of allocation, lifting and availability of food grains. Pilibhit had the highest utilization of food grains (102% to 104%). Some basic facilities were available in villages of sample districts, in which 52.3% villages had Fair Price Shops (FPS), 56.7% sample villages had pucca (metalled) roads and 5.12% coverage of telecom facility. There was extremely low utilization of funds in Pratapgarh being 32.45% for 1st stream, and 40.01% for 2nd stream in 2002-03, while 100% utilization of funds was found in the other three districts (Chitrakoot, Pilibhit and Deoria). Utilization pattern of funds, food grains and mandays generated in block panchayat level works showed that Chitrakoot utilized the highest allocation of funds (42%), while Pratapgarh utilized only 17.14% of the allocated funds. Percentage of children below 14 years was 41.6%; the working population aged 15-60 years was 56.8%; and 1.6% were above 60 years. The percentage of married beneficiaries (83.4%) was much higher than unmarried beneficiaries (13.0%), especially in Chitrakoot (96.0%). 56.8 per cent workers believed that people were aware about the SGRY programme, whereas 39.4% workers believed that there was no awareness about the programme. 81.9% workers of Deoria believed that there was participation of local people in selection of
beneficiaries. About 25% beneficiaries identified the main problems for ineffective implementation of the programme such as misappropriation in payment of wages. About 50% workers suggested that employment should be made available during the non-agricultural season. Other suggestions offered were ensuring the supply of clean drinking water, timely distribution of food grains, and ensuring more work opportunities. The State Government should ensure timely release of funds to the implementing agencies. The SGRY is a step in the right direction for productive upliftment of the rural people, if it is implemented on 'inclusive' development path.
Information, Education and Communication


Key Words : 1.RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2.IEC PROGRAMME 3.INFORMATION EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION 4.IEC IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT 5.RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES 6.DWCRA 7.NATIONAL SOCIAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMME 8.TRYSEM.

Abstract : The quick evaluation of Information, Education and Communication Programmes (IEC) was conceived by the Union Ministry of Rural Development in October 1999. The study assessed the extent to which individual beneficiaries of six schemes - Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA), National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP), Watershed, Supply of Improved Toolkits to Rural Artisans (SITRA) and Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM) were empowered through IEC programmes. A survey was conducted in 128 districts, which covered 10,359 beneficiaries and 2,220 non-beneficiaries. The main purpose of the survey was to access the efficacy of existing means and channels of communication in educating BPL families about the various schemes being sponsored by the Ministry of Rural Development. The village panchayats of 95 districts out of a total of 128 were involved by District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs) in the awareness campaigns. Out of 10,359 beneficiaries, 54% were male and 46% were female. The JRY (2577) and DWCRA beneficiaries (1598) were aware of the scheme's target groups, special weightages, the role of panchayats in the scheme, the minimum wage norms, the selection procedure and the principal salient features of the programme. The 2,550 beneficiaries who availed of the NSAP, availed benefits under Old Age Pension Scheme (1,056), Family Benefit Scheme (503), and Maternity Benefit Scheme (991). The 247 watershed beneficiaries, 1,641 SITRA beneficiaries and 1490 TRYSEM beneficiaries were very aware of the programme objectives, and benefits to be derived from these schemes. Only 22% beneficiaries were aware of the weekly radio programmes on rural development, viz "Gaon Vikas Ki Ore" and "Chalo Gaon Ki Ore" and 19% had heard the programmes. 16% beneficiaries had seen the television programmes on rural development schemes. The 2,220 non-beneficiaries were 68% male and 32% female. The non-beneficiaries were well informed about NSAP programmes but ill-informed about DWCRA facilities. They were also not aware about TRYSEM and SITRA programmes. The non-beneficiaries
had poor awareness about IEC activities. Only 20% non-beneficiaries were aware of the weekly radio programmes on rural development and 16% had heard them, whereas 17% had seen television programmes. Overall, the majority insisted that more information was needed to benefit from rural development programmes. There is an urgent need to review the conventional approach towards IEC as there is considerable divergence between the findings of the survey and the views of officials.


Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. INFORMATION COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY 3. ICT FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT 4. INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY 5. ROLE OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT.

Abstract: This study was carried out to assess the impact of both, newer ICTs (Information Communication Technology) (like cell phones, computer and Internet) and older ICTs (radio, TV and landline phones) in the day to day life of R-3 (Remote, Rural and Regional) communities in the rural areas of three districts of Uttar Pradesh, namely Mirzapur, Badaun and Muzaffarnagar. A total of 356 villages were covered, 101 villages from Mirzapur, 75 villages from Badaun and 180 villages from Muzaffarnagar. It was found that Library/ Community Information Centres/ Panchayat Offices were rare in Uttar Pradesh, there were 64.44% such centres in Muzaffarnagar; 48.51% in Mirzapur and 32% in Badaun. The presence of cinema/video centres and stadium/ auditorium were rare in all the districts. In Mirzapur only 1% persons, in Badaun 1.33% persons, and in Muzaffarnagar only 2.22% villagers were familiar with the term ICTs, whereas a majority of the population surveyed in villages i.e. 99% in Mirzapur, 98.67% in Badaun and 97.78% in Muzaffarnagar were completely ignorant about ICTs. Cell phones were found with 17.82% people of Mirzapur, 9.3% people of Badaun, and 40% persons in Muzaffarnagar. Computer was observed with 1.98% persons in Mirzapur, 6.67% persons in Muzaffarnagar and 0% persons in Badaun. Internet was hardly present in Mirzapur (0.99%), Muzaffarnagar (2.22%) or Badaun (0%). According to Confederation of Indian Industries (CII) in 2007, 72% Indians live in rural areas/ villages, and ICTs can be a major driver of the economy and development. ICTs can play a major role in environmentally sustainable rural development, and the establishment of telecentres in rural communities facilitates socio-economic empowerment. In all districts, whether NREGA or non-NREGA, the presence of newer ICTs (like cell phones, computer and
Internet) was less compared to older ICTs (radio, television and landline phone), and the reference indicator 'electricity' was mostly available throughout the survey area, but its supply was very inconsistent in Uttar Pradesh. Face to face communication and letters were the most important communication mediums for specific information on issues such as education, health, agricultural business and transportation facilities. However, there had been a reduction in the number of social visits, face-to-face communication and travel since the telephone became available. Modern ICTs like e-mail or Internet was hardly used by rural communities in communicating with people within or outside their environs. In all districts people did not have easy availability or access to different ICTs, and 95.02% persons in Mirzapur, 96% in Badaun and 95.56% in Muzaffarnagar did not have access. Majority of the villagers (95.04% in Mirzapur, 93.33% in Badaun and 85% in Muzaffarnagar) did not feel that ICT was necessary for living. Lack of training/ skills and illiteracy were other factors responsible for not having ICTs (81.19% in Mirzapur, 92% in Badaun and 90% in Muzaffarnagar). Cost factor/ affordability was another criteria for not using ICTs in Mirzapur (98.1%), Badaun (92%) and Muzaffarnagar (98.89%). Distance was an impeding factor in Mirzapur (62.38%), Badaun (85.33%), and Muzaffarnagar (85%). Lack of infrastructure was found to be an obstacle in 78.21% cases in Mirzapur; 93.33% cases in Badaun and 57.78% cases in Muzaffarnagar. Local availability was also a factor for non-use in Mirzapur (46.53%), Badaun (20%) and Muzaffarnagar (28.89%). Gender bias and cultural barriers were considered equally important in hindering the spread of ICT in all the districts. Libraries/ Community Information Centres (CICs)/ Panchayat Offices can be remolded into information hubs or kiosks, if equipped with proper ICT infrastructure facilities. It can be interpreted that wider coverage, enhancement and upgradation of ICT initiatives (either Government or private) are required, especially for those who can not afford it and do not have access to the information that is likely to improve their health, education, livelihood, and can protect them against vulnerable situations. They should be empowered to utilize opportunities for a more prosperous future.
Micro Planning

Balakrishnan, Maya et al. (2005).

Key Words : 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. MICRO PLANNING 3. COMMUNITY MOBILIZATION 4. MOBILIZING COMMUNITY 5. ICDS SERVICES.

Abstract: The micro planning programme spearheaded in Maharashtra state by UNICEF is a part of a new paradigm of rural development. Conceptually, it is a process of empowering individuals at the grass root level with the goal of shifting from a provider-beneficiary approach to development to a partnership approach wherein local communities and development functionaries work together in planning, implementing and monitoring village level programmes. The Health Micro Planning Programme was initiated in Nandurbar District in July 2003. This programme aims to initiate political mobilization of villages through a five day exercise. The main objective of the study was to document the process of social change brought about by the village micro planning exercise. Additional goals of the programme were to improve health awareness, to instigate health behaviour change, and to build human capacity in order to enable communities to be self reliant in planning solutions to their own development problems. The study took place in 3 villages, i.e. Pati, Mohanpada, and Rajvihar village of Nandurbar district, Maharashtra. The study participants included village residents, village leaders, Government workers and Government officials, village volunteers, UNICEF facilitators, block coordinators, consultants and district coordinators. After the intervention it was found that there was improved garbage disposal, resulting in improved cleanliness seen across the three villages. There was increased building of soak pits and drainage systems resulting in improved village sanitation. There was increased awareness and demand for Government programmes such as maternal and child health services (MCH), anganwadi services (ICDS), medical services, and available Government schemes that provide for improved water access, roads and other infrastructure. There was increased awareness about personal health issues such as hygiene, maternal health care, safe drinking water, etc. The five day programme, with several participatory exercises, had mobilized the village community to form strong groups such as Yuva Mandal (Youth Groups) and SHGs. Based on these observations, it was concluded that any programme seeking to empower communities must take into account the
pre-implementation context in terms of prior mobilisation efforts, physical resources and available infrastructure. In communities that have had no prior mobilisation efforts, continued efforts to provide capacity building and material resources are needed to sustain the impact of programmes like “micro planning”.


Key Words : 1.RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2.MICRO PLANNING 3.ROLE OF YOUTH 4.CHECKLIST FOR CHILDREN 5.CHECKLIST OF SOCIAL INDICATORS.

Abstract : Micro planning is a process which aims at involving people from the grass roots level in their own development. The involvement of youth in the micro planning process was studied in Latur district. The process has been initiated in more than 754 villages spanning 5 blocks of Ausa, Ahmedpur, Nilanga, Latur and Udgir. 3 villages were chosen for the study. The micro planning process brought to light the issue of unclean surroundings, so youth initiated a cleanliness and tree plantation drive. Youth started activities like blood donation camps, extra classes for dropout students, and talks by experts were held in old buildings misused previously for defecating and dumping garbage. This enhanced their organizational skills and boosted self esteem. Youth realized the importance of awareness about HIV/AIDS and were motivated for new income generation activities. They were united and developed personal skills and individuality through various activities. After micro planning was initiated youth took up the issue of care of women during pregnancy and demanded good care and hygienic conditions in medical centres during delivery; families also took better care of them. SHGs in the village consisted of 11-12 women each which managed loans among themselves at an interest rate of 3% for expenditure on nutritional needs of malnourished children, building toilets, meeting dowry demands during weddings, etc. Every member was able to read and write her own name. Youth groups were also involved in community development, including child development. Adolescent boys received counselling and guidance for problems and were directed to undertake new initiatives, such as extra classes for dropouts, and information about cleanliness and hygiene through games and demonstrations. Schools now had classes up to 10th Grade as the importance of education was realized. Youth brought a change in sanitary habits of people, enhanced toilet use and created awareness about proper disposal of waste water of households. Youth spread awareness about preventive care for chikungunya, AIDS, etc. through skits,
and clarified misconceptions about AIDS which had a positive influence on people's attitude towards safe sex practices. The Panchayat became more accountable. Youth submitted a complaint to the Medical Officer (MO) of PHC regarding service delivery of health workers, and the rapport between youth and health professionals improved. In Jawali village youth were sensitized to gender issues. Earlier most girls could not come out of their homes due to parental pressure, but after sewing classes were initiated girls came out of their homes and women's participation increased. Young men and women attended agricultural exhibitions which provided information about agro based businesses. Youth felt that villages should be free from addiction and open defecation. Women went to hospitals for treatment of illnesses and some went for deliveries. They adopted better health practices. Jawali had 4 SHGs having 11-12 members each. Various issues were discussed like domestic violence, alcoholic husbands, lack of education, low status of women and lack of organisation among women themselves. Women's marginalization was reflected in the absence of their representation and leadership in the Gram Panchayat and Gram Sabha. In Jawali, the Sarpanch and Panchayat were skeptical of youth efforts but in Lakhangaon they were cooperative. Youth took up child care issues and meetings were open to all. Members were concerned about ill effects of superstitious beliefs and contacted 'Andhashraddha Nirmulan Samiti' to dispel superstitious beliefs from the minds of people. Youth influenced people in starting sanitation and health awareness drives and campaigns. Number of people picking up condoms increased after they were sensitized to the AIDS issue. In Karkatta, transport facilities were taken care of and many girls and boys went out of the village to pursue higher education. A library was started by youth which was fully functional with daily newspapers, periodicals and magazines. Community members took specific responsibilities in the Action Plan and in carrying activities forward. Women convinced their husband to built toilets. They dug soak pits in houses to dispose waste water. They used dippers to draw water from containers, added Medichlor to drinking water, and eradicated chikungunya. Women got support from savings groups, they were able to read and write, and made dairy products and sold them. They took responsibility to stop child marriages in the village and became confident and courageous to ask husbands about their earnings. Women encouraged their daughters to get educated, earn for themselves and be independent and self-reliant. Women started anti-addiction campaigns which reduced incidents of domestic violence. People were mobilized for programmes like Jal Swarajya and Total Sanitation Campaign. Impact on the community as well as health workers was greater and the rapport was much better than in the other two villages. People should be mobilized to develop their own local area.
Impact of micro planning on social exclusion. Pune: Yashwantrao Chawan Academy of Development Administration. 52 p.

Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. MICRO PLANNING 3. INCLUSION 4. INCLUSION OF CHILDREN 5. SOCIAL INCLUSION 6. SELF HELP GROUPS 7. VULNERABLE GROUPS 8. MAHARASHTRA.

Abstract: Social exclusion is a holistic framework for understanding inequalities, that seeks to uncover the subtle causes that limit participation from certain members of society. Although the Constitution and Government policies embrace equality as a fundamental virtue, exclusion remains prevalent in India, standing as an obstacle to further human development. Micro planning uses a participatory approach to encourage the involvement of the most marginalised individuals. This case study is an attempt to evaluate the impact of micro planning on social exclusion in Jalodhi village, located in the district of Chandrapur, Maharashtra. Jalodhi is mainly agricultural, and has a mixed population of scheduled castes (125), scheduled tribes (154), and other backward castes (581). Studies have found that SC/ST population has "lower access to capital assets like agricultural land, has lower urbanization rate and employment diversification away from agriculture and high dependence on wage labour, has high under employment, etc". In this study, covering 20 SC/ST and 2 OBC households, 8 families were below poverty line (BPL), 3 were SC/ST and 5 were OBC households as per Gram Panchayat records. 3 of 5 Gram Panchayat members from Jalodhi represent the lower castes, but SC/ST reserved seats do not exert equal power. 40% SCs were not educated, 11% OBCs were educated upto 11-12 Standard and 9% were educated upto Class 12 and above. All 40 respondents indicated that they felt comfortable entering public spaces and attending marriages and festivals. 65% of marriages still occur among women below the age of 18 years, only 70% mothers breastfed their children exclusively for 6 months, and 62% deliveries were attended by skilled personnel. 75% women made contributions to the family income. 9 out of 11 loans were used for agriculture, and in 2 cases non-agricultural investments were made. Only 10 women participated in the Gram Sabha as compared to 27 men. 54 girls and 53 boys were enrolled in Talodhi's primary school during Focused Group Discussion (FGD) with teachers. 3 women in Talodhi had education beyond Class 12 as compared to 11 men. No incident of maternal mortality was reported, and 78% of the women surveyed practiced family planning. Only 35% women had institutional deliveries, despite free universal health care. After the intervention, women became capable of going to banks on their own and making business transactions. They become more bold and daring due to involvement with SHGs. In 1991, 119 women were literate compared to 220 men.
but by 2001, 216 women were literate compared to 298 men. Jalodhi had 100% 
enrollment of children in primary school and 10% dropout rate in 1999 (NYK data). 
No discrimination was reported in the school, and children from all caste groups sat 
and ate together, and had equal access to water and sanitation. IMR was 36 (Sample 
Registration System, 2004) and the prevalence of underweight children was nearly 
50% (1999, National Family Health Survey 2). 68% of the respondents had a monthly 
per capita income of less than Rs.500, and these were either landless persons or 
owned less than five acres. It was recommended that monitoring activities such as 
monthly meetings and the regular revision of the village plan should be restarted; 
gram sabha meetings should be rescheduled; strong links between the elected body 
and villagers should be formed; and SHGs must be encouraged to develop awareness 
of their rights and entitlements and pursue new avenues for income generation.

Vestrheim, Kristin et al. (2007). 
Decentralized planning process : awareness and actions for improving key 

Key Words : 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. MICRO PLANNING 3. DECENTRALISED PLANNING 
4. COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT.

Abstract : The government programme of Strengthening Rural Decentralisation 
(SRD) focuses on the establishment and implementation of pro-poor participatory 
planning for sustainable local development in the 6 most backward districts of West 
Bengal. It is a holistic programme that covers livelihoods and social and 
infrastructural issues and operates through panchayati raj institutions (PRIs). The 
study covered 2 Gram Panchayats (GPs) of Sonathali and Beko in Kashipur block of 
Purulia district. 3 villages (Koshijurhi, Lori and Pabra) of the Sonathali GP and 2 
villages (Myasaradih and Beko) of Beko GP were covered. The total number of 
households was 2,633 in Sonathali and 2,358 in Beko. Sonathali was observed to be 
better than Beko, which could be attributed to the implementation of SRD and 
better performance of panchayat officials. Awareness among villagers led to 
increased demands for social action and better service delivery at the community 
level. In Beko, the panchayat office held no specific campaigns and meetings on 
health and education. General health problems prevailing in both blocks were 
reported to be jaundice, typhoid, diarrhoea, viral fever, tuberculosis, measles and 
malaria. Low access to safe and clean drinking water, poor handling and purification 
of water, risky sanitary practices and undesirable hygiene habits contributed to the 
disease burden. In Koshjurhi at least one tube well was seen, but in Lori the well dug 
by the Gram Unnayan Samity (GUS) was dry. Most people in Sonathali understood
the importance of good personal hygiene and habits relating to the handling of water but they were unable to practically translate this awareness into their every day behaviour. In Myasaradih Gram Sansad (GS), there was lack of awareness of good personal hygiene practices related to the handling of water and washing of hands. In primary school it was observed that hygienic habits had not been stressed upon by school officials. Children were observed washing their plates in a dirty pool near the toilets and they reported that their teachers never explained about hygienic practices. In Sonathali, sanitation remained a difficult task for panchayat functionaries to address and resolve. Purulia ranked the lowest i.e. 17th among the districts of WB. Some families had toilets in their houses. Pradhan (Village Head) reported that 70-80 household toilets were constructed in 2006. However, only 60% of those having toilets used them. A major reason for failure in toilet construction was that villagers preferred the comfort zone of defecating in open fields. The Government scheme of providing Rs.225 for constructing toilets for BPL families has not been met as most families wanted toilets of better quality. In Beko, some progress was made for providing toilets in homes under schemes like Indira Awas Yojana, Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana, etc. Around 40% households in GP had latrines. In Myasaradih there was a toilet at the primary school. Although women have expressed a need for toilets, no demand was made to the Panchayat and GUS. Staff at primary school and ICDS centre in Myasaradih GS encouraged toilet training among children as many felt uncomfortable using toilets. Awareness level in Sonathali was high on issues concerning the health of women and children, knowledge about the benefits/necessity of consuming iron folic acid tablets, breastfeeding, use of institutional delivery, family planning, avoiding early pregnancy, etc. but this did not translate into everyday practices. Most women in both Lori and Koshijurhi never consumed IFA tablets because they induced nausea. Most mothers recognized the importance of breastmilk, but women in SHGs of Lori did not feed infants colostrum. Institutional deliveries are increasing in panchayats and are around 40-50%. However, most deliveries take place with the help of trained ‘dais’ (midwives). Knowledge of family planning methods like oral contraceptives and condoms was minimal. Early marriage is common in Sonathali as most parents view the girl child as an additional burden on the family. In Beko, there was low awareness on maternal and child health. Awareness about education is quite good in Sonathali and there are no dropouts. In Koshijurhi there were 141 children enrolled in the primary school. In Koshijurhi and Lori mid day meals were attracting and retaining children in primary schools. But institutional problems like poor standard of teaching, irregular supply of books, absenteeism, etc. hamper the positive progress made in raising educational consciousness in the community. In Beko GP, 361 children were enrolled in school and
8 teachers were employed. In Myasaradih there were 54 children and 2 teachers in the primary school and dropout rate was 5%. Teachers did not impart sex education even though it was a part of the curriculum. In Sonathali there were 22 ICDS centres and the ICDS centre in Myasaradih covered 96 families with 53 children aged 0-6 years, about 20 children came to the AWC, and ICDS worker reported serving food to 40-45 children and mothers every day. It was found that ICDS centre in Myasaradih GS was not functioning properly. Villagers need to be informed about the activities and functions of the GUS and GP and they should be actively involved in the process of planning and implementation.
Monitoring and Evaluation


Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT  2. COMMUNITY MONITORING  3. GOVERNMENT PROGRAMMES  4. HEALTH  5. EDUCATION  6. WATER  7. SANITATION  8. CASE STUDY  9. SEHORE  10. MADHYA PRADESH.

Abstract: Various programmes have been implemented but they have failed to yield results due to lack of awareness and demand from citizens. In order to change this, Community Based Monitoring System (CBMS) is a concept wherein members of a village from a committee which monitors the delivery of services by the Government, the activities of the Panchayat, and also tries to bring about a change in the habits, behaviour and attitudes of the villagers. The present study examined the state of a CBM initiative, implemented by NGO Samarthan; issues of awareness; effectiveness of CBMS; strengthening local governance; factors which facilitate success; and the possibility of replication on a large scale. The study was conducted in 5 villages of Sehore district namely Rajukhedi (88 households); Manpura (60 households); Laudia (120 households), Bijlon (300 households); and Amla (125 households). Data was collected through interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs) with local stakeholders. Villagers identified the major obstacles to development as the following: access to clean drinking water, open defecation, poor roads, gender inequality, teacher absenteeism, infrequent ANM visits, an inefficient postal delivery system, lack of women's participation in the village decision making process, etc. In Manpura, it was observed that there have been some improvement in hygienic behaviour, i.e village became open defecation free which was made possible by the effort of the Village Water and Sanitation Committee. It was also found that women's requirement regarding drinking water was ignored by men in the Gram Sabha as they considered collecting water to be "women's work". In Bijlon, it was observed that lack of awareness and lack of coordination were the most significant barriers to success of the CBMS initiative, for instance, land that was allotted for a hand pump was eventually sold and the new owner dismantled the hand pump. In Amla and Laudia villages, economic condition of the households and
socio-cultural factors such as caste and class gave rise to conflicts which were major inhibiting factors to formation of 'Self Help Groups' and women were denied the space and credibility for inclusion in CBM process. It was found that in Rajukheda, where the intervention has been going on for four years, there was an extremely high level of awareness. In Amla, however, where the intervention was only 2 months old, only those directly involved in the initiative were aware of CBMS. It was found that signs, billboards and charts are ineffective, unless accompanied by oral communication and door to door campaigns. As far as the effectiveness of CBMS initiative was concerned, the process was highly successful in ensuring monitoring of programmes and improving the delivery of government services. However the process was not successful in monitoring the activities of the Panchayat state officials and functionaries. The level of success achieved in the area of self monitoring was also unclear. It was observed that the involvement of Youth Groups, Self Help Groups (SHGs), and a supportive Panchayat can contribute to the success of an intervention. It was recommended that CBMS should be used as a mechanism of social inclusion by engendering a culture of participation. After forming Youth Groups and SHGs organizers should determine the specific needs of the village and encourage the formation of other groups accordingly.


Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. PROGRAMMES RURAL DEVELOPMENT 3. RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES 4. EMPLOYMENT 5. RURAL EMPLOYMENT 6. HOUSING 7. WATER 8. SANITATION 9. TOILETS 10. EVALUATION RURAL DEVELOPMENT 11. MONITORING AND EVALUATION.

Abstract: The Tenth Five Year Plan adopted a set of quantifiable and monitorable targets which would enable us to focus on accelerating growth, not only as an end in itself, but also as the means to achieve success on other dimensions such as poverty reduction, employment creation and improvement in the quality of life. The Ministry of Rural Development implements various schemes for employment generation and alleviation of rural poverty and infrastructure development in rural areas. The Ministry has 3 Departments dealing with rural development, drinking water supply and land resources. The budget allocation for the year 2007-08 was Rs. 41,060 crores. The Government of India has brought in the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) to provide for the enhancement of livelihood security to poor households by providing at least 100 days of guaranteed wage employment in a year. The other major schemes under the Ministry are Swarnjayanti Gram
Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY), National Food for Work Programme (NFWP), Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana (SGRY), Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY), Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY), Watershed Development Programmes (WDP), Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme (ARWSP), and Central Rural Sanitation Programme (CRSP)/ Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC). These programmes are for poverty alleviation, employment generation, area development and infrastructure development in rural areas. In 2007-08, the budget of the Ministry has been increased by 30.58%. Wage Employment in lakh person-days in the year 2006-07 under the major rural development schemes was 4,241 under SGRY/ NFWP/ NREGP; the number of beneficiaries assisted were 1,683,005; number of SHGs formed were 245,090; number of schools covered under ARWSP were 71,498; number of school toilets constructed were 132,124; and number of balwadi toilets constructed were 53,254. For proper monitoring and evaluation, Ministry of Rural Development has adopted a five pronged strategy of (i) awareness generation, (ii) people's participation, (iii) transparency, (iv) accountability and (v) strict vigilance. The Ministry has evolved a comprehensive multi-level and multi-tool system for monitoring and evaluation of its programmes at various levels. Findings indicate that during the quarter 114,030 works executed under SGRY were verified. 50.56% of the total works verified were found to be road connectivity, 12.38% related to socio-economic infrastructure, 10.16% were drainage works, 7.64% were soil and moisture conservation projects, 4.60% were drinking water projects, and 9.52% were classified as other type projects. 91.55% of the verified works were found to be approved by Gram Sabhas, which was part of the annual action plan. Quality of the construction of 40.63% of the works was found to be ‘good’. Only in 7.58% of the works was the quality found to be ‘poor’. Only 1.09% of the works were abandoned due to various reasons such as shortage of funds, rejection of designs, disputes, etc. Under the Indira Awaas Yojana, till December 2006, 99322 houses were verified. 88.80% were new constructions and 11.20% were upgradations. 36.67% houses were allotted to male members of the household, 54.40% were allotted in the name of the female member of the household, and 7.93% were allotted jointly in the name of husband and wife. 77.55% of the beneficiaries were provided only cash for construction while in 21.07% cases cash and material benefits were given. The quality of construction was found to be average in 43.53% houses, good in 39.52% and poor in 7.16% houses. 65.10% houses had adequate ventilation, 58.70% houses had access to safe drinking water, and 46.22% houses had sanitary toilets. Only 16.49% had smokeless *chulhas* (stoves) and 32.89% IAY houses had electricity connection. Under the Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana 43282 SHGs were verified, with total membership of 452857 (62.85% females and 37.15% males). 34.71% SHGs had taken up economic activities, 8.55% had passed Grade II, 12.52% had passed Grade I and 44.22% groups were just formed. During monitoring
it was found that 67.80% SHGs required training and 44.60% had been trained. 87.24% SHGs had found the training to be useful. 66.77% maintained Attendance Registers, 69.58% maintained Bank Pass Books, 71.95% SHGs maintained the Cash Book, and 59.23% SHGs maintained the Loan Register. 42.06% SHGs also maintained payment particulars. 62.68% Swarozgaris were involved in economic activities in the primary sector, 21.46% in the secondary sector, and 15.86% in the tertiary sector. It was also revealed that the Sarpanch/village panchayat president played a significant role in the selection of individual Swarozgaris for assistance under SGSY. 42.98% individual Swarozgaris required training, however only 27.84% were given training and only 22.84% Swarozgaris found the training useful. It was suggested that the process of selection of beneficiaries should be transparent and unbiased. Bank credit facilities should be easily available for members. Long term strategies should be formulated to sustain the training, production and marketing initiatives. There is need to adopt an integrated approach to facilitate access to raw materials at reasonable prices for the development of a market.


Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. COMMUNITY MONITORING 3. MONITORING 4. MONITORING GOVERNMENT PROGRAMMES 5. ICDS 6. COMMUNITY BASED MONITORING 7. HEALTH PROGRAMME 8. VILLAGE DEVELOPMENT 9. EDUCATION 10. CASE STUDY 11. RAICHUR 12. KARNATAKA.

Abstract: Community Monitoring Project (CMP) is a programme that addresses issues of health, education and nutrition at the village level. It was initiated in February 2002 in Karnataka state by Mahila Samakhya Karnataka (MSK) and UNICEF. The objective of this case study was to determine the impact that CMP had on community awareness about the services available under ICDS to women and children; to help women monitor these services; and to create awareness about good health and nutrition of the individual and families, especially during pregnancy and vulnerable age group of children 0-3 years. The impact was assessed in July 2006. The cumulative impact of CMP was increased rates of polio immunization; more expectant mothers sought antenatal care; improved mid day meals; improved standard of teaching; and provision of free books and uniforms motivated parents to send their children to school, thereby promoting enrolment and retention in schools. Observations suggest that the CMP has improved awareness, availability and access to basic government services. Another important achievement is the increased
participation of women in community activities that has challenged traditional gender roles. In spite of these improvements CMP fails to challenge the rigid social structure of caste and community that creates obstacles to women's social opportunities. It tended not to engage the most deprived and marginalized members of the community. Those that were overlooked include the Lambani community, Muslims migrants and the very poor who do not have time to attend meetings. It also failed to attract the participation of women from upper classes and upper castes who play an instrumental role in improving the well being of the whole community. Among lower caste women too, only a small cadre was actively participating in the CMP. Therefore, there is a pressing need to broaden the base of active participants in terms of numbers and diversity of background. Further more, the structure of relevant line department at block level was not compatible with the demands of CMP. These shortcomings limit the ability of the CMP to benefit the community and threaten sustainability of the project after the withdrawal of funding and implementing agency. There is need to ensure that SWASTH plus consolidates and builds upon the gains that have been achieved in the services of health; education and nutrition through CMP. In order to gain maximum benefits from interventions, the funding and implementing agencies must ensure that (I) services of medium to short term programmes that have been implemented in the project area are compatible and complementary; (ii) the community has ownership and creative control over the programme objectives; and (iii) the programme is flexible enough to take into account the heterogeneous nature of communities in India.
Panchayati Raj


Key Words : RURAL DEVELOPMENT. PANCHAYATI RAJ. WOMEN IN PANCHAYATI RAJ.

Abstract: Panchayati Raj is the medium to transform rural India, and gives 700 million rural people the opportunity to do so. Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) were expected to plan and implement programmes of economic development and social justice. Panchayat supervision through Gram Sabhas also offers opportunities to make governance transparent and accountable to citizens. Between April 2005 and October 2006, a series of tours were undertaken to 17 states and two union territories, covering 150 Panchayati Raj institutions, including 73 Gram Panchayats/ Gram Sabhas, 35 Intermediate Panchayats at block/ mandal/ union/ anchal level (sub-division), and 42 District Panchayats. Provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act 1996 is the best legislation on Panchayati Raj anywhere in the country, and the implementation of PESA in tribal areas could well set the tone for improved Panchayati Raj in non-tribal areas. The Panchayat Yuva Khel Abhiyan (sports/ games) seeks to converge existing rural development schemes with additional central/ state and voluntary funding to make sports affordable to some 45 crore rural children, adolescents and youth, who today have no access to organized sports facilities. The Ministry of Panchayati Raj is opposed, in principle, to the 'two child norm' adopted in some states wherein candidates who are elected members are disqualified from serving in PRIs if they have more than two children. Panchayat Mahila Shakti Abhiyan, in collaboration with National Commission for Women (NCW), started Chalo Gaon Ki Ore Programme wherein the elected women members of panchayats at all three levels are provided a forum for exchange of ideas, experience sharing and information. 33% representation of women in panchayats and the women's self help group (SHG) movement have dramatically altered gender equations and given women a new sense of self confidence and self worth. The remarkable success of women's reservation for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in the panchayats is in proportion to their population i.e., 16% for...
SC and 11% for ST women representatives (STs constitute 8.2% of the population).

Simaroul Gram Panchayat in Indore first constructed a public convenience facility for women near the village bus stand, and as maternal and infant mortality rates are high, District Collector, utilizing Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) funds, got a maternity home constructed. Better access to proper medical care has significantly brought down Maternal Mortality Rate and Infant Mortality Rate. Panchayati Raj promotes programmes such as Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, Mid-Day Meal Scheme, National Literacy Mission, Rajiv Gandhi Drinking Water Mission and the Total Sanitation Campaign. A scheme for Panchayat Awards was instituted in 2005-06, providing incentives to recognize and encourage panchayats for outstanding performance. Three awards of Rs.5 crores, Rs.3 crore and Rs.1.2 crore were to be given to the three best performing states. Kerala was ranked first, Karnataka second and Sikkim third. Exemplary revenue was generated by Panchayats in Kerala. A Gram Panchayat in Kerala got receipts worth Rs.90 lakh a year compared with Rs.3 lakh in neighbouring Karnataka. Schools, health care and agriculture were increasingly coming under PRIs. In Karnataka, thought provoking programmes beamed over satellite are reinforced through local interaction in 224 classrooms across the State and are managed by carefully selected resource persons. The result has been greater networking among panchayats which has facilitated the ground swell of support required to push through major policy reform. Panchayats in Sikkim have not only been acting as efficient service providers for the village, but have also been actively participating in their economic development. The Ministry of Panchayati Raj has also suggested a draft activity mapping matrix covering the assignment of roles to different entities in the Mid-Day Meal Scheme. Incomplete devolution of funds is perhaps the greatest challenge to the effective functioning of panchayats. Panchayats have to evolve a durable and efficient system of financial management. The focus now is to plan and implement activities at grassroots level through the effective devolution of functions, finances and functionaries. Under the benevolent guidance of State Governments, Panchayats are the optimal instruments for good governance at the grass roots.
Poverty


Abstract: Survival in a fragile ecosystem characterized by dryland areas and uncertain rainfall is the major struggle for the poor in Rajasthan. Livelihoods of the poor in Rajasthan depend largely on agricultural output and animal husbandry activities, which mainly due to failure of monsoons result in fluctuations in poor people’s household income. The main objective of this study was to see the impact of various Government interventions including poverty reduction programmes and other sectoral programmes. In 1987 survey, 40 households were selected from each village and in all 320 rural households were selected for the study. The present study also covered the same villages, followed the sampling method and covered 320 households. The sex ratio was very low in Jaisalmer district, Badoda Gaon had a sex ratio of 677 and the highest was in Karnuwa (1209) in Udaipur district. Anganwadi centres were found in 9 of the 16 sample villages. In smaller villages, villagers had the services of an ANM. All villages had power connection and only 3 villages did not have a pucca (permanent) road. The percentage of economically active population, as measured by the share of main workers in total population, was higher than 40% for the male population in all sample villages except Badoda Gaon of Jaisalmer district. 6 out of 8 sample villages registered increase in population exceeding the percentage growth in the districts as a whole. Significant changes were observed in female literacy rates after the Total Literacy Campaign was launched. Literacy rate of males was 57.0% in 1987 and 56.2% in 1999, and that of females was 16.2% in 1987 and 27.8% in 1999. Incidence of child marriage has also declined in the sample villages. The major impact of increase in population is the sub-division of land holdings during the decade 1987 - 1999. Depletion of small water bodies, including those in the private lands in Udaipur villages, has resulted in decline in area under
paddy cultivation from 179 hectares in 1983 to 79 hectares in 1997. In Ajmer villages, the crop residuals amounted to 26% of the value of crop production in the drought year compared to 18% in a normal year. The yield rates are low even in a normal year. The highest milk yield rate of buffaloes among semi-medium operational holdings averages about 9 litres per day during the lactation period. Livestock rearing continues to be an important asset for the poor, though the numbers owned per household have declined in the last two decades. In 1999 survey, it was found that the unemployment rates of adult members of the household in the last 15 days of the date of enquiry were very high. Rajasthan Government was the first State to launch the Food for Work Programme in the country in 1997 and it is due to its initiative in recent months that the programme has been revived. The largest number of Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) beneficiaries are in Jaisalmer (77%), Ajmer (62%), Pali (43%) and Udaipur (33%). Only 47% beneficiaries were found to be making productive use of the asset at the time of survey. The probability of moving above the poverty line is higher for those with education level of primary and above. In the current year, only BPL households were availing their quota of 20 kg of wheat from Fair Price Shops (FPS). The Public Distribution System (PDS) in the state is functioning but needs further push to ensure doorsteps delivery, and probably short term credit facilities to the FPS. The ward/gram sabhas and eligible beneficiaries need to take a pro-active role in implementing the Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY). The amount sanctioned for building dwelling units needs to be increased beyond Rs.17,200 per unit (1996-97), as the actual expenditure incurred exceeded the grant in 98% cases. Area Development Programmes, namely the Desert Development Programme and the Border Area Development Programme in Pali and Jaisalmer districts have helped in meeting some of the basic needs like water. A drought proofing strategy needs to be at the centre of planning in an eco-system characterized by recurrent droughts. In a drought prone state, programmes for availability of fodder throughout the year are needed. The dairy network has helped in improving the production of milk. These networks need to be strengthened and expanded. While employment programmes need to be dovetailed to the larger planning for rural infrastructure, the panchayats need to work on a five-year plan basis to improve the infrastructure in their villages. The Public Distribution System should continue and include not only the poor, but also the transient poor, in a drought year. The quota from FPS to poor households needs to be increased to 10 kg per person.

Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT  2. POVERTY ALLEVIATION PROGRAMME  3. DISTRICT POVERTY INITIATIVE PROJECT (DPIP)  4. COMMUNITY PROJECTS  5. MID-TERM EVALUATION  6. SELF HELP GROUPS  7. RAJASTHAN.

Abstract: The District Poverty Initiative Project (DPIP) recognizes that poverty has multidimensional characteristics not confined to income poverty alone, but extending into the social environment in which the poor strive for an existence. The objective of the DPIP is to improve economic opportunities, living standards and social status of the poor. Seven project districts were selected namely, Barun, Churu, Dausa, Dholpur, Jhalawar, Rajsamand and Tonk in Rajasthan. They were prioritized on the basis of poverty indicators. The baseline survey found that there was potential and the need to augment natural resource endowment in both project and control villages. Sustainable livelihood requires a sustainable natural resource base, which is characteristically fragile in most districts of Rajasthan. The DPIP provides roads, bridges, drinking water, school buildings, sanitation including bath spaces for women, and community halls for multi-purpose uses. The number of households having access to irrigation increased from 84 to 138, while others below the poverty line (BPL) also benefited, and their number increased from 29 to 39. The yield rates reported by benefited households were either lower than the lower level of above poverty line (APL) households, or were at best equal to them. The DPIP does not directly focus on augmenting access to farm inputs and knowledge, and BPL households were left to manage on their own initiatives. The benefited BPL households were sending their children to school. The DPIP has had an indirect and persuasive impact on parents to send their children to school, but more boys than girls were going to school. One of the major programmes that reduced the vulnerability of poor households was the earning from famine relief work. The contribution of wages from famine relief work to total income varied between 7% to 14% among BPL households participating in relief works. Higher participation of women in economic activities and women’s earnings can change not only gender relations, but also help build stronger social capital in the village. There is inward transfer of resources and services to the village, such as more frequent visits of health workers, vendors and so on. All villages under DPIP may have infrastructure projects that are implemented by the Panchayats. The Agricultural Development Programme of DPIP may be extended to all districts, with suitable modifications according to local conditions for providing economic and social security, dignity and self esteem, as well as reducing the vulnerability of the rural population considerably.
Sah, D C., Shah, Amita and Bird, Kate. (2003).
Chronic poverty in remote rural areas of south western Madhya Pradesh.

Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. POVERTY 3. CHRONIC POVERTY 4. RURAL AREAS 5. REMOTE AREAS 6. TRIBALS 7. TRIBAL DEVELOPMENT 8. AGRICULTURE 9. LIVELIHOOD.

Abstract: The study was conducted by Madhya Pradesh Institute of Social Science Research, Ujjain and Gujarat Institute of Development Research, Ahmedabad to study the chronically poor people in a remote area within a high poverty region of South-Western Madhya Pradesh; the linkages of income poverty with other dimensions of poverty; how remoteness influences economic, political and social freedom; how different factors and processes lead to chronic multidimensional poverty in remote rural areas; and how the interaction between the state, civil society and community manifests in development. One backward district, Badwani, was selected from five districts of the region. This was selected on the basis of high incidence of poverty, lack of irrigation, slow urbanization and remoteness. Participatory methods like free interviews, case studies and group discussions were used to collect the data. Macro level findings have identified South-Western tribal belt of Madhya Pradesh to be one of the poorest regions in the country. About 90% people are chronically poor in this region; and 25% are intensely poor. All chronically poor are also severely poor households, and poverty in remote rural areas is closely related to landholdings. Agricultural income is only a part of their livelihood during a calamity, and poverty dynamics consists of a complex mix of processes, including migration. The intensity of migration seemed to have strong links for meeting current consumption. The experiences of democratic decentralization in tribal areas were mixed; it created a set of new leaders within, but the governance became intensely centralized. As expectations of the community remained unfulfilled, its participation in decision making slowly dwindled. The community also had no freedom in the process of planning the programmes it needed. The quantum of financial allocation was too thin to meet the demands of the community. In economically homogeneous and relatively remote rural areas, the social capital is much more vibrant.
Sanitation

The Open Defecation Free Campaign in Osmanabad district, Maharashtra.
Tuljapur, Maharashtra: Tata Institute of Social Sciences. 43 p.

Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. SANITATION 3. ENVIRONMENTAL SANITATION 4. TOILETS 5. COMMUNITY MOBILIZATION 6. OPEN DEFECATION FREE CAMPAIGN 7. SELF HELP GROUPS 8. YOUTH GROUPS 9. OSMANABAD 10. MAHARASHTRA.

Abstract: Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC) was launched at the national level in 1999 and in Osmanabad district of Maharashtra in 2003. The goal of Open Defecation Free (ODF) villages is one of the TSC objectives, which aims to solve problems such as faecal contamination of drinking water sources, the transmission of water and sanitation related diseases, and environmental degradation. 2 villages of Osmanabad district of Maharashtra were selected namely Bornadiwadi (model village) and Wanegaon (initial stage of the ODFC) on the basis of population size. Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) technique, focus group discussions (FGD) and semi-structured interviews were used for primary data collection. Secondary data was obtained from research reports of government, Tata Institute of Social Sciences and UNICEF. Information was gathered from Gram Panchayat members, Sarpanch and Upp Sarpanch, 3 ICDS helpers from 3 Anganwadis, an ICDS supervisor, 7 school teachers, school students and Swachata Doots (SDs), 3 elderly people, 2 families during house visits, Village Water Supply and Sanitation Committee (VWSC) members, youth groups and adolescent girls, 6 staff members of Osmanabad Zilla Parishad, 5 members of Swayam Shikshan Prayog (SSP) and staff of Tata Institute of Social Sciences (TISS) rural campus. Major health improvements were observed due to reduced water contamination, and less chance of flies acting as disease transmission vectors through food and water contamination. Surface and ground water contamination was reduced and quality of drinking water was enhanced. School students, women and VWSC members cleaned the village, waste management improved and specific locations were allocated for waste disposal. Implementation of ODFC was a driving force for mobilizing the village community towards a common goal. As open defecation spaces are far from the village, villagers save time once they acquire the habit of using toilets located near their homes. Women welcomed this initiative as they do not have to leave their homes for open defecation. In Bornadiwadi, SHGs were given importance as their financial contribution was essential for implementation of ODFC. Government schemes such as Jal Swarajya (safe and pure drinking water) and Hariyali (forest and water management) are brought to villages to bring development projects to
rural areas. Awards instituted at state and national level enhance people's empowerment, build self confidence and lead to a better image of villages. Due to ODFC, rural people in these villages avoided visiting relatives in neighbouring villages who did not have toilets. Children who acquire this habit would ensure an open defecation free environment in rural areas in future also. Working towards a common goal contributes to unification of Gram Panchayat and different political parties in the village. Villages that win awards use the prize money for village development.

Chakraborty, Bindiya et al. (2006).

Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. SANITATION 3. ENVIRONMENTAL SANITATION 4. TOILETS 5. COMMUNITY MOBILIZATION 6. JHARKHAND.

Abstract: Water and Environmental Sanitation Programmes have been in operation in India since the early 1960s. Rural sanitation covered only 22% of the population in 2001 and expanded at 1% per year for 2 decades from 1981-2001 (UNICEF, 2004). This study assessed the implementation of Water and Environmental Sanitation (WES) programmes in Dumka district of Jharkhand, where over 38% of the population belong to marginalised communities and sanitation coverage reaches merely 4% of the rural population. 4 villages chosen for the study were Asansol, Basmata, Jonka and Sikandra. Information was collected from adult and child residents, Panchayat Heads and representatives of NGOs working in the area. Villages like Jonka and Asansol have received WES facilities and villagers have been exposed to sanitation and hygiene education. Basmata and Sikandra have been receptive to WES education. Sikandra had partial sanitation coverage, Basmata had toilets for only 1 year, and the entire community considered toilets to be a necessity. In Jonka, the absence of political leadership and a village committee made synchronized collective action difficult to achieve. In contrast, Basmata had a history of collective organisation around common objectives. Women's SHGs and community committees had widespread support and participation from village residents. Their support plays a major role in achieving full sanitation. The degree to which village residents understood the aims and intended outcomes of the intervention, including their roles and responsibilities, was an important component of success. Government representatives can have a positive impact on the degree to which a programme achieves participation and ownership by community members. In Basmata, Government provided reeling machines to produce silk as an income.
generating activity. This led to other positive outcomes. Sustainable behavioural change can be brought about only by sanitation education. The presence of separate toilets for girls and boys in schools is a key determinant of female retention rates in schools, hence more such toilets should be built.


Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. SANITATION 3. ENVIRONMENTAL SANITATION 4. HYGIENE 5. CHILD SURVIVAL 6. DAIRY COOPERATIVES 7. SELF HELP GROUPS 8. TOILETS 9. VALSAD 10. GUJARAT.

Abstract: According to the World Health Organisation’s ‘Global Burden of Disease 2002’ estimates, diarrhoea accounts for nearly 15% of under five mortality each year in developing countries, numbering about 1.6 million deaths. Some of the major diseases affecting children under five years are Hepatitis A, polio, typhoid, E. coli, diarrhoea and cholera which are associated with unsafe drinking water, sanitation and hygiene conditions, and are transmitted via the oral-faecal contamination route. From 2003, UNICEF Gujarat and the Vasudhara Diary Union (VDU) in Valsad district, Gujarat have developed a partnership to implement UNICEF’s Child Environment Corner (CEC) as a tool for promoting low cost sanitation and hygiene education. In 1999, the VDU implemented a low cost latrine programme, which allows members to borrow Rs. 3,500 on an interest free loan basis to be used for construction of household toilets. So far 35 dairy cooperative societies have financed the construction of 765 toilets in members’ homes. 466 out of 681 Cooperative Societies (72%) were managed and run by women. VDU established its own scheme to finance milch animals and had helped 398 dairy cooperatives (DCs) (11670 women members) with finance for purchasing milch animals. Presently, 150 out of 750 households in the village had toilets, 46 of them financed by the Dairy over the last 3 years. The CEC training materials offer basic guidance on skills for monitoring the programme. UNICEF needs to monitor and measure behavioural change to assess the field situation. Non-dairy members are also encouraged to attend DCs and SHG meetings to learn about the linkage between child survival, sanitation and hygienic practices.

Gupta, Kasturi et al. (2005).
Sanitation

The Impact of the Total Sanitation Campaign on household sanitation in West Bengal: a case study of Amdanga and Haldia blocks. Kolkata: Institute of Social Sciences. 52 p.

Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. SANITATION 3. ENVIRONMENTAL SANITATION 4. TOILETS 5. SCHOOL SANITATION 6. TOTAL SANITATION CAMPAIGN 7. COMMUNITY MOBILIZATION 8. WEST BENGAL.

Abstract: Sanitation is a combination of personal, domestic and environmental hygiene referring to a series of hygienic practices in the private (i.e. households) and public (i.e. schools, work places, community spaces, etc.) spheres, namely use of proper toilets, clean water, clean surroundings, proper garbage disposal, etc. Democratic decentralisation has promoted the success of the Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC) in West Bengal (WB). In WB, there are 7 committees which form the institutional structure for the devolution of the TSC. They are: State Level Co-ordination Committee, Task Force, Zilla Parishad, District level Co-ordination Committee, Block level Co-ordination Committee, Village Health and Education Committee and Village Water Committee. This case study compares the results of the sanitation programme in 2 blocks of WB, Amdanga (Purba Medinipur) and Haldia (North 24 Parganas). The major political obstacle to achieve overall effect and impact in the context of TSC has to do with Panchayat priorities in terms of development. Second obstacle was linked with political party dynamics. Main economic obstacle to achieve the desired TSC objectives in terms of latrine coverage was financial constraints at the household level. Contrary to published reports and interviews with officials, women's participation in the TSC has been low. Social obstacle to achieve desired TSC objectives is related to the degree of involvement of the NGO. Cultural obstacle to the achievement of TSC objectives is the way of life of many rural families, and involves a series of daily household practices which are part of a mentality and cannot be transformed easily. Effects of TSC were increase of latrine coverage throughout WB; improved sanitary practices in rural households; increased awareness of sanitation due to education and awareness campaigns; improvement of health conditions in rural areas; decrease in diarrhoea and cholera cases; and improved environmental conditions in several villages. Before 2002-03, less than 500,000 households had a latrine, but by 2004-05, more than a million households had been covered. A misconception among bureaucrats at the state, district, block and panchayat levels was that lack of sanitation results from lack of literacy. In Moricha (Amdanga block), the Panchayat adopted several tactics to convince the households to buy a latrine. These involved subsidies for kerosene in exchange of the purchase of a latrine. In Haldia some pressure tactics were adopted such as threats of public denunciation of families. The sale and finance pattern of toilets is quite consistent with the costs. Rural Sanitary Marts (RSM) have adopted an effective social marketing strategy which
has geared up its revenues. Political leaders from various parties have united on the vision of Nirmal Gram (Clean Village). Audit agencies have the responsibility for monitoring and evaluating the TSC in villages. All sectors of the industry and departments of the Government have to be involved in the campaign for it to become a success story. Family members being educated was a major factor contributing to the success of the programme. Participation of women is necessary for the TSC to work and be implemented in every household. Monitoring exercise should be done by independent monitoring agencies for proper installation of latrines, that is size of pits made and nearness to water bodies.
**Village Industries**


**Key Words**: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. PURA 3. PROVISION OF URBAN AMENITIES IN RURAL AREAS 4. INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT 5. LABOUR 6. MUZAFFARNAGAR 7. UTTAR PRADESH.

**Abstract**: Provision of Urban Amenities in Rural Areas (PURA) is an example of application of technological innovation for development. The benefits of technology are several: reduce costs of production; offer high level of quality and utility; improve ecology; empower less skilled persons to produce more complex artifacts and services, and thereby raise their incomes. The objectives of the present study were to generate employment for the educated, thereby halve and even reverse rural-urban migration. The amenities to be provided in the cluster of villages within a period of 2-3 years were assured electricity supply, potable water supply, road transport services, facilities, internet services, schools, health services and marketing. The total population in Muzaffar Nagar district according to Census 2001 was around 20 lakhs. Males constituted 53% of the population while females were 47%. The sex ratio was 871. The population density was 884 persons per sq. km. There were 2078 villages and 1088 Gram Sabhas in the district. The number of inhabited villages were 1851. The district had 25.40% main workers; male workers constituted 42.70% of the population and female workers were 5.50%. The district had 7.70% marginal workers, and workers in household industries were between 3-60%. There were 68 primary health centres (PHCs), 7 community health centres (CHCs), 14 family welfare and maternity centres and 354 family welfare and maternity sub-centres. The district had a total of 2841 primary schools with enrolment of over 5 lakh students and 9232 teachers. There were 234 higher secondary schools in which 1.62 lakh students were enrolled. In Muzaffar Nagar district, a cluster of villages was selected by the Chief Development Officer for development under the PURA programme. These 19 villages have geographical area ranging from 42 hectares in Mawi village to 525 hectares in Mohammad Pur Rai village. Availability of health facilities was poor in all but two villages namely Kairana Rural and Kandela, where PHC was located in the village. This study proposed several amenities in the villages. As per estimates, construction of metalled roads would
entail an expenditure of Rs.224 lakhs. There was need to have more electric poles costing Rs.32 lakhs to provide electricity to every section of the village. Veterinary facilities were also lacking. Two Veterinary Sub-Centres should be established in each village, requiring an expenditure of Rs.38 lakhs per village. Five villages needed primary schools for which an expenditure of Rs.17.20 lakhs would be needed. Housing condition in the villages was poor particularly among lower strata of society, and it was proposed that housing should be provided under the Indira Awas Yojana (IAY). Low cost toilets should be provided in every house costing Rs.393.55 lakhs. Hand pumps need to be installed in 17 villages costing Rs.29.86 lakhs. A community centre in every village would cost Rs.19 lakhs. Upgradation of one PHC and construction of 2 local markets would require Rs.100.5 lakhs. Total expenditure would amount to Rs.1618.66 lakhs.

Ovung, Nchum et al. (2007).

Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. MICRO PLANNING 3. VILLAGE DEVELOPMENT 4. SELF HELP 5. ICDS SERVICES 6. COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT.

Abstract: The Village Planning (VP) intervention is a Government of Uttar Pradesh (UP) and UNICEF initiative implemented by the Sarathi Development Foundation (SDF) in Lalitpur district of UP. The research investigated three main problems, firstly, whether the success of village planning in generating demand for services is matched by a similar improvement in service delivery; secondly, whether the benefits of the village planning intervention extended to socially excluded groups; and thirdly, whether the benefits of the VP intervention would be sustainable beyond the period of UNICEF’s funding and SDF’s involvement in the village. On key social development indicators, Uttar Pradesh performs worse than India as a whole on almost every measure; and the number of people living below the poverty line (BPL) was 31.2% in UP compared to 26.10% in India. Infant Mortality Rate is 80 in UP and 63 in India. Children fully immunized were 44% in India but only 28.7% in UP; the percentage of population over 7 years who are literate was 56% in UP and 65% in India. The VP exercise seeks to bring change in 18 key indicators across three blocks namely Birdha, Talbehut and Jhakhaura. It has succeeded in increasing the number of mothers initiating colostrum and breastfeeding from 39% to 86.2%; it has increased the number of children in the age group 14-18 years with knowledge of AIDS from 0% to 41.3%; it has increased the school enrollment of children in the age group 6-14 years from 91.2% to 98%; full immunization increased to 49.4% from 39.9%; decrease in child marriage was negligible, from 56% to 55.4%; institutional deliveries increased upto 28.8% from 19.1%; use of iodized salt increased to 53.7%
from 15.4%; and it has ensured that 36.7% (or 140 of 381) of the non-functioning hand pumps were repaired. There was increase in use of toilets and birth registration to 62.4% and 66.4% respectively. The coverage of toilets has barely increased from 0.7% to 1.4% in Sunaura and from 3.5% to 14.5% in Jamalpur. In Sironkund the use of toilets increased from 38% to 78%. From the reassessment of Lalitpur district, where village planning has so far taken place, it was seen that different indicators have shown improvement. More efforts need to be focused on breaking down the barriers to ST community members accessing key services; village planning must place more emphasis on educating the Pradhan, volunteers and community members on the government schemes whose benefits they are entitled to in order to prove what village planning can accomplish. For ST community members field coordinators should initiate a process for speedy sanctioning of rations. Hence village planning has been fairly successful in generating demand for services on the part of the community. But this increased demand still needs to be met by an equal and opposite improvement in supply.


Key Words: 1. RURAL DEVELOPMENT 2. VILLAGE INDUSTRIES 3. INDUSTRY 4. INDUSTRY RURAL AREAS 5. KHADI AND VILLAGE INDUSTRIES 6. RURAL EMPLOYMENT 7. EMPLOYMENT RURAL AREAS 8. MARKETING 9. LIST OF INDUSTRIES.

Abstract: In the Indian context, rural industrialization assumes great significance as 72.22% (Census 2001) of its population lives in rural areas. The present study aimed to understand the trends and size of village industries in India. A stratified 3-stage sample design (districts, blocks, villages) had been adopted. An all India survey was conducted in 29 States (including Delhi), zone-wise. A total of 100 districts were chosen through sampling and 2 blocks were selected from each district; from each block 5 villages were selected and from each village 10 units were chosen for data collection. The largest group of industries was tailoring and preparation of readymade garments (9.81%), followed by carpentry (7.62%), auto garage/cycle repair (6.78%), beauty parlour (6.10%) power atta chakki (5.79%) and village pottery industry (5.79%). Nearly all units were proprietary in nature (97.4%). Over two-thirds of the owners belonged to backward classes (scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, etc.). Nearly 15% owners had no technical training, and 86.3% of the units were not registered with any agency. Nearly 86% of the units were not maintaining books of accounts. Majority of the units were receiving no power supply. 95% of the units were not covered under any insurance scheme. Nearly 25% units in the sample were found to be loss making, and 84% of these loss making units were
own account enterprises (OAEs). 86% of the units marketed their own products. The percentage share of rural village industries in GDP was found to be 5.2%. However, the formal financial system was not well suited to meet the credit needs of the informal sector. Inadequate access to credit, high interest rates and lack of tax benefits made expansion difficult. This further led to curtailing employment and income opportunities. Most entrepreneurs in the North - East (N-E) were first generation entrepreneurs. To support their venture they needed continued support from banks and financial institutions. Female participation in N-E village industries was higher than the all India level. Also only 10% of the owners of N-E units were illiterate, indicating that village industries provided employment avenues to educated persons. The major problems encountered by village industries all over India were procurement of raw material, competition from larger units, etc. Two-thirds of the respondents expressed lack of awareness about schemes that could rehabilitate or revive their business. An important aspect of rural industrialization is empowerment of the vulnerable, but barring north-eastern and south – eastern states, the percentage of female proprietary units were low. Credit policies for this sector need to be suitably framed to have greater outreach. Quality standardization should be enforced in village industries. Adequate training facilities need to be provided and multitasking should be a part of the training process.