



DIPLOMA IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

DRD-02

Rural Development in India

Block

2

RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND REGIONAL DISPARITY

Unit – 1

Problem, Needs and Approaches: Supply driven Rural Development, Sustainable Rural Development, Participatory Rural Development

Unit – 2

Gandhian Model of Development and Socialist Model of Development

Unit – 3

Rural Development in Indian Five Year Plans



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DIPLOMA IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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Unit – 1

Problem, Needs and Approaches: Supply driven Rural Development, Sustainable Rural Development, Participatory Rural Development

Learning Objectives:

After completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- *define rural development within the framework of national development.*
- *describe problems in Rural Development in India.*
- *distinguish between different approaches of rural development.*

Structure:

- 1.1. Introduction
- 1.2. Objectives of Rural Development
- 1.3. Scope and Importance of Rural Development
- 1.4. Need and Importance of Rural Development
- 1.5. Problems in Rural Development in India
- 1.6. Rural Development Programmes
- 1.7. Approaches of Rural Development
- 1.8. The Community Development Programme (CDP)
- 1.9. Panchayati Raj System
- 1.10. Supply driven Rural Development
- 1.11. Sustainable Rural Development
- 1.12. Participatory Rural Development
- 1.13. Let Us Sum Up
- 1.14. Key Words
- 1.15. References

1.1. Introduction:

Mahatma Gandhi said, “*India lives in its villages. If the village perishes, India will perish too*”. This truism about the social, economic and political development of rural areas justifies that India is predominantly an agrarian country with 72 per cent (about 80 crores) of its population living in more than five lakh villages. Agriculture is the predominant livelihood occupation and the rural population largely consists of small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers, artisans and scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. A large part of this rural population (more than 200 million) is still living below the poverty line and is the focus of rural development programmes. From the pre-

independence era of Mahatma Gandhi, every government after the Independence of the country in 1947 has committed itself to rural development.

Rural: As per the Webster's dictionary rural means "open land" and according to the United States census rural includes all persons living outside urban area and who live on farm.

Rural is an area, where the people are engaged in primary industry in the sense that they produce things directly for the first time in cooperation with nature as stated by Srivastava (1961).

Rural areas are sparsely settled places away from the influence of large cities and towns. Such areas are distinct from more intensively settled urban and suburban areas, and also from unsettled lands such as outback or wilderness. People live in village, on farms and in other isolated houses.

Rural areas can have an agricultural character, though many rural areas are characterized by an economy based on logging, mining, oil and gas exploration, or tourism.

Lifestyles in rural areas are different than those in urban areas, mainly because limited services are available. Governmental services like law enforcement, schools, fire departments, and libraries may be distant, limited in scope, or unavailable. Utilities like water, sewer, street lighting, and garbage collection may not be present. Public transport is sometimes absent or very limited; people use their own vehicles, walk or ride an animal.

A society or community can be classified as rural based on the criteria of lower population density, less social differentiation, less social and spatial mobility, slow rate of social change, etc. Agriculture would be the major occupation of rural area.

Development: It refers to growth, evolution, and stage of inducement or progress. This progress or growth is gradual and had sequential phases. Always there is increasing differentiation. It also refers to the overall movement towards greater efficiency and complex situations.

Rural Development: According to Ensminger (1974) rural development is a process of transformation from traditionally oriented rural culture towards an acceptance and reliance on science and technology.

Lela (1975) defined rural development as an improvement in the living standard of the masses of low-income population residing in rural areas and making the process of self-sustaining.

According to Agarwal (1989) rural development is a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people, the rural poor.

Rural development can be defined in several ways but for all practical purposes it means helping the poor people living in the villages in their economic development. Thus, it can be concluded that in an agrarian country like India, rural development is of prime importance. There is no sustainable development without rural development.

According to World Bank (1997), “Sustainable Rural Development can make a powerful contribution to four critical goals of poverty reduction, wider shared growth, household, national and global food security and sustainable natural resource management”

Definition by the United Nations on “Rural Development”:

Rural Development is a process of change, by which the efforts of the people themselves are united, those of government authorities to improve their economic, social and cultural conditions of communities in to the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to national programme.

Rural Development is a process of bringing change among rural community from the traditional way of living to progressive way of living. It is also expressed as a movement for progress.

1.2. Objectives of Rural Development:

Rural development appears to have emerged out of the non-applicability of the percolation theory of economic development, urban bias of development and consequent poverty and unemployment in rural areas.

The major objectives of the rural development programmes are:

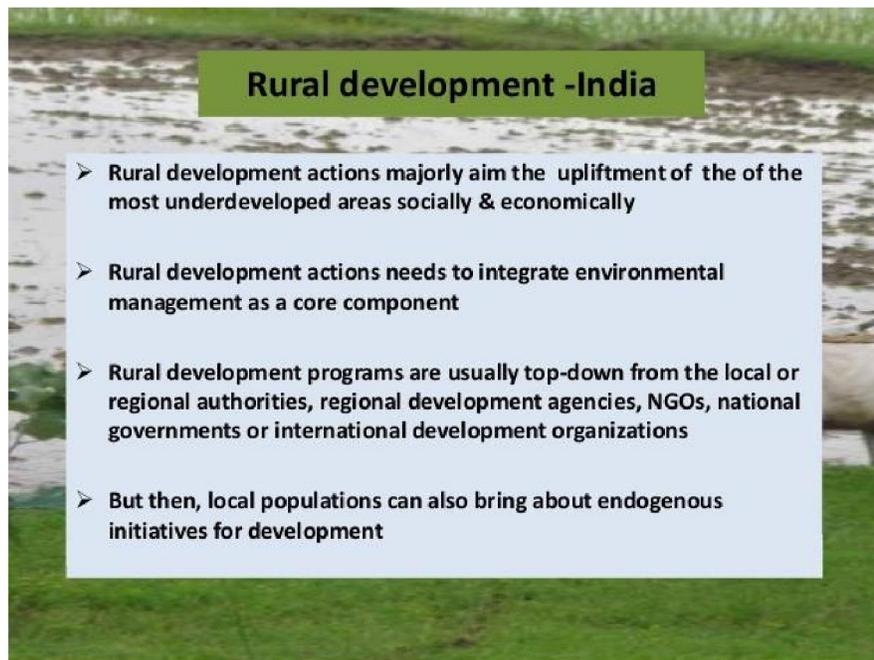
- To achieve enhanced production and productivity in the rural areas
- To bring about a greater socio-economic equity
- To bring about a spatial balance in social and economic development
- To bring about improvement in the ecological environment so that it may be conducive to growth and happiness, and
- To develop broad based community participation in the process of development.

1.3. Scope and Importance of Rural Development:

Rural development is a dynamic process, which is mainly concerned with the rural areas. These include agricultural growth, putting up of economic and social infrastructure, fair wages as also housing and house sites for the landless, village planning, public health, education and functional literacy, communication etc.

Rural development is a national necessity and has considerable importance in India because of the following reasons.

1. About three-fourth of India's population live in rural areas, thus rural development is needed to develop nation as whole.
2. Nearly half of the country's national income is derived from agriculture, which is major occupation of rural India.
3. Around seventy per cent of Indian population gets employment through agriculture.
4. Bulks of raw materials for industries come from agriculture and rural sector.
5. Increase in industrial population can be justified only in rural population's motivation and increasing the purchasing power to buy industrial goods.
6. Growing disparity between the urban elite and the rural poor can lead to political instability.



The main objective of the rural development programme is to raise the economic and social level of the rural people.

The specific objectives are:

1. To develop farm, home, public service and village community.
2. To bring improvement in producing of crops and animals living condition.
3. To improve health and education condition etc. improvement of the rural people.
4. To improve villagers with their own efforts.
5. To improve village communication.



Life in Rural India

1.4. Need and Importance of rural development:

Rural development is a concept, a phenomenon, a strategy and a discipline.

As a concept, it denotes overall development of rural areas with a view to improve the quality of life of rural people. In this sense, it is a comprehensive and multidimensional concept and encompasses the development of agriculture and allied activities – village and cottage industries and crafts, socio economic infrastructure, community services and facilities, and above all, human resources in rural areas.

As a phenomenon, it is the result of interactions between various physical, technological, economic, socio – cultural and institutional factors.

As a strategy, it is designed to improve the economic and social well being of a specific group of people – the rural poor.

As a discipline, it is multidisciplinary in nature representing an intersection of agricultural, social, behavioural, engineering and management sciences.

Rural development is a national necessity and has considerable importance in India because of the following reasons:

1. To develop rural area as whole in terms of culture, society, economy, technology and health.
2. To develop living standard of rural mass.
3. To develop rural youths, children and women.
4. To develop and empower human resource of rural area in terms of their psychology, skill, knowledge, attitude and other abilities.
5. To develop infrastructure facility of rural area.
6. To provide minimum facility to rural mass in terms of drinking water, education, transport, electricity and communication.
7. To develop rural institutions like panchayat, cooperatives, post, banking and credit.
8. To provide financial assist to develop the artisans in the rural areas, farmers and agrarian unskilled labor, small and big rural entrepreneurs to improve their economy.
9. To develop rural industries through the development of handicrafts, small scaled industries, village industries, rural crafts, cottage industries and other related economic operations in the rural sector.
10. To develop agriculture, animal husbandry and other agricultural related areas.
11. To restore uncultivated land, provide irrigation facilities and motivate farmers to adopt improved seed, fertilizers, package of practices of crop cultivation and soil conservation methods.
12. To develop entertainment and recreational facility for rural mass.
13. To develop leadership quality of rural area.
14. To improve rural marketing facility.
15. To minimize gap between the urban and rural in terms of facilities availed.
16. To improve rural people's participation in the development of state and nation as whole.
17. To improve scopes of employment for rural mass.
18. For the sustainable development of rural area.
19. To eliminate rural poverty.
20. To solve the problems faced by the rural mass for their development.

1.5. Problems in Rural Development in India:

1. Human induced problems:

- i. Traditional way of thinking.
- ii. Low level of education to understand developmental efforts and new technology.
- iii. Deprived psychology and scientific orientation.
- iv. Lack of confidence.
- v. Poor awareness.

2. Agricultural problems:

- i. Lack of expected awareness, knowledge, skill and attitude.
- ii. Unavailability of inputs.
- iii. Poor marketing facility.
- iv. Insufficient extension staff and services.
- v. Multidimensional tasks to extension personnel.
- vi. Small size of land holding.
- vii. Division of land.
- viii. Unwillingness to work and stay in rural areas.

3. Infrastructural problems:

Poor infrastructure facilities like water, electricity, transport, educational institutions, communication, health, storage facility etc.

4. Economic problems:

- i. Unfavourable economic condition to adopt high cost technology.
- ii. High cost of inputs.
- iii. Underprivileged rural industries

5. Social and Cultural problems:

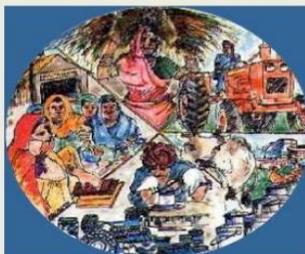
- i. Cultural norms and traditions
- ii. Conflict within and between groups, castes, religions, regions, languages.

6. Administrative problems:

- i. Earlier, majority of the programmes were planning based on top to bottom approach and were target oriented.
- ii. Political interference.
- iii. Lack of motivation and interest.
- iv. Unwillingness to work in rural area.
- v. Improper utilization of budget.

LIMITATIONS :PROBLEMS IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

1. People related
2. Agricultural related problems
3. Infrastructure related problems
4. Economic problems
5. Leadership related problems
6. Administrative problems



1.6. Rural Development Programmes:

Sl. No.	Name of the Programme	Started by	Year
Pre independence			
1	Sriniketan Project	Shri Rabindra Nath Tagore	1914
2	Marthandam Project	Dr.Spencer Hatch	1921
3	Gurgaon Experiment	F.L.Brayne	1928
4	Sarvoday Programme	Shri Vinoba Bhave	1948-49
Post early independence(1947-53)			
1	Firka Development	Madras Government	1948
2	Etawah Pilot Project	Albert Mayor	1948
3	Nilokheri Experiment	S.K.Dey	1948
4	Community Development Programme (CDP)	Government of India	1952
5	National Extension Service (NES)	Government of India	1953

Rural Development Efforts / Programmes after Independence:

No	Year	Name of the Programme after independence	
1	1948	GMFC	Grow More Food Campaign
2	1950	JMPC	Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation
3	1952	CDP	Community Development Programme
4	1953	NES	National Extension Service
5	1961	IADP	Intensive Agriculture District Programme
6	1963	ANP	Applied Nutrition Programme

7	1964-65	IAAP	Integrated Agricultural Area Programme
8	1964	ICDP	Integrated Cattle Development Programme
9	1965	NDP	National Demonstration Project
10	1966	ODP	Oilseed Development Programme
11	1966-67	HYVP	High Yielding Varieties Programme
12	1966	FTEP	Farmers Training and Education Programme
13	1966	FTC	Farmers Training Centre
14	1966	MCP	Multiple Crop Programme
15	1970	DPAP	Draught Prone Area Programme
16	1970	DFAP	Dry Farming Area Programme
17	1971	ICDP	Integrated Cotton Development Programme
18	1971	WVDP	Whole Village Development Programme
19	1971	SFDA	Small Farmers Development Agency
20	1971	MFAL	Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labour Agency
21	1971-72	TADP	Tribal Area Development Programme
22	1973	HADP	Hill Area Development Programme
23	1974	T&V	Training and Visit System
24	1974	KVK	Krushi Vigyan Kendra
25	1974	TDB	Tribal Development Block
26	1975	CADP	Command Area Development Programme
27	1976	IRDP	Intergraded Rural Development Programme
28	1976	ORP	Operational Research Project
29	1976	SF	Social Forestry
30	1977	DDP	Desert Development Programme
31	1978	LLP	Lab-to-Land Programme
32	1978	NARP	National Agricultural Research Project

33	1979	TRYSEM	Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment
34	1980	NREP	National Rural Employment Programme
35	1980	DRDA	District Rural Development Agency
36	1980-81	TUP	Tribal Upliftment Project
37	1981	RLEGP	Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme
38	1982	DWCRA	Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas
39	1984-85	NAEP	National Agricultural Extension Project
40	1986-87	NWDP	National Watershed Development Project
41	1989	JRY	Jawahar Rojgar Yojana
42	1990-91	NWDPRA	National Water Development Project for Rain fed Areas
43	1995-96	IAY	Indira Awaas Yojana
44	1998	NATP	National Agricultural Technology Project
45	1998	ATMA	Agricultural Technology Management Agency
46	1999	SGSY	SWARNJAYANTI GRAM SWAROZGAR YOJANA
47	1999	TSC	Total Sanitation Campaign
48	2000	PMGSY	Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana
49	2005	NAIP	National Agricultural Innovation Project
50	2006	NREGA	National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
51	2011	NRLM	National Rural Livelihoods Mission

1.7. Approaches of Rural Development:

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

i) Sectoral Approach:

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

ii) Area Development Approach:

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

iii) Integrated Development Approach:

In the context of problems in the area development approach to tackle the problems of rural poverty, a new strategy of development, i.e. the integrated development approach has been developed because the area development approach by and large failed to address the question of inequalities in the distribution of employment, incomes and assets. A mere geographical emphasis, as is the case with the area development approach, has been found to be inadequate in solving the problems. The Indian economy and social structure are characterized by

widespread poverty, poor health conditions, illiteracy, exploitation, inequitable distribution of land and other assets and lack of infrastructure and public utilities (roads, communications etc). Clearly, this means that the problem requires an approach that will take into account all these factors in devising a comprehensive strategy to further rural development. The concept of “integrated rural development” came into vogue with the need for a multipurpose thrust to rural planning. It stresses that various facets of rural development, which have an impact on rural life, are interrelated and cannot be looked at in isolation. Thus, an integrated approach towards rural development is essential. The various dimensions of rural life---growth of agriculture and allied activities, rural industrialization, education, health, public works, poverty alleviation and rural employment programmes -- all form a part of an integrated approach to the problems of rural development.

iv) Growth Center Approach:

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

[a] Training center to impart practical training and build capacity to enhance productivity of agriculture and rural/cottage/agro-based industries

[b] Mobile training-cum-demonstration unit to provide on the spot training, repair and maintenance, services for agricultural and industrial machineries

[c] Marketing-cum-warehousing facilities that can provide safe storage and marketing of farm produce and cottage industries products

[d] Forest and grass nursery to provide fruits, fuel, fodder and forest cover

[e] Developmental school based on the “ earning while learning principle” and oriented to develop a cadre of self-employed workers in the area of human, animal, plant and soil-health care and

[f] Residential housing complex for workers in the project area.

v) Community-driven development (CDD) or Approach:

It is derived from community-based development (CBD), which is a developmental initiative that provides control of the development process, resources and decision making authority directly to community groups. The underlying assumption of CDD projects are that communities are the best judges of how their lives and livelihoods

can be improved and, if provided with adequate resources and information, they can organize themselves to provide for their immediate needs. Moreover, CDD programmes are motivated by their trust in people (Naidoo and Finn, 2001) and hence it advocates people changing their own environment as a powerful force for development. By treating poor people as assets and partners in the development process, previous studies have shown that CDD is responsive to local demands, inclusive, and more cost-effective compared to centrally-led NGO-based programmes. CDD can also be supported by strengthening and financing community groups, facilitating community access to information, and promoting an enabling environment through policy and institutional reform.

1.8. The Community Development Programme (CDP):

The Community Development Programme (CDP) in India was the first major rural development programme launched after Independence in October 1952 with the following main objectives:

- i) To secure total development of the material and the human resources in rural areas;
- ii) To develop local leadership and self governing institutions;
- iii) To raise the living standards of the rural people by means of rapid increase in food and agricultural produce; and
- iv) To ensure a change in the mind-set of people instilling in them a mission for higher standards.

The CDP was conceived as an instrument to transform the social and economic life of the village community as a whole cutting across cast, religious and economic differences. Initially, it covered 55 projects with a wide range of programmes for developing agriculture, animal husbandry, rural industries, education, housing, rural communication, etc. It was, however, soon realized that covering the entire country under CDP was not possible due to shortage of funds and personnel. The National Extension Service (NES) was launched in October 1953 with a reduced number of personnel and more modest financial provision, so that development work could proceed on the basis of self-help efforts. The NES was initially launched for a period of three years with the provision of 4.5 lakhs per block with stress on agriculture, animal husbandry, rural communication and social education schemes. After three years, the blocks covered under NES were to be converted into CDP blocks with the provision of 15 lakhs for three years for more intensive development work in agriculture and other activities such as cooperation, health and sanitation, rural industries, housing, etc. It was presumed that the blocks covered in the first two phases would have attained the desired self-sufficiency and therefore, the quantum of special Government grants could be reduced. The major contribution in

financial and technical assistance came from the United States of America under a scheme of technical cooperation. Funds were also drawn from the Central and State Governments to meet the local expenditure on the implementation of the CDP. The main achievements of the CDP programmes were as follows: For the first time an organized administrative set up was established at the national, state, district, block and village levels.

Its developmental functions were totally different from the revenue collection functions of the existing administrative machinery.

Development was considered to be people centric. Due recognition was given to the importance of planning and inter-disciplinary approach to development. Recognition was also given to recruitment of trained personnel and the introduction of technical and technological inputs. It introduced modern technologies in agriculture with a view to demonstrating that they could perform better than traditional technology. It resulted in the establishment of institutions such as agriculture credit societies, primary schools, hospitals and dispensaries, maternity and child welfare centres, etc. Despite the above achievements, the CDP had some limitations:

- The facilities created under the programme benefited mainly the rich farmers and could not bring any significant changes in the living standard of marginal farmers and agricultural labourers.
- The objective of self-reliance and people's participation could not be achieved given the inadequate attention to the development of responsive leadership.
- The programme failed to bring about changes in people's ideas, attitude and outlook with the majority of people having no understanding of social education.
- Efforts to promote rural industries and cooperatives did not take off.
- Administrative weaknesses, bureaucratic red tape, problems of coordination, interdepartmental rivalries, absence of clear cut functional responsibilities at various levels were the other weaknesses of this programme.
- The plan outlay for this programme was spread very thinly over a wide range of projects, as a result of which the impact of the programme was quite limited.

Despite the above shortcomings, the CDP was instrumental in laying the foundation for the development of rural economy and defining rural development strategies and approaches. It recognized the need for investing in men/women and material as a means of bringing about social change in rural areas.

1.9. Panchayati Raj System:

The first organized effort to solve the problem of rural India was made through the Community Development Programme in the year 1952 and National Extension Service in 1953. On the completion of first five years of the CDP, the planning Commission appointed a high-ranking study committee headed by **Balwant Rai Mehta, Chief Minister of Gujarat**. This team pointed out both positive results and inadequacies in the implementation of the programme. This committee recommended Panchayati Raj.

The study team made a significant recommendation with implementation of a programme. According to it there should be effective administrative decentralization for the implementation of the programme. The decentralized administration was to be placed under the control of selected and integrated local self-government system ordinarily of 3 levels bodies from village level to block level and then to district level. This democratic decentralized system was named as **“Panchayat Raj”**. The state of Madras tried this as a pilot project as early as 1957. In 1958, Andhra Pradesh state had twenty such pilot projects. Based on the success in these it was the state of Rajasthan which became the pioneer to bring the whole state under democratic decentralization on October 2, 1959. It was implemented in Gujarat on April 1, 1963.

Specific Objectives:

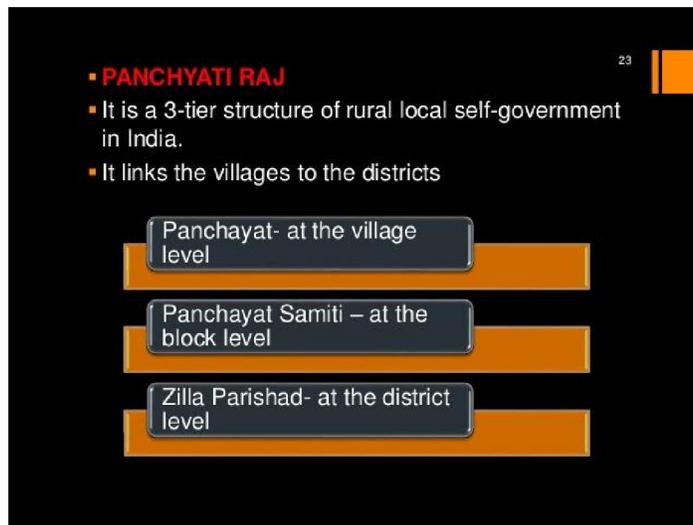
1. Assistance to the economically weaker sections of the community.
2. Cohesion and cooperative self help in the community.
3. Development of cooperative institutions.
4. Development of local resources including the utilization of manpower.
5. Production in agriculture as the highest priority in planning.
6. Progressive dispersal of authority and initiative both vertically and horizontally with special emphasis on the role of voluntary organizations.
7. Promotion of rural industries.
8. Understanding and harmony between the people’s representatives and people servants through comprehensive training/education and a clear demarcation of duties and responsibilities.

Philosophy of Panchayati Raj:

The philosophy of Panchayati Raj is deeply steeped in tradition and culture of rural India and is by no means a new concept. Panchayati Raj provided a system of self-governance at the village level. Panchayati Raj Institutions is the grass-roots units of self-government which have been declared as the vehicles of socio-economic

transformation in rural India. Effective and meaningful functioning of these bodies would depend on active involvement, contribution and participation of its citizens both male and female. The aim of every village being a republic and panchayats having powers has been translated into reality with the introduction of the three-tier Panchayati Raj system to enlist people's participation in rural reconstruction.

Three tiers (levels) of Panchayati Raj:



The Gram Panchayat: Gram Panchayat is the primary unit of Panchayati Raj Institutions or local self-government. In other words it can be said that the first formal democratic institution under the directive principle in the Indian constitution is the Gram Panchayat. It is a cabinet of the village elders, directly elected by the adult citizens of the village.

Gram Panchayats are constituted considering their income, population and area. There is a provision for reservation of seats for women and Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The panchayat has tenure of five years and is directly elected. It has income through taxes to perform its functions.

The main functions of Village Panchayat are:

1. Preparation of Annual Plans for the development of the village Panchayat area.
2. Preparation Annual Budget of Village Panchayat.
3. Mobilization of relief in natural calamities.
4. Removal of encroachments on public properties.
5. Organizing voluntary labours and contribution for community works.
6. Maintenance of essential statistics of villages.
7. Such other development works as may be entrusted.
8. Service or developmental function, such as promotion of education, health, agriculture, etc.

9. Representative function, where the main role is to voice and represent the opinion;
10. Regulatory and administrative functions, which consists of regulating the conduct of individuals and institutions and also collection of taxes.

Taluka/block Panchayat: It is also known as Panchayat Samiti or Panchayat Union. This is the second tier of the administration at Taluka or Block level. It is headed by Taluka President. Block Development Officer is appointed by the Government. He functions as the leader of the Block.

The main functions of the Panchayat Samitis are planning, execution and supervision of all developmental programmes in the Block. It also supervises the works of Gram Panchayats within its Jurisdiction. It has to instill among people within its jurisdiction a spirit of self-help and initiative and work for raising the standard of living. It has to support for the implementation of development programmes. It has the welfare and development activities in the fields of agriculture, animal husbandry, health, sanitation, elementary education, cottage industries and social. It has to use the village housing project funds and loans.

Zilla Panchayat: It is also known as District Development Council or Zilla Parishad. This is the third tier of Panchayat Raj functioning at district level. It is headed by Panchayat Union Chairman. District Collector leads the work with the help of District Development Officers.

Functions:

1. It works as advisory body for blocks.
2. It approves budget and plan of blocks.
3. It allots funds to the blocks.
4. It approves budget and plan of blocks. It allots funds to the blocks.
5. Secondary education is the responsibility of this council.
6. It should advise Government in all matters relating to rural development in the district.
7. It has to review the results achieved under various items in all the blocks.

Some special features of Democratic Decentralization:

1. The sanctioning powers of most of the works and schemes are with panchayat Samitis and standing committees.
2. Most of the functions are implemented and performed by administrative control of the Panchayat Samitis. Thus, there is a single agency at Block level for all development programmes.

3. The power and functions of the District Boards are allocated among the parishads and the samitis, which are within the reach of rural people.
4. Panchayat samitis have all the technical assistance required at the block level itself.
5. Elementary education is the sole responsibility of the panchayat samitis.
6. Rural medical institutions in the Block are under the administrative control of the panchayat samitis.
7. Members of the panchayat samitis have the right to inspect institutions or works in the Block with a view to ensure efficient working and execution and draw the attention of the executive to any defects.
8. Personnel functioning within the Block are pooled together so that they function in a coordinated way under the samitis.
9. The responsibility for maintenance of minor irrigation works.
10. Panchayat samitis provide financial and technical assistance and supervision to panchayats.
11. Block plans are made based on village plans, district plans based on block plans and state are made based on district plans. This way plans are made truly based on needs of the people.
12. The panchayat samitis are given power to levy surcharges on taxes levied by the panchayats. This will help the panchayat samitis to build up their resources.
13. The main functions of the popular institutions are planning and execution of all schemes of rural development on the twin principles of self-help and mutual cooperation.

Panchayati Raj system gave significant progress in the fields of primary and secondary education, communication, agricultural extension, cooperation, health, etc. People could get drinking water. In some places people had protected water supply, Village streets, electric light provision, village sanitation, etc., had enough resources. Rural awakening was brought up among rural people; as a result villagers became conscious of their rights and improved their standard of living.

1.10. Supply driven Rural Development:

Demand driven rather than Supply driven: The rural development programmes need to be demand driven rather than supply driven. One of the major drawbacks of the rural development programmes in India is that they are supply driven seldom based on the felt needs of the communities. Often it is seen that peoples do not get what they need. People's participation should be ensured in every aspect right from planning to implementation, monitoring and evaluation so that their needs are fully incorporated while formulating any developmental strategy for them. For example: if anyone is having scarcity of food and we will be including his name in the list of rural housing beneficiaries, then the problem of the individual will not be solved. So, there should be genuine involvement of both the official and the beneficiary in order to create demand driven rural development rather than supply driven rural development.

1.11. Sustainable Rural Development:

The sustainable rural development is basically the development which meets the need of present generation of rural people without compromising the capacity of future generations to fulfill their own needs. This entails sustained efforts to raise the quality of life of rural people. Huge efforts are being made in India and so also other developing countries to develop their rural areas in order to reduce Urban-Rural divide by creating conducive environment for resource development and utilisation through up -grading knowledge and skills of the people to make the best use of available resources.

1.12. Participatory Rural Development:

Participatory Rural Development has been derived from the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) which is a growing combination of approaches and methods that enable rural people to share, enhance and analyse their knowledge of life and conditions, to plan and act and to monitor and evaluate. The role of the outsider is that of a catalyst, a facilitator of processes within a community which is prepared to alter their situation.

The origin of PRA (as coined by Robert Chambers) as an approach to development planning and as a method of investigation evolved from many different sources. Some of the sources were modified to be utilized in a participatory mode, and the others were taken up as they were used for investigation and planning.

Check Your Progress I

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answers.

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

1) Why rural development in India is important?

Ans.

2) What are the problems in rural development in India?

Ans.

3) What do you mean by Community Development Programme?

Ans.

4) What are the tiers (levels) in Panchayati Raj system in India?

Ans.

1.13. Let Us Sum Up:

Rural development can be defined in several ways but for all practical purposes it means helping the poor people living in the villages in their economic development. Thus, it can be concluded that in an agrarian country like India, rural development is of prime importance. There is no sustainable development without rural development.

There are no universally accepted approaches to rural development. It is a choice influenced by time, space and culture. The term rural development connotes overall development of rural areas to improve the quality of life of rural people. In this sense, it is a comprehensive and multidimensional concept, and encompasses the development of agriculture and allied activities, village and cottage industries and crafts, socio-economic infrastructure, community services and facilities and, above all, human resources in rural areas. So, there are various types of approaches to rural development like Sectoral Approach, Area Development Approach, Integrated Development Approach, Growth Center Approach and Community-driven development (CDD) or Approach.

On the completion of first five years of the Community Development Programme (CDP), the planning Commission of India had appointed a high-ranking study committee headed by Balwant Rai Mehta, Chief Minister of Gujarat. This team pointed out both positive results and inadequacies in the implementation of the programme. This committee had recommended Panchayati Raj system, which is the foundation of India's political system, as a decentralized form of government in which each village would be responsible for its own affairs.

1.14. Key Words:

- **Panch:** An assembly of elders who settled the disputes within the limit of caste/customs.
- **Panchayat:** An assembly of elected persons of the village. Village bodies were the lines of contact with higher authorities on matters affecting to the village.
- **Democracy:** The word Democracy derived from Greek language **Democ** means the people and **Cracy** means rule of. It is leading of the people by the people, for the people.
- **Decentralization:** Devolution of central authority among local units close to the area served.
- **Democratic decentralization:** means where authority develops by the process on people's institution and act as local self-government.

1.15. References:

1. Satyasundaram. I(1997) *Rural Development*, Himalaya Publishing House, New Delhi
2. Katar Singh(1986) *Rural Development – Principles, Policies and Management*, SAGE Publications, New Delhi
3. Venkata Reddy K.(1992) *Rural Development in India – Poverty and Development*, Himalaya Publishing House, New Delhi
4. Sundaram K.V.(1999) *Decentralised Multilevel Planning*, Concept Publishing Company, New Delhi.

Unit – 2

Gandhian Model of Development and Socialist Model of Development

Learning Objectives:

After completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- *define rural development within the framework of national development.*
- *describe moral values of Gandhian Model of Development.*
- *distinguish between different models of development.*

Structure:

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Models of Development
- 2.3 Gandhian Model of Development
 - 2.3.1. Ideal village
 - 2.3.2. Decentralization
 - 2.3.3. Self sufficiency
 - 2.3.4. Industrialization
 - 2.3.5. Trusteeship
- 2.4 Socialist Model of Development
- 2.5 Sustainable Development Model
 - 2.5.1. Sustainable Development: Approach
 - 2.5.2. Main Dimensions of Sustainable Development
- 2.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.7 Key Words
- 2.8 References

2.1. Introduction:

Development means the securing of social and economic growth by changing the conditions of under-development through organized and planned efforts aimed at the control of poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, and economic and industrial under-development. It is a very complex process and has several dimensions which are related and interdependent and yet different.

2.2. Models of Development:

There are different models of development. The reality is that out of these, no single development model stands universally accepted. Further, the concept of development has been regularly undergoing changes.

Initially, the Western model of liberty, economic growth and modernization was adopted by several states. Then some states came forward to adopt the Socialist model of development. Some others like India, where Rural development is one of the major aspects of development decided to adopt Gandhian model of development and socialist model of development. Presently the world has been strongly advocating the Sustainable Development Model. Let us briefly study some popular models of development.

2.3. Gandhian Model of Development:

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

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

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

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

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

2.3.1. Ideal Village:

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

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

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

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

2.3.2. Decentralisation:

Gandhi firmly believes that village republics can be built only through decentralisation of social and political power. In such a system decision-making power will be vested in the Village Panchayat rather than in the State and the national capital. The representatives would be elected by all adults for a fixed period of five years. The elected representatives would constitute a council, called the Panchayat.

The Panchayat exercises legislative, executive and judicial functions. It would look after education, health and sanitation of the village. It would be the Panchayats responsibility to protect and uplift ‘untouchables’ and other poor people. Resources for Gandhian approach to managing village affairs would be raised from the villages. All the conflicts and disputes would be resolved within the village. And as far as possible not a single case is to be referred to courts outside the village. The Panchayat would play its role in propagating the importance of moral and spiritual values among the rural people for bringing about rural reconstruction.

Apart from managing its own affairs the village would also be capable of defending itself against any invasion. A non-violent peace brigade

of volunteers would be organised to defend the village. This corps would be different from the usual military formation. They would repose the utmost faith in non-violence and God.

2.3.3. Self-sufficiency:

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

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

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

Physical labour occupies a central place in the Gandhian concept of the self-sufficient village. In this respect he was highly influenced by Ruskin and Tolstoy.

According to Gandhi, each man must do physical labour to earn his bread. Physical labour is necessary for moral discipline and for the sound development of the mind. Intellectual labour is only for one's own satisfaction and one should not demand payment for it.

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

2.3.4. Industrialization:

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

Moreover, industrialization replaces manpower and hence it adds to unemployment. In a country like India, where millions of labourers in

the villages do not get work for even six months in a year, industrialization will not only increase unemployment but force labourers to migrate to urban areas. This will ruin villages.

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

2.3.5. Trusteeship:

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

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

The poor workers, under trusteeship, would consider the capitalists as their benefactors; and would repose faith in their noble intentions. Gandhiji felt that if such a trusteeship were established, the welfare of the workers would increase and the clash between the workers and employers would be avoided. Trusteeship would help considerably “in realising a state of equality on earth.”

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

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

If this knowledge were to penetrate and spread amongst the poor, they would become strong and learn how to free themselves from the crushing inequalities which have pushed them to the verge of starvation.

But the oppressed should not take recourse to violent methods. In the Gandhian scheme of things, the principle of cooperation, love and service is most important and violence has no place in it. Violence is against “moral values” and civilized society is inconceivable in the absence of moral values.

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

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

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

2.4. Socialist Model of Development:

Socialist model of Development has been connoted from the concept of “Socialism” means an ism or principle aiming welfare of the society implementing all state policies in favour of public interest. This has initiated the concept of Welfare State by abolishing Capitalism and adhering Communism, which finally resulted into “Egalitarianism” believing equality in a socialist state within the parameters of Caste, Religion, Society and Culture. This model of Development justifies that:

- All human are equal in fundamental worth or moral status
- Based on “Directive Principles of State Policy”.
- There should not be economic inequality
- There should be decentralization of power
- Society should grow through Mixed Economy – combination of public and private ownership of the means of production.
- Abolition of Privy purse of the princely states from the Indian Union
- Establishment of Article 14 of the Indian Constitution – Equality before the law & Equal protection of laws.

- Stressed upon “Right to Speech” as one of the major Fundamental Rights of Indian Constitution.

Moreover, the 1946 Law on Equality of the Sexes gives women equal rights, formally, with men in all fields, including divorce and property. Officially it was declared that there is “Equal Pay for Equal Work”.

This model advocates development through the securing of socialist goals by using democratic means. India and several other Third World countries decided to adopt this model. In fact, these states combined the democratic socialist model and welfare state model for rapid industrialization, economic growth and development. Organized planning and democratic process of politics were adopted by them.

However, the actual operation of this model of development also proved to be inadequate for securing the goal of rapid socio-economic-political development. Bureaucratic inefficiency, corruption, faulty planning priorities and slow growth led to an inadequate success in all areas of development.

In the last decade of 20th centuries, these states also decided to go in for liberalisation, privatisation, competition, market economy and globalisation. These began registering some rapid development by using the new model. However, this model of development has also started showcasing some limitations and dangers of privatisation and globalisation.

It has started acting as a source of commercialization of human relations and even commercialization of education, healthcare and social service sectors. A need for reforms and changes are currently being designed and adopted, particularly for meeting the pressures resulting from global economic recession.

2.5. Sustainable Development Model:

Unprincipled and over-exploitation of natural resources; Air, Water, Soil and Sound Pollution; climate change and its adverse affect on human life; increase in radiation levels; depletion of ozone layer; and disturbances and pressures on the eco-systems, all have amply demonstrated the fact that the past socio-economic development has not been a real development.

Its human cost has been excessively high. It has created a situation of a social-economic-environmental imbalance. It has made it essential for us to work for securing social sustainability, economic sustainability and environmental sustainability. i.e. Sustainable Development. The greatest need of the hour is to put in comprehensive and coordinated efforts for securing development which is socially, economically and environmentally stable and enduringly sustainable.

2.5.1. Sustainable Development: Approach

Sustainable Development is the approach to development which seeks to generate present growth without in any way of disturbing and limiting the quality of life for future generations. It focuses attention upon the need to maintain a necessary, healthy, productive and enduringly sustainable balance between human needs, natural resources and features, and ecosystems.

These are to be developed and made to sustain and reinforce each other. The Brundtland Report defines Sustainable Development as: “Development that meets the needs of present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”.

2.5.2. Main Dimensions of Sustainable Development:

The concept of Sustainable Development is very comprehensive. It contains within itself several dimensions of development. It is to secure social economic and environmental development. It includes the concept of sustainable population levels, poverty alleviation, socio-economic justice, social development, economic development, environmental protection, prevention, control and abatement of pollution, securing of balanced ecosystems and biodiversity, conservation and systematic use of natural resources, development and use of eco-friendly technologies, meeting the challenge resulting from climate change, and securing the needs of present without in any way limiting or harming the ability of the future generations to meet their needs. All these dimensions of Sustainable Development are emphasized by a large majority of the contemporary supporters of the model.

Check Your Progress II

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answers.

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

1) What are the moral values of Gandhian model of Development?

Ans.

2) What are the main dimensions of Sustainable Development?

Ans.

2.6. Let Us Sum Up:

This unit describes different models of development. The reality is that out of these, no single development model stands universally accepted. So, out of all these, Gandhian approach to rural development may be labelled as 'idealist'. It is based on some moral values like Ideal Village, Decentralisation, Self-sufficiency, Industrialization and Trusteeship. Other models like Socialist model of Development has been connoted from the concept of "Socialism" means an ism or principle aiming welfare of the society implementing all state policies in favour of public interest. It is based on "Directive Principles of State Policy". But, Sustainable Development model is based on the approach to development which seeks to generate present growth without in any way of disturbing and limiting the quality of life for future generations. It focuses attention upon the need to maintain a necessary, healthy, productive and enduringly sustainable balance between human needs, natural resources and features, and ecosystems.

2.7. Key Words:

- **Industrialization** is the phase or period when social and economic change that transforms a human group from an agrarian society into an industrial one, involving the extensive re-organisation of an economy for the purpose of manufacturing.
- **Trusteeship** is a socio-economic philosophy that was propounded by Mahatma Gandhi. It provides a means by which the wealthy people would be the trustees of trusts that looked after the welfare of the people in general.
- **Sustainable Development** concept is based on the approach to development which seeks to generate present growth without in any way of disturbing and limiting the quality of life for future generations.

2.8. References:

1. Satyasundaram. I(1997) *Rural Development*, Himalaya Publishing House, New Delhi
2. B D Singh(1992) *Planning for Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation*, Mittal Publications, New Delhi
3. Venkata Reddy K.(1992) *Rural Development in India – Poverty and Development*, Himalaya Publishing House, New Delhi
4. Sundaram K.V. (1999) *Decentralised Multilevel Planning*, Concept Publishing Company, New Delhi.

Unit – 3

Rural Development in Indian Five Year Plans

Learning Objectives:

After completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- *define rural development within the framework of national development.*
- *describe problems in Rural Development in India.*
- *describe each Five Year Plans in relation to Rural Development of India*

Structure:

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 First Five Year Plan (1951 - 56)
- 3.3 Second Five Year Plan (1956 - 61)
- 3.4 Third Five Year Plan (1961 - 66)
- 3.5 Fourth Five Year Plan (1969 - 74)
- 3.6 Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-79)
- 3.7 Sixth Five Year Plan (1980 - 85)
- 3.8 Seventh Five Year Plan (1985 - 90)
- 3.9 Eight Five Year Plan (1992 - 97)
- 3.10 Ninth Five Year Plan (1997- 2002)
- 3.11 Tenth Five Year Plan (2002 - 2007)
- 3.12 Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007 - 2012)
- 3.13 Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012 - 2017)
- 3.14 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.15 Key Words
- 3.16 References

- 3.17 Check Your Progress – Possible Answers

3.1. Introduction:

When India emerged as an independent country in 1947, it inherited this momentum from its immediate past and had, moreover, the nucleus of technical know-how and even infrastructure in rural development. India has been a welfare state ever since her Independence and the primary objective of all governmental endeavors has been the welfare of its millions. Planning has been one of the

pillars of the Indian policy since independence and the country's strength is derived from the achievement of planning. The policies and programmes have been designed with the aim of alleviation of rural poverty which has been one of the primary objectives of planned development in India.

The Planning Commission was set up by a Resolution of the Government of India in March 1950 in pursuance of declared objectives of the Government to promote a rapid rise in the standard of living of the people by efficient exploitation of the resources of the country, increasing production and offering opportunities to all for employment in the service of the community. The Planning Commission was charged with the responsibility of making assessment of all resources of the country, augmenting deficient resources, formulating plans for the most effective and balanced utilisation of resources and determining priorities. Jawaharlal Nehru was the first Chairman of the Planning Commission. The first Five-year Plan was launched in 1951.

3.2. First Five Year Plan (1951 - 56)

While formulating the 1st Five Year Plan the following experiences gained in Sevagram in Madhya Pradesh, in the Firka Development scheme in Madras, in the Sarvodaya centres in Bombay, in Etawah and Gorakhpur in Uttar Pradesh and other centres which are perhaps less well known were taken into consideration:

- i. When different departments of the Government approach the villager, each from the aspect of its own work, the effect on the villager is apt to be confusing and no permanent impression is created. The peasant's life is not cut into segments in the way the Government's activities are apt to be. The approach to the villager has, therefore, to be a coordinated one and has to comprehend his whole life. Such an approach has to be made, not through a multiplicity of departmental officials, but through an agent common at least to the principal departments engaged in rural work, which it is now customary to describe as the village level worker.
- ii. Programmes which have been built on the cooperation of the. People have more chances of abiding success than those which are forced down on them.
- iii. While the official machinery has to guide and assist, the principal responsibility for improving their own condition must rest with the people themselves. Unless they feel that a programme is theirs and value it as a practical contribution to their own welfare, no substantial results will be gained.
- iv. Programmes largely dependent on expenditure by the Government, in which the elements of self-help and mutual cooperation on the part of villagers are present only in a nominal degree are short lived. The essential idea should be the reduction of chronic unemployment which

is a feature of rural life—through the practice of scientific agriculture and cottage and small-scale industries.

v. Advice and precept are of no avail unless they are backed by practical aids—supplies of seed and fertiliser, finance and technical guidance for solving the farmer's immediate problems.

vi. Whatever the measures of the effort which the Government wishes to make, the best results will be gained if the programmes are pursued intensively, and practically every agriculturist family has its own contribution to make through a village organisation.

vii. The approach to the villager would be in terms of his own experience and problems, conceived on the pattern of simplicity, avoiding elaborate techniques and equipment until he is ready for them.

viii. There has to be a dominant purpose round which the enthusiasms of the people can be aroused and sustained, a purpose which can draw forth from the people and those who assist them on behalf of the Government the will to work as well as a sense of urgency. The aim should be to create in the rural population a burning desire for a higher standard of living— a will to live better.

The main thrust of the first five year plan was set to be Community Development and Rural Extension.

Community Development Programme: The size of the unit in each project was approximately 300 - villages with a total area of about 450 to 500 square miles, a cultivated area of about 150,000 acres and a population of about 200,000. The project area was conceived as being divided into 3 Development Blocks, each consisting of about 100 villages and a population “of about 60,000 to 70,000. The Development Block was divided into groups of 5 villages. Each group was the field of operation for a village level worker.

The main lines of activity which undertaken in a community project, can be briefly divided into the following:

Agriculture and related matters: The programme includes reclamation of available virgin and waste land; provision of commercial fertilizers and improved seeds; the promotion of fruit and vegetable cultivation, of improved agricultural technique and land utilisation; supply of technical information, improved agricultural implements, improved marketing and credit facilities, provision of soil surveys and prevention of soil erosion, encouragement of the use of natural and compost manures and improvement of livestock, the principal emphasis here being on the establishment of key villages for breeding pedigree stock and the provision of veterinary aid, as well as artificial insemination centres. For attaining this objective, agricultural extension service will be provided at the rate of one agricultural extension worker for every 5 villages.

Irrigation: The programme visualises provision of water for agriculture through minor irrigation works, e.g., tanks, canals, surface wells, tubewells, etc., the intention being that at least half of the agricultural land, if possible, be served with irrigation facilities.

Communications: The road system on the country side is to be so developed as to link every village within the Project area upto a maximum distance of half a mile from the village, the latter distance being connected by feeder roads through voluntary labour of the villagers themselves, only the main roads being provided for and maintained by the State or other public agencies.

Education: It has been realised that the full development of a community cannot be achieved without a strong educational base, alike for men and women. The community projects have been planned to provide for social education, expansion and improvement of primary and secondary education and its gradual conversion to basic type, provision of educational facilities for working children and promotion of youth welfare. Vocational and technical training will be emphasised in all the stages of the educational programme. Training facilities will be provided for imparting improved techniques to existing artisans and technicians, both in urban and rural areas. Training centres which already exist in any area, will be strengthened and developed, and new ones established to meet the requirements of the project area.

Health: The Health Organisation of the Project area will consist of 3 primary health units in the Development Blocks and a secondary health unit equipped with a hospital and a mobile dispensary at the headquarters of the Project area and serving the area as a whole. It would aim at the improvement of environmental hygiene, including provision and protection of water supply; proper disposal of human and animal wastes ; control of epidemic diseases such as Malaria, Cholera, Small-pox, Tuberculosis, etc. Provision of medical aid along with appropriate preventive measures, and education of the population for unhygienic living and improved nutrition.

Supplementary Employment: The unemployed and the under-employed persons in the village community will be provided with gainful employment to such extent as is possible, by the development of cottage and small-scale industries, construction of brick kilns and saw mills and encouragement of employment through participation in the tertiary sector of the economy.

Housing: Apart from the provision of housing for community projects personnel, steps will be taken, wherever possible, to provide demonstration and training in improved techniques and designs for rural housing. In congested villages, action in the direction of development of new sites, opening of village parks and playgrounds and assistance in the supply of building materials, may also be necessary.

Training: The training of village level workers, project supervisors and other personnel for the Community Development Programme will be carried out in 30 training centres which have been set up with the assistance of the Ford Foundation of America. Each training centre will have facilities for about 70 trainees. Each centre will have double training staff so that the trainees can be divided into two groups. One group will be getting practical and supervisory work experience, while the other group will be utilising the centres' facilities for lectures, demonstrations and discussions. In view of the great demand on the training centres to turn out people quickly for the opening of new projects, the training period will, in the first instance, be limited to six months. In addition to the training of village level workers and supervisors, the agricultural extension service workers in the Project areas will take steps for the training of the agriculturists, pancha's and village leaders.

Finance: The Community Development Programme imposes financial obligations on the Centre as well as on the State Governments. Broadly, the proportions which have been fixed are 75 per cent for the Centre and 25 per cent for the State in respect of non-recurring expenditure, and 50 per cent each for Centre and States in respect of recurring expenditure. This applies to 'grants-in aid'. Loan amount is totally found by the Centre. After the three-year period, the Community Project areas are intended to become Development Blocks on the lines recommended for adoption in Chapter VI of the 'Grow More Food Enquiry' Committee's Report. It is expected that in so far as the Community Project areas are concerned, the expenses of such development blocks will be borne entirely by State Governments after the third year. The expenditure, mostly recurring, is likely to be about Rs. 3 lakhs per project.

3.3. Second Five Year Plan (1956 - 61)

The second five year plan was formulated keeping in mind the district as the main unit of planning and execution of rural development programmes. In the First Five Year Plan problems relating to the administration of district programmes were reviewed and a number of recommendations made. As was pointed out in the First Five Year Plan, apart from finding personnel and the need to adapt the administrative system to the temper of democratic government, there organisation of district administration had to provide for and the following tasks were of even greater importance for the second five year plan:

- i. establishment for development at the village level of an appropriate agency which derives its authority from the village community;
- ii. integration of activities of various development departments in the district and the provision of a common extension organisation;

- iii. Linking up, in relation to all development work, of local self-governing institutions with the administrative agencies of the State Government;
- iv. Regional coordination and supervision of district development programmes; and
- v. Strengthening and improvement of the machinery of general administration.

Village Planning and Village Panchayats: The preparation of the first five year plan in the States took place mainly at State headquarters. Subsequently, attempts were made to break up State plans into district plans. It has been recognised that unless there is comprehensive village planning which takes into account the needs of the entire community, weaker sections like tenant cultivators, landless workers and artisans may not benefit sufficiently from assistance provided by the Government. Rural progress depends entirely on the existence of an active organisation in the village which can bring all the people—including the weaker sections into common programmes to be carried out with the assistance of the administration. These considerations were taken into account in the preparation of the second five year plan. Early in 1954 State Governments were requested to arrange for the preparation of plans for the second five-year period for individual villages and groups of villages such as tehsils, talukas, development blocks, etc. It was essential that local initiative in formulating plans and local effort and resources in carrying them out should be stimulated to the maximum extent possible. This would help to relate the plans to local needs and conditions and also to secure public participation and voluntary effort and contribution. Village planning was to be concerned primarily with agricultural production and other associated activities, including cooperation, village industries, communications and other local works programmes. These suggestions were generally followed and in all States village plans and district plans were prepared and formed a basis of the draft plans presented by State Governments.

The methods adopted for preparing the second five year plan have provided valuable training both to the rural people and to rural officials associated with development. It was realized that the pattern of district administration envisaged in the national extension and community development programme would remain incomplete unless village institutions are placed on a sound footing and are entrusted with a great deal of responsibility for carrying out local programmes. The experience of setting up ad hoc bodies in villages to implement development programme has also reinforced this conclusion. The development of village panchayats on the right lines has significance for several reasons. Under the impact of new developments, including the growth of population, land reform, urbanization, spread of education, increase in production and improvements in communications, village society is in

a state of rapid transition. In emphasizing the interest of the community as a whole and in particular the needs of those sections which are at present handicapped in various ways, village panchayats along with cooperatives, played a considerable part in bringing about a more just and integrated social structure in rural areas and in developing rural leadership.

In the First Five Year Plan it was recommended to enable panchayats to play their part in organizing village development programmes, legislation should confer on them certain functions relating to village production programmes and the development of village lands and resources. During the second plan this proposal had been further examined. The functions of village panchayats were distinguished broadly between two groups, administrative and judicial. Administrative functions were divided conveniently between (1) civic, (2) development, (3) land management and (4) land reforms. The civic functions of panchayats were embodied in legislation in different States in more or less similar terms. They include such tasks as village sanitation, registration of births, deaths, etc., organisation of village watch and ward, construction, maintenance and lighting of village streets, etc.

The functions of village panchayats in relation to development were set out as follows during the second five year plan:—

- i. Framing programmes of production in the village;
- ii. In association with cooperatives, framing budgets of requirements for supplies and finance for carrying out programmes;
- iii. Acting as a channel through which an increasing proportion of government assistance reaches the village;
- iv. Developing common lands such as waste lands, forests, tanks, etc., including measures for soil conservation;
- v. Construction, repair and maintenance of common village buildings, public wells, tanks, roads, etc.;
- vi. Organisation of mutual aid and joint effort in all activities;
- vii. Promotion of cooperative societies;
- viii. Organising voluntary labour for community works;
- ix. Promoting small savings; and
- x. Improvement of livestock.

The functions of panchayats in respect land management were:

- i. regulation of the use of common lands such as waste lands, forests, abadi sites, tanks, etc.;

- ii. Cultivation of lands set apart for the benefit of the village community, as in consolidation of holdings;
- iii. Adaptation of standards of good management and cultivation to local conditions and their enforcement; and
- iv. Association with the work of maintenance of land records;
- v. determination of land to be allotted to owners and tenants on the exercise of rights of resumption for personal cultivation,
- vi. Determination of surplus lands on the application of ceilings on agricultural holdings, and
- vii. Redistribution of surplus lands arising from the imposition of ceilings.

During the second plan period the judicial functions of panchayats were decided as follows:

- i. Administration of civil and criminal justice,
- ii. Enforcement of minimum wages for agricultural workers, and
- iii. Simple disputes pertaining to land.

In drawing up the second five year plan it was agreed that a State plan should include the maximum extent possible all programmes to be implemented by the State Government or by public authorities such as local bodies or by special boards set up within the State. This course was adopted because in the second five year plan one of the most important aspects was the preparation of plans at various levels below that of the State, that was, for individual villages, towns, talukas, tahsils or extension blocks and districts. It was recognised that both at the district and at the State level three kinds of programmes sponsored on behalf of public authorities would be included in the plan, namely,

- a. programmes initiated at the level in question, e.g. taluka, district and State.
- b. programmes initiated at lower levels and integrated with those in (a), and
- c. programmes initiated at levels above and integrated with (a), for instance, schemes sponsored by the Central Government but execute through States or schemes sponsored by the State Government and implemented through machinery available in the district.

3.4. Third Five Year Plan (1961 - 66)

The focus of the third five year plan was Housing and Rural Planning.

Improvement in housing conditions in the villages has a manifold significance. It raises the level of living, provides greater opportunities

for work and is a vital element in the transformation of rural life. Yet, because of the magnitude of the problem and its inherent difficulties the task of improving housing conditions in the villages has to be viewed, not as an isolated objective, but as a part of the larger scheme of rural development.

Consequently, rural housing is intrinsically apart of community development and village planning. The specific programme for rural housing as such is intended to supplement the resources of the community development movement at the level of the block and the village by way of assistance in the form of technical advice, demonstration, provision of improved designs and lay-outs, better use of local materials and, to a limited extent, provision of finance. Its essential object is to help create healthy environmental conditions for all sections of the village population and for balanced development of rural life as a whole. It is against this background that the village housing scheme which was introduced in 1957 has to be considered and its working reviewed. The village housing scheme provides for the selection of villages in groups of four to six and the preparation of lay-out plans for these villages after carrying out physical and socio-economic surveys. The implementation of lay-out plans and rebuilding of houses is taken up in stages so that the entire village is remodelled over a period of 8-10 years. Cooperatives for the manufacture of different building components are organised. Assistance in the shape of loans up to 66²/₃ percent of the cost of construction subject to a maximum of Rs. 2000 per house is given for building of houses. Loans are also given for carrying out improvements in existing houses in accordance with the standards prescribed by the State Governments. Provision has also been made in the scheme for acquisition of land required for streets, community buildings, new house sites and for thinning out densities etc. Research-cum-training centers have been established at six centers for promoting research in improving local building materials and construction techniques and for training personnel required for executing the scheme. The rural housing cells set up in the States for preparing lay-out plans and model designs etc. have been further strengthened. During the Second Five Year Plan about 3700 villages were selected and socioeconomic and physical surveys of about 2000 villages were completed. Lay-out plans of 1600 villages were drawn up and loans amounting to Rs. 3-6 crores were sanctioned for construction of about 15,400 houses. About 3000 houses were completed and the remaining houses were under different stages of construction.

In the working of the village housing scheme during the Second Plan it has been observed that as a rule the scheme has been taken up in isolated villages and not in groups of villages as was envisaged in the scheme. The latter aspect is important because it is only when a small' group of villages is taken up together that it is possible to arrange to set up a brick kiln or arrange for the supply of components on a cooperative basis to meet a continuing demand. The full impact of a housing programme in the rural area by way of increase in employment

and improvement in environmental conditions cannot be obtained unless the programme is undertaken systematically in groups of adjoining villages. Lay-out plans are at present prepared generally for selected villages. They provide for the extension of the village site, improved village streets and drainage and land for such common amenities as the village school, the playground for school children and the panchayat bhawan. However, not enough is being done in these directions, and the available funds tend to be devoted mainly to the construction and improvement of a small number of houses. It is suggested that the first claim on the resources provided for the village housing scheme should be on account of the extension of the village site, improvement of roads and drainage and allotment of land for essential purposes of interest to the community as a whole. The key to improved housing is the availability of land for the extension of village site. To the greatest extent possible, the community itself, through mutual arrangement, should be expected to provide the additional land required. However, for assisting the community to acquire land for providing house sites for agricultural workers and Harijans it may be useful, as suggested later, providing for a limited measure of assistance. The first place in the programme for improving village housing should be given to housing for Harijans, agricultural workers and those sections of the community whose housing conditions are especially deplorable.

For scheduled tribes and scheduled castes in particular, besides funds available under the village housing scheme, assistance by way of subsidy is also given under the programme for the welfare of backward classes. Provisions under the two programmes should be utilised in a coordinated manner. Rural housing cells, which have been set up in the States, and research-cum –training centres are already engaged in designing, houses suited to different parts of the country, and involving the use of local materials. Work in these directions has to be intensified. There is frequently a temptation to resort to houses on urban patterns constructed in brick and cement without sufficient emphasis being placed on the use of local materials, economy of construction cost, cultural traditions and background of the locality and functional requirements of rural life. There is also inadequate stress on community effort in improving roads and drainage, contribution by way of land for the extension of the village site and mutual aid in constructing improved housing. The scale of the rural housing problem is so vast that provision of additional funds by itself, necessary as this may be, can produce only a small impact. In the main problem is one of creating a widespread desire for better living, evolving practical methods for improving the village environment and building better houses at relatively small cost based mainly on cooperative self-help, community effort and contribution and the use of local building materials. In the Third Plan it will be essential to link up the programme more closely with different schemes of community development such as provision of water supply, roads, drainage, public health, education etc. It is also necessary that rural housing activities

should be effectively coordinated with other connected programmes of rural development so as to ensure that the villages selected under the village housing scheme derive the maximum benefit from the limited resources which are available. For example, the subsidy admissible under the programme for ameliorating the living conditions of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes should be made available to members of these communities residing in the villages selected under the scheme. Village and small industries should also be set up to the extent possible in the selected villages. Special attention has to be given to the setting up of brick-kilns and local production of building components, such as doors, windows, etc. For this purpose, cooperatives should be organised, and they should be given technical assistance and materials such as wood and coal-dust.

A number of new villages are coming up on account of reclamation of large tracts of land and development of new areas for agriculture. It should be ensured that the lay-out plans of such villages are prepared in advance and they develop in a planned way. In the case of existing villages where the problem is, in part, one of redevelopment, the success of the programme will depend upon their proper selection. The scheme already lays down that amongst other considerations preference will be given to (a) villages which are situated in flood-affected areas, (b) villages which have substantial populations of backward classes and agricultural labourers, (c) villages in which consolidation of holdings has been completed or in which programmes for increasing agricultural production are being successfully implemented, and (d) villages whose inhabitants happen to be displaced because of major development projects or natural calamities. Villages which have concentrations of artisans should also be given preference. Evidence of cooperative self-help and willingness on the part of the village community to contribute land for the extension of the village site and to give priority to the housing of Harijans and other backward classes should be important considerations in the selection of villages suitable for a programme of village housing. In selected villages in which these conditions are fulfilled, with a view to facilitating the total effort that is called for, it may be necessary to give a limited amount of assistance by way of grant to the village panchayat for undertaking the improvement of village streets and drainage as an essential step in the programme for re planning the village as a whole.

3.5. Fourth Five Year Plan (1969 - 74)

The major thrust of the fourth five year plan was Cooperation and Community Development. The volume of cooperative credit (short and medium-term) for agricultural purposes increased from Rs. 203 crores in 1960-61 to Rs. 429 crores in 1967-68 and an estimated Rs. 490 crores in 1968-69. Long-term credit increased from Rs. 12 crores in 1960-61 to about Rs. 120 crores in 1968-69.

Appreciable progress took place in the cooperatively organised processing of agricultural produce mainly in the sector of sugar

factories, which now account for about a third of the total sugar production. The value of agricultural inputs distributed by cooperatives rose from about Rs. 36 crores in 1960-61 to about Rs.250 crores in 1968-69. Of the inputs, the largest item consists of fertilisers and the value of these distributed by the cooperatives increased from about Rs. 28crores in 1960-61 to nearly Rs. 200 crores in 1968-69, representing about 60 percent of the total consumption of fertilisers in the country. The total value of agricultural produce handled by cooperative marketing and processing societies rose from Rs. 174 crores in 1960-61 to an estimated Rs. 583 crores in 1968-69.

The value of retail consumer trade undertaken by cooperatives in rural areas recorded an increase from Rs. 17 crores in 1960-61 to Rs. 275 crores in 1968-69. The corresponding figures for turn-over in urban areas were Rs. 40'crores in 1960-61 and Rs. 270 crores in 1968-69.

Apart from quantitative progress, there were several organisational developments of significance during this period. One of them was the emergence of national cooperative federations. The formation of the national federations' and the reorganisation of the National Cooperative Union of India at the apex, added a new dimension to the cooperative structure. Another important development was the reorganisation of the cooperative training programme. This had two main aspects. A new stress was laid on instruction in business management. In pursuance of this objective, a Central Institute was started at Bombay in 1964 to impart training in business management to key personnel engaged in consumer cooperation. This was merged in 1967 with the National Cooperative College and Research Institute, Poona thus leading to the establishment of Vaikunth Mehta National Institute of Cooperative Management. Secondly, following the recommendations of the study team on Cooperative Training (1961), a decision was taken to transfer responsibility for the management of training centres to the cooperative unions both at the national and State levels. The National Cooperative Union of India set up a special committee, called the Committee for Cooperative Training on which devolved the task of running the National Institute and the cooperative training colleges. In a number of cases, the State Governments transferred the charge of their cooperative training Centres to State Cooperative Unions.

Approach to Cooperative Development: Growth with stability being the keynote of the Fourth Plan, agricultural cooperatives on the one hand and consumer cooperatives on the other will occupy a central position in the strategy of cooperative development. Growth of agriculture is largely dependent-on intensive agriculture and this involves a substantial increase in credit, inputs and services.

The aim will be to ensure that the services which the farmer requires are institutionalised to the greatest extent possible. In the process of such institutionalisation, which will not be to a set pattern, the cooperative form of organisation will have ample opportunities not

only to expand but also to establish itself as viable and efficient. It will be part of policy during the Fourth Plan to ensure that the opportunities before cooperatives are as large and varied as they can utilise effectively. While it will be for the cooperatives themselves to make the effort involved and reach those standards of efficiency which will enable them to compete with other forms of organisation serving similar purposes, Government for its part will endeavour to assist the cooperatives themselves for the important aspects such as finance, organisation and trained personnel. In regard to agro-industries, preference will continue to be given to cooperatives in the matter of licensing and institutional finance.

In the Fourth Plan one of the main endeavors was to orient the policies and procedures of credit cooperatives and land development banks in favour of small cultivators. The All India Rural Credit Review Committee made a number of recommendations in this direction. These were sought to be implemented, the more important changes being in the following directions:

i. If the resources available to a particular society are inadequate to meet the requirements of all its members, it will seek to ensure that the needs of the small cultivators are adequately met on a priority basis.

ii. The larger cultivators will be called upon to contribute a relatively higher proportion of their borrowings towards share capital while the smaller cultivators will invariably be extended the facility of paying their share amount in convenient instalments.

iii. Stress will be laid on effective implementation of crop loan system. To ascertain whether the small farmer is receiving adequate attention, it is intended that the credit limit statements are so separated so as to identify small farmers vis-a-vis others.

iv. Loaning policies of land development banks will be liberalised, e.g. liberalisation in respect of valuation of landed property offered as security, issue of joint loans for groups of small cultivators, emphasis on the operational and economic viability of the proposed investment and not merely the value of tangible security and phasing of the repaying programme in accordance with the capacity of the small cultivators.

v. Bigger cultivators who can repay loans in shorter periods will be encouraged to avail of medium term credit for investment, so that larger volume of long-term credit can be made available for small farmers from land development banks.

Rural Electric Cooperatives: One of the significant developments contemplated in the Fourth Plan relates to the involvement of the cooperative form of organization in the programme of rural electrification. Pilot rural electric cooperatives are in the process of being set up in five States. The licensing of these cooperatives is among the functions allotted to the Rural Electrification Corporation.

The objectives of the cooperatives include the supply of electricity for agricultural and agro-industrial purposes and the encouragement of active participation of the people by giving them some degree of control on electricity supply.

Community Development and Panchayati Raj: The Community Development Programme was started in 1952. It now covered the whole country. It's remained the block and its aim that of achieving rural development through people's participation and initiative. The assistance from Government, so far as resources would allow, took the shape of a budget grant for the block and a team of extension workers under a Block Development Officer. The latter was to coordinate all schemes of a developmental character within the block. In the integrated programme, divided into stages of five years each, agricultural development occupied the foremost position. During this plan the step was taken that of attempting to weld together Panchayati Raj and Community Development. This objective followed from the acceptance of the recommendations of the Study Team of the Committee on Plan Projects (Balwant Rai Mehta Committee). The three-tier Panchayati Raj system, together with its modifications in different States, thus set the pattern of local development administration. At each level—village or group of villages, block or group of blocks, and district—there was to be a link between the administrative apparatus and elected representatives.

New Dimensions: With all their drawbacks, the Community Development Programme and Panchayati Raj institutions had provided a new dimension to rural development and introduced a structural change of considerable importance in the district administration. Within the limitations of resources the present plan attempted to do something which in many cases, had never before been attempted. Improvement of agriculture has remained in the forefront throughout. Investment from the available block funds on agricultural development has over the years almost equalled the provisions for all other sectors of development taken together.

In many States, the block organisation was virtually the only field agency for carrying out development programmes. There was sizeable contribution from local communities to the developmental effort. There was considerable flexibility with regard to the type of organisation, contents of programme and extent of resources. Also important was continued emphasis on priority programmes such as agriculture and family planning. The State Plans accordingly provide Rs. 84.69 crores for programme of community development. Simultaneously, there was progressively larger devolution of programmes and resources by the States.

Pilot Study on Growth Centers: As a part of studies on area planning, a centrally sponsored scheme of Pilot Research Project in Growth Centres was launched. The aim of the pilot project was to evolve a broad research methodology and pattern for identifying

emerging growth centres, and to indicate how the growth potential of these centres could be promoted through comprehensive and scientific study of the overall development needs, and how these centres could be meaningfully woven into the frame of the district plan and thus help in the process of planning from below. The scheme was thus brought under close study action strategies relevant to the acceleration of integrated area development around potential growth centres. Numbers of projects were taken up in different areas in the States and Union Territories. Few projects were located in institutions working on planning methodology. To facilitate integration with district planning, the growth centres were located in districts for which detailed plans in terms of guidelines and norms provided by the Planning Commission were drawn up.

3.6. Fifth Five Year Plan (1974 - 79)

In the Fifth Five Year Plan, the 20-Point Economic Programme was announced by the Prime Minister on 1st July, 1975 as a major aspect of this Five Year Plan. The various constituents of the 20-Point Economic Programme, especially those which require financial investment, were identified. Priority was accorded to the implementation of the schemes falling under this programme.

Minor Irrigation: According to the outlays available to the states for the first three years of this plan maximum potential of nearly 3¼ million hectares was created during the first three years of the Plan. The provision made in the following two years of the Plan almost equals the provision in the first three years.

Soil and Water Conservation: The programme for treatment of area in river valley catchment of major reservoirs and other soil and water conservation programme made a late start. A considerable step-up in outlays for implementation of these programmes were made for the remaining two years of the Fifth Plan. In some of the States, soil and water conservation programmes were also been taken up with institutional credit support and the targets of physical performance are likely to be achieved.

Area Development: This important programme for optimizing the use of irrigation water and utilisation of the potential created from selected commands of major irrigation works also took time to make a start. Command Area Development Authorities were set up and other infrastructure facilities developed. Therefore, the provision in the Central sector would be almost 22 per cent higher for the remaining two years as compared to the outlays for the first three years. The provisions in the respective states adequately match the provision made in the Central sector.

Forestry: Taking note of the fact that forestry development was assumed a significant dimension as a source of timber and fuel and for the maintenance of the natural ecological system, special programmes for social forestry and economic plantations have been given high

priority. Accordingly, for the remaining two years of the plan, the provision made was almost double the outlays provided for in the first three years of the Plan. Adequate provision has also been made for 'project Tiger' and for the development of National Parks and for strengthening the research programme in the forestry sector.

Animal Husbandry and Dairy Farming: There had been some delay in giving a start to the special livestock development programmes through small and marginal farmers and agricultural labourers. By and large the targets under production oriented projects such as intensive cattle development projects, intensive poultry production-cum-marketing centres, sheep and wool extension centres and fluid milk plants and milk product factories are expected to be achieved in full. There are 85 subsidised projects for cross-breed calf rearing, 57 poultry production projects, 45 piggery production projects and 38 sheep production projects through small and marginal farmers and agricultural labourers in 148 districts. Integrated milk production-cum-marketing projects would be implemented in the States of Meghalaya, Assam, Sikkim, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Orissa and Kerala as a second phase of the 'Operation Flood' project. Emphasis will continue to be laid on cross-breeding in cattle through establishment of exotic cattle breeding farms and intensive artificial insemination measures. Particular emphasis will be laid on scientific poultry breeding programme. Programmes for the control of rinder pest and foot and mouth disease would be continued.

Fisheries: There was delay in the start of a few projects but the targets for mechanisation of boats, production of fish seed and development of fishing harbours were expected to be achieved in full. A special Trawler Development Fund will be created in order to help, in particular, smaller entrepreneurs and cooperatives to purchase and operate trawlers for marine fisheries. Fish Farmers Development Agencies were started in the states for augmenting inland fish production and exploitation of water bodies in rural areas.

Research and Education: The research priorities in different fields of crop production and animal husbandry were maintained to yield new innovations in developing farm level technology. The coordinated research programmes were suitably strengthened with the active participation of the Agricultural Universities in different States. A new research complex was established in the north-eastern region. New institutes were also been established for strengthening cotton research and for developing research programmes on farm tools, equipment and machinery. Provisions were made for projects with collaboration of agencies of United Nations. The Educational programmes have been further strengthened by setting up new Agricultural Universities which now number 21 covering 16 States.

3.7. Sixth Five Year Plan (1980 - 85)

The major thrust of the Sixth Five Year Plan was on strengthening the socioeconomic infrastructure of development in the rural areas, alleviating rural poverty and reducing regional disparities. The specific programmes and strategies were adopted during the Plan period. Main important initiative of this particular plan was special employment and income generation programmes for the rural poor, special area development programmes and the institutional means for rural development.

Strategy for the Sixth Plan: Alleviation of rural poverty was the prime objective of the Sixth Plan. Increase in the productive potential of the rural economy was an essential condition for finding effective solutions to the problems of rural poverty. At the same times, recognising the constraints which limit the scope for higher growth rate in medium-term, more direct means of reducing the incidence of poverty and destitution were employed. It was well known that the hard core of poverty was to be found in rural areas. The poorest sections belonged to the families of landless labourers, small and marginal farmers, rural artisans, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and socially and economically backward classes. House-holds below the poverty line were assisted through an appropriate package of technologies, services and asset transfer programmes. The strategy and methodology for accelerated rural development were follows:

- i. increasing production and productivity in agriculture and allied sectors;
- ii. Resource and income development of vulnerable section of the rural population through development of the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors;
- iii. Skill formation and skill upgrading programmes to promote self and wage employment amongst the rural poor;
- iv. Facilitating adequate availability of credit to support the programmes taken up for the rural poor;
- v. Promoting marketing support to ensure the viability of production programmes and to insulate the rural poor from exploitation in the marketing of their products;
- vi. Provision of additional employment opportunities to the rural poor for gainful employment during the lean agricultural season through a national rural employment programme (NREP);
- vii. Provision of essential minimum needs; and

viii. Involvement of universities, research and technical institutions in preparing a shelf of projects both for self-employment and NREP and in preparing strategies for the scientific utilisation of local resources.

Three broad categories of these programmes namely

- (1) Resource and income development programme for the rural poor,
- (2) Special Area development programme and
- (3) Works programme for creation of supplementary employment opportunities were introduced during this plan period which were directly aimed at the development of the target group of the rural poor and the principal institutional instruments relevant there of:

Integrated Rural Development Programme: It was proposed that multiplicity of programmes for the rural poor operated through a multiplicity of agencies should be ended and be replaced by one single integrand programme operative throughout the country. The programme was called the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP). Of the 350 million people below the poverty line in the country, around 300 million are in the rural areas. These consist largely of the landless labourers, small and marginal farmers, rural artisans, and other workers. The hard core of poverty is constituted by the marginal farmers, agricultural labourers (about half of whom are landless), rural artisans and fishermen constituting nearly one-third of the rural work force. Possessing little or virtually no assets, they need to be enabled to acquire productive assets and/or appropriate skills and vocational opportunities and then backed effectively with services to increase production and productivity. The main objective of the IRDP Programme was to evolve an operationally integrated strategy for the purpose, on the one hand, of increasing production and productivity in agriculture and “allied sectors based on better use of land, water and sunlight, and on the other, of the resource and income development of vulnerable sections of the population in all the blocks of the country. Since the bulk of the rural poor are landless or marginal farmers, a significant part of the activities for their benefit was given to the non-farm sector.

Drought Prone Area Programme: the DPAP covering 557 blocks spread over 74 districts in the country was an integrated area development programme in agricultural sector aimed at optimum utilisation of land, water and livestock resources, restoration of ecological balance and stabilising the income of the people particularly the weaker section of the society. Some of the important elements of the programme were:

- i. Development and management of water resources.
- ii. Soil and Moisture conservation measures.
- iii. Afforestation with special emphasis on social and farm forestry.

- iv. Development of pasture lands and range management in conjunction with development of sheep husbandry.
- v. Live-stock development and dairy development.
- vi. Restructuring of cropping pattern and changes in agronomic practices, and
- vii. Development of subsidiary occupations.

The Desert Development Programme: DDP aimed at checking further desertification of the desert areas and raising productivity of the local resources to raise the income and employment levels of the local inhabitants. The programme was implemented both in the hot and cold arid zones of the country during the Sixth Plan. The emphases were on arresting desertification through activities which restore ecological balance, stabilize sand dunes, and facilitate soil and water conservation. Plantation of shelter belts, adoption of water harvesting techniques and development of pastures to sustain the livestock economy will be vigorously pursued. Exploitation of the natural resources of these areas will be closely linked to replenishment of these resources; It is proposed to encourage innovative use of land for fodder crops, pastures and fuel and fodder plantations. This diversification can substantially improve the economy of the desert areas in keeping with the ecological requirements of the area. In the cold arid zones of Ladakh and Spiti, irrigated agriculture and improved animal husbandry practices were among the activities encouraged.

3.8. Seventh Five Year Plan (1985 - 90)

Alleviation of rural poverty has always been one of the primary objectives of planned development in India. Ever since the inception of planning, the policies and the programmes have been designed and redesigned with this aim. The problem of rural poverty was brought into a sharper focus during the Sixth Plan. The Seventh Plan too emphasised growth with social justice. It was realised that a sustainable strategy of poverty alleviation has to be based on increasing the productive employment opportunities in the process of growth itself. However, to the extent the process of growth bypassed some sections of the population, it is necessary to formulate specific poverty alleviation programmes for generation of a certain minimum level of income for the rural poor. And taking this fact into consideration the seventh plan was formulated.

Integrated Rural Development Programme: This scheme was launched in the Sixth Plan. Its assessment at the end of the Sixth Plan period revealed several shortcomings. Keeping this in view and the feed-back received from the State Governments, suitable changes were introduced in the guidelines for the IRDP in the Seventh Plan. The poverty line was based at Rs.6400, but those eligible for assistance under the IRDP had to have an average annual income of Rs.4800 or less. It was assumed that those households with income levels between

Rs.4800 and Rs.6400 would be able to rise above the poverty line in the process of growth itself. It was targeted that 20 million families would be assisted under IRDP during the Seventh Plan of which 10 million were new households and 10 million old beneficiaries who had been unable to cross the poverty line and required a second dose. During the Seventh Plan, the subsidy expenditure on IRDP was Rs.3316 crores which was in excess of the target of Rs.3000 crores. The total investment including the institutional credit amounted to Rs.8688 crores. In quantitative terms, the physical achievement of about 18 million households fell short of the original target of 20 million households but exceeded the cumulative target which was only 16 million families. The sectoral composition indicates that, of all the schemes selected under IRDP, 44 per cent were in the primary sector, 18.5 per cent in the secondary sector and 37.5 per cent in the tertiary sector. A system of concurrent evaluation of the IRDP programme was also introduced under which data were collected by independent research institutions for the entire country on a sample basis. State wise details of performance are available. The findings suggest that the IRDP was quite successful in terms of providing incremental income to poor families. However, the number of households able to cross the poverty line was relatively small. It may be partly due to the low levels of initial investment.

Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM): TRYSEM was introduced to provide technical skills and to upgrade the traditional skills of rural youth belonging to families below the poverty line. Its aim was to enable the rural youth to take up self-employment ventures in different spheres across sectors by giving them assistance under IRDP.

During the Seventh Plan about 10 lakh youth were trained under TRYSEM, of which 47 per cent took up self employment and 12 per cent wage employment. The remaining 41 per cent could not avail of either. On the other hand, a sizeable proportion of IRDP beneficiaries who needed training could not receive it. In fact, only 6 to 7 per cent of IRDP beneficiaries were trained under TRYSEM. During 1990-91 the number of youth trained was 2.6 lakhs, of which 70 per cent got employed.

Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWACRA): DWACRA, an exclusive scheme for women was launched in the IRDP, as a pilot project, in 50 districts. In the Seventh Plan it was extended to more districts and at the end of the Seventh Plan period it was in operation in 161 districts. Under DWACRA, a group of women are granted assistance to take up viable economic activities with Rs. 15,000 as a one-time grant to be used as a revolving fund. In the Seventh Plan about 28,000 groups could be formed against the target of 35,000 with a membership of 4.6 lakh women. During 1990-91, against a target of 7,500 groups, 7,139 were actually formed. In principle, this scheme is a sound one; in operationalising it the impact has been inadequate. This is perhaps due to 'a lack of cohesion among women

groups formed under DWCRA and their inability to identify activities that could generate sustained incomes. In this sphere, the role of voluntary organisations would be crucial in organising women to take up group-based economic activities which are viable within the context of an area development plan. Experiments in some States to form women's thrift and credit societies resulted into economic progress.

Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP):

This was a totally centrally financed programme introduced in 1983. While most of the objectives and stipulations under this were similar to those of NREP, it was to be limited only to the landless, with guaranteed employment of 100 days. Moreover, there was earmarking of funds specifically for certain activities- 25 per cent for social forestry, 10 per cent for works benefitting only the Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and 20 per cent for housing under Indira Awaas Yojana. In the Seventh Plan, Rs.2412 crores were spent and 115 crore man-days were generated with an average expenditure of Rs.21.00 per man-day. Only 16 per cent had been spent on social forestry but 22 per cent had been spent on housing, - with over 5 lakh houses created for SC/ST and freed bonded labourers. Rural roads accounted for 22 per cent while other construction, minor irrigation, soil conservation etc. each had a small share.

Jawahar Razgar Yojana (JRY): During the Seventh Plan, JRY was launched with a total allocation of Rs. 2600 crores to generate 931 million man-days of employment. The primary objective of the programme was generation of additional employment on productive works which would either be of sustained benefit to the poor' or contribute to the creation of rural infrastructure. Under this programme, Centre's contribution was 80 per cent, and 20 per cent was the State's share. The JRY was implemented in all villages in the country. Central assistance was provided to the States on the basis of proportion of the rural poor in a State/UT to the total rural poor in the country. From the States to the districts, the allocations were made on an index of backwardness which was formulated on the following basis:

- i. 20 per cent weightage for the proportion of agricultural labourers in the total workers in the rural areas.
- ii. 60 per cent weightage to the proportion of rural scheduled castes and tribes population in relation to the total rural population; and
- iii. 20 per cent weightage to the inverse of agricultural productivity. Of the total allocations at the State level 6 per cent of the total resources are earmarked for housing under the Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY) which are allotted to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and freed bonded labour. In addition, 20 per cent are earmarked for Million Wells Scheme (MWS). In fact, this scheme was launched as a special feature both under NREP and RLEGP in 1988-89.

The objective was to provide open wells, free of cost, to poor SC/ST farmers in the category of small and marginal farmers, and to free bonded labourers. However, where such wells are not feasible, the amounts allotted may be utilised for other schemes of minor irrigation like irrigation tanks, water harvesting structures and also for development of lands of SCs/STs and freed bonded labourers including ceiling surplus and Bhoodan lands.

Land Reforms: During this plan period the following Land Reforms measures were taken:

- i. Abolition of intermediaries;
- ii. Tenancy reforms with security to actual cultivators;
- iii. Redistribution of surplus ceiling land;
- iv. Consolidation of holdings; and
- v. Updating of land records.

Voluntary Action: Recognizing the important role of voluntary agencies' in accelerating the process of social and economic development, the Seventh Plan placed a great deal of emphasis on people's participation and voluntary action in rural development. The role of voluntary agencies has been defined as providing a basis for innovation with new approaches towards integrated development, ensuring feed-back regarding impact of various programmes and securing the involvement of local communities, particularly, those below the poverty line. The need for a cadre of trained animators and social organisers was recognised and a massive programme for training the identified persons was prepared with the help of establishing Voluntary Organisations. Further, the scheme of organisation of beneficiaries of anti-poverty programmes which was under taken on a pilot -basis for two years from 1986-87 was continued during the Seventh Plan period. This scheme was intended to increase the awareness and strengthen the bargaining position of the beneficiaries of anti-poverty programmes so as to help them get the maximum benefits from the programmes meant for their economic uplift. This was to be done through awareness generation camps, which were organised with the assistance of voluntary organisations.

3.9. Eighth Five Year Plan (1992 - 97)

In this Five Year Plan, elimination of poverty continued to be a major concern of development planning. Expansion of employment opportunities, augmentation of productivity and income levels of both the underemployed and employed poor would be the main instrument for achieving this objective during the Eighth Plan. Given the enhanced outlay for ' rural development' in the Eighth Plan, resources were utilised for building up of rural infrastructure, which was an essential pre-requisite for a more sustained employment and development. All

weather roads were given priority, particularly in tribal, hill and desert areas, where inaccessibility to markets and to information and input was a severe bottle-neck. Minor irrigation works and water harvesting structures were vital in order to conserve the scarce water and schemes for soil conservation and social forestry would go a long way in reducing soil erosion and top soil water cup - off as well as wherever required school buildings and primary health centres and sub-centres were constructed.

Land Reforms: Land, the single most important asset in rural India and given the present state of agricultural technology even a small farm can be viable, both in terms of employment and income of a family. The need for land reforms was recognised at the time of independence and has been reiterated in the successive Five Year Plans. The Seventh Plan enunciated land reforms to be an intrinsic part of the anti-poverty strategy. The importance of land reforms continues to be significant. Its main tenets are abolition of intermediaries, security of tenure for tenant-cultivators, redistribution of land by imposition of a ceiling on agricultural holdings, consolidation of holdings and updating of land records. The Eighth Plan therefore addressed itself to the factors that have come in the way of realising the goals of land reforms policy. First, it would aim at ensuring that an atmosphere is created whereby the actual cultivators were made aware of the rights and enabled to claim their benefits.

Secondly, it would encourage steps to be taken for early detection of surplus lands. Thirdly, it would be necessary to ensure that the newly acquired lands are brought under profitable agronomic practices, thus meeting the twin objectives of poverty alleviation and output growth. The management of land records and the skills and capabilities of the lower level official machinery would need to be given the necessary support of resources and modernisation so that they help, rather than hinder, the evolution of an equitable agrarian order. The land reform program introduced with the following objectives:

- i. Restructuring of agrarian relations to achieve egalitarian social structure;
- ii. Elimination of exploitation in land relations;
- iii. Actualisation of the goal of "land to the tiller";
- iv. Improvement of socio-economic conditions of the rural poor by widening their land base;
- v. Increasing agricultural productivity and production;
- vi. Facilitating land-based development of rural poor; and
- vii. Infusion of greater measures of equality in local institutions.

Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP): During the Eighth Five Year Plan the total allocation (Centre and State) under

IRDP was Rs.5048.29crore and the total investment amounted to Rs.11541.06 crore. In quantitative numbers, 10.82 million families were covered under IRDP against the initial target of 12.6 million families fixed for the entire Eighth Plan period. However, from 1995-96 physical targeting under the programme was abolished with the focus shifting to financial targets and qualitative parameters. Of the families covered 50.06 per cent were Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and 33.59 percent women. The coverage of women was still lower than the target of 40 percent. At the instance of the Ministry of Rural Development, the Reserve Bank of India appointed in 1993, a High Powered Committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. D.R. Mehta, Deputy Governor of Reserve Bank of India to make an in-depth study of IRDP and recommend suitable measures for its improvement. The Committee was asked to review among other factors, the process of selection of appropriate income generating assets, credit structure, recovery of loans, and procedural matters in respect of obtaining loans, and efficacy of existing administrative structures of the District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs). In consonance with the recommendations of the High Powered Committee, the new initiatives taken by Government under IRDP in the Eighth Plan included:

- (a) targeting the segment of literate unemployed youth below the poverty line for IRDP activities by giving them subsidy upto Rs.7500 or 50 per cent of the project cost (whichever is lower)
- (b) promotion of group activities through enhancement of ceiling on subsidy to Rs.1.25 lakh or 50 per cent of the project cost (whichever is lower) for all group ventures involving at least 5 members
- (c) back-ending of subsidy to prevent leakages in subsidy administration
- (d) shifting the emphasis to financial targets and qualitative parameters from a perfunctory physical coverage of families and
- (e) enhancing the limit of allocation to programme infrastructure from 10 per cent to 20 per cent in all the States and 25 per cent in the North Eastern States. There was considerable diversification of IRDP activities during eighth plan period. Initially, a majority of the beneficiaries under the programme subscribed to primary sector activities. In 1980-81 the sectoral composition of IRDP activities was heavily skewed towards the primary sector which had a sponsorship of 93.56 per cent, while the share of the secondary and tertiary sectors were 2.32 per cent and 4.12 per cent respectively.

Over the years, the share of the primary sector has come down considerably and is currently around 55 per cent, while the shares of the secondary and tertiary sectors have increased proportionately to 15 per cent and 30 per cent respectively.

Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM): With a view to strengthening this programme, several initiatives were taken in the Eighth Plan which include, among others, an increase in the stipend and honorarium rates; emphasis on professionalised training through the established and recognised institutes like ITIs, Community Polytechnics, Krishi Vigyan Kendras etc., exploring the possibilities of setting up production groups from amongst TRYSEM trainees for undertaking ancillary activities like manufacture and assembly of modern items of production; utilisation of TRYSEM infrastructure funds for the strengthening of Nirmithi Kendras (Rural Building Centres) sponsored by HUDCO for training of youth under TRYSEM in the trades of low cost housing and the setting up of mini-ITIs at the block level to strengthen the training infrastructure for the rural youth.

Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY): During eighth plan period JRY was further streamlined. In the revised strategy, the First Stream of JRY was continued in its existing form but Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY) and Million Wells Scheme (MWS) which were till then sub-schemes of JRY were made independent schemes. The Second Stream of JRY, which was being implemented in 120 backward districts in the country, was merged with the Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS) introduced in 1775 selected backward blocks of the country in 1993-94 in view of the similarity in these programmes. The Third Stream of JRY with its thrust on innovative projects was continued. Accordingly, the JRY is now being implemented in two parts i.e. (i) the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (Main Scheme); and (ii) Special and Innovative Project.

Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS): The Employment Assurance Scheme was launched on 2nd October, 1993 in 1775 identified backward blocks situated in drought prone, desert, tribal and hill areas, in which the revamped public distribution system was in operation. Subsequently, the scheme was extended to additional blocks which included the newly identified Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP)/Desert Development Programme (DDP) blocks, Modified Area Development Approach (MADA) blocks having a larger concentration of tribals, and blocks in flood prone areas of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Assam and Jammu & Kashmir. In addition, 722 non-EAS blocks previously covered under Second Stream of Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) were also brought under the EAS. The EAS has since been universalized to cover all the rural blocks in the country with effect from 1.4.1997. The main objective of the EAS is to provide about 100 days of assured casual manual employment during the lean agricultural season, at statutory minimum wages, to all persons above the age of 18 years and below 60 years who need and seek employment on economically productive and labour intensive social and community works. The works are to be selected by the District Collector and implemented through the line departments in such a manner that the ratio of wage to the non-wage component would stand at 60:40. Sectoral norms for execution of various works are watershed development (50 per cent) and agro-horticulture, minor irrigation works (10 per cent) in DPAP and DDP blocks or water & soil

conservation including afforestation, agro-horticulture and silvipasture (40 per cent), and minor irrigation works (20 per cent) in non-DPAP/non-DDP blocks. In addition, funds were also earmarked for link roads featuring in the Master Plans developed in the respective districts for this purpose (20 per cent) and public community buildings in rural areas as per the felt needs of the districts (20 per cent). The village panchayats are involved in the registration of persons seeking employment and the panchayats maintain these registers. They also coordinate and monitor the works. A maximum of two adults per family are to be provided employment under the scheme. The applicants, who register themselves for employment under the EAS, were issued family cards in which the number of days of employment are entered as and when such employment is given to them.

Million Wells Scheme (MWS): In India, though the small and marginal farmers, with holdings of less than 2 hectares, account for about 78 per cent of the total operational holdings, they only cultivate about 32.2 per cent of the cropped area (Agricultural Census 1990-91). To increase the productivity of these holdings they must be ensured an assured source of water supply. Ground water made available through wells is an important source especially in the remote areas of the countryside, where canal or tank irrigation is not feasible. Though the fixed capital investment in well irrigation is fairly high, it has many advantages such as flexibility in operation, dependability of source, timing of water deliveries and low conveyance losses.

The Million Wells Scheme (MWS) was launched as a sub-scheme of the National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) and the Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) during the year 1988-89. After the merger of the two programmes in April 1989 into the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY), the MWS continued as a sub-scheme of JRY till December 1995. The MWS was delinked from JRY and made into an independent scheme with effect from 1.1.1996.

The scheme was primarily intended to provide open irrigation wells, free of cost, to individual, poor, small and marginal farmers belonging to Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and freed bonded labourers with a 20 per cent earmarking of JRY funds. Tubewells and borewells are not permitted under the Scheme. Where wells are not feasible due to geological factors, other minor irrigation works can be undertaken such as irrigation tanks, water harvesting structures as also development of land belonging to small and marginal farmers. From the year 1993-94 the scope of the MWS has been enlarged to cover non-Scheduled Castes/non-Scheduled Tribes small and marginal farmers who are below the poverty line and are listed in the IRDP register of the village. The sectoral earmarking which was 20 per cent upto 1992-93 had also been raised to 30 per cent from 1993-94 with the stipulation that the benefits to non-Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes would not exceed one third of the total funds utilised during the year.

National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP): The National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP) came into effect from 15th August, 1995. The programme represents a significant step towards the fulfilment of the Directive Principles in Articles 41 and 42 of the Constitution through the enunciation of a National Policy for social assistance benefits to poor households in the case of old age, death of the primary breadwinner and maternity. It is a Centrally Sponsored Scheme with 100 per cent Central assistance provided to States/UTs. This programme had three components: namely

- (i) National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS);
- (ii) National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS); and
- (iii) National Maternity Benefit Scheme (NMBS)

which are targeted at people living below the poverty line. Under the National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS), old age pension of Rs.75 per month is provided to persons of 65 years and above who are destitute. The National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS) provides a lump sum family benefit of Rs.10,000 to the bereaved household in case of the death of the primary bread winner irrespective of the cause of death. This scheme is applicable to all the eligible persons in the age group 18 to 64. Under the National Maternity Benefit Scheme (NMBS) there is a provision for payment of Rs.500 per pregnancy to women belonging to poor households for pre-natal and post-natal maternity care upto the first two live births. This benefit is provided to eligible women of 19 years and above.

3.10. Ninth Five Year Plan (1997 - 2002)

Poverty eradication has always been one of the major objectives of planned development. The magnitude of the problem is still quite staggering. Thirty six per cent of the Indian population was below poverty line (BPL) in 1993-94, the latest year for which the data are available and the absolute number of poor was 320 million, out of which 244 million (37 per cent of the rural population) lived in rural areas. The incidence of poverty declined from 54.9 per cent in 1973-74 to 36 per cent in 1993-94. But the absolute number of poor did not decline much over this period of 20 years.

There were 321 million poor in 1973-74 and 320 million in 1993-94; in the rural areas the corresponding numbers were 261 million and 244 million.

The main determinants of poverty were identified as

- (i) lack of income and purchasing power attributable to lack of productive employment and considerable underemployment and not to lack of employment per se;
- (ii) a continuous increase in the price of food, especially food grains which account for 70-80 percent of the consumption basket; and

- (iii) inadequacy of social infrastructure, affecting the quality of life of the people and their employability. Considering this background of progress and challenges of rural development the ninth plan was formulated with the major focus of poverty alleviation program and Public Distribution system.

The Government recognises that high growth of incomes is by itself not enough to improve the quality of life of the poor. Unless all the citizens of the country, and most particularly the poor, have certain basic minimum services, their living conditions cannot improve. These minimum services include among other things literacy education, primary health care, safe drinking water and nutritional security. The Government had convened a meeting of Chief Ministers to identify such basic minimum services and a list of seven services had unanimously been agreed upon. These seven services are safe drinking water, primary health facilities, universal primary education, nutrition to school and pre- school children, shelter for the poor, road connectivity for all villages and habitations, and the Public Distribution System (PDS) with a focus on the poor. The Ninth Plan lays special emphasis on these seven basic minimum services and will make all efforts to achieve a minimum level of satisfaction in providing these in partnership with the State Governments and the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs).

Direct poverty alleviation programmes were considered important and were planned to be continued on an expanded scale in the Ninth Plan. But these programmes would be oriented towards strengthening the productive potential of the economy and providing more opportunities for involving the poor in the economic process. Broadly, there would be schemes for income generation through supplementary employment, for the welfare of the poor in rural/urban areas and for a targeted PDS system to ensure that the poor have access to food grains at prices they can afford.

New Initiatives under IRDP during Ninth Plan:

- i. IRDP was made holistic programme covering all aspects of self employment, namely, organisation of beneficiaries and their capacity building, planning of activity clusters, infrastructure, technology, credit and marketing.
- ii. Sub-schemes of TRYSEM, DWCRA, SITRA and GKY were merged into IRDP.
- iii. Progressive shift from the individual beneficiary approach to the group and/or cluster approach.
- iv. To facilitate group approach SHGs were formed and steps were taken to nurture them.
- v. For cluster approach each district had to identify 4 to 5 activity clusters in each block based on local resources and occupational

skills of the people. The infrastructure needs for the identified activities were met in full measures.

- vi. The Banks were involved in the planning and preparation of projects, identification of activity clusters, infrastructure planning as well as capacity building and choice of activity of the SHGs.
- vii. Promotion of multiple credits rather than one time credit injection.

Land Reforms: In the Ninth Plan the issue of agrarian restructuring was continued to receive the top most priority in the expectation that the States would be able to facilitate changes that would make for more efficient agriculture, leading to increases in both output and employment. This process contributed to the achievement of a higher rate of economic growth with social justice.

The main components of the land reform policy were the detection of ceiling surplus land and the distribution of the existing surplus land, besides tenancy reform, consolidation of holdings, providing access to the poor on common lands and wastelands, preventing the alienation of tribal lands and providing land rights to women.

Ceiling on Land Holdings: With the introduction of the Land Ceilings Act in 1972, the ceiling on land holdings was introduced in almost all the States with the exception of some North-Eastern States, though the ceiling limit varied depending on the quality of the land. The ceiling surplus land was to be distributed among the landless poor. In this way, land ceiling was considered an important instrument for reducing disparities in the ownership of land and as a way of increasing productivity through greater utilisation of labour. As observed in the UNDP Human Development Report 1996, as land is redistributed from big to small farms, not only the family labour per hectare can increase sharply, so, can hire labour also. For both the reasons, the employment situation improves even for those, who remain landless after the land reform. The main conclusion from this is that an agricultural strategy cantered on small farms, rather than large, simultaneously increases the social efficiency of resource use in agriculture and improves social equity through employment creation and more equal income distribution that small farms generate.

Protection of Tribal Land: Despite the commitment that the tribal lands must remain with the tribals, alienation of the tribals from their land continues on a large scale due to various legal loopholes and administrative lapses. Hence, during the Ninth Plan period legal provisions were made for the prevention of alienation of tribal lands and for their restoration, not only in the notified scheduled tribe areas but also in the tribal lands in other areas. Also, the regulations of resale of the tribal lands were made as stringent as possible.

Anti-Poor Laws and Policies: Over time, the expenditure on the various poverty alleviation programmes has increased significantly. It is true that these programmes play a vital role in ensuring that the poor

are able to sustain themselves, particularly during the lean seasons, through generation of additional employment and incomes. However, it is becoming increasingly clear that spending money is not the only way of ameliorating the conditions of the poor. Scant attention has been paid to the role of non-monetary policies and institutional arrangements which affect the lives of the common people, especially the poor. There are several laws and policies which are anti-poor. An exercise was conducted during ninth plan period to document some of these laws and policies. In the Ninth Plan, an attempt was made to initiate the process of identifying anti-poor laws/policies, State wise, these would be brought to the notice of the policy makers, local governments and NGOs so that these may be suitably modified and/or repealed in the interest of the poor.

Integration of Poverty Alleviation Programmes with Sectoral Programmes:

So far, there has been a complete dichotomy between various sectoral as well as poverty alleviation programmes that have been planned and implemented by the concerned line departments. The Government has recognised this dichotomy but greater efforts have to be made to affect the convergence in practice. As a start, an attempt has been made to integrate DPAP and DDP, EAS and the Integrated Wasteland Development Programme (IWDP), all being implemented by a single Ministry. Watersheds are to be constructed and associated works of drainage, land development and terracing undertaken. Also, afforestation, agro-based and horticultural development, pasture development, crop demonstration for popularising new crops/varieties and upgrading of common property resources are being taken up. Clearly, there is scope for integrating other sectoral programmes of soil and water conservation, forestry, minor irrigation, animal husbandry, agriculture and other departments, funds from which flow from sectoral heads to the district level. Once the area plans are prepared, dovetailing of funds would not pose a problem.

Institutional Mechanism for Delivery: Consequent to the 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act, State Governments enacted enabling legislations providing for local bodies at the village, intermediate and district levels. In almost all the States with the exception of Bihar the PRIs have been duly constituted. The State Governments are required to endow these PRIs with the requisite financial and administrative powers to enable them to function as institutions of self government. The PRIs would be responsible for preparing the plans for economic development and social justice through the District Planning Committee and for implementing them, in respect of the items listed in the Eleventh Schedule of the Constitutional Amendment. This process of devolution is at various levels of operationalisation for individual States. It is expected, that in the Ninth Plan, the States would devolve funds on the panchayats both from the Consolidated Funds of the States and the allocations made by the Central Government for Centrally Sponsored Schemes. In addition, the panchayats have to be

given their own revenue raising powers, as per the recommendations of the State Finance Commissions. It is expected that village level plans would be prepared, based on the felt needs of the people as articulated in the Gram Sabha meetings. These plans would be incorporated into the intermediate level plans and finally merged into a district plan. This district plan would then enable the dovetailing of funds from the various sectoral poverty alleviation and area development programmes.

In this way, development planning would begin from below reflecting the aspirations of the people within the constraints of the available physical and financial resources.

3.11. Tenth Five Year Plan (2002 -07)

At the beginning of the new millennium, 260 million people in the country did not have incomes to access a consumption basket which defines the poverty line. Of these, 75 per cent were in the rural areas. India is home to 22 per cent of the world's poor. Such a high incidence of poverty is a matter of concern in view of the fact that poverty eradication has been one of the major objectives of the Development planning process. Indeed, poverty is a global issue. Its eradication is considered integral to humanity's quest for sustainable development. Reduction of poverty in India is, therefore, vital for the attainment of international goals.

Poverty alleviation has been one of the guiding principles of the planning process in India. The role of economic growth in providing more employment avenues to the population has been clearly recognized. The growth-oriented approach has been reinforced by focusing on specific sectors which provide greater opportunities to the people to participate in the growth process. The various dimensions of poverty relating to health, education and other basic services have been progressively internalized in the planning process. Central and state governments have considerably enhanced allocations for the provision of education, health, sanitation and other facilities which promote capacity-building and well-being of the poor. Investments in agriculture, area development programmes and afforestation provide avenues for employment and income. Special programmes have been taken up for the welfare of Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs), the disabled and other vulnerable groups. Antipoverty programmes that seek to transfer assets and skills to people for self employment, coupled with public works programmes that enable people to cope with transient poverty, are the third strand of the larger anti-poverty strategy. The targeted public distribution system (TPDS) protects the poor from the adverse effects of a rise in prices and ensures food and nutrition security at affordable prices. Tenth Plan has set a target for reduction of poverty and creation of high quality gainful employment during the Plan period. The projected GDP growth rate of 8 per cent for the period 2002-07, if achieved, would lead to reduction of incidence of poverty by 5 percentage points by 2007. Compared to 1999-2000, poverty is expected to decline by 15 percentage points by

2011-12. Effective implementation of anti-poverty programmes would be central to achieving the planned reductions in poverty. The challenge before the State is to provide employment opportunities which provide enhanced incomes.

This becomes more important in view of the fact that substantial additions to labour force are expected to take place during the next five years. Enlargement of self and wage employment programmes and their effective delivery become an imperative in such a scenario.

Self Employment Programmes: the coverage of beneficiaries in the Ninth Plan was considerably lower than the coverage under SGSY. The formation of self help groups by itself contributes to the empowerment and economic well-being of the poor by improving their collective bargaining position. The group formation also emphasizes social capital and enables the poor to interact with other social groups from a position of strength. Group formation would continue to be the focus under the SGSY. The self-help groups move through various stages: social mobilisation and formation of groups (initial phase); savings and internal lending among the members of the group on their own, augmented by revolving fund grants from the government and linkages with banks and other credit agencies (Second phase); obtaining micro finance (third phase) and setting up of microenterprises (fourth phase). This is a long process and groups require time to mature as cohesive units.

The inadequacies of formal credit institutions was tried to be overcome by combining the strength of commercial banks with the intermediation capabilities of NGOs to effectively link the poor with the commercial banking channels. This would be a cost-effective alternative for providing credit to the poor as banks would be able to reach a larger number of small borrowers with lower transaction costs. The risk of default on loans would be lower due to group pressure and the groups would also monitor the end use of credit. Access to banks through self help groups would reduce the transaction cost of the borrowers. In the credit delivery system under SGSY, financial intermediation by NGOs would be encouraged. The experience of Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA) and other organisations was replicated on a larger scale.

Wage Employment Programme: The SGRY was the single wage employment programme. Allocations to the programme would be stepped up. The programme would seek to provide productive employment opportunities in employment intensive sectors. The Government would endeavour to generate a shelf of projects for execution under SGRY that fits into the overall development plan of an area. A large number of rural facilities have been built under various programmes over successive Plan periods. However, they have degenerated either due to the initial faulty design and construction, or lack of maintenance. Therefore, a specific proportion of allocations under SGRY would be used for the maintenance of assets. PRIs would

play a major role in the planning, implementation and monitoring of wage employment programmes and allocations under the SGRY would be routed through them. A rational criterion would have to be evolved for distribution of funds between the three tiers of the PRIs to ensure balanced development of villages, blocks and districts.

Rural Housing: Though the IAY is one of the successful programmes being implemented by the Ministry of Rural Development, it has certain weaknesses. The provision of free houses has meant that other loan-based schemes have not been able to take off. The scheme has also been open to misuse. Public funds have to be utilised for the promotion of economic activity and growth. The creation of employment opportunities, both self employment and wage employment, has to receive a higher priority than provision of free houses.

During the Tenth Plan period, free houses under IAY would be provided largely to SC/ST BPL families. For other BPL families, there would be a gradual shift to a credit-linked housing programme. There is a need to create institutional capability in the rural housing sector with reference to designing of houses, supply of raw materials and construction. The rural communities have to be involved in the layout and design of the houses. The houses should have provisions for rain water harvesting, water supply and sanitation.

Social Security Schemes: While the NSAP and state-level welfare schemes had provided some succour to the poor in the form of assistance to the old and the bereaved, a large section of people have not been covered under the schemes because of limited resources. The NSAP was enlarged in scope to cover all eligible beneficiaries. The content and coverage of the social welfare scheme would have to be strengthened during the Plan period to provide meaningful protection to the poor. There are a plethora of welfare schemes in both the central and state sectors. They lead to avoidable overlap and confusion and need to be rationalised. Since welfare is basically a state subject, these schemes are best administered by state governments. The NSAP was transferred to states with earmarked funds in the Tenth Plan.

Land Reforms: Successive Five-Year Plans have addressed the issue of secure rights in land for increased agricultural productivity under the land reforms programme. Land reform legislations, besides abolishing intermediaries and providing ownership rights to farmers, also provided for security of tenure to tenants and regulation of rent. Actual cultivators were brought into a direct relationship with the State. The abolition of intermediaries succeeded in providing ownership rights to a large number of tenants. The advent of the green revolution technology coupled with schemes of asset transfer under IRDP has contributed significantly to the increased incomes not only from agricultural operations but also on account of diversification into animal husbandry. During this plan period another variant of this approach has been adopted in a few watersheds. While the landholders

get water for irrigation, the non-land owning families get a larger share of output from the Common Property Resources (CPRs) which get rejuvenated after the successful completion of the project. This has enabled many families to take up animal husbandry as an occupation and meet their fodder and fuel requirements from the CPRs. Fishing rights on ponds constructed as part of the watershed project are only given to self-help groups of the landless. These arrangements effectively increase the access of the poor to the land and other sources of livelihood and improve their standard of living.

During this plan period successful projects changed the nature of agricultural land from un-irrigated to irrigated. In such cases, the ceiling laws of the state could come into force and the ceiling surplus land could be distributed to the landless poor. Alternatively, the guidelines for watershed development projects were modified to give priority to those watershed projects where the village community, through a resolution, agrees to provide land access to the landless labourers on a continuing basis.

Delivery Mechanism: The increasing integration of India in the global economy, the budget constraints faced by both central and state governments and inefficiencies in the administrative structure led to the development of a consensus to devolve powers to local institutions to enable people's participation in administration. The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments that conferred statutory status on PRIs and urban local bodies did not have only democratic decentralisation as their objective. These institutions were also seen as a process for harnessing and channelizing the people's innate abilities to bring about rural transformation in a way that every individual acquired his/her rightful place in the social, economic and political arena.

3.12. Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007 - 12)

India is a nation with over 300 million poor people, a number that has barely declined over the last three decades of development. It is therefore essential that the Eleventh Five Year Plan address the task of reducing the numbers of the poor frontally. It is clear that rapid growth will be essential to reduce the number of the poor and for sustainable poverty reduction, but for growth to benefit the poor disproportionately, it will have to be accompanied by more rapid employment expansion than hitherto, greater investment in health, education, water/sanitation, and child nutrition than so far, and directly targeted poverty reduction programmes. The thrust of this plan was rapid poverty reduction.

Inclusive Growth: Given the chronic and multi-dimensional nature of poverty in India, it is imperative that the programmes to address poverty rely on a multi pronged approach.

The preceding analysis has identified that there is a geography of poverty, with poverty being concentrated in the rural areas of certain States. It also pointed out that there is sociology of poverty, with certain social groups increasingly concentrated among those who are identified as poor. It also noted that there are identifiable occupational features of the poor: they are concentrated in agricultural labour and artisanal households in rural areas, and among casual labourers in urban areas. Casual labourers in urban areas are essentially distress migrants from rural areas in States where agricultural land man ratio is very adverse, and where agricultural incomes have not been growing reinforcing the need for both land reforms as well as measures to increase productivity.

Inclusive growth strategy of eleventh plan concentrated Firstly, regions which have large number of chronic poor people include tribal in forests concentrated in arid, semi-arid, and sub-humid areas in central and eastern parts of the country. Second consideration was of the poor who are geographically concentrated in India. They also happen to be in States where a significant proportion of agriculture is irrigated, and not rain fed (and where the land-man ratio is the lowest in the country). In other words, without effective (i) land reforms and (ii) agricultural services, none of these regions are likely to be able to reduce poverty. Third group to be included in development process is considered those who are dependent on casual labour. Casual labour has grown, and a large proportion of the chronic poor are dependent on wage labour. There has been a steady increase in the share of the Indian population working as hired labour. All of the increase in recent decades has been due to the expansion of the share of casual hired labour. Most of these are SCs and STs. Finally it has been recognized that the poor need a safety net, if they are to escape the cycle of inter-generational transfer of poverty. At least 18 million rural people do not have a home over their heads, and the rural housing programme needs to focus on giving a homestead to at least those who are houseless. Homesteads will not only give them a home, but also provide a small plot of land where they can diversify their income by rearing goats and poultry and growing vegetables on the family plot. Similarly, the elderly destitute, widows, and disabled among the rural poor, need social assistance.

Guaranteed Wage Employment—National Rural Employment Guarantee Act

(NREGA): NREGA is introduced as one of the major step in the direction of inclusive growth. Workfare programmes have been important programme interventions in India and elsewhere in developing countries since long. These programmes typically provide unskilled workers with short-term employment on public works. They provide income transfers to poor households during periods when they suffer on account of absence of opportunities of employment. In areas with high unemployment rates and under employment, transfer benefits from workfare programmes can prevent poverty from worsening, especially during lean periods. Durable assets that these programmes

create have the potential to generate second-round employment benefits as requisite infrastructure is developed. The objective of the NREGA is to enhance the livelihood security of the people in rural areas by guaranteeing 100 days of wage employment in a financial year to a rural household whose members volunteer to do unskilled manual work. The Act further aims at creating durable assets and strengthening the livelihood resource base of the rural poor. The choice of works suggested in the Act address causes of chronic poverty like drought, deforestation, soil erosion, etc., so that the process of employment generation is on a sustainable basis.

Self-Employment—Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY): Persistent efforts made by the government to fine-tune the self employment programmes during various Plan periods, especially oriented towards improving the implementation quality, yielded some new concepts that emerged at various times and got consolidated. The need to integrate the cluster approach, capacity building, skill upgradation, infrastructure including marketing development and technology penetration were felt more acutely with every passing year. Emphasis also was necessary to be laid on micro enterprise development with effective forward and backward linkages, so as to ensure best returns on the investment.

Therefore, the SGSY was launched with effect from 1 April 1999 to bring the assisted poor families above the poverty line by ensuring appreciable sustained level of income over a period of time. This objective was to be achieved by organizing the rural poor into SHGs through the process of social mobilization, their training and capacity building and provision of income generating assets. The SHG approach helps the poor to build their self-confidence through community action. Group processes and collective decision were to enable them in the identification and prioritization of their needs and resources. This process would ultimately lead to the strengthening and socio-economic empowerment of the rural poor as well as improve their collective bargaining power. Eleventh Plan strategy for SGSY is to take the best out of what has evolved in the Self Help movement across the country over the last few years and integrate it with the programme. Likewise a few aspects of the SGSY programme that have failed to give the desired results given fresh look and if necessary dropped. Considering the experiences and lessons learnt from various development projects, the revised SGSY programme should aim at promoting and strengthening member-owned, member-controlled, and member-managed institutions of the poor that enable them to secure sustainable livelihoods and better quality of life. These institutions should provide a wide range of services to their members as per their demand. The revised SGSY should promote and nurture a large cadre of activists and leaders from the poor for providing support services to the institutions of the poor on a sustainable basis. The approach for organizing the poor stems from the conviction that there is an immense desire and latent capability among the poor to come out of poverty. They have a tremendous potential to help themselves and the potential

of each member can be harnessed by organizing them. Social mobilization enables the poor to build their own organizations in which they participate fully and directly and take decisions on all issues concerning poverty elimination.

3.13. Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012 - 17)

The Twelfth Five Year Plan has been designed to formulate “Sustainable Rural Development” through the strategies for Sustainable and Inclusive Development in Rural areas which are as follows:

Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS): vast majorities of the works under MGNREGS are linked to water, soil and land. The list of ‘permissible’ works provide environmental services such as conservation of water, groundwater recharge, reduced soil erosion, increased soil fertility, conservation of biodiversity, reclamation of degraded crop and grazing lands, enhanced leaf manure, fuel wood and non-wood forest products supply among others.

Integrated Watershed Development Programme (IWDP): The IWDP aims to restore ecological balance in a watershed by harnessing, conserving and developing degraded natural resources such as soil, water and vegetative cover and thereby help provide sustainable livelihoods to the local people. The scheme’s potential for green outcomes is also enhanced if it supports the adoption of “green agronomy” practices and promotion of use patterns that sustain natural resources including groundwater and soil fertility

National Rural Livelihoods Mission (NRLM): Under NRLM the guidelines for non-timber forest produce-based livelihoods under the Mahila Kisan Sashaktikaran Pariyojana (MKSP) identify regeneration and sustainable harvesting of NTFP species as key objectives; similarly, promotion of organic and low-chemical agriculture and increased soil health and fertility to sustain agriculture-based livelihoods is an objective under the sustainable agriculture component of MKSP; increased availability of green inputs and advisory services to farmers and livestock herders and use of renewables-based energy services for processing activities have immense potential for green outcomes

Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY): Under Indira Aawas Yojana (IAY), green results include efficient use of resources, including water, energy and construction material. Further, IAY can encourage greater use of renewable and locally available construction material, and reduced use of water and energy.

Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan (NBA): NBA – formerly the Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC) - has recently expanded its scope from eradication of open defecation to comprehensive sanitation in rural areas. Ten percent of the project funds is earmarked for solid and liquid wastes

management. NBA can ensure safe disposal of solid and liquid waste, and prevent untreated wastewater from re-entering the water system. These results can substantially improve the quality of water. Greening Rural Development in India

National Rural Drinking Water Programme (NRDWP): National Rural Drinking Water Programme guidelines give high priority to water supply source sustainability and water quality. Further, the potential for green outcomes is enhanced by an emphasis on safe disposal of sludge after treatment of contaminated water, and the use of renewable energy for water pumping.

Check Your Progress III

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answers.

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

1) What were the the functions of village panchayats in relation to development during the second five year plan?

Ans.

2) Describe about the initiatives under Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) during Ninth Plan?

Ans.

3.14. Let Us Sum Up:

This unit describes about sequential progress in Rural Development and its allied activities. Planning Commission was set up by a Resolution of the Government of India in March 1950 in pursuance of declared objectives of the Government to promote a rapid rise in the standard of living of the people by efficient exploitation of the resources of the country, increasing production and offering opportunities to all for employment in the service of the community. The Planning Commission was charged with the responsibility of making assessment of all resources of the country, augmenting deficient resources, formulating plans for the most effective and balanced utilisation of resources and determining priorities. Jawaharlal Nehru was the first Chairman of the Planning Commission. Moreover, detailed description has been made from 1st Five Year Plan to 12th Five Year Plan with all developmental indicators.

3.15. Key Words:

- ***The Desert Development Programme:*** DDP aimed at checking further desertification of the desert areas and raising productivity of the local resources to raise the income and employment levels of the local inhabitants. The programme was implemented both in the hot and cold arid zones of the country during the Sixth Plan.
- ***Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM):*** TRYSEM was introduced to provide technical skills and to upgrade the traditional skills of rural youth belonging to families below the poverty line.
- ***Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWACRA):*** DWACRA, an exclusive scheme for women was launched in the IRDP, as a pilot project, in 50 districts. In the Seventh Plan it was extended to more districts and at the end of the Seventh Plan period it was in operation in 161 districts.
- ***Integrated Watershed Development Programme (IWDP):*** The IWDP aims to restore ecological balance in a watershed by harnessing, conserving and developing degraded natural resources such as soil, water and vegetative cover and thereby help provide sustainable livelihoods to the local people.
- ***Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan (NBA):*** NBA – formerly the Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC) - has recently expanded its scope

from eradication of open defecation to comprehensive sanitation in rural areas.

3.16. References:

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3.17. Check Your Progress – Possible Answers:

Check Your Progress I

1. Rural development is a national necessity and has considerable importance in India because of the following reasons.
 1. About three-fourth of India's population live in rural areas, thus rural development is needed to develop nation as whole.
 2. Nearly half of the country's national income is derived from agriculture, which is major occupation of rural India.
 3. Around seventy per cent of Indian population gets employment through agriculture.
 4. Bulks of raw materials for industries come from agriculture and rural sector.
 5. Increase in industrial population can be justified only in rural population's motivation and increasing the purchasing power to buy industrial goods.
 6. Growing disparity between the urban elite and the rural poor can lead to political instability.

- 2)
 1. Human induced problems
 2. Agricultural problems
 3. Infrastructural problems
 4. Economic problems
 5. Social and Cultural problems
 6. Administrative problems

- 3) The Community Development Programme (CDP) in India was the first major rural development programme launched after Independence in October 1952 with the following main objectives:
 - i) To secure total development of the material and the human resources in rural areas;
 - ii) To develop local leadership and self governing institutions;
 - iii) To raise the living standards of the rural people by means of rapid increase in food and agricultural produce; and
 - iv) To ensure a change in the mind-set of people instilling in them a mission for higher standards.

- 4) Three tiers (levels) of Panchayati Raj
 - i)The Gram Panchayat
 - ii)Taluka/block Panchayat
 - iii)Zilla Panchayat

Check Your Progress II

- 1) Moral values of Gandhian model of Development:
 - i). Ideal Village
 - ii). Decentralisation
 - iii). Self-sufficiency
 - iv). Industrialization
 - v). Trusteeship

- 2) The concept of Sustainable Development is very comprehensive. It contains within itself several dimensions of development. It is to secure social economic and environmental development. It includes the concept of sustainable

population levels, poverty alleviation, socioeconomic justice, social development, economic development, environmental protection, prevention, control and abatement of pollution, securing of balanced ecosystems and biodiversity, conservation and systematic use of natural resources, development and use of eco-friendly technologies, meeting the challenge resulting from climate change, and securing the needs of present without in any way limiting or harming the ability of the future generations to meet their needs. All these dimensions of Sustainable Development are emphasized by a large majority of the contemporary supporters of the model.

Check Your Progress III

1) The functions of village panchayats in relation to development were set out as follows during the second five year plan:—

- i. Framing programmes of production in the village;
- ii. In association with cooperatives, framing budgets of requirements for supplies and finance for carrying out programmes;
- iii. Acting as a channel through which an increasing proportion of government assistance reaches the village;
- iv. Developing common lands such as waste lands, forests, tanks, etc., including measures for soil conservation;
- v. Construction, repair and maintenance of common village buildings, public wells, tanks, roads, etc.;
- vi. Organisation of mutual aid and joint effort in all activities;
- vii. Promotion of cooperative societies;
- viii. Organising voluntary labour for community works;
- ix. Promoting small savings; and
- x. Improvement of livestock.

The functions of panchayats in respect land management were:

- i. regulation of the use of common lands such as waste lands, forests, abadi sites, tanks, etc.;
- ii. Cultivation of lands set apart for the benefit of the village community, as in consolidation of holdings;
- iii. Adaptation of standards of good management and cultivation to local conditions and their enforcement; and
- iv. Association with the work of maintenance of land records;

- v. determination of land to be allotted to owners and tenants on the exercise of rights of resumption for personal cultivation,
- vi. Determination of surplus lands on the application of ceilings on agricultural holdings, and
- vii. Redistribution of surplus lands arising from the imposition of ceilings.

During the second plan period the judicial functions of panchayats were decided as follows:

- i. Administration of civil and criminal justice,
- ii. Enforcement of minimum wages for agricultural workers, and
- iii. Simple disputes pertaining to land.

2) Initiatives under IRDP during Ninth Plan:

- i. IRDP was made holistic programme covering all aspects of self employment, namely, organisation of beneficiaries and their capacity building, planning of activity clusters, infrastructure, technology, credit and marketing.
- ii. Sub-schemes of TRYSEM, DWCRA, SITRA and GKY were merged into IRDP.
- iii. Progressive shift from the individual beneficiary approach to the group and/or cluster approach.
- iv. To facilitate group approach SHGs were formed and steps were taken to nurture them.
- v. For cluster approach each district had to identify 4 to 5 activity clusters in each block based on local resources and occupational skills of the people. The infrastructure needs for the identified activities were met in full.
- vi. The Banks were involved in the planning and preparation of projects, identification of activity clusters, infrastructure planning as well as capacity building and choice of activity of the SHGs.
- vii. Promotion of multiple credits rather than one time credit injection.
