

COMMUNITY SOCIAL WORK

M.A. Social Work

Semester - III, Paper - IV

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FOREWORD

Acharya Nagarjuna University, since its establishment in 1976, Acharya Nagarjuna University has been forging ahead in the path of progress and dynamism, offering a variety of courses and research contributions. I am extremely happy that by gaining 'A' grade from the NAAC in the year 2016, Acharya Nagarjuna University is offering educational opportunities at the UG, PG levels apart from research degrees to students from over 443 affiliated colleges spread over the two districts of Guntur and Prakasam.

The University has also started the Centre for Distance Education in 2003-04 with the aim of taking higher education to the door step of all the sectors of the society. The centre will be a great help to those who cannot join in colleges, those who cannot afford the exorbitant fees as regular students, and even to house wives desirous of pursuing higher studies. Acharya Nagarjuna University has started offering B.A., and B. Com courses at the Degree level and M.A., M.Com., M.Sc., M.B.A., and L.L.M., courses at the PG level from the academic year 2003-2004 onwards.

To facilitate easier understanding by students studying through the distance mode, these self-instruction materials have been prepared by eminent and experienced teachers. The lessons have been drafted with great care and expertise in the stipulated time by these teachers. Constructive ideas and scholarly suggestions are welcome from students and teachers involved respectively. Such ideas will be incorporated for the greater efficacy of this distance mode of education. For clarification of doubts and feedback, weekly classes and contact classes will be arranged at the UG and PG levels respectively.

It is my aim that students getting higher education through the Centre for Distance Education should improve their qualification, have better employment opportunities and in turn be part of country's progress. It is my fond desire that in the years to come, the Centre for Distance Education will go from strength to strength in the form of new courses and by catering to a larger number of people. My congratulations to all the Directors, Academic Coordinators, Editors and Lesson-writers of the Centre who have helped in the seen deavours.

Prof.P.Raja Sekhar

Vice-Chancellor

Acharya Nagarjuna University

M.A. SOCIAL WORK
SEMESTER-III : Paper IV
304SW21: COMMUNITY SOCIAL WORK

Course Objectives: This paper will enlighten the students on concept of community and its features; urban, rural and tribal community development programmes. To know about community development approaches and the role of a Social Worker in promoting community.

Course Outcomes: Prepare the students on the community development programmes; Community development approaches, and the role of Social Worker in promoting community.

UNIT – 1

Community: Definition, Characteristics and Features – Rural Community: Definition, Changes in Rural Communities – Urban Community: Definition, Characteristics of Urban Communities – Tribal Community: Definition and Characteristics of Tribal Communities; Differences between Rural, Urban and Tribal Communities.

UNIT – 2

Community Development: Concept and Philosophy – Community Development Experiments and Projects: Rural Areas: Srinikatan, Marthandom, Gurgon, Baroda, Firka, Nilokhere and Earthwah Projects. Urban Areas: Delhi, Baroda and Ahmadabad Pilot Projects; Tribal Areas: Hill Area Development Programs.

UNIT – 3

Community Development Programs: Rural: Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP); Development of Women and Children Rural Areas (DWCRA); Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS); Indira Kranthi Patham (IKP) – SHGs.

UNIT – 4

Community Development Programs: Urban: Development of Women and Children in Urban Areas (RDWCUA); Slum Clearance Projects – Tribal: Integrated Tribal Development Agency (ITDA); Girijan Development Corporation (ITDA).

UNIT – 5

Community Development Approaches: Target Approach, Welfare Programmes, Developing Relationships, Demonstrating the Purpose, Target Group, Participatory Techniques – Role of Social Worker in conducting Awareness Camps, Facilitating Empowerment in the Communities, Sensitizing the Government Functionaries.

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Lesson – I

CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY – DEFINITION, MEANING, CHARACTERISTICS

1.0. Objective:

The objective of this lesson are to explain the concept of community, its definition, meaning and characteristics.

Contents:

- 1.1. Introduction**
- 1.2. Definition**
- 1.3. Characteristics of Community**
- 1.4. Community Sentiment.**
- 1.5. Other Characteristics of Community**
- 1.6. Difference between Community and Society**
- 1.7. Association and Community**
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- 1.10. Key Words**
- 1.11. Self Assessment Questions**
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1.1. Introduction:

The term community is very loosely used. It is used in different ways to mean different things. People often use the term community to refer to a racial community, or a religious community or a national community or a caste community or a linguistic community or a professional community or to refer to the entire mankind. It is used to mean an association or group and in a wider sense, it is used to refer to the entire humanity.

The word 'community has been derived from two words of Latin, namely: 'com' and 'Munis'. In english 'com' means 'to serve together '. It means, the community ' is an organization of human beings framed for the purposes of serving together.

1.2. Definition:

1. Community is “a social group with some degree of “ we feeling” and living in a given area”. (Bogardus)

2. Community is “ the smallest territorial group that can embrace all aspects of social life”. (Kingsley Davis)
3. Community is “ an area of social living marked by some degree of social coherence”. (R.M. Maciver)
4. “ A community is a group or collection of groups that inhabits a locality”. (Ogburn and Nimkoff)
5. Community is “ any circle of people who live together and belong together in such a way that they do not share this or that particular interest only, but a whole set of interests”- (Manheim)
6. “ Community is the term we apply to a pioneer settlement, a village, a city, a tribe or a nation. Whenever the members of any group small or large, live together in such a way that they share, not this or that particular interest, but the basic conditions of a common life, we call that group a community. The mark of a community is that one’s life may be lived within it. One cannot live wholly within a business organisation or a church; one can live wholly within a tribe or a city. The basic criterion of community, then, is that all of one’s social relationship may be found within it”. (Maciver and Page).
7. Community is “ a human population living within a limited geographical area and carrying on common inter – dependent life”. (Lund berg)
8. Community is “ the total organization of social life with a limited area” (Ogburn and Nimkoff)
9. Community is “ a group of social beings living a common life including all the infinite variety and complexity of relations which result from that common life or constitute it” (Ginsberg)
10. “ A community is a cluster of people, living within a contiguous small area, who share a common way of life” – (Green, Arnold).

Meaning:

We know that a person rarely exists alone. He is linked in many ways to his fellows who form a group. It is inevitable that the people who over any length of time reside in a particular locality should develop social likeness, should have common social ideas, common traditions and the sense of belonging together. This fact of social living and common specific views gives birth to community.

Community is a geographic area having common centres of interests and activities. A community is essentially an area of social living. It is marked by some degree of social coherence. Thus community is a circle in which common life is living.

‘Community’ is an all- inclusive term. It includes in itself all our social relationships. It includes a variety of associations and institutions. Within the range of a community, the members may carry on their economic, religious, political, educational and other activities. Hence community is the total organization of social life within limited space. Examples: village, town, tribe, city.

The definitions refer to two approaches to the meaning of community. Some writers have given the areally based conception of the community. Others emphasized psychological aspects of the community. No community has walls around it. We may live in a village and yet belong to a wider community like nation community or world community. Communities exist within greater communities.

1.3. Characteristics of Community:

The main bases of community are: (1) Locality and (2) community sentiment.

1. Locality:

A community is a territorial group. It always occupies some geographic area. Locality is the physical basis of community. Even the wandering tribe or a nomad community, has a locality, though changing habitation. A group of people forms community only when it begins to reside in a definite locality. In contrast with society, a community is more or less locally limited. A community always occupies a territorial area. The area need not be fixed for ever. The people may change their area of habitation from time to time, just as nomadic community does. However, most communities are now well settled and derive a strong bond of solidarity from the conditions of their locality. Among the village people, there is unity because they reside in a definite locality.

Living together facilitates people to develop social contacts, gives protection, safety and security. It helps the members to promote and fulfil their common interests. Further, the very physical conditions may influence social life to a great extent.

Locality continues to be a basic factor of community life. However, in modern times the local bond of community is weakened by the development of the means of transport and communication. Yet “ the basic character of locality as a social classifier has never been transcended”.

The physical factors such as fertile soil, minerals, forests, fisheries, water resources, vegetation, weather, climate etc., are included in the locality. These factors condition or influence the lives of community members in several ways. They have a close bearing of on their economic activities in particular.

1.4. Community Sentiment:

Locality alone cannot make a group, a community. Sometimes people residing in the same area may not have any contacts and communications. People occupying specific local areas which lack the social coherence necessary may not give them a community character. For example, the residents of a ward or district of a large city may lack sufficient contacts or common interests to instill conscious identification with the area. Such a “ neighbour hood” is not a community because it does not possess a feeling of belonging together- it lacks community sentiment. A community is essentially an area of common living with a feeling of belonging. There must be common living with its awareness of sharing a way of life as well as the common earth.

Community sentiment means a feeling of belonging together. The members must be aware of their staying together and sharing common interests. The members develop a sense of ‘we – feeling’. It means a kind of identification with the group. Without a sense of identification, a sense of awareness, a sense of living and sharing some common interests in life, there cannot be any

community. Locality, though a necessary condition, is not enough to create a community. A community is an area of common living. There must be the common living with its awareness of sharing a way of life as well as the common earth.

We can realize that a small town, a metropolis, a vast nation, a primitive tribe, are communities. The members of each may live their whole lives within their respective groups; each is an area of common life. In the modern world, the boundaries between communities are not clearcut, and within it are numerous borderline cases.

A monastery or convent or prison are territorially based and they are, indeed, areas of social living. Many would deny them community status because of the restricted range of functions of the inhabitants. But human functions are always limited by the nature of one's community. Hence we may regard them as communities. So also the immigrant groups cherish their own customs and speak their own language. They may also be called communities. Such groups possess the requirements of community. A social caste, the members which exclude their fellow citizens from the more intimate social relationships cannot be called a community because, they do not occupy a particular location. A social caste has coherence, but it lacks the community's territorial basis.

The wholly self-contained community belongs to the primitive world. But in the modern world, no nation is self-sufficient. Modern civilization unleashes forces which break down the self-containedness of communities great or small.

The forces are partly technological such as the improvement of the means of communication and transportation; partly economic, such as the demand for markets and for wider areas of economic exchange necessitated by the newer processes of industrial production. Today in the context of globalization, we have the world market for wider areas of economic exchange. The forces are partly cultural, since the thought and art and science of one country are carried on to other countries. Because of these forces there are no borders for national communities in matters of economic, scientific and technological exchange between the nations. Hence in the modern world, the wholly self-contained community is not possible.

Certainly Wendell Wilkie's 'one world' has been in the making for centuries. Self-contained community cannot be found on any scale, unless we extend the limits of community to include the whole earth.

Sociological Significance of community:

There is expansion of the concept of community to the dimensions of the nation and, perhaps, the world. There is sociological significance of the community in the sense that the smaller communities, however, still remain, though only, in degree. The nation or the world-state does not eliminate the village or neighbourhood, though they may be changed in character. As civilized beings, we need the smaller as well as the larger circles of community. The great community brings us opportunity, stability, economy, the constant stimulus of a richer, more varied culture. But living in the smaller community we find the nearer, more intimate satisfactions.

The larger community provides peace and protection, patriotism and sometimes war, automobiles etc., The smaller provides friends, friendship, gossip and face-to-face rivalry, local pride and abode. Both are essential to the full life process.

Community sentiment is the feeling of unity among its members consequent upon this common life. In the absence of this sentiment, no human group can claim the title of community. Community sentiment arises naturally among people who spend a common life, live together, speak a common language, accept the same customs and traditions or share a common goal and interest. No individual can live unaffected by this feeling although its intensity may not be the same in different communities, and in different members of the same community. This serves to find the members of the community with a single thread. Consider the example of a rural community. All the villagers lend each other a hand in the event of need in agriculture and in their occupations. They take part in all important occasions which occur in neighbour's home. They are present when marriages, deaths and births take place in any family when marriages, deaths and births take place in any family. They celebrate the festivals together and jointly face all calamities which descend upon the village. In this way a feeling of brotherhood is generated among the villagers and they tend to identify another's delight and distress with their own. This same complex of emotion is called community sentiment. Due to the community sentiment, people sacrifice their own little interests in the interest of the community and begin to look upon the good of the community as their own good.

Community sentiment evinces the following three constituents:

1. We Feeling:

The most important element in community sentiment is the "we" feeling. As a result of it, an individual instead of regarding himself as separate from others, believes himself to be identified with them. All the people look upon the pain or pleasure of any section of community as their own pain or pleasure. The kind of "we feeling" can be seen among people of one sector, of one village and among those on foreign strands who hail from the same town or country. The fundamental cause of this feeling is a similarity of interests of the people who live in the same place.

2. Role Feeling:

In the community, every individual has his own status and he has to make his own contribution towards the working of the community in accordance with this status. The community sentiment inevitably induces this desire for contribution because, this is a part of the community sentiment. As a result of this feeling, an individual looks upon himself as a specific part of society and shoulders his responsibility accordingly.

3. Sense of Dependence:

Another element of community sentiment is the sense of dependence, which means that an individual believes himself to be dependent upon community and denies his existence apart from community. Due to this feeling of dependence, he does not object to any designs which society has upon him, and always tries to work in its favour.

As a consequence of this community sentiment, people exhibit interest in local life and take part in the solution of problems and the development of the local group. The community sentiment finds expression in the respect and observance of racial customs, dogmas and traditions.

Changes in community sentiment in modern world:

In ancient times communities were very small. There was limited means of travel, absence of the means of communication, limited social contacts, and the communities were confined to definite area. Often people did not move out of their own villages.

With the development of science and technology, the means of transport and communication were expanded. People started developing contacts not only with their country men, but also with people residing in other countries. In this way the circle of community sentiment started widening.

In old days, the communities were self dependent, because, there was not much division of labour. It was not easy to transport commodities from one place to another. For this reason the circle of the community was very limited. Today all the communities in the world are dependent on each other. While the circle of community feeling is being extended, its ties are losing their strength. With the extension of community sentiment, and with the interdependence of communities, a sense of universal brother hood is being created. The united nations organization is the result of this sense. Many thinkers have been conceived the idea of a world nation.

In the modern world, the form of community sentiment has changed due to the birth of new communities. In the modern towns, the communities based on occupation and industry et. Are stronger than those bound by racial and blood ties. Different interests of people created new communities and sometimes, they may come into conflict with national interests may sometimes clash with national interests. The regional interests. Parochialism may jeopardize the national interests. On one side, the ideas of universal brother hood and internationalism, are increasing. There is also the presence of interests based upon colour distinction and narrow communal interests. But modern thinkers favour universal brother hood and in which other narrow interests have been sacrificed for the community sentiment of humanity.

1.5. Other Characteristics of Community:**1. Stability:**

A community has not only locality and community sentiment, but also has stability. It is not a temporary group like a crowd or a mob. It is relatively stable. It includes a permanent group life in a definite place.

2. Naturalness:

Communities normally become established in a natural way. They are not deliberately created. They are not made or created by an act of will or by planned efforts. Individuals become its members by birth itself. Membership, hence, is not voluntary. Communities are spontaneous in their origin and development. Of course they cannot come into being suddenly and automatically

3. Size of the community:

Community involves the idea of size. A community may be big or small. A small community may be included in a wider community. A city and a village may be included in a wider community called the district. Hence, there are communities within communities. District, as a big community may enclose small communities like villages, towns, cities, tribes etc., Thus the term community is used in a relative sense.

4. Regulation of Relations:

Every community develops in course of time, a system of traditions, customs, morals, practices; a bundle of rules and regulations to regulate the relations of its members. The sense of what they have in common memories and traditions, customs and institutions, shapes and defines the general need of man to live together.

However, in modern times, the nature of community sentiment is gradually changing. Today, the interests of men are diverse and complex. Their attachment towards their community is gradually fading. In modern highly industrialized urban communities, the spirit of community sentiment is very much lacking.

5. Community as a group of people:

Community is a group of people. Whenever the individuals live together in such a way that they share the basic conditions of common life, we call them forming a community.

6. Common life:

Some sociologists like Prof. Elwood maintain that the life of the people in a community is nearabout the same. There is no epochal difference between the way of life of the individuals. Their eating pattern; dressing style, language, script is found to be similar. Due to their inhabitation on a particular geographical area; they develop a kind of emotional and cultural uniformity. This is also because of the fact that communities are never formed with a particular aim; but they are the out come of social uniformity among the individuals. If they are formed with any particular aim, that they would cease to form being a community; and will be known as association.

7. Community always has a particular name:

Society is nameless but not the community, because community is the group of people living at some particular place with common culture; scripts; society is the name of human behaviours and mutual relations. Community is always known with a particular name, their immediate bases of origin give such a community a particular name. For example based on the linguistic condition, people living in Punjab are called Punjobis; living in Kashmiri culture are called Kashmiris.

1.6. Difference between community and Society:

Community sentiment is not essential in a society. Community is a group of people who live together in a particular locality and share the basic conditions of a common life. Community sentiment is necessary for constituting a community. Society includes every relation which is established among the people. It is the structure of all social relationships direct or indirect, organized or unorganized, conscious or conscious, cooperative or antagonistic. There is an element of likeness in society, but it is not necessary that likeness should include the people in oneness; the enemies can also be included in society. When we think of society, we think more particularly of organization, but when we think of community, we think of life whence organization springs.

2. A definite geographical area:

A definite geographical area is not necessary for society. Secondly society has no definite boundary or assignable limit. It is universal and pervasive. Society is the name of our social

relationships. Community, on the other hand, is a group of people living together in a particular locality. Macriver says , “ The phenomena dealt within the study of society are not, for the most part, external tangible things or kinds things, that can be identified directly by the sense. We cannot see or touch social relation or social organization”.

3. Community is a species of society:

Community exists within society and processes its distinguishable structure which distinguishes it from other communities. Some communities are all- inclusive and independent of other. Among primitive people sometimes communities, some times communities of not more than a hundred persons are found which were almost isolated. Small communities exist within greater communities; the village within a town, the town within a region, the region within a nation.

4. Society is abstract but community is concrete:

Society emerges where there is the emergence of social relations. Thus society is the name of social relations, which are abstract. As far as community is concerned, it relates to various peoples, living at a particular place having cultural, religious, and conventional uniformity.

Society and Community – Differences:

The following table clarifies the differences between society and community.

Society	Community
1. Society is a web of social relationships	1. Community consists of a group of individuals living in a particular area with some degree of ‘we feeling’.
2. A definite geographic area is not essential aspect of society	2. Community always denotes a definite locality or geographic area.
3. Society is abstract	3. Community is concrete.
4. ‘Community sentiment’ or a sense of ‘we feeling may be present or may not be present in society.	4. ‘ Community sentiment is an essential element of community. There can be no community in its absence.
5. Society is wider. There can be more than one community in a society	5. Community is smaller than society
6. The objectives and interests of society are more extensive and varied.	6. The objectives and interests of a community are comparatively less extensive and varied.
7. Society involves both likeness and difference. Common interest as well as diverse interests are present in society	7. Likeness is more important than difference in There is common agreement of interests and objectives on the part of members.

1.7. Association and community:

An association is established for the purpose of fulfilling some common but definite need or needs of the people. It is hence deliberately created. On the other hand, community is a natural organization. Its objectives are common but not specific. Man is born in a community, but he enters into different associations to fulfill his specific interests or needs.

An association is not a community, but an organisation within the community. We can call a city a community, but not a church or a trade union or a political party. We can call a country a community but not the political parties of the country. They are associations. The interests of a community are wider than those of an association. Hence an association is partial, whereas a community is integral. A community is more comprehensive than an association. Community is therefore, "more free and wider" than even the greatest associations. Within a community there may exist not only numerous associations but also antagonistic associations. Ex. Political parties of the communists and democrats. Since an association is organized for a particular interest, we belong to it by virtue of this interest. Membership in an association has only limited significance.

The following table shows the differences between association and community:

Association	Community
1. Membership of an association is voluntary individuals are at liberty to join them.	1. By birth it self individuals become members of a community. In this way membership is rather compulsory.
2. An association has some specific interest or interests.	2. A community has some general interest.
3. An association does not necessarily imply the spatial aspects	3. A Community is marked by a locality
4. An Association may be stable and long-lasting or it may not be so.	4. A Community is relatively more stable and permanent
5. Association may have their legal status	5. A community has no legal status
6. Associations may have their own rules and regulations to regulate the relations of their members. They may have written or unwritten rules	6. A Community regulates the behaviours of its members by means of customs, traditions etc. it does not have written rules or laws.
7. Association is partial. It may be regarded part of the community	7. Community is integral. It may have, within its as boundary, several associations.

1.8. Institution and Community:

Institution and community differ from each other in the following respects.

1. Institution is an organization of laws and procedures, community is a group of human beings.

2. Institution is formed for the fulfilment of certain needs, whereas community is a group of people living in a definite locality sharing common life.
3. Institution is abstract. Community is concrete. Hence people are members not of institution but of communities.
4. Every institution is related to a particular sphere of life. Community is related to social life as a whole.

The difference between an institution and community is clarified in the following table:

Institution	Community
1. Fulfills primary needs	1. There is no such definite aim.
2. Dependent upon collective activity	2. Dependent upon mutual relations.
3. a particular type of behaviour	3. no particular type of behaviour
4. The structure of institution encompasses workers, festivals and rituals besides social relations	4. The structure of community is inclusive of group of human beings, community sentiment and social relations.
5. Indicative of Procedures	5. Indicative of organization.
6. Draws its life breath from association and communities	6. It is of spontaneous birth
7. Abstract	7. Concrete
8. One institution is related to one particular sphere of life	8. It is related to the community life in its entirety.

1.9. Summary:

The term community is very loosely used. It is used in different ways to mean different things. Community is a geographic area having common centres of interests and activities. A community is essentially an area of social living.

A community is a territorial group. It always occupies some geographic area. A community is essentially an area of common living with a feeling of belonging. Community sentiment means a feeling of belonging together.

In the modern world, the boundaries between communities are not clear-cut, and within it are numerous borderline cases. The wholly self-contained community belongs to the primitive world. But in the modern world, no nation is self – sufficient.

There is expansion of the concept of community to the dimensions of the nation, and perhaps, the world. As civilized beings, we need the smaller as well as the larger circles of community . the

great community brings us opportunity, stability, economy, the constant stimulus of a richer, more varied culture. But living in the smaller community we find the nearer, more intimate satisfactions.

The community has stability. Communities normally become established in a natural way. They are not deliberately created. A community may be big or small. A small community may be included in a wider community.

Every community develops in course of time, a system of traditions, customs, morals, practices; a bundle of rules and regulations to regulate the relations of its members.

Community is a group of people. Some sociologists maintain that the life of the people in a community is near about the same. Due to their inhabitation on a particular geographical area; they develop a kind of emotional and cultural uniformity.

Society is nameless but not the community; community is always known with a particular name. when we think of society, we think more particularly of organization, but when we think of community, we think of life whence organization springs. A definite geographical area is not necessary for society. An association is deliberately created. On the other hand, community is a natural organization. Institution is abstract. Community is concrete.

1.10. Key words:

- a) Community sentiment
- b) Association
- c) Institution.

1.11. Self Assessment Questions :

1. Explain the definition, meaning and characteristics of community
2. Distinguish between the terms society, community, association and institution.

1.12. Reference Books:

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Lesson – 2

MAJOR FORMS OF COMMUNITY- THEIR DIFFERENCES

2.0. Objective:

The objective of this lesson are to explain major forms of community and their differences.

Contents:

- 2.1. Introduction**
- 2.2. Rural and Urban Communities**
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- 2.7. The Urban – Rural Contrast**
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- 2.11. Key Words**
- 2.12. Self Assessment Questions**
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2.1. Introduction:

A Community is the total organized social life of a locality.“ The mark of a community is that one’s life may be lived wholly within it” one cannot live wholly within a business organization or a church; one can live wholly within a tribe or a city. The basic criterion of community, then is that all of one’s social relationships may be found within it.

Some communities are inclusive and dependent on others. There are a few primitive communities like that of the Yurok tribes of California which are almost isolated.. But modern communities have big population and are very much dependent on other communities. The character of community and the role of the individual in it depend much on its territorial size, size of the population, nature of the local government and the economic pursuit of the people.

Identification with the Community:

One aspect of every community is the territorial base. People tend to develop attachment or sentimental identification with the area in which they live permanently. This gives rise to what is often called 'we feeling'. The we-sentiment represents the common interests of the group. People react sharply when ever their village, or town, or city or nation to which they belong is criticized.

For an individual, the community is "home of his home and flesh of his flesh".

Role – Playing:

Every individual has a role to play, his own function to fulfill in his community. He may take up any role, a farmer, a shop – keeper, a teacher, a servant, a carpenter, a scavenger, and so on. The attachment towards the group (community) and the realization of the role that one has to play, the individual may develop through socialization and habituation in the daily discipline of life".

Dependence:

Every member of the community feels that he is dependent upon the community physically and psychologically. Many of the physical needs are satisfied with the community. He is psychologically dependent upon the community because, it saves him from the fear of solitude and the boredom of isolation.

Benefits of Community life:

The individual lives in the community and reaps the benefits of community life.

1. The community life provides the individual the needed protection and security.
2. The community life provides for cooperation of the members
3. The community life depends on some kind of communication system among the members
4. The community life provides the individual opportunities for the manifestation of his talents and abilities.

Community emphasized the unity of the common life of a people or of mankind. Community has been "generating a sense of belonging together" all these days. But in the wake of modern industrialisation, increasing mechanization of living, phenomenal growth of urbanization, widespread division of labour and specialization, and vast socio-economic and political changes, the task of retaining the 'sense of belonging together' has become, as MacIver says, 'not less necessary but more difficult'. As Louis Wirth observes, "in the transition from a type of social organization based on kinship, status and a crude division of labour, to a type of social organization characterized by rapid technological developments, mobility, the rise of special interest groups and formal social control, the community has acquired new meaning and has revealed new problems". Even living in the midst of plenty, people may often feel that they are alone. The sense of identification with the community may become weak. The loss of Identification may lead to the "loss of community"

which in turn may result in 'alienation'. Alienation may even cause suicide. This made Oswald spengler to lament that "the wheel of destiny rolls or to its end, the birth of the city entails its death."

2.2. Rural and urban Communities:

Communities are commonly divided into two general types –rural and urban. Often locality is regarded as rural or urban by reference to its population. Other criterion employed are: density of population, legal limits, and legal status. Some other writers have used occupations and social organizations, that is, the type of social and economic institutions, relationships, folkways as criterion. P.A Sorokin and C.C. Zimmerman, have stated the factors distinguishing rural from urban communities include occupation, size, and density of population, as well as mobility, differentiation and stratification.

In many countries the distinction between rural and urban communities has been made on the basis of the size of the population. In Holland, a community containing more than 20,000 people is called urban. In Japan, the number is fixed at 30, 000; in India at 5000; and in U.S.A at 2,500 and in France at 2000. Mark Jefferson says that a community with a density of 10,000 people or more per/square mile should be considered a city. Water willcox suggested that a community with a population of more than 1000 per square mile should be regarded as a city and less than, 1000 people as 'rural' community.

2.3. The Rural Community:

All early communities were basically rural in character. As kropotkin points out, "we do not know one single human race of single nation which has not had its period of village communities". Bogardus says, "Human society has been cradled in the rural group".

Meaning and Definition:

Rural community consists of people living in a limited physical area who have common interests and common ways of satisfying them. Psychological bonds play an important part in the rural community. Physical locality contributes to the integration and stability of the village community. Such proximity has developed a sociability and had encouraged solidarity and mutuality.

Dwight sanderson stated, "A rural community consists of people living "on dispersed farmsteads and in a hamlet or village which forms the centre of their common activities".

Rural community is often looked upon as an association in which there is "social interaction of people and their institutions in the local area". The relationships in the rural community tend to be what cooley termed primary, that is, of intimate nature. The rural localities are often referred to as "country neighbourhood".

A rural community may be defined as "a group of people permanently residing in a definite geographic area who, having developed a certain community consciousness and cultural, social and economic relations feel that they are separate from other communities". (J.H. Kolb and Brunner).

It is said that "God made the village and man built the city". The population of the world is largely rural. In India alone more than 50 crores of people live in villages. More than 70 percent of

Indians live in more than five lakh villages in India. The urban life still depends on the farm and what it produces.

2.4. Features of Village Community:

The village community is marked by several features.

1. Community consciousness:

The village dwellers have a sense of unity. The relations between the village people are intimate. They personally know each other. The customs, conventions and culture are common. They jointly take part in religious celebrations. Structurally and functionally the village is a unit.

2. Role of Neighbourhood:

In a village neighbourhood is of great importance. There is not enough of individuality and speed in the life of the village to disable one from paying attention to his neighbour- his sorrow, and joys. In the village people assist each other and thus they have close neighbourhood relations.

3. Joint Family:

Though in cities the joint family system is breaking down, yet in villages it still retains its hold. The agricultural occupation requires the cooperation of all the family member. The men plough the field, the women harvest the crops and the children graze the cattle.

4. Faith in Religion:

The people in villages have deep faith in religion and deities. Their main occupation is agriculture which largely depends upon the vagaries of nature. The farmer acquires an attitude of fear and awe towards natural forces and starts worshipping them.

5. Simplicity:

The village people lead a simple life. They are far away from the evils of modern civilization. They are simple and plain people believing in god. They do not show pretensions. Their behaviour is natural and not artificial. They live a peaceful life. They are free from mental conflicts. They are sincere, hospitable and hard-working. The level of morality is high. Social crimes are rare. Their life is governed by norms.

6. The Social Homogeneity:

The rural Community is largely homogeneous. Unity and uniformity in social life are largely visible. We find similarity in the ways of thinking, behaving, action and living. We also find agreement or consensus among people with regard to habits, opinions, morals, customs, values, religious beliefs, dress etc.

7. Dominance of Primary Relations:

A village community is often regarded as a 'primary group'. Hence the rural community is characterized by the primary relations. There exist face-to-face relations among

people. Every person knows every other and hence every one is interested in the welfare of all. The village community is relatively small in size. The members frequently meet and maintain regular contacts. The relationships are informal, personal and inclusive. Community spirit prevails over individual interests. People are free and frank in their expressions. A sense of belonging to the community holds them together.

8. Informal Social Control:

Social control, that is, the control of social behaviour of people is relatively, simpler and less problematic. Predominance of face-to-face relationship has made the task of regulating relations a simple one. Customs, traditions, group standards and morals are themselves effective as social pressures. Any kind of social disobedience is easily noticed and the disobedient is put to gossip. Formal means of social control such as law, legislation, police, court etc. are not resorted to in normal situation to maintain this social order.

9. Occupations:

The rural community is marked by a predominant type of occupation, that is, agriculture. Agriculture is associated with different crafts like pottery, basket – making, spinning, weaving, carpentry, smithery, brick-making, shoe- making, tanning, washing clothes, barbering, building houses- and repairing, oil grinding, toy-making etc. In contrast with the urban society, there is less division of labour and specialization in rural community. Even opportunities for specialization are also limited. Neither the villager is equipped with sufficient qualification to pursue varied tasks. On the contrary, the villager at times performs the role of an all rounder. He is often called a jack of all trades, but master of none. Women assist their menfolk in various agricultural tasks.

10. Role of Neighbour hood:

Neighbourhood is a community in miniature. It is similar to a community, but it is a smaller area in which relationships tend to be primary, or more or less intimate. The neighbourhood is a part of the village, town or city, in which live a number of families among whom close relationships exist. A neighbourhood has been defined as – “ an area in which the residents are personally well acquainted with each other and are in the habit of visiting one another , of exchanging articles and services and, in general of doing things together.

11. Conservation and Dogmatism:

The rural people are said to be highly conservative, traditional and dogmatic in their approach. Their social attitudes and behaviour patterns are dictated by traditions. They do not accept policies, plans, programmes, principles, projects, doctrines etc. They are basically skeptical in their attitude.

12. Rural community and social change:

The villagers are generally simpletons. They cling firmly to their beliefs, traditions, age-old practices. Custom is their ‘ kin’. They are not ready to go against it. Their behaviour is natural and not artificial. They live a peaceful life. They are sincere, hard-working and hospitable. They cannot accept the urban people and their way of life readily. They are not ready for sudden change. They

are for status quo. There is gap between urban and the rural way of life. Of course, nowadays the rural people are awakened to the need of the modern world. They are also modifying their behaviour patterns slowly and gradually.

The industrial revolution has brought far reaching results to the rural community. Rapid improvements in the field of transport and communications, development of science and technology, introduction of uniform system of education, implementation of various community welfare programmes and projects, opening of small factories and industries even in rural areas, increasing political consciousness of the people, the liberation of women etc. have all contributed to some radical changes in the rural life.

Types of Rural Communities:

Sociologists categorized two types of rural communities.

1. Agricultural village community:

Agriculture is the main occupation of the villages, even though trade may be carried on there in a small scale. Such a village is the trade and social centre for the surrounding farmers. In the Indian villages, normally people build their houses near their land and live in it. The Indian farmers depend more on agriculture rather than on trade,

2. Industrial village community:

In some villages, more than the agriculture, some small industries have provided means of livelihood for a relatively bigger number of people. The people in such industrial villages gain most of their income from small industries located there. The industrial village may also provide services for the surrounding farmers. But its chief economic endeavour is industry rather than farm service occupations. The nations which are undergoing the process of rapid industrialization and the industrialized countries normally give birth to such industrial villages.

2.5. The Urban Community:

Generally by an urban area, we mean an area with high density of population. The city cannot be defined in terms of density of population, since there is no uniformity of standards in different countries. United states treats all places with 2500 or more as urban , in France the figure is 2000, in Japan, 30, 000 ; in India 10, 000.

Taping up the social aspect of urban community, the city is a way of life. The word 'urbane' suggests this way of life; it indicates fashionable living, wide acquaintance with things, and people. The rural people also have come under the influence of urban way of, life. The rural areas can become urbanized.

"Civilization means the city and the city means civilization. Man originally built the city, and the city, in turn, civilized man ". The city is culture par excellence; it is the epitome of culture. Culture surrounds the city man. The city is the product of man and his own achievement. The city" has everything that is ' tawdry' and everything sublime. It holds both hope and despair. It

encompasses millions of people and it can be the loveliest place on earth. It is a vital centre of every civilized society. It is both a place and a state of mind". (Robert Bierstedt)

The Meaning of Urban Community:

By 'urban system', we mean urban community. There is no single all – inclusive definition of a city or urban community.

1. Howard woolston defined the city as a " limited geographic area in habited by a largely and closely settled population, having many common interests and institutions, under a local government authorized by the state".
2. Park says that the city far from being a mere collection of individuals and of social conveniences, is rather a " state of mind, a body of customs and traditions, and the organized attitudes and sentiments that inhere in these customs".
3. James A. Quinn, viewed the city as a " Phenomenon of specialization". As a population aggregate whose occupations are non agricultural.
4. Adna F. Weber defined the city as any incorporated place with a minimum of 10,000 inhabitants
5. Lowis wirth writes: " For sociological purposes a city may be defined as a relatively large, dense and permanent settlement of socially heterogeneous individuals.

2.6. Characteristics of Urban Community:

1. Social Heterogeneity:

An urban society is heterogeneous. The city life is complex and many sided. It is more characterized by diversity. Louis wirth points out "the greater the number of individuals participating in a process of interaction, the greater the potential differentiation between them. He further says that" the city has been the melting-post of races, peoples and cultures and a most favourable breeding ground of new biological and cultural hybrids". Differentiation is potent in urban life.

2. Secondary Relations:

The urban community is characterized by secondary relations. A city by virtue of its size cannot be a primary group. It is a secondary group. People are indifferent towards one another. Face-to-face, friendly or intimate relations may not be observed among people. In cities people rarely take personal interests in others' concerns. Even neighbours are often found to be strangers.

3. The Anonymity of the city life:

The city is an ocean of strangers. Every one appears to be a stranger for every other person. The individual identities remain unknown – there prevails a state of namelessness. The kind of namelessness that is found in the city is often referred to as anonymity of the city life. The anonymity of the city life makes more complex the problem of social control.

4. Secondary Control:

Control of social behaviour is more difficult in a city. Predominance of secondary relations makes it more complex, the social control. The social behaviour of people is no more regulated by customs, traditions, region and group standards. Informal means of social control are not very effective. Regulation of social behaviour is largely done through the specialized agencies like law, legislation, police, court etc. .

5. Large- Scale division of Labour and specialization:

An urban community is known for its large-scale division of labour and specialization. Specialisation is visible in every walk of life. The larger the city, the greater is the specialisation. There are skilled, unskilled and semi-skilled workers, the artisans, the technicians, the white-collar employees, the financiers, the business men, administrators, the politicians, the artists and others in society specializing themselves in some kind of activity or the other. City depends on division of labour also. Work is divided among people on the basis of interest, talents, opportunities, age, sex and so on. Division of labour and specialization are possible because of cooperation.

6. Large- Scale Social Mobility:

An urban community is characterized by intense social mobility. 'social mobility' refers to the movement of people from one social status to another, from lower status to higher status, from poor position to rich position. An individual's position in an urban community is determined more by his achievements than by his birth. The status is not predetermined.

7. Individuation:

In an urban community people are more individualistic in their attitudes. Kingsley Davis points out, "The secondary and voluntary character of urban association, the multiplicity of opportunities and the social mobility all force the individual to make his own decisions and to plan his life as a career. Simmel observes, "The city person is free in behaviour, less restrained, more individualistic, more formal and less sympathetic, and less of a conformist than the country person.

8. Voluntary Association:

An urban community is the breeding centre of number of voluntary associations. The size of the urban population, its close proximity, diversity, and easy contact, make it the proper ground for voluntary associations. People normally become members of a number of associations which may be called. "secondary group" in order to fulfil their varied interests.

9. Social Tolerance:

Social Tolerance characterizes city life. The spirit of tolerance gives the strength of unity in diversity to the life in a city. Diversity of population, impersonality of contacts and heterogeneity in living style make it almost inevitable for the city people to develop the spirit of tolerance.

10. Spatial Segregation:

Due to its very nature, the city is bound to be overcrowded. It attracts a large number of people from the village areas. Various types of business tend to concentrate in different spots of

the city. Occupational groups of people also prefer to live together in distinct zones of a city. That is to say, some kind of functional segregation is found there.

11. Unstable Family:

The urban family is not firmly organized. Many of the traditional functions of the family are transferred to the external agencies. Family is no longer the economic, educational, protective, recreational and effective unit. Family has lost much of its control over its individual members. Relations between the husband and wife, parents and children are strained to some extent. Some sociologists remarked that the urban family is much more disorganized.

2.7 The urban – Rural Contrast:

“ The city man and the country man do indeed have two different views of the world, have different rounds of activity, sustain in different ways the progression of the seasons, indulge in different kinds of work and play, and spend their span of life in different surrounding. “ (spengler)

The differences between the rural society and the urban society can be elaborated in the following way

Rural Society

Urban Society

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. The rural society is homogeneous. | 1. The urban society is heterogeneous. |
| 2. It is dominated by primary relations. | 2. It is dominated by secondary relations. |
| 3. People are known for their simplicity and hospitality, frankness and generosity. | 3. The urban people are known for their artificiality. |
| 4. Informal means of social control such as customs, mores. | 4. formal means of social control such as law, legislation, police, court etc. |
| 5. It is less mobile. Status is mostly ascribed. | 5. It is more mobile. Here status is ‘ achieved’ |
| 6. The rural society provides limited scope for division of labour and specialization. | 6. Here occupations are more specialized. There is widespread division of labour and specialization |
| 7. It is built of family units. People are bound by family traditions | 7. here the family is said to be unstable. More than the family, individual is given importance. |
| 8. Women are mostly tradition bound. They are passive, meek, submissive and obedient. Women are not career- conscious | 8. Women have almost an equal status with men. They are very much career-conscious |
| 9. Rural People are poorer. Still they are not class-conscious. | 9. People are more class-conscious. |
| 10. People are more conservative orthodox and dogmatic | 10. People are progressive they welcome changes |

- | | |
|--|--|
| 11. The rural community has a small number of people | 11. Urban community consists of a big number of people. |
| 12. It is a 'simple unigroup society'. | 12. Urban community is a "community is a complex multi group society". |
| 13. The rural community is known for its ethnocentrism | 13. People have growing contacts with outsiders |
| 14. It is characterized by common consensus | 14. The urban community replaced consensus by common dissensus. |
| 15. There is less stress on education in the rural system. | 15. Mass education is widespread in the city. |

2.8. Rural – Urban Convergence:

There is no clear cut demarcation between rural and urban communities. Every village possess some elements of the city and every city carries some features of the village. The concept of 'rural – urban convergence' refers to the striking similarities between the village and the town in some aspects of communist life

Urban culture is diffusing at a very fast rate in the rural areas. Kingsley Davis has said, "The city effects are wider than the city itself". With the diffusion of urban culture to the rural areas, the extreme differences between rural and urban cultures have diminished. Villages in a way are closely linked with the cities. Buses, trains taxies and motor cycles etc., have helped the city people to go out and stay in the fringes of the city.

A single city may have a number of small sub-urban areas. These sub-urban areas may retain in them some of the features of the city. They are like satellite cities built around a major city. Sub-urban areas represent the tough amalgam of rural and urban ways of living. Here we may find the urban way of life being mixed with the rural way of life. In these areas we find the "rural – urban convergence".

2.9. The Rural – Urban continuum:

Some sociologists have used the concept of ' rural – urban continuum'. There are no sharp breaking points to be found in the degree or quantity of rural urban difference. The impact of urban life over rural life is evident in many ways. With regard to birthrate, age at marriage, infant mortality, divorce, suicide etc., rural indices are moving to nearer urban indices. In this way, rural areas can become highly urbanized.

As the contacts of the city become closer, as transportation and communication become more rapid, the rural community tends to assume more closely the urban social structure. We may even speak of different degrees of "Urbaneness" or " Ruralness". One country can be demographically more urban and yet socially more rural than another. Example: Chile has a greater percentage of its population living in cities than does Canada, but its people, by almost all sets of indices, are less urban.

2.10. Summary:

A community is the total organised social life of a locality. The mark of a community is that one's life may be lived wholly within it". One aspect of any community is the territorial base. For an individual, the community is "home of his home and flesh of his flesh". Every individual has a role to play, his own function to fulfil in his community. Every member of the community feels that he is dependent upon the community physically and psychologically.

Community emphasized the unity of the common life of a people or of mankind. Communities are commonly divided into two general types- rural and urban. Often locality is regarded as rural or urban by reference to its population.

Rural community consists of people living in a limited physical area who have common interests. The village dwellers have a sense of unity. In a village neighbourhood is of great importance. In villages the joint family system still retains its hold. The people in villages have deep faith in religion and deities. The village people lead a simple life. The rural community is largely homogeneous. A village community is often regarded as a "primary group". There is informal social control in villages. The rural community is marked by a predominant type of occupation, that is, agriculture, Neighbourhood is a community in miniature. The rural people are said to be conservative. The village people are not ready for sudden change. The industrial revolution has brought far-reaching results to the rural community.

Generally by an urban area, we mean an area with high density of population. An urban society is heterogeneous. The urban community is characterized by secondary relations, the anonymity of the city life. Secondary control, large scale division of labour and specialisation, large scale social mobility, individuation, voluntary association, social tolerance, spatial segregation, unstable family

There is no clear-cut demarcation between rural and urban communities. The concept of 'rural urban convergence' refers to the striking similarities between the village and the town. The impact of urban life over rural life is evident in many ways. Some sociologists have used the concept of rural – urban continuum.

2.11. Key Words:

- a) Community
- b) Rural – Urban convergence
- c) Rural – Urban Continuum

2.12. Self Assessment Questions:

1. Discuss the Characteristics of Rural and Urban Communities.
2. Explain the Difference between Rural and Urban Communities

2.13. Reference Books:

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Lesson - 3

CONCEPT, OBJECTIVES AND PHILOSOPHY AND SCOPE OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

3.0 OBJECTIVE :

The objective of the present lesson is to explain the concept, objectives and philosophy of community development.

Structure :

- 3.1 Introduction**
- 3.2 Concept of Community Development**
- 3.3 Analysis of the term community Development**
- 3.4 Definition of Community Development**
- 3.5 The Community**
- 3.6 Approach in Community Development**
- 3.7 Objectives of Community Development**
- 3.8 Essential elements of Community Development**
- 3.9 Faith behind Community Development**
- 3.10 Philosophy of Community Development**
- 3.11 Community Development and Community Organization**
- 3.12 Differences**
- 3.13 Similarity**
- 3.14 Scope of Social Works in Community Development**
- 3.15 Summary**
- 3.16 Key Words**
- 3.17 Self - Assessment Questions**
- 3.18 Reference Books**

3.1 INTRODUCTION :

The terms 'Community Development' and 'Community organization' are relatively new in India. With the launching of the rural development, projects as part of the Five Year Plans, the term 'Community Development' came to be used with reference to these projects, but community development now refers to welfare and development work in any community - rural, urban or backward community like scheduled castes or tribal community. In the west, however, the community organisation field mainly aims at effective coordination of existing welfare services, fund-raising helping to organize new services, and educating public about new social problems in order to secure participation in solution of these problems through community efforts. Here in India efforts

are made to render welfare services like creches, balwadis, social education, maternity and allied services, recreational activities etc. to the members of a community. Thus, community organization is a field as well as a method of work. In India, it has developed into a very vast field of work with the introduction of the scheme of community development.

Industrialization and rapid urbanization have focussed the attention of social workers and administrators on the need of introducing same services in the urban communities. The Central Social Welfare Board launched a scheme of 100 pilot projects in the urban areas and night shelters (dormitories) in 1958 and sufficient experience has been gained in this work. The Delhi Municipal Corporation also started implementing another scheme in collaboration with the Ford Foundation in 1959 thereby contributing to community development.

3.2 CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :

Community development has been defined at different times as a movement, the term community development is currently used mainly in relation to rural areas of least developed countries in which major emphasis is placed upon the activities for the improvement of the basic living conditions of the community including the satisfaction of its non-material needs.

India, the second most populated country in the world has a large population, 80% of which lives in the villages. In the past these villages were lives of activity and spirit. When India attained freedom in 1947 it was imperative to bring these villages into the orbit of a well knit democratic structure. This realization took a concrete shape when it found expression in our constitution in the following words:

"The state shall strive to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protecting as effectively as it may, a social order in which justice, social, economic and political shall conform to all the institutions of national life.

The Community Development Programme was inaugurated on October 2, 1952. It was Gandhiji who focussed attention on this problem on a national scale. Along, with the fight for political freedom he laid equal stress on the people themselves promoting their welfare. He advised them to develop a self discipline which would enable them to participate in the non-violent struggle for building up new India. He drew up an 18 point programme, which he promoted through his hand of selfless workers.

Besides Gandhiji, there were others who tried experiments in rural reconstruction. Important among such experiments were those by Rabindranath Tagore at Shriniketan, by the YMCA at Martandam and those at Gurgaon and Baroda. After independence, new experiments in rural reconstruction were conducted. Among these two projects were important. One was the Nilokheri project started by Shri S.K. Dey. This experiment provided the answer for an integrated and balanced development of rural areas. The other experiment was carried out at Ratawah in U.P. in 1948. This was a pilot project designed to develop the people's initiative by providing them with same operational facilities, services and supplies. It was however, soon realised that for permanent results an all embracing development programme should be adopted as the previous attempts at rural reconstruction only touched the fringe of the problem. Accordingly, community development programme was initiated on October 2, 1952 on the birth anniversary of Mahatma Gandhi.

Community development is the process by which efforts of the people are united with those of the government authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities,

to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress. Activating the individual and the community to strive for self improvement, making use of the available government assistance, but depending largely on self help, is its central purpose, and people's participation is the key note of its programme.

The self-help programme of the community implies the development of the entire community. The movement seeks to extend its benefits to all families in village especially the weaker and underprivileged sections.

3.3 ANALYSIS OF THE TERM COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :

1. Community development is bringing forth the potential abilities and qualities of group of people who live together in a common territory and who have an interdependent relationship with each other.
2. It is a continuous process of social action by which the people of a community
 - a) Define their common and group needs
 - b) Organize themselves formally and informally for democratic planning and action.
 - c) More groups of individuals plan to meet their needs and solve their problems.
 - d) Execute their plans with maximum of reliance upon their own resources and
 - e) Supplement their resources from outside the community when necessary with service and material.

3.4 DEFINITION OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :

It is difficult to define precisely the term 'Community Development'. It has grown out of the earlier concepts of mass education. It has been designed to promote better living for the whole community. The following are few of its important definitions.

1. **Planning Commission** : "Community development is an attempt to bring about a social and economic transformation of village life through the efforts of people themselves.
2. **United Nations** : Bureau of Social affairs community development is a process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for whole of the community with its active participation and fullest possible reliance on community "initiative".
3. **United Nations Document** : "Community development designates the utilization under one single programme of approaches and techniques which rely upon local communities as units of action and which attempt to combine outside assistance with organized local self-determination and effort, and which correspondingly seek to stimulate local initiative and leadership as the primary instrument of change. In agricultural countries in the economically under-developed areas, major emphasis is placed upon those activities which aim at promoting the improvement of the basic living condition of the community, including the satisfaction of some of its non-material needs".

4. **The Cambridge Summer Conference** : "Community Development is a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and if possible on the initiative of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously, then by the use of techniques for arousing and stimulating it in order to secure its active and enthusiastic response to the movement.

From the above definitions it can be said that

1. Community development is a process of changing from the traditional way of living to progressive way of living.
2. It is a method by which people can be assisted to develop themselves on their own capacity and resources.
3. It is a programme for accomplishing certain activities in different fields.
4. People are expected to show initiative same external stimulators for bringing about change is not excluded. This is an important factor in developing countries.
5. Emphasis is on coordination of all programmes under a single programme.
6. It also lays stress on the use of resources and self-determination of the local community to bring about change.
7. It is a movement for progress.

There are some other problems. Neither of the definitions are specific with regard to the primary goals of community development. Is it merely to improve the living conditions of the people? Is it to develop a sense of community? Is it to promote self-determination to solve their own problems? Is it to enable the individual members in the community to have initiative to overcome their difficulties? Could there be contradiction between these objectives?

3.5 THE COMMUNITY :

Neither of the definitions of community development indicates what is to be understood as "Community".

The concept of community is not easy to define. There are a large number of definitions emphasizing different aspects sentiment, locality, services, organization, interest, cooperative action, etc. for the purpose of community development, one would have to define community as "a group of people living in a contiguous geographical area and interacting to meet their needs".

A question can be raised with regard to the size of the population. A pragmatic approach would suggest the village being considered as a community unit. If the population of a village is too small, it could be grouped with the neighbouring village or villages. There is need to be clear as to what is meant by "Community" in initiating community development programmes.

3.6 APPROACH IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :

1. The major approach in community development is extension education that is to bring to the people information regarding the manner in which they can increase their output and other contribution using means suggested as a result of experimentation. The principle of extension emphasizes self help, working with people, understanding of the cultural milieu, development of leadership and working with all groups.

2. Another approach used in community development is community organisation. This is a process in which the community identifies its needs or objectives, orders these needs, finds resources (internal and external) to deal with these needs or objectives, takes action in respect to them and in so doing extends and develops cooperative and collaborative attitudes and practices in the community.

While in extension the larger emphasis is often on change in the behaviour of the individual, in community organisation the approach is to get collaborative action. They are not exclusive. In India, while the major approach has been extension, the community organization method has also been used. In community organization, the effort is to stimulate either the existing organisations and institutions or newly developed ones in the community to involve the people and harness their energies in meeting its needs.

3.7 OBJECTIVES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :

Generally speaking community development is mainly done as a public service in farms, houses mainly in a village community. Community development programme is specifically done in the above mentioned areas to bring improvement in production of crops and animals, living conditions, health and education of people.

The main elements who need change are people-men, women and youth. These changes are brought about by change agents who include voluntary local leaders as well as professional community development workers.

3.8 ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :

1. Activities undertaken must correspond to the basic needs of the community.
2. There should be concerted action and the establishment of multipurpose programmes.
3. Change in the attitude of the people is the aim of community development.
4. Community development aims at better participation of the people in community affairs.
5. The identification, encouragement and training of local leadership should be basic objective in any programme.
6. Greater reliance in the participating of women and youth in community development projects and community development programmes.
7. self help requires internal and external assistance from the government.
8. Implementation of community development programme is on a national scale.
9. Resources of voluntary and non governmental organisations should be available.
10. Economic and social programmes at the local level necessitates parallel development in a wider national level.

3.9 FAITH BEHIND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :

1. It is based on the faith that rural people have capacity to improve, if helped.
2. People's participation is significant.

3. It has to be organized on small community unit basics.
4. It has a democratic approach.
5. It has faith in science and technology.
6. It has faith in social justice.

3.10 PHILOSOPHY OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :

Community development programme includes the work based on 'felt needs' of the people. Community development work is based on the assumption that people want to be free from poverty and pain community development aims at better participation of the people in community affairs. In community development work due consideration is given to cooperation, group decision making, self initiative, responsibility, leadership and self help. People are considered as greatest resources, hence popular participation is considered as vital element in promoting community development.

Any activities undertaken in community development must correspond to the basic needs of the community. It aims at changing the attitude of the people. Community development is bringing forth the potential abilities and qualities of group of people who live together in a common territory and who have an interdependent relationship with each other. Community development is a process of changing from the traditional way of living to progressive way of living. It is a method by which people can be assisted to develop themselves on their own capacity and resources. It is a movement for progress.

3.11 COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND COMMUNITY

ORGANIZATION :

The terms "Community organization" and "Community development" have often been used interchangeably, the distinction between the two is not always easy to discern. This is especially the case in the literature of community development. For example, a text on community development in America by J. Christenson and J. Robinson 1980, defines community development as a "(1) group of people (2) in a community (3) reaching a decision (4) to initiate a social action process (i.e., planned intervention) (5) to change (6) their economic, social, cultural, or environmental situation".

Certainly everything done in the name of community organization could be incorporated under such a definition. But a look at the sites of community development projects, the professional participants, the target participants and the apparent purposes reveals same differences.

3.12 DIFFERENCES :

The most evident difference is that community development projects often involve the creation of new economic resources. It deals with social rearrangements necessary to accommodate new technology is one of the more common elements of community development work. Community organization, by contrast, has been concerned with the reallocation of existing economic resources than with the creation of new ones. It is also promoted within many countries to stimulate and guide change in underdeveloped regions. Everywhere the themes of participation and modernization seem to be present.

Community organization is concerned with adjustment of social welfare needs in cities, states, nations and villages, community development is concerned with the promotion of all aspects of life socio, economic, culture in rural and urban areas. Community organization is process oriented

and community development is target oriented; community organization is not time bound, but community development is time found.

3.13 SIMILARITY :

Community organization and community development has the same philosophical base. Both of these programmes work for the welfare of the people, which is the main objective. Another similarity is the faith in common man's right for self-determination and self-help. Both community development and community organization aim to enable to live a happy and fully developed life. Both help people to help themselves. Community organisers and community workers work for the benefit of the community.

3.14 SCOPE OF SOCIAL WORK IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :

It is an established fact that a professional social work has enormous scope in the field of community development. Four methods of work are available to social worker working as community organiser or community development worker in their professional careers. These methods are 1. Social case work; 2. Social group work; 3. Community organization; and 4. Social action. The aim of all the four methods is enablement of those to be served. They bring about change in the individuals or groups, change from a previous underverable limiting condition of living to a more desirable, freer condition of living.

Community development work calls for the usage of various methods of social work mentioned above. Case work as a method can be used while working with alcoholics, drug addicts, prostitutes, AIDS patients and the like; Group work can be effectively used while working with DWACRA groups, self help groups, groups of alcoholics; social action can be used successfully when major issues such as doury, child labour, gender issues, problems of the displaced, persons need to be tackled. Community organization has a very vital role to play in the community.

The secret of community organization lies in the social worker recognizing the felt needs of the community members; and in his aiding the members to collect and utilize their resources for satisfying or fulfilling such felt needs. Community development means generating in the members a new awareness for a desirable need and then aiding them to fulfil such new need. Two instances will clarify our point.

There is a community in a village or in an urban area which has no school. Children are growing up and the elders feel the children ought to go to school. But there is no school which is clearly the case of a felt need. The social worker, will get the members together and discuss about the problem. Later the problem is solved by tapping the necessary resources. The field of community demands the art of tapping and assembling the resources for relevant community organization and development work.

Social action as another method of serial work is also applicable in community development. Social action is concerted move by a community or communities together to change over from an undesirable serial condition to a more desirable one or to remove or correct by legitimate means any social problem or problem by which the people are afftuted. In short social action is mass attack on mass social problems. Problems pertaining to illiteracy, child labour, prostitution, deliagency, AIDS could be tackled by social actionist. These are challanges for the social worker functioning as a social actionist.

In retrospect a few observations are necessary in relation to the practice of social work in community development. The enabling process of social work in community development can use

four methods, case work, group work, community organization and social action. Each method is relevant and effective in its own context and for special problems. Each method has its own advantages and uses as well as limitations. All these methods are required in urban, rural and tribal community development. In short it could be said that in the appropriate contexts, social case work, group work and community organization along with social action are utilized energetically, intelligently and consonantly most of the social problems of Indian communities could be mitigated.

3.15 SUMMARY :

The community development programme does not only refer to development in the rural areas. but community organisation as a technique which can be successfully used in development of all communities - rural community, urban community in a slum or a congested area, a haryan for tribal community. The basic principles are the same but the programmes may differ from community to community according to local needs. The main objective of community development is the welfare of people and the philosophy of community development is on the assumption that people want to be free from poverty and pain and the work is based on felt needs.

3.16 KEY WORDS :

1. Community development :
2. Community organization :
3. Community :

3.17 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is community development? Discuss the objectives of community development
2. Explain the philosophy of community development.
3. Bring out the differences between community organization and community development.

3.18 REFERENCE BOOKS :

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Lesson - 4

MOBILIZATION OF RESOURCES

4.0 Objective

The objective of the present lesson is to explain the concept of mobilization of resources.

Contents

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Needs and resources
- 4.3 Community's problems
- 4.4 Community resources
- 4.5 Utilising resources Mobilization of resources
- 4.6 Summary
- 4.7 Key words
- 4.8 Self Assessment Questions
- 4.9 Reference Books

4.1 Introduction

Community organization and development is a method of social work with large number of families settled on a specific region. By this method the social worker enables the community members to organise their own material and non-material resources for realising better conditions of living which make human life richer and more worthwhile. It is also the function of the community organiser and developer to kindle new social needs in the light of new cultural and technological innovations, social needs which lead to greater co-operative endeavours and creative achievements. Once a community is organised, it does not follow that the members may go to sleep. After a school is built, or a play-ground constructed, or a club organized there are problems of maintenance, programme operation, etc., which claim the attention of the members in charge. As democracy is dynamic process requiring external 'Vyilance' so too, community organisation is a dynamic process demanding constant watchful activity.

4.2 Needs and resources :

Individuals have indefinite needs and in our society certain services have been set up to meet some of these needs. These needs and the services are related to social value on which, society acts upon the stability and integrity of family life. When that family life is threatened or actually disrupted by hazards of insufficient income death, accident illness or unacceptable behaviour of its members then society under taken through its welfare agencies to provide rehabilitation and hopefully preventive services. The process by which needs and resources are brought into effective relatedness, for the social well-being of the people is known as community organization. This is the area of 'community organisation' which forms one of the major established divisions, of social work

field others being social case work and social group work. Community organiser or community development worker has enormous scope in urban communities, rural communities and tribal communities. The social work professional can play a significant role in urban community development, rural community development and tribal community development by enabling the community dwellers mobilise material and non-material resources.

The social worker working in community needs to understand needs, resources and problems in the community.

4.3 Community's problems :

Problems mean different things to different people. To a social worker, the problem of a community would be,

1. To create in the minds of the people, a perception of collective needs, such as the school, medical centre playground, etc.
2. To give them an insight into available and potential resources, Eg., money, buildings, leisure, free labour etc.
3. To impart to them the art or technique of assembling the resources. Eg. donations, collections, shows, etc.
4. To make the people utilize the resources towards realising the envisaged goals, for instance through formation of responsible committees, boards of trustees, action councils, etc.
5. To help the people maintain in good condition what has been attained. For example, if a school has been built, some of the community personages could be elected to be members of the supervisory board, visiting members, parents committees, etc. Thus only can interest in the activity be maintained, and participation of the community secured. For, it is common experience that community folk work towards securing a new facility, but when finally, after some collective effort the facility is secured, the people lose interest in what has been secured and thus the institution or facility languishes. This has happened with reference to many a new institution such as a school, a club, a library, a cooperative store, etc. Even local self governing institutions like the panchayats, and municipalities for which the people concerned fought together are left to fall into doldrums and disuse. Therefore, to keep the community members active and alert in regard to maintenance of useful social institutions and the facilities they afford is a difficult social work art. This is a technique of providing primary and participatory leadership. To help the community members in understanding and balancing human group dynamics. When a number of people of different or similar status and age and social standing work together for the achievement of certain desirable group goals, there is bound to be mutual rivalry for prestigious positions, jealousy regarding allocation of responsibilities, etc. Appreciation, criticism, correction, censure and such other factors are likely to be associated with works undertaken, done, ill done, well done, etc. In these situations, tensions and conflicts are bound to arise. Such conflicts, known as group dynamics, may defeat the very purpose of people coming together. So a trained social worker using group work methods may be able to restrain personal conflicts and inspire collective confidence and co-ordination to teach

the art, technique, spirit of working together is a very difficult one. Many good works have come to ruin on account of conflict amongst leaders, many achievements have been lost due to disharmony amongst colleagues, nay, many empires have fallen for lack of collective goodwill at the top. The task of the social worker will be to instil mutual goodwill and team spirit inculcate toleration, and provide for smooth and just leadership changes. The lesson which every community member should learn is that group interests are higher than those of individuals. Yet, groups should provide for the fulfilment of individuals, needs in so far as such individual needs are in consonance with group goals. There should be no clash between the two, that is between individual and group interest. However, in case of community organisation and development, group interests are higher.

4.4 Community resources :

The community organizer or community development worker should be aware of the community's resources along with its problems or needs. What are these resources? Resources in the context of community could be grouped around. People-leadership, both influencers and doers; 2. financial support, including tax support, private support foundations; 3. Places and facilities; 4. Social welfare programmes and services in their broad sense; 5. specialized resources for planning such as research, sources of data university resources; and 6. previous experiences and attitudes in cooperative community effort, which can be developed through social work community organization methods.

4.5 Utilising resources, Mobilization of resources :

The social work professional is equally concerned with the inner resources of the individuals with whom he is working, as well as with the outer resources. The outer resources brought to bear in working with the situation may be in such practical terms as housing, educational programmes, job opportunities may be a part of these outer resources which are drawn in toward the solution of the problem of the client, group or community. Resources for help are not the sole property of the social worker, for they are tools shared between the client and the worker in working toward the desired goals. The inner resources of the client, group, or planning committee are the principal materials used in furthering the social work process.

The community's resources are plenty and it becomes imperative for the social work professional to have a through knowledge about social welfare programmes, knowledge and understanding about communities and cities and in particular resources of the community in the process of practising social work in community. Resources are to be mobilised in order to help individuals meet their needs or overcome their problems. Here the social work professional acts as a liaison in aiding individuals tap the potential resources. The social worker connects the needs of the community with the available resources. Resources include the existing and potential community leaders and their support in giving both their money and their time. Other kinds of resources include the agencies and institutions offering services that are related to the field of social welfare. Church resources, and places for meetings, or places for youth groups, women's groups, are particularly important in planning. Library programmes, commercial and private recreational resources, as well as resources for research and fact gathering, which in some communities are commonly found in local chambers of commerce, or the city planning office are very important.

Social work in community-urban, rural or tribal is the process whereby social welfare resources are developed, maintained extended and coordinated for the purpose of making them

available to persons who are in need of them so that they may use them together with other resources, towards more effective and satisfying living. Community social work is a process whereby community resources are organised to meet community needs. In this process of development on adjustment is brought about between social welfare needs and social welfare resources in a geographical area of a functional field.

Role of community work :

In social welfare field the community worker has a tremendous role to perform. Social work in this field is an art and process of dissolving social welfare needs and creating, coordinating and systematising, instrumentalities through which group ideals and the development of potentialities of group members. Research, interpretation, conference, education, group organisation and social action are the principal tools used in the process. Community social work is concerned with efforts to direct social resources, effectively towards the specific or total welfare needs of any geographical area be it an urban community, a rural community or tribal community. Its performance may involve such activities as fact finding, coordination, improving standards, interpretation and developing welfare programmes, changing pattern of social work promotion and social legislation.

"Self help is the best help". The community members have to feel and realise their ability capacity and skill, in thinking, and achieving the needs of their community. They have to work for the betterment of their community, by cooperating with the social worker. This does not mean they have to depend upon the social worker in all their doings. They have to find out their felt needs and also the resources in fulfilling their needs. Here one can see the reflection of social work philosophy 'Help one to help himself'.

While mobilising the resources for the betterment of a community the community enables its members to get together to share experiences to develop mutual understanding and to create cooperative action. The social work professional has to coordinate the various agencies in the community, and also mobilise the resources in the form of men, material and money. By coordinating the various kinds of resources in the community he can do this work efficiently and also the resources can be utilised for the development of the community.

Certain situations in community life demands the usage of social action as a method of social work by which needs and resources are brought together. The social work is involved with resource development, social action, community treatment, or community development. The social worker has to develop certain skills. The skills associated with resource development depend upon developing a dialogue, or a process among local social service providers determining the kinds of services that should be emphasized, and finding sources of financial support to establish those services. The skills associated with social action depend upon organising residents, assisting them to articulate their views about what would improve their community, and assisting these groups through a variety of tactics to achieve their self-determined objectives.

Social work in community involves planned interventions into social life in order to produce some predictable increase in human welfare. Such interventions may occur in the name of the common good, but usually there are winners and losers in social allocative process that would continue if we were not for the intervention. Whether it is the organization of support for a new social service, creation of a neighbourhood group to enhance police protection, organization of an insurgent group, or linking of agricultural production in an isolated community to a larger market there is a goal that can be expressed as improved social, welfare and some effort to rearrange

associations between persons to effect the desired change. The social worker, community organizer, community developer, or whoever must have same plan of intervention, based upon some analysis of the social system in question that is reasonably likely to produce the intended consequences.

Social Resources :

Every social welfare problem can be cast as a distributional problem. Social welfare problems are usually constructed in terms of deficiencies of some tangible or less tangible social resource. Money, jobs, housing, health care, education, social services, power, and legal rights are some of the social resources that are typically regarded as deficient. Social intervention is designed to alter the existing distribution of these social resources. This alteration might occur through change of the personal aspects of some of the actors in the distributional system (for example, through education, training, or counselling) through creation of a new source of supply for the resource that is deficient (for example, public housing or nonmarket good distribution) or through a change in the pattern of relationship among the actors in the distributional system to effect a different outcome (for example, by organizing a union or a political group, by changing a law or regulation) so that it gives greater legal protection to those seeking jobs or housing.

4.6 Summary :

The social work professional should be aware of the community's resources along with its needs. What are these resources and how they are to be mobilized? Anything and everything which serves to promote cooperative endeavour for community organisation and development may be included amongst resources. Thus the energy of the people, their goodwill and readiness to work together, the leisure available to the working as well as retired, and non-working people, the money, and labour they can spare, land and building old books, clothes, any other useful materials people may donate, skills of art and crafts on which the social worker may draw, all types of free and honorary services, all these and many more, concrete and abstract serviceable items are included in the community resources. A trained, alert and imaginative social worker will be able to discover, coordinate, and organize more of such ones within the community itself, the art of tapping and assembling these resources for relevant community organization and development work is becomes a pre requisite for a professional social worker.

4.7 Key words :

1. Community resources
2. Social resources
3. Mobilization of resources

4.8 Self Assessment Questions :

1. What are community resources? How are the resources important in working toward the desired goals.
2. Mobilization of resources are significant in meeting community needs - Justify.

4.9 Reference Books :

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Community Development

4.7

Mobilization of Resources

Lesson - 5

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT – EXPERIMENTS AND PROJECTS

5.0 OBJECTIVE

The objective of the lesson are to explain programmes for rural development.

Structure :

- 5.1 Introduction**
- 5.2 Definition**
- 5.3 Background of CD**
- 5.4 Objectives**
- 5.5 Earlier CD programmes**
- 5.6 Programmes for Development of Scheduled Tribes : an Assessment**
- 5.7. Problems and limitations in the implementation of Tribal Development...**
- 5.8 Summary**
- 5.9 Key words**
- 5.10 Self Assessment Questions**
- 5.11 References**

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The community development programme was inaugurated on October 2, 1952. This programme has been noted universally as the largest single venture launched in the world for reconstruction and rehabilitation of life in rural areas. In fact, Community Development is the process by which the efforts of the people are united with those of the governmental authorities, to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate these communities into the life in rural area. In fact community programme is the process by which the efforts of the people are united with those of the government authorities, to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate these communities in to the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress. Activating the individual and the community to strive for self improvement making use of the available government assistance, but depending largely, on self-help is its central purpose, and people's participation is the key note of its programme.

5.2 DEFINITION :

“It is difficult to define precisely the term community development. It has grown out of the earlier concepts of Mass education. It has been designed to promote better living for the whole community”.

The word 'Community' has been derived from two Latin words; namely, 'Com' and 'Munis' in English 'Com' means 'together' and 'Munis' means "to serve together". Thus 'Community' means "to serve together". Thus 'Community' means

1. "Community development is an attempt to bring about a social and economic transformation of village life through the efforts of people themselves" - **Planning Commission.**
2. "Community development is a process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for whole of the community with its active participation and fullest possible reliance on community's initiative" - **United Nations : Bureau of Source Affairs**
3. **The Cambridge Summer Conference** - "Community development is a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and on the initiative of the community".

5.3 BACKGROUD OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :

There were others who tried experiments in rural reconstruction there were important among such experiments were those by Rabindra Nath Tagore at Shirinikethan by the YMCA at Martandom and those at Guragaon and Baroda. After independence new experiments in rural reconstruction were conducted. Among these two projects were important. One was the Nilokhery project started by Shri. Sk. Dey. This experiment provided the answer for an integrated and balanced development of rural areas. The other experiment was carried out at Etawh in U.P. in 1948. Accordingly community development programme was initiated on October 2nd of 1952 on the birth anniversary of Mahatma Gandhi.

Agriculture the main stay about seventy percent the rural population receives the highest priority in the programme. Other activities including improvement of communications, health, sanitation, housing, education, women's and children welfare, cottage and small scale industries etc.

5.4 OBJECTIVES :

1. The maximum possible increase in agricultural production.
2. To solve the problem of unemployment in the villages.
3. To develop the means of communication in the villages.
4. To improve the centres of primary education public health and recreation in the villages.
5. To improve the conditions of houses.
6. To encourage cottage industries and indigenous handicrafts.

5.5 EARLIER COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES :

In India systematic efforts to bring about all round rural development backed by appropriate institutional frame work began with the launching of the community development programme in the first five year plan. The unit of development was a community development block under the administrative control.

Relationship between village level and block level and district level institutions of Panchayat Raj :

The Panchayat Raj as a three tier system of local self government representing the village, block and district levels was first setup in 1959. The study team of community development and National extension service of the committee an plan projects has recommended and on January 12, 1958 the National development council endorsed the recommendations on democratic decentralisation and laid down broad principles for the establishment of Panchayat Raj a three-tier structure of local self governing bodies, at the village, block and district levels. Specific powers and functions in the field of development and local administration have been assigned to the Panchayati Raj institutions The modes of community life have led the sociologists to classify it into rural and urban community.

Different states had different Panchayati Raj structures. In some states the district level (Zila parishad) was the principal level for decentralization. In most states, however, the block level (Panchayat samiti, was given greater functions while the district level was one for coordination. Basically there were three tiers.

The village panchayat members of which were elected by the adult population of village (who also formed the gram sabha) was at the base. The next tier was a panchayat samithi which was at the block level. In some states, there was a direct election of the members. In others there was an indirect election. The pattern of election of the members was not uniform in all the states.

The Gurgaon experiment :

The credit of starting Gurgaon experiment goes to F.L. Brayne. He initiated a rural reconstruction scheme at Gurgaon in 1928. The scheme included forming sanitation and education. The object behind the scheme was to create interest among villages about the economic, social and educational development. The scheme created interest towards the vital problem of rural reconstructions.

Marthandam Scheme :

The other notable scheme for rural reconstruction was organised at the YMCA Rural reconstruction centre at Marthandam by Dr. Spencer Hath states that the main object behind this scheme was to improve villages on the basis of self-help and intimate expert council.

The Firka Scheme of Madras :

The Firka development scheme was initiated in the 34 firkas of Madras state in 1946. The object behind the scheme was to stimulate initiative among the villagers to organise their economic and social life on co-operative lines with a view of to make them self-sufficient and self-reliant.

Nilokheri Project :

It was introduced by S.K.Dey. The project was intended to rehabilitate displaced persons over 1,100 acres of swampy land about 87 miles km Delhi. S.K. Dey infused among the displaced persons a spirit of community work and set about the task of developing a composite community. Soon this project

started paying Back and developed into a rural-cum-urban township by integrating the surrounding villages.

Etowah project :

The other important experiment in rural development was carried out at Etowah in U.P. in 1948. An American Mr. Albert Mayer assisted in the running of this project, which covered 97 villages. This was designed to develop the people's initiative by providing them with some operational facilities and service and supplies.

5.6 Programmes for Development of Scheduled Tribes : an Assessment

The Post-Matric Scholarship scheme is in operation since 1944-45, and open to all bi students whose parents' annual income is up to Rs 1 lakh, to facilitate students to pursue professional courses. The scheme of establishing Ashram schools in TSP areas provides funds for construction of school buildings as well as hostels and staff quarters. The scheme of construction of hostels for ST boys and girls provides for the construction of new hostel buildings as well as extension of the existing hostel buildings. The scheme of setting up educational¹ complexes is being implemented for promotion of education among tribal girls in 136 identified low literacy districts of the country. A scheme for vocational training in tribal areas for developing the skills of tribal youth for a variety of jobs as well as self-employment is also in operation.

Economic Development

The National Scheduled Tribes Finance and Development Corporation (NSTFDC) was set up in 2001 with an authorized share capital of Rs 500 crore. The Corporation supports various income and employment generating activities through loans, marketing support, training, and so on. Special focus is accorded to ST women beneficiaries under programmes such as the Adivasi Mahila Shashaktikaran Yojana, which facilitate income generating activities through women's self-help groups (SHGs). The State ST Development Corporations (STDCs) which function as channellizing agencies in identifying eligible beneficiaries and extending financial and other assistance to them, are also supported by NSTFDC. The Tribal Cooperative Marketing Development Federation of India Ltd (TRIFED) provides marketing assistance and remunerative prices to STs for collection of minor forest produce (MFP), and surplus agricultural produce to protect them from exploitative private traders and middlemen. Though the majority of the tribals are settled cultivators, their farming activity is generally uneconomical and non-viable due to the lack of access to necessary agricultural inputs, specially assured irrigation. Therefore, a special provision of funds under grant-in-aid under Article 275 (1) of the Constitution has been made for financing minor irrigation works.

Displacement, Rehabilitation, and Resettlement

Ancestral land, villages, habitations and environs belonging to the tribal people have been made available for various development projects as tribal areas possess 60-70% of the natural resources of the

country. In such cases, though primary displacement appears small due to low population density, secondary displacement has been extensive, encompassing common property resources that provided supplemental livelihoods, particularly to those with low or no dependence on farming. Estimates of STs displaced on account of acquisition over the past six decades vary between 8.5 and 10 million (roughly about 40% of all oustees). The widespread secondary displacement in the zone of influence has neither been measured nor was provided for, calling for an accurate verification of actual displacement both in terms of persons and resource loss. Cash compensation for land having been the practice as per the provisions of the Land Acquisition Act, 1894, oustees owning little land, such as wage-labour artisans, have hardly figured in the relief and rehabilitation packages. As a result, some groups have continued to suffer successive, multiple displacement

Land (both owned by community and individuals) is the most important source of livelihood for the tribal people for agriculture (settled and shifting cultivation), horticulture, floriculture, forestry and animal husbandry. Several laws and regulations have been in place to prevent the alienation of tribal land and private grabbing of such land. A Report of the Ministry of Rural Development reveals in March 2005:

- • 3.75 lakh cases of tribal land alienation have been registered covering 8.55 lakh acres of land,
- Out of the above, 1.62 lakh cases have been disposed of in favour of tribals covering a total area of 4.47 lakh acres;
- 1.55 lakh cases covering an area of 3.63 lakh acres have been rejected by the courts on various grounds; and
- 57521 cases involving 0.44 lakh acres of land are pending in various courts of the country.

Despite the fair rate of disposal, the other related issues are: (i) the time taken in disposal,

- (ii) the number of alienations for which STs found access to courts difficult, if not impossible and
- (iii) the physical possession of the land needs to be addressed comprehensively.

Rehabilitation and Resettlement

The government has recently approved the National Rehabilitation and Resettlement Policy 2007, with the following objectives:

- Minimize displacement and promote non-displacing or least-displacement alternatives
- Ensure adequate and expeditious rehabilitation with participation of the Project Affected Families (PAFs)— through an independent authority
- Create obligations on the State to protect the rights of weaker sections, particularly SCs and STs
- Provide a better standard of living with sustainable income
- Integrate rehabilitation concerns into development planning and implementation.

Infrastructure

Both the Fifth and Sixth Schedule Areas are considered backward, with poor infrastructure being a major handicap in improving the quality of life. The first proviso to Article 275(1) of the Constitution directs building infrastructure in such areas on par with that of the rest of the areas in the country by providing monies from the Consolidated Fund of India. Focused strategies for infrastructure development in sectors like education, drinking water, PDS, health, minor irrigation, roads, housing, tele-communications and electrification will be pursued.

Data-based Planning

The issues in tribal development are complex and often not understood very well. Each of the nearly 300 main tribal groups differs from each other in customs, practices, traditions, faith, and language. As such, uniformity in socio-economic development plans for all tribal groups and programmes is not appropriate. Vast quantities of data, generated at various geographical sites across the country, lie scattered, unanalyzed and unused. They need to be processed and stored meaningfully in a tribal data bank. The programmes and schedules of the 18 State Tribal Research institutes (TRIs) in the country demand coordination and synergy. The issues of scheduling and de-scheduling of communities have assumed national importance and need to be appraised rationally and dispassionately. All these point to the need at the Central level for a National Institute of Tribal Affairs (NITA) to deliberate on these matters as also on a whole range of other issues. NITA will serve as a think tank to the Ministry of Tribal Affairs.

Education and Literacy

The special commitment of the National Policy on Education, 1986 (revised in 1992) to improve the educational status of STs continues to be the major strength in launching special interventions and incentives to improve the accessibility for the tribals who live in the far-flung remote areas and remain isolated. Therefore, efforts for universalizing primary education continued, especially through the programme of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. One of the special features of this programme is the participation of ST parents/ guardians in the activities of schools, which ensures ownership of the programme, even by the most disadvantaged. The National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education or the Mid- Day Meals acts as a support service to increase retention rates.

In the field of higher and technical education, special provisions such as reservation of seats, relaxation in minimum qualifying cut-off percentages, remedial coaching and scholarships were being extended by the Department of Secondary and Higher Education. Similar concessions were also given to ST students for improving their skills in the up-coming/modern trades which have better employability.

HEALTH & FAMILY WELFARE:

The National Health Policy categorically emphasizes the urgent need for improving the tribal health especially through detection and treatment of endemic and other diseases specific to tribals. In pursuance of the Agency for each project; The Fifth Plan (1974-78) marked a shift in approach as reflected in the launching of the Tribal Sub-Plan (TSP) for the direct benefit of the development of tribals. The TSP stipulated that funds of the centre and the states should be quantified on the population proportion basis with budgetary mechanisms to ensure accountability, non-divert ability and utilization for the welfare and development of STs. The Sixth Plan (1980-85) sought to ensure a higher degree of devolution of funds so that at least 50 per cent of tribal families could be provided assistance to cross the poverty line. In the Seventh Plan (1985-90), there was substantial increase in the flow of funds for the development of STs resulting in the expansion of infrastructural facilities and enlargement of coverage. Emphasis was laid on the educational development of STs. For the economic development of STs, two national-level institutions were set up viz. (i) Tribal Cooperative Marketing Development Federation (TRIFED) in 1987 as an apex body for State Tribal Development Cooperative Corporations, and (ii) National Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Finance and Development Corporation (NSFDC) in 1989. The former was assigned to provide remunerative prices for the forest and agriculture produce of tribals, while the latter was intended to provide credit support for employment generation. In the Eighth Plan (1992-97), efforts were intensified to bridge the gap between the levels of development of STs and the other sections of the society. The Plan not only emphasized elimination of exploitation, but also paid attention to the special problems of suppression of rights, land alienation, non-payment of minimum wages and restrictions on the right to collect minor forest produce etc. -

PRESENT STATUS OF SCHEDULED TRIBES:

Due to the introduction of several programmes for the development of scheduled tribes in India the following achievements could be done. Major achievements are as follows:

Educational Status of STs. Between 1961 and 2001, the literacy rate of STs increased 5.32 times, while that of total population increased 2.69 times. However, the gap between the literacy rates of STs and of the general population continued during the three decades between 1971 and 2001 almost at the same level of 17.70% and above, but with marginal variations

Social Justice. The dropout rate is a critical indicator reflecting lack of educational development and inability of a given social group to complete a specific level of education. In the case of tribals, dropout rates are still very high—42.3% in Classes I to V; 65.9% in Classes I to VIII; and 79.0% in Classes I to X in 2004-05.

Occupational Category. 81.56% of the total ST workers, both rural and urban taken together, are engaged in the primary sector, of whom 44.71 % are cultivators and 36.85% are agricultural

laborers. The corresponding figures for all workers are 31.65% (cultivators) and 26.55% (agricultural labourers). This indicates that STs are essentially dependent on agriculture.

Availability of Basic Amenities and Infrastructure. Since most of the tribal habitations are located in isolated villages and hamlets in undulating plateau lands coinciding with forest areas, they have limited access to critical infrastructure facilities such as roads, communication, health, education, electricity, drinking water, and so on. This widens the gap between the quality of their life and the people in the country.

Human Development Index (HDI) and Human Poverty Index (HPI) for STS vis-a-vis non-STs. As per the UNDP India Report 2007 on Human Poverty and Socially Disadvantaged Groups in India the HDI for STs at the all-India level is estimated at 0.270, which is lower than the HDI of SCs and non-SC/ST for the period 1980-2000. The HPI for STs is estimated at 47.79, which was higher than SCs and non-SC/ST for the period 1990-2000.

Access to Income Earning Assets—Agricultural Land and Capital Assets. The STs are mainly landless poor forest dwellers and shifting cultivators, small farmers and pastoral and nomadic herders. The livelihood strategy would thus have to take into account the land structure, level of skills, socio-economic conditions, low level of HDI along with the physical infrastructure and natural resource base in the tribal areas.

Extent of Poverty. The incidence of poverty amongst STs still continues to be very high at 47.30% in rural areas and 33.30% in urban areas, compared to 28.30% and 25.70%, respectively in respect of total population in 2004-05. A large number of STs who are living below the poverty line are landless, with no productive assets and with no access to sustainable employment and minimum wages.

Approach in Eleventh Plan: A Paradigm Shift The Eleventh Plan will attempt a paradigm shift with respect to the overall empowerment of the tribal people, keeping the issues related to governance at the Centre. The operational imperatives of the Fifth Schedule, TSP 1976, PESA 1996, RFRA 2006; the desirability of a tribal-centric, tribal-participative and tribal-managed development process; and the need for a conscious departure from dependence on a largely under-effective official delivery system will be kept in view during this shift.

Self Governance

Article 243G of the constitution and PESA Act make it incumbent that State legislations endow power and authority on Panchayats in Scheduled Areas enabling them to function as institutions of self-governance, preparing and implementing schemes of economic development and social justice. The Act confers abundant powers on the four tiers—Gram Sabha, Gram Panchayat (extant since decades), Intermediate Panchayat (development block tier) and Zilla Panchayat (ZP, district tier) which need to be given effect in real operational terms. The vision of self-governance should be made functional forthwith in keeping with the spirit of PESA.

The Gram Sabha and the three other hierarchical Panchayats would require infrastructure, personnel, and financial resources to carry out their tasks. Apart from other sources, the State Finance

Commissions need to provide the necessary devolutions for Scheduled and Tribal Areas, as per Article 243(1) of the Constitution. The Ministry of Tribal Affairs should ensure direct flow of funds to the ZPs of the districts in these areas, which should apportion them on an equitable basis to the three lower Panchayat bodies for various programmes.

Educational Development

The following measures should be taken to accelerate the educational progress among the tribal population during the Eleventh Plan:

- In the deficit areas, the requisite number of primary schools needs to be established. Specific norms for middle schools and high schools for tribal areas will be evolved and deficiencies made up. All schools should have proper school buildings, hostels, water, toilet facilities (particularly for the girls' schools).
- Residential high schools for ST boys and girls will be set up at suitable places. At the Gram Panchayat level, ensuring girls' hostels will be attached to the existing primary/elementary schools that do not have hostels, wherever it is feasible to do so.
- Textbooks in tribal languages, especially at the primary level, will be produced to enable better comprehension by ST students in classes up to III. Side by side, adequate attention will be paid to the regional language so that children do not feel handicapped in higher classes.
- Efforts will be made to set up Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) in the TSP areas. Other training centres will include community polytechnics, and undertaking rural/community development activities in their proximity, through application of science and technology.
- Timely distribution of fellowships, scholarships, textbooks, uniforms and school bags to students.
- The ICDS/Anganwadi schemes for tribal areas will be evaluated and shortcomings eliminated.
- A larger number of special coaching classes will be organized and the concerned institutions will be Eleventh Five Year Plan suitably aided to enable ST students to compete in entry-level competitive examinations for professional courses.
- Adult education will be paid adequate attention.
- Steps will be taken to promote tribal languages, culture and heritage through adaptation of pedagogical methods, community participation in school management, and so on.
- There is a need to constitute a special committee composed of eminent sociologists, anthropologists, educationists, administrators, representatives of ST communities, and so on, to comprehensively assess the problems of ST education and make recommendations for implementation.

Health

Efforts will be made to make available affordable and accountable primary health care facilities to STs and bridge the yawning gap in rural health care services through a cadre of ASHA and sectoral convergence of all the related sectors. Periodic reviews will be conducted on the delivery system and functioning of the health care institutions under three broad heads to optimize service in the tribal areas: (i) health infrastructure, (ii) manpower and (iii) facilities like medicines and equipment. Action will be taken to make up the shortfall in the different categories of health institutions, liberalization of norms, addressing infrastructural deficiencies, application of quality standards and revitalization of Health Care Systems, PHCs and CHCs.

Tribal—Forest Interface

To enable the tribal primary producers, collectors and consumers to enter into transactions with primary cooperatives, the monopoly of corporations in certain items procured by them through contractors and middlemen will be replaced by alternative market mechanisms like minimum price support with institutional backing. It will be incumbent on the national-level organizations like TRIFED and NAFED to play their due role in marketing of the tribal MFP. Technological support for value addition will be extended to the corporations as well as other institutional and private processors. Skills like culling, barking, tapping of gums, storage of sal seeds and preparation of tamarind extracts, need to be upgraded through ITIs, TRIFED, NSTDFC and other training organizations.

As visualized under the National Forest Policy (NFP) Resolution (1988), tribal association with forestry will be maximized through tribal cooperatives and SHGs of tribal women. Specific schemes for quality improvement, higher productivity and regeneration of MFP species will be implemented to facilitate sustainability of this source of tribal livelihood. No outside labour will be engaged where tribal labour is available. Interdisciplinary scientific studies to develop feasible agronomic strategies to make shifting cultivation ecologically compatible and economically viable will be undertaken.

Amongst the tribals, PTGs and the nomadic groups are passing through the most fragile health conditions, when compared to the others. Therefore, a new Scheme called 'Medical care for Remote and Marginalized and Nomadic Communities' were launched during the Ninth Five Year Plan with an approved outlay of Rs.5 crone. Under this Scheme, the following projects were taken up towards - i) Prevention and control of Hepatitis 'B' infection amongst the PTGs of Andaman & Nicobar Islands; ii) Intervention for hereditary common hemolytic disorders amongst tribals of Sundergarh district in Orissa; iii) Intervention programme for Cholera and Parasitism, Vitamin 'A' deficiency disorders among some PTGs of Orissa; and iv) Intervention programme for Nutritional Anemia and Haemoglobinopathies amongst primitive tribal population, For the exclusive benefit of the backward tribal dominant districts of Orissa viz. Kalahandi,

Labour and Employment

The Ministry of Labour implements special training programmes for upgradation of skills of STs, besides improving the working conditions of ST workers. The Scheme of 'Coaching-cum-Guidance Centres for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes' implemented through 22 Coaching-cum-Guidance Centres spread all over the country takes care of the special needs of educated ST Job seekers. Of these, 13 Centres provide facilities for training in shorthand and • typewriting. These Centres provide occupational information as well as individual guidance and conduct confidence building programmes for the benefit of the ST job seekers. The applicants are provided guidance at the time of their registration with the Employment Exchanges and also when they are sponsored against notified vacancies. The Centres also keep a follow up with the employers for placement against vacancies reserved for ST candidates.

To facilitate recruitment of STs against reserved vacancies in various Central Government Ministries/Departments, another scheme viz. 'Special Coaching Scheme' was implemented for ST job seekers registered with the employment exchanges to enable them to appear in Competitive Examinations/Selection Tests conducted for recruitment in Group C and equivalent posts

Women and Child Development

The National Nutrition Policy, 1993 recognizes the problem of malnutrition and 'ender nutrition prevalent amongst tribal women and children and strongly advocates the need for controlling the same. In pursuance of the commitments of the Policy, the Department of Women and Child Development through its nationwide programme of Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) continued to provide the much needed nutritional and health inputs/services for the benefit of tribal children, adolescent girls and expectant and nursing mothers living in the remote tribal areas with relaxed norms.

Implementation of TSP and SCA to TSP

The Tribal Sub-Plan (TSP) for STs and the Special Central Assistance (SCA) to TSP launched during the early 1970s, have proved to be the most effective strategies to ensure the additional flow of population-proportionate funds for STs from the other general development sectors. According to the information available, earmarking of funds under TSP is being followed by 25 Ministries/Departments at the Centre, while at state level only 20 States/UTs are adhering to this (no information is available in respect of the 3 new states viz., Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand and Uttaranchal). The Tribal Sub-Plan strategy has been in effective operation in the country through 194 Integrated Tribal Development Projects, 259 pockets of tribal concentration (Modified Area Development Approach — MADA), 82 clusters and the Projects for 75 PTGs.

SCA to TSP is beic'g extended as an additive to strengthen the efforts of the states by filling the critical gaps under the family-based income generation projects, catering to those living below poverty line. As the strategies of TSP for STs and SCP for SCs and SCA to TSP and SCP

have been developed and are being implemented with a common philosophy, issues related thereto also happen to be more or less the same in nature. Therefore, issues and concerns that came up in answer to the enquiry made into the question - as to why earmarking of funds under TSP by the Central Ministries/Departments and by states/ UTs was not up to the expected level.

Grant-in-Aid under Article 275(1) of the Constitution

Under the Article 275(1) of the Constitution, Grant-in-Aid (GIA) from the Consolidated Fund of India is extended annually to various State Governments having ST population. The major objective of the scheme is to raise the level of administration in the Scheduled Areas to that of the rest of the State, besides promoting the welfare of the STs living therein. The scheme covers all the TSP areas and also four tribal majority states in the country. Grants to the extent of 100 per cent are released by the nodal Ministry of Tribal Affairs under the central sector scheme. Against the earlier practice of releasing lump sum funds to individual states, from 2001-02, releases are being made against specific developmental works/ projects identified by State Governments. However, one of the major constraints in the implementation of this programme is that the State Governments do not release funds in time.

5.7 Problems and limitations in the implementation of Tribal Development Projects/ programmes

Tribal communities continue to be vulnerable even today, not because they are poor, assetless and illiterate compared to the general population; but often their distinct vulnerability arises from their inability to negotiate and cope with the consequences of their integration with the mainstream economy, society, cultural and political systems, from all of which they were historically protected by their relative isolation. The requirements of planned development brought with them the dams, mines, industries and roads, all located on tribal lands. With these came the concomitant processes of displacement followed by a conflict between development and protection of tribal rights and interests. Tribal institutions and practices were forced into uneasy co-existence, which paved the way to market or formal State institutions. Also, the tribals found themselves at a great disadvantage in the face of an influx of better equipped outsiders into tribal areas. The repercussions for the already fragile socio-economic sustenance base of the tribals were devastating - ranging from the loss of livelihoods and land alienation on a vast scale to hereditary bondage.

For the period of over 50 years, the planning process in India has failed to narrow the disparity between the tribal and non-tribal populations, which according to Andre Gunder Frand (1969) has rather accentuated the dominant relationship and reinforced the unequal exchange between super- and subordinate groups. Such inequality is persistent in the realms of social and economic life. The school attendance rate (5-14 age groups) among the tribes is quite low in comparison to others. It is worth noting here that the upward trend in school attendance among the tribes was reportedly higher during the days before or in the initial stages of economic reform (1988-94) as compared with that in the advanced stage (1994-2000). The tribes have the second-largest share of landless people (7 per cent) among them, after Scheduled Castes (10 per cent) in 1999-2000 (it is 7 per cent among

OBCs and 6 per cent among other non-tribal population). The large landholdings (more than 4 hectares) are owned mostly by non-tribals (7 per cent), compared with the Scheduled Tribes (3 per cent) and the Scheduled Castes (1 per cent). Interestingly, the tribes have less chronically unemployed persons than the non-tribals in both rural and urban areas, but their MPCE (Monthly Per Capita Expenditure) is quite low, even worse than that of the Scheduled Caste populations. In rural India, the MPCE of tribes is Rs. 387.69 compared with Rs. 481.51 for the SCs, Rs. 473.65 for the OBCs and Rs. 577.22 for 'others'. Such inequality also prevails in many other realms of life, though it differs from state to state and even among the tribes themselves.

Experts have cautioned that mainstream statistics are not a representative reflection of the reality of tribal society. They further suggest dealing with tribals separately, rather than combining them with the statistics of the non-tribals (Murthi et al. 1998:385). According to the latest NSSO survey (55th round in 2000), the highest tribal illiteracy is recorded in Andhra Pradesh, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh, followed by Karnataka, West Bengal and Rajasthan. Rural Rajasthan has a higher concentration of female illiteracy. Himachal Pradesh has a more even distribution of higher education (graduation and above) among males and females in both rural urban areas than Kerala, Nagaland and Uttar Pradesh. As the tribals grapple with these tragic consequences, a small clutch of bureaucratic programmes could do little to resist the precipitous pauperisation, exploitation and disintegration of tribal communities. As a result of this, the tribals continue to suffer and bear with a number of 'Unresolved Issues' and 'Persisting Problems', which require immediate attention of the Government. The following paragraphs explain the seriousness of some of the Unresolved Issues and Persisting Problems:

i. Displacement of Tribals

Displacement or forced/voluntary eviction of tribals from their land and their natural habitats and subsequent rehabilitation has been a serious problem that remains to be addressed by the Government. As per the information available, populations of 21.3 million have been displaced between 1951 and 1990 in the states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Orissa. Of whom, 8.54 million (40 per cent) are tribals and of those only 2.12 million (24.8 per cent) tribals could be resettled, so far. Displacement took place mainly on account of development projects, which include—large irrigation dams, hydro-electric projects, opencast and underground coal mines, super-thermal power plants and mineral-based industrial units. In large mining projects, tribals lose their land not only to the project authorities, but even to non-tribal outsiders who converge into these areas and corner both land and the new economic opportunities in commerce and petty industry. The incomplete rehabilitation of the displaced tribals has further compounded their woes as they are pushed into a vortex of increasing assetlessness, unemployment, debt bondage and destitution. Women and children as ever are the worst affected.

ii. Tribal Land Alienation

Land is not only the most important productive resource base for the tribals, but also occupies an important place in their psyche as the mainstay of their social and religious practices. Over a period of time, this resource base of the tribal communities has tended to get eroded not only through acquisition

for public purposes but also through fraudulent transfers, forcible eviction, mortgages, leases and encroachments. As per the information available with the Ministry of Rural Development, as many as 4.65 lakh cases of alienation of tribal land covering an area of 9.17 lakh acres were registered in the states of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan and Tripura in January 1999. Against this, only 2 lakh cases were disposed of in favour of 1.56 lakh tribal families covering an area of 5.31 lakh acres. Of these, the states affected by largescale tribal land alienation include Andhra Pradesh (2.79 lakh acres), Madhya Pradesh (1.58 lakh acres), Karnataka (1.30 lakh acres), and Gujarat (1.16 lakh acres). Various studies have pointed out that the lack of political and administrative will continues to be the cause for perpetuation of the problem of land alienation amongst the tribals as reflected in the reluctance to amend legal provisions and plug the existing loopholes and swift administrative action to identify alienated land, and restoring it to the tribals with delivery of possession.

iii. Indebtedness

The problem of indebtedness amongst tribals is not only an indication of their poverty but also reflects the wider economic malaise, i.e., lack of education, low purchasing/bargaining power and lack of resources for engaging in gainful activity and meeting emergent expenditure. Therefore, the problem continues to persist with increasing menace as the indebtedness pushes the tribals further into extreme conditions of poverty and forces them to dispense with their meager resources, including the small bits and pieces of land to pay off the loans at exorbitant rates of interest. The initiation of commercial vending of liquor in tribal areas has started impoverishing the tribal population, making them victims of indebtedness and exploitation. Under the Fifth Schedule to the Constitution, the Governors of states with Scheduled Areas were given powers for making regulations and for placing restrictions on money lending activities in the Scheduled Areas. Relevant Laws/Regulations exist in 16 TSP states/UTs to regulate the business of money lending and to give debt-relief. However the legal measures to curb the activities of money lenders and traders have failed to have much impact on the severity of the problem due to the ineffective enforcement machinery and lack of alternative sources of credit for meeting the tribals' consumption and productive needs. Lack of a sound policy to support consumption credit to tribals has tended to make them dependent on usurious money-lenders, resulting in debt-bondage. The problem of tribal indebtedness often gets aggravated and compounded with the government subsidy-cum loan schemes which further lead the tribals into deep indebtedness.

iv. Shifting Cultivation

Shifting Cultivation, which is not ecologically sound, is still being practiced by the tribals living on the higher slopes of hilly areas of the country. As estimated, more than 6 lakh tribal families in the North Eastern states, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh practice shifting cultivation on a continuous basis. This shifting cultivation is integrally linked to the tribal economy in the areas where it is practiced and their social and economic activities and rituals are also centered on this practice. The problem of shifting cultivation is a very complex one, involving economic, social and psychological aspects of the tribal communities. Although shifting cultivation is one of the prime sources of living for the tribals, yet the same has been severely restricted. The

Ministry of Agriculture has been implementing a scheme for control and transformation of Shifting Cultivation in the North Eastern states, but the pace of its implementation has been very slow.

v. Deprivation of Forest Rights

Forests and Tribals share a symbiotic relationship. Tribals continue to live in forest areas, though in isolation, yet in harmony with environment. Recognizing this dependency, the National Forest Policy, 1988, stipulated that all agencies responsible for forest management should ensure that the tribal people are closely associated with the regeneration, plantation, development and harvesting of forests so as to provide them gainful employment. Despite these special safeguards, tribals continue to struggle for mere survival as they face formidable problems and displacement due to development of national parks and wild-life sanctuaries and other environmental restoration projects, lack of development in forest villages etc. The protection of rights of tribals in forests is key to the amelioration of their conditions.

vi. Low Literacy and High Drop-out Rates

Despite the programme of Universalisation of Primary Education, which has been in effective operation since 1986, the literacy rate of STs remained as low as 29.6 per cent, while the general literacy rate reached 52.2 per cent in 1991. Similarly, the female literacy rate of STs stood at 18.2 per cent which is also much lower in comparison with 39.3 per cent in respect of general category. 2002-07 data reveals, there are tribal districts like Koraput in Orissa where the literacy rate of STs is as low as 8.9 per cent, while there are districts like Aizawl in Mizoram with as high as 88.8 per cent. Similarly, there are districts like Jalor in Rajasthan with as low as 0.6 per cent of ST female literacy rate, while Aizawl in Mizoram has female literacy rate as high as 85.7 per cent. Further, the gap between the general population and that of STs was also found to have widened from 19.9 per cent to 22.6 per cent between 1981 and 1991. Adding to this are the problems of intra and inter-state/district and intercommunity variations in the literacy rates of STs. Although, the drop-out rates have been showing a declining trend amongst STs in Classes I to VIII from 78.6 per cent in 1990-91 to 72.8 per cent in 1998-99, yet the same is still very high, when compared to 60.9 per cent and 56.82 per cent of general categories, respectively for the same years indicating a gap of 17.7 and 16.6 per cent.

Vii Inadequate and Inaccessible Health Services

Although the National Health Policy 1983 accords high priority to extending organized services to those residing in the tribal, hilly and backward areas as well as to the detection and treatment of endemic diseases affecting tribals, yet the tribals continue to be one of the fragile population, mainly due to their poor health and nutritional status. Tribal health is one of the important areas for action in the health sector. The major contributors to the increased disease risk amongst tribal communities include - i) poverty and consequent under-nutrition; ii) poor environmental sanitation, poor hygiene and lack of safe drinking water leading to increased morbidity from water and vector-borne infections; iii) lack of access to health care facilities resulting in the increased severity and duration of illnesses; iv) social

barriers and taboos preventing utilization of available health care services; v) vulnerability to specific diseases like G-6 PD deficiency, Yaws, and other endemic diseases like malaria etc. Also, the tribal population, being heterogeneous, there are wide variations in their health status, access to and utilization of health services.

Viii Nutritional Deficiencies and Diseases

Malnutrition is fairly common amongst the tribals, especially their children and women, debilitating their physical condition and lowering their resistance to disease, leading at times even to permanent brain impairment. As most tribal women suffer from anemia which lowers resistance to fatigue, this affects their working capacity and increases susceptibility to disease particularly for those having closely-spaced frequent pregnancies. The nutritional status of tribal women directly influences their reproductive performances and the birth weight of their children, which is crucial to the infant's chances of survival, growth and development. Almost all the tribals in the country do not have a satisfactory dietary pattern as their diets are frequently deficient in calcium, Vitamin A, Vitamin C, Riboflavin and animal protein. The tribals are thus caught in a vicious cycle of malnutrition and ill-health.

Ix Lack of Adequate Irrigation Facilities

Tribals in India primarily depend upon agriculture for their subsistence and generally live in most inhospitable terrain and practise shifting cultivation on higher slopes and dry-land cultivation in plains and lower slopes where productivity and output are very low. Lack of proper irrigation facilities, decline in soil fertility, and risks and uncertainties involving damages caused by the wild animals, pests, cyclones, droughts etc. have further deteriorated the agricultural yield. The growing tribal population and the declining agricultural productivity have become a serious threat to the subsistence base of the tribal communities, endangering their self-supporting food security system.

x. Extreme/Abject Poverty

The impact of various poverty alleviation programmes put into action during the last two developmental decades has, no doubt, brought down the poverty levels among STs from 51.94 per cent in 1993-94 to 45.86 per cent in 1999-2000 in rural areas and from 41.14 per cent to 34.75 per cent in urban areas over the same period. But, it is much higher when compared to 27.09 per cent in rural and 23.62 per cent in urban areas in respect of general categories during 1999-2000. Therefore, there has been an increasing unrest amongst the tribals and also in tribal areas in the recent past. Radical/Extremist movements are already operating in some parts of the country; the root cause for all these is the perceived dissatisfaction with the existing conditions and failure to receive benefits and facilities promised to them. Therefore, there is an urgent need to critically review the approach adopted so far for tribal protection and development, and reorient the same, wherever needed, so as to ensure flow of development benefits within a definite time-frame and restore the faith of the tribals in the capability of the government to deliver.

Xi Endangering of Intellectual Rights

Having lived closely with forests and also interacting constantly with various flora and fauna, the tribals have developed invaluable indigenous knowledge. This indigenous knowledge amongst the tribal communities is passed on from generation to generation through the medium of oral tradition, folklore and practice, which find a place in various life-cycle events including treatment of diseases/ ailments, without any codified text or rights to accredit their legitimate ownership. As tribal communities have a very close dependence on biological resources, their livelihood and life-style often depend upon and are shaped by these resources. Therefore, their survival and sustenance is closely linked to conservation and utilization of these resources. Corporate protectionism in terms of patents and Intellectual Property Rights arising out of various international treaties/instruments on trade and common property resources such as the Trade Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) under the World Trade Organization (WTO) represents a real threat to economic livelihood of these communities. They are also a source of potential exploitation of the tribal resource base as bio-diversity expressed in life forms and knowledge is sought to be converted into private property and treated as an open access system for free exploitation by those who want to privatize and patent it. There is an urgent need to provide appropriate legal and institutional arrangements for recognizing and acknowledging the rights of tribal communities to such resources and knowledge.

Xii Neglect of Forest Villages

As the 5,000 identified Forest Villages are located in the remote interiors, and are declared revenue villages, the 2.5 lakh families who inhabit these villages are deprived of even the basic minimum services available to residents of Revenue Villages. While the forest resource base, on which inhabitants traditionally depended, is fast eroding and adversely affecting the very survival of the tribals, alternative sources of income extended through the implementation of various social forestry activities by the Department of Forests are also not ensured throughout the year. Some of the major problems faced by the Forest Villages include lack of infrastructure facilities viz. approach roads, electricity, drinking water, schools, hospitals, and irrigation tanks; lack of fair price/food-grain shops; lack of stable land tenure system; and lack of proper credit facilities and ban loans as the villagers do not have the papers related to the land which are necessary in getting the loans sanctioned. This is due to the fact that the land has the status of Reserved Forests attracting the Indian Forest Act, 1927 and especially the Forest (Conservation) Act, 1980; and the departmental rivalry between the Forest and Revenue Departments resulting in the exploitation and negligence of Forest Villages.

xiii Extinction of Primitive Tribal Groups

The Government of India identified 75 tribal communities as Primitive Tribal Groups (PTGs) with a total estimated population of 1.32 million in 1991 spread over 15 States/UTs. There is a marked difference between the conditions of the relatively advanced tribal groups and the PTGs. As they live in the most interior and inaccessible forests, they are subjected to extreme

backwardness, when compared to the other tribals. A decline in their sustenance base and the resultant food insecurity, malnutrition and ill-health force them to live in the most fragile living conditions and some of them are even under the threat of getting extinct. Prominent examples in this context are the Bay-Islanders like the GreatAndamanese, Shompens, Jarawas, Sentinelese of the Andaman & Nicobar Islands. Even some of the mainland groups which can be cited in this context like the Bondos of Orissa, Cholanaickans of Kerala, the Abujmarias of Chhattisgarh, and the Birhors of Jharkhand are also dwindling. As adequate information on the demographic, educational, health and economic aspects of individual primitive tribes is not available, immediate steps need to be taken for building up a comprehensive information/data base on PTGs and wherever necessary to conduct intensive studies and prepare detailed Status Reports. This should eventually form the basis for need-based planning to improve their conditions.

Xiv Ineffective Implementation of PESA, 1996

There is no doubt that the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments of 1993 followed by their extension to Scheduled Areas through the Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) PESA Act, 1996, are landmark achievements in conferring powers and authority to the Panchayats and Gram Sabhas. But, unfortunately, the same are not being enforced in the right spirit, as the PRIs are yet to stabilize on a firm footing. The State Governments should, therefore, take appropriate measures immediately to translate the legislation into reality so that tribals will have full say in their own affairs.

xv. Routinised Mechanism of TSP

The special strategy of Tribal Sub-Plan (TSP) has been under implementation since 1975 both at the central and state levels with the objective of ensuring that the benefits from various developmental sectors do not by-pass STs and accordingly funds, in population proportion, are earmarked for the development of STs.

5.8 Summary

The scenario of tribal development calls for a major shift towards entrusting, enabling and empowering the tribal people to look after their own welfare and address issues of development through their own initiative. The extant constitutional-cum-legal-cum-policy framework has been enormously strengthened by the enactment of the Provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996 (PESA), a charter of autonomous tribal governance, embodying rights in favour of tribal communities coupled with respect for their ethos.. The Fifth Schedule needs to be urgently operationalized. The Tribes Advisory Council (TAC) needs to be made proactive, functioning as an advisory body to the State Government in matters relating to STs. Second, it should function as a tier in between the Zilla Parishads in Scheduled Areas and the State Government. Its jurisdiction should be expanded to cover all matters relating to tribes people, and not limited, as of now, to those which are referred to it by the Governor. The Ministry of Tribal Affairs is required to ensure regular and meaningful annual reports for the Governor as per Para 3 of the Schedule. The Ministry should also examine the feasibility of insertion in the Fifth Schedule of a suitable provision to the effect that discretionary

power may be exercised by the Governor on the advice of TAC. Lastly, the Scheduled Areas and Tribal Sub Plan areas should be made co-terminus, enabling protective and legal measures to be available in all TSP areas. To the extent possible, demarcation of Scheduled Areas should be notified down to the village level and other settlements. The government officials and NGOs should also take an active part in the implementation of tribal development programmes. //

5.9 Key Words

t.

- 1 TSP
2. Displacement

5.10 Self Assessment Questions

1. Explain the Constitutional provisions and programmes for the development of Scheduled Tribes in India
2. Discuss the major problems in the implementation of tribal development programmes in India.

5.11 Reference Books

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LESSON – 6

DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN

Contents :

- 6.1. Introduction.
- 6.2. ORIGIN OF SHGS
- 6.3. DWCRA
- 6.4. Expenditure Under Eighth Plan
- 6.5. DWCRA in Andhra Pradesh
- 6.6. Summary
- 6.7. Key Words
- 6.8. Self Assessment Questions
- 6.9. Reference Books

6.1 INTRODUCTION:

Most women workers in India are engaged in agriculture, where livelihood is insecure and wages are low. There also exists a significant gender gap in terms of wages. Women's unpaid work is "invisible" and unrecognized both socially and in the national accounting schemes. Recognizing that women can leverage their strength, increase bargaining power and enhance capacities and skills through joint action, the government has approved to organize women into groups and channelized the resources to these groups. These days with the support of government, women self help groups (SHG) are implementing a large number of developmental initiatives, including watershed development, social forestry and employment-oriented activities. Women in the villages are mostly becoming aware of the micro credit savings with the help of NGO'S.

Agriculture is the major occupation in India. Most of the women workers in India particularly in rural areas are engaged in agriculture, where livelihood is insecure and wages are low. Several studies, conducted in India have also shown that women perform 60-90 percent of agricultural jobs such as transplanting, weeding, harvesting and post harvest activities (IRRI, 1983; panicker, 1983; Hobbs et al, 1992, Panda, 1994). Apart from this women in rural areas spend lot of time in handloom weaving, trading in certain commodities, animal husbandry etc., for minimum wages. In general, women's working time is longer than men but there exists a significant gender gap in terms of wages. A financial reason, especially the economic pressure, is the major factor to draw women into the working force. The working women with medium number of children, a large number of dependents and lesser number of dependents and lesser number of earners were mostly working on account of dire economic needs (Joshi, 2004). Moreover, women's unpaid work is "invisible" and unrecognized in the family. They are the pivot point around which family life revolves. They perform multi roles like housekeeping, child rearing etc. To a large

extent the welfare of the family depends on the productive and supportive task of women. It is therefore necessary that women must enjoy a good quality of life.

Since independence a sort of awakening arose in India through women's movements and social organizations for the betterment of women. The welfare state of women in written or unwritten forms is found both in social legislations and social reforms. More over today the developing capitalist economy with growing global linkages, fast expanding market forces and the introduction and influence of technology in many spheres of rural India have, to an extent, brought about certain changes in the traditional values and social practices particularly for women. In spite of that there is no substantial achievement in practice excepting ideology consciousness. In real, women's emancipation can be achieved only when they are given enough opportunities and ability in gainful economic activity in all walks of life.

Recognizing that women can leverage their strength, increase bargaining power and enhance capacities and skills through joint action, the government has approved to organize women into groups (self help groups) and channelized the resource to these groups. These days with the support of government, women self help groups (SHG) are implementing a large number of developmental initiatives.

6.2 Origin of SHGs

The origin of SHGs is from the example of the Grameen Bank of Bangladesh which was found by Prof. Mohammed Youngs of Chittagong University in the year 1975. This was exclusively established for the poor. "If women are given power there must be a reformation in the society" The self help organizations are functioning with this motto. The first SHG was started in 1992 in Tamil Nadu.

An SHG is small economically homogeneous affinity group of the rural poor voluntarily coming together to save small amounts regularly which are deposited in a common fund to meet their emergency needs and to provide collateral free loans with terms decided by the group at market driven rates. SHGs or micro credit groups have been recognized as useful tools to help poor access to financial resource not available to them previously and help them break through the stronghold of exploitative moneylenders.

"Co-operation" has been accepted as an important medium of regeneration of the country's socio economic life. Rural development through co-operatives facilities, regional development of the areas neglected so far by the urban capitalists and industrialists and at the same time co- operatives also reduce disparities in income and employment because the result gains are not pocketed by a few, shared by a large number of people. It is only when the benefits accrued are shared by all, that we can

expect the total involvement of the people and mass participation in the process of development activities.

To improve the living standards of masses, several schemes have been devised and programmes were attempted by the planners. Few schemes and programmes attract the involvement of the beneficiaries. This is the main reason that many of the schemes fail to achieve their benchmark level objectives. To overcome these difficulties a new scheme has been devised and is being tried by our policy makers. This is the starting of Self Help Groups (SHGs), both at the rural and urban centers with active participation of the targeted beneficiaries.

It is argued that the formation of SHGS in the rural areas have created awareness among women about social issues and emboldened them to take up their issues with the authorities. The SHGS have also instilled confidence among women to work for their economic emancipation. Therefore, it could be said that the concept of SHGS has sown the seeds of a silent revolution at the villages level.

The scheme inspires women to shed their weakness and to join the mainstream by liberating villagers from the clutches of moneylenders. It has been instrumental in assimilation and dissemination of knowledge about health, nutrition, women's rights, childcare, education and adoption of new agricultural techniques etc.... It has paved the way for increased participation of women in decision making in households, community and in the local bodies. Besides helping to prepare women to take up leadership responsibilities, SHGs also are involved in savings and credit activities. As such formation of SHGS is believed to improve the economic conditions of the poor and create awareness among women about their rights, their role in household decisions making their potential leadership qualities.

6.3 DWCRA :

Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) program was launched in 1982, as part of the Integrated Rural Development program (IRDP). Its aim was to empower rural women living below the poverty line (BPL) by way of organizing them to create sustainable income generating activities through self-employment. It was the first program of its kind that specifically focused on improving the quality of life of rural women. A unique feature of DWCRA unlike other IRDP components, was that along with the improvement in income, it also focused on access to health, education, safe drinking water, sanitation, nutrition, etc. Thus it not only aimed at economic development, but also intended promoting social development. Another unique feature of the program was that it emphasized group activity. It was thought that in the long run women's empowerment depends on creation of a movement that promotes awareness and self-reliance.

OBJECTIVES OF THE DWCRA :

1. "To strengthen the economic base for rural women by providing them credit and subsidies.
2. To provide support services to enhance women productive skills and efficiencies and also to mitigate their drudgery in their multiple responsibilities.
3. To enhance their bargaining power and decision making abilities through collectivization.
4. To train them in productive skills and group dynamics.
5. To orient the development functionaries to respond positively to the needs and Constraints of poor women."

CHARACTERISTICS OF SHGS :

- * Small size
- * Identification interest/ social heritage/ common occupation, homogeneity.
- * Intimate knowledge of members, intrinsic strength, needs and responsive
- * Democracy in operation

Simple documentation""Group solidarity, self awareness, social, economic unit's empowerment.

SERVICES :

- * Eradicating poverty in rural areas Empower grass root level people's organizations
- * Mobilize self-help groups of poor women
- * Co-ordination of voluntary efforts in poverty eradication Ameliorate deterioration of natural resources and enable common property resource
- * Management by stakeholders. Developing skills in rural communities to handle self-employment programmes and microenterprises
- * Enabling technology to be accessible to rural areas
- * Narrowing down gap between urban-rural Sectors and achieve a urban-rural communities.

BENEFITS :

- * Development of savings habit among the poor
- * An access for better technology/ skill production, credit at the door step
- * A window for better technology/ skill upgradation Availability of emergent, consumption/ production, credit at the door step.
- * Access to various promotional assistance Assurance of freedom, equality, self-reliance.

IMPACT OF DWCRA

1. DWCRA had a direct and significant impact on employment and group activities. The biggest achievement of DWCRA was that it raised desire for self-employment among poor rural women and encouraged them to work in groups. 92.5% beneficiaries reported that DWCRA has created a desire for self-employment. 88.8% beneficiaries feel that DWCRA has raised their income. This may not immediately translate into income figures but in the long run it has a great transformative potential.
2. DWCRA had a visible impact on savings, economic conditions, and social prestige
3. DWCRA had less impact on health and sanitation, and drinking water, which are more of community services. It had no impact on schooling of children, as the demand for schooling was already very high.

SUCCESS OF DWCRA GROUPS DEPENDS ON :

1. Groups of women in poverty with a purpose.
2. Savings as an entry point for the members to get together.
3. Democratically managed and collective decision making groups.
4. Least dependence on external marketing support.

REGIONAL VARIATIONS

1. There were significant regional variations in the implementation of DWCRA, number of groups formed per 1000 population, continuation of activity and impact on different indicators.
2. Union Territories have performed better than the large States.
3. According to their overall performance, the major States could be ranked (from best to worst) as follows: Nagaland, Arunachal Pradesh, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh, Assam, West Bengal, Mizoram, Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Tripura, Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Gujarat, Uttar Pradesh and Haryana. However, it must be noted that the States ranked quite differently on indicators of performance, such as awareness among the target women, motivation to form income-generating groups, functioning of the scheme and the perceptions of impact by beneficiaries, group leaders, and Village Pradhans. Some States had done better in one respect while others in other respect.

ISSUES OF STRATEGIC IMPORTANCE

The most salient factors behind the success of a program like DWCRA where greater thrust has to be placed are :

- * Strong and sustained political will; it has to be accepted that in programs for the development of the poor women, progress would be slow, and only strong political commitment and sustained efforts could yield results. Here it should be noted that the Andhra Pradesh model for DWCRA has emerged very successfully.
- * Greater participation of the women in project selection: Specific projects must be chosen keeping in view skills and experience of women, infrastructure and local conditions. Economic activities geared to the demands of micro market have a better chance of success than those geared to demands of urban market. However, in certain cases if the activities are linked to handicraft and village industries, which provide the basic inputs and training to women and help them in marketing the produce, then it can also sustain activities.
- * Greater success can be expected when women take up the activities traditionally done in the family and in which men's support is available.
- * **Marketing support** : DWCRA bazaars and melas have contributed greatly towards demonstration and display of entrepreneurial skills and promoting sales of DWCRA products.
- * Focus on savings and internal loaning, promotion of the idea of self-help groups, linking them to problem solving at the village level, skill upgradation, technical inputs and multiple interventions.
- * Success has created a great demand for DWCRA activities in several regions. The old and new DWCRA groups require financial and technical help which should come timely from the government and NGOs. In the absence of such help, the program can boomerang and lead to general discontentment. At this level promotion of the idea of self-help group and their networking could sustain the movement and reduce the burden on government.
- * Adequate staffing at the village level : the staff at the block level was adequate but the staff at the village level was short. Thus the block official responsible for DWCRA had to look after the problems of several groups, and also attend to other tasks such as organizing melas, preparing reports, etc. There is a need to improve staffing at the village level.

At the end, it can be concluded that for the success of the DWCRA like programs:

1. There has to be a greater emphasis on participatory model, rather than the top down approach that was adopted.
2. The identification of beneficiaries should be left to Gram Panchayats.
3. Schemes should be made to achieve impact and not merely meet targets.
4. The model of micro lending through self help groups is a superior model, wherein the groups get time to evolve over a period of time.

5. Project selection should involve groups, NGOs as well as bankers. Groups should be taking projects with adequate forward and backward linkages, avoiding over crowding of projects in an area.
6. Capacity building of NGOs should be taken up at large scale.

DWCRA Groups

Groups formed under DWCRA:

These groups are functioning well in several cases and fulfilling the roles assigned to them; but they have several constraints in becoming SHGs, for example :

* In many cases women in DWCRA groups have to conform to eligibility criteria; they are brought together from several neighbouring hamlets or villages, there is no common underlying bond of affinity on which trust can be built, selection through political patronage results in similar group configurations.

*There is a strong, and at times almost exclusive, focus on a common economic activity. Those groups which are described as functioning are those which are engaged in an economic activity; the most common feature of a functioning group is a common activity in which all the members are engaged, though at times in various segments of the production process. Those groups which are functioning usually produce a product which is purchased by the Government; where this is not the case, marketing is a major problem leaving goods unsold, with members losing confidence. In very few cases is the group taking the initiative to tap the open market. In general, self help and self reliance is not the guiding culture of these groups;

* There is no initiative to foster regular savings, lending and repayments; this exercise helps to build a degree of confidence and self help and to acquire the skills to priorities and monitor. There is no provision for regular meetings to discuss issues besides the main economic activity and to acquire the skills necessary to build and manage an institution which is identifiable and wins the respect of others in society.

* Many women leave the DWCRA group due to several reasons, many of them personal : no one, however, is asked to leave the group because she is not abiding by its norms and culture; in a word, there are no effective sanctions operating within the group. In general, the groups have not developed a culture of their own; those norms that guide the group derive from and are limited to an activity, and are imposed from without. The question raised repeatedly is whether a DWCRA group can become a SHG. It can, provided the DWCRA group which has normally around 20 members is based on affinity, and is willing to discuss common problems, to find solutions, to encourage regular savings, to provide loans and to ensure repayments. Further each member must be free to borrow according to her individual needs whether they are consumption, trading or asset creation. Unfortunately several of the DWCRA groups have already taken loans and most have failed to repay. In such cases, if they are

affinity groups, the NGO involved could turn them around, but it will take considerable time and effort. If they are less than 20 members in the group, Banks will be willing to extend a line of credit to groups that are functioning like genuine SHGS. If they are not genuine SHGs or have been formed on the basis of political patronage or merely to serve as channels for benefits which have really gone to others, then it is suggested that they be left alone; attempting to revive such groups or to make them into SHGS will be futile.

6.4 EXPENDITURE UNDER EIGHTH PLAN

Since the inception of the scheme till 1996-97, 1, 87, 918 DWCRA groups were formed at an expenditure of Rs.248 95 crore, covering 30, 39,383 rural women.

It was in the Eighth Plan that DWCRA received a fillip with the Government taking several initiatives to strengthen the programme. These include, among others, extending its coverage to all the districts of the country, increasing the revolving fund from Rs. 15, 000 to Rs.25, 000, permitting the formation of smaller DWCRA groups in difficult terrain and remote areas, and permitting operation of joint accounts by the group organiser and another member of the group elected as treasurer of the group rather than the Gram Sevikas and the group organiser, so as to facilitate the DWCRA groups in managing their own affairs.

The Child Care Activities (CCA) component was introduced in the DWCRA programme in 1995-96 with the objective of providing child care services for the children of DWCRA women. Similarly the Information, Education and Communication (IEC) component was introduced to generate awareness among rural women about the development programmes being implemented for their upliftment and welfare. The Eighth Plan also saw the extension of the Community Based Convergent Services (CBCS), a component of DWCRA, to 141 districts of the country.

6.5 THE PRESENT STATUS OF THE DWCRA GROUPS IN THE ANDHRA PRADESH

In Andhra Pradesh, DWCRA Groups and Self Help Groups are very active and achieved a respectable position in the country, over all the other States. By October 2000, there are 1.15 lakh DWCRA groups and 2.19 lakh SHG groups in Andhra Pradesh with a total membership of 45.80 lakh women. The highest being in East Godavari with 42,000 groups covering 5.46 lakh women, while Cuddapah is having the least number of groups (8,119) covering 95,000 members. Among the members, BCs are maximum, followed by OCs, SCS and STs are the least. Maximum number of women members (64 percent) belongs to the age group of 19-35, while another 34 percent belong to the next higher age group of 36-50 years. The savings by women has touched Rs.300 crores, for which the Government assistance is an addition of

Rs.383 crores. The estimated number of groups to be formed by the end of March 2001 is 75,000. The annual plan for 2000-2001 for women SHGS envisages the formation of 125,000 groups covering 18.82 lakh women. The investment amounts under the corpus is Rs.224.55 crores. Thus in a big way the Government is making all out efforts to improve the savings among women through Matching Grant Scheme, Revolving Fund, Group Loaning under SGSY and Linking Scheme of NABARD.

COMMON FEATURES OF GROUP DYNAMICS

1. Starting point need not be the same for different DWCRA groups. It could be around a theme which holds maximum appeal to its members. Savings and credit could be one of the starting points.
2. Group trajectory need not be the same for different groups. After all group dynamics has several routes and multiple options available and hence trajectory differs from group to group.
3. Speed at which the group proceeds need not be forced from outside agencies. Gentle force and moderate acceleration is welcome- but abrupt shock and resultant jerks are "quite capable of hastening collapse of group dynamics altogether.
4. Who exercises power to decide is extremely important for encouraging self esteem of all group members. It is not "we" who decide for "them" however well intentioned the move may be. It must be "they" and "they" alone to decide about themselves.
5. As the group survives and moves forward, several issues are taken up by them not exactly sequentially but in totality. Each member of a DWCRA group has better income than a non-DWCRA member from her own community in the same village. Awareness about hygiene and nutrition has gone up. Urge for literacy, especially for daughters and acceptance of family planning has shot up; and the most important of all self esteem of individual members and "we can do it" syndrome has become a part of their psyche.
6. There may be a few commas but no full stops for a DWCRA group. Starting from a nucleus of 10-20 women clustered around a theme which brought them together, it develops into a micro social organism ever evolving and embracing a wider spectrum of activities of their choice over a period of time.

First Round of Training

- 1 Group formation through process approach
2. Self Help concept
3. Team building and leadership
4. Group dynamics

5. Book keeping and accounts maintenance as well as preparation of minutes
6. Collection of information and group meetings schedule (model schedules should be filled by the volunteers)
7. Savings and credit management
8. Presentation and communication skills
9. Marketing skills

Second Round of Training

1. Information and knowledge of various Government programmes.
2. Community participation and initiation
3. Potential of skill upgradation and income generation activities
4. Importance of literacy to mothers and children
5. Gender sensitization
6. Marketing skills

Third Round of Training

1. Importance of small family and family welfare schemes
2. Immunization of pregnant women and new born children
3. Enrolment of children in the Primary Schools
4. Safe drinking water and sanitation
5. Tips on nutrition and kitchen garden
6. Health and personal hygiene including reproductive health care
7. Awareness on environment and tree planting
8. Energy conservation, use of alternate sources of energy
9. Sanitation
10. Marketing skills

Fourth Round of Training

1. Planning for self employment programmes
2. Group lending schemes (approach banks and awareness on documentation and procedures for accessing credit, knowledge on

watershed development programmes for effective participation in ecology regeneration programmes).

3. Rural economy and importance of domestic poultry, dairy, cottage industries - Modern technology and tools
4. Marketing skills

Number of Group songs, dramas, film shows, exposure visits and interaction amongst members are to be organized. It has been observed that when women meet after dinner or before breakfast and sing number of songs, level of participation increases. In the trainer's training, PD's/APO's/AG's personal supervision is to be ensured. Safety of the centre where women members gather must be ensured.

INCOME GENERATING ACTIITIES PURSUED BY WOMEN GROUPS

Farm Sector: Agriculture

- Land Development
- Horticulture
- Floriculture
- Sericulture
- Permaculture

Minor Irrigation

- Borewells with Pumpsets
- Inwell Bores
- Filter points with pumpsets
- Dug wells with oil engines

Non-farm Sector

- Value addition to Primary Sector
- Value addition to milk and its products
- Pickles Manufacturing and other household consumption items
- Agarbathi Manufacturing
- Tailoring and Readymade Garments
- Construction technology .
- Adda leaf plate making etc.,
- Screen printing
- Bakery, Flour Mill, Papad making

- Handloom sector
- Sericulture sector
- Restaurant, Super bazaars etc.
- Service sector
- Drying technology for fruits, vegetables, fish, prawns etc.
- Agro Industries for jams, squashes etc.
- Floriculture
- Transport sector activities
- Automobile mechanics
- Multipurpose mechanics

Animal Husbandry

- Dairy Development Milk Animals
- Sheep Rearing
- Poultry Development
- Duck Rearing

Fisheries

- Pisciculture

MARKETING DWCRA PRODUCTS

Till late 1996, marketing of DWCRA products through Government intervention and initiatives was one of weak linkages. Most of the DRDAs in the state have District Level Market outlets like ADRAMS (Anantapur), HAMPI (Prakasham), RAMSONS (Nellore), DSMS (Srikakulam) etc.

Enterprising DWCRA groups participated in Gramashree Melas, State Level and District level exhibitions. These groups had a very limited opportunity to expose themselves to the markets and expand activities. DWCRA Mela 1997 is a unique event conceived and organized at Hyderabad from 22nd December, 1997 to 2nd January, 1998 by the Commissionerate of Rural Development, Government of Andhra Pradesh to demonstrate and display the entrepreneurial skills and economic empowerment of women groups across the state. The Mela was first of its Kind and had participation of SHG women members from all the 22 rural districts. The stalls and sales were managed by women themselves and men were there to assist them. Now it has become an annual feature and stalls are erected during Janma Bhoomi Programmes and All India Industrial Exhibition at Hyderabad and at important National Exhibitions at New Delhi also. The encouragement given by Government not only helped to boost the sales, but also exports as well as self-confidence among women.

IMPACT ON WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT AND THE LEAD FOR SOCIAL ANDECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

The next sequential event after the TLC was anti-arrack agitation due to a lesson against alcoholism, in a primer, which was picked up as an excuse to launch a blockade against arrack in one of the remote villages, namely Dubagunta in Nellore district. After six months of incubation in this village, it spread to another ten villages where it again incubated for four to six months. The movement spread to the entire district and it soon snow balled into a historic women's movement. Next is Podupulakshmi phase - a massive thrift movement by 2 lakh women formed into 7000 groups of 20-30 in each have saved over Rs.8.00 crores in four years. Today a wide variety of women-centered activities are carried out by these Podupulakshmi groups. Another major spin off of the savings campaign has been on the increased democratization of Panchayati Raj system. More than hundred Podupulakshmi members were elected as presidents and ward members in the Panchayati Raj institutions in the last election. The lessons learnt were that women's movement recognizes the much broader aspirations of women and their willingness or eagerness to acquire education and improve their own conditions given an opportunity to do so. Nellore women's movement is a broad democratic movement where millions of women along the length and breadth of Andhra Pradesh agitated to overcome traditional hurdles to their participation through a process of social mobilization. Opportunities for such mobilization were not limited to anti-arrack and savings. *Literacy and health* were the other areas which were nonthreatening and where a broad social consensus was possible. Arogyadeepam (Health Movement) and Thrift Movement (Podupulakshmi) and pulse polio campaign were also utilized as an effective platform for women to be brought together. The process used for mobilization and implementing for women's groups with a given opportunity, will not only result in the large scale mobilization of women but also sustains women's movement. Today, similar movements are developing around credit cooperatives, health, watershed management and rural entrepreneurship development; all these movements must learn from TLC.. Neither an uncritical participation nor a safe distance would benefit the cause of women. What we need is planned intervention to shape these movements timely and effectively.

EFFORTS FOR CAPACITY BUILDING

Sustainability flow of additional monthly incomes to the DWCRA families is motivating the groups to work as a cohesive entity. Regular meetings of the members, effective leadership, democratic and transparent functioning, efficient Financial Management and recovery of revolving fund and loans, accessing institutional credit by providing their credit worthiness, improved skills and technologies through training and capacity building exercise is taken up for sustaining the groups interests. A Training and Technology Development Centre (TTDC) is also Planned in each district to study the existing potential of skills, assess the need for new technologies and to train the youth to acquire new skills. There is a need to expose women to modern food processing and packaging technology; Improving designs and making raw material Available providing marketing support to promote women's income generating activities is recognized. Training for capacity building of the women is taken up by organizing training in Mahila Pranganams and other local institutions. The members of a group are usually neighbours, friends and fellow workers. The Savings Groups provide an

opportunity for social interaction. Under new Cooperative Societies Act, 1995, name Andhra Pradesh Mutually Aided Co-operative Societies Act, local groups promoted by Voluntary Agencies came together to pool their funds and their expertise and to facilitate intermediation between Savers and Borrowers and beyond the local communities.

CONCLUSIONS

With the support from the Government of Andhra Pradesh, the rural women have now transformed their lives into full time and active entrepreneurs with lot of hope and are able to lead a life with self-esteem. Once they were passive recipients of Government's doles, but now they are active participants and stakeholders in the programmes. They have risen to the levels of 'self-management'. They have realized the importance of their numbers and have become capable of asking for their rights/entitlements like equal wages, better working conditions health, education, nutrition for their children etc. Thus DWCRA has become a powerful tool in bringing women together, in the remote rural areas and thus helped to emancipate the once mute sufferers in silence, to march forward towards collective community progress/development, on a substantial basis

6.6 SUMMARY

Most women workers in India are engaged in agriculture, where livelihood is insecure and wages are low. There also exists a significant gender gap in terms of wages. Women in rural areas spend lot of time in handloom weaving, trading in certain commodities, animal husbandry etc., for minimum wages.

Since independence a sort of awakening arose in India through women's movements and social organizations for the betterment of women. **In** real, women's emancipation can be achieved only when they are given enough opportunities and ability in gainful economic activity in all walks of life.

Recognizing that women can leverage their strength, increase bargaining power and enhance capacities and skills through joint action, the government has approved to organize women into groups (self help groups) and channelized the resources to these groups. These days with the support of government, women self help groups (SHG) are implementing a large number of developmental initiatives.

The origin of SHGs is from the example of the Grameen Bank of Bangladesh which was found by Prof. Mohammed Youngs of Chittagong University in the year 1975. This was exclusively established for the poor. If women are given power there must be a reformation in the society". The self help organizations are functioning with this motto. The first SHG was started in 1992 in Tamil Nadu.

Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) program was launched in 1982, as part of the Integrated Rural Development program (IRDPA). Its aim was to empower rural women living below the poverty line (BPL) by way of organizing them to create sustainable income generating activities through self-employment.

Expenditure under eighth plan- Since the inception of the scheme till 1996-97, 1, 87, 918 DWCRA groups were formed at an expenditure of Rs.248.95 crore, covering 30, 39,383 rural women.

The Child Care Activities (CCA) component was introduced in the DWCRA programme in 1995-96 with the objective of providing child care services for the children of DWCRA women

In Andhra Pradesh, DWCRA Groups and Self Help Groups are very active and achieved a respectable position in the country, over all the other States. By October 2000, there are 1.15 lakh DWCRA groups and 2.19 lakh SHG groups in Andhra Pradesh with a total membership of 45.80 lakh women.

Sustainable flow of additional monthly incomes to the DWCRA families is motivating the groups to work as a cohesive entity. Improved skills and technologies through training and capacity building exercise is taken up for sustaining the group's interests.

With the support from the Government of Andhra Pradesh, the rural women have now transformed their lives into full time and active entrepreneurs with lot of hope and are able to lead a life with self-esteem. Thus DWCRA has become a powerful tool in bringing women together, in the remote rural areas and thus helped to emancipate the once mute sufferers in silence, to march forward towards collective community progress/development, on a substantial basis.

6.7. Key words:

- SHG (Self help groups)
- NGOs (Non- Governmental Organizations)
- DWCRA (Development of women and children in rural areas)
- IRDP (Integrated rural development program)
- BPL (below the poverty line)
- CCA (Child care activities)
- IEC (INFORMATION, Education and communication)
- CBCS (Community based convergent service)
- TTDC (Training and technology development centre)

6.8 Self Assessment Questions :

1. Explain the position of DWCRA in Andhra Pradesh?
2. Give an account of DWCRA in India?
3. What are the major objectives and benefits of DWCRA?

6.9. Reference Books:

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LESSON – 7

PROGRAMMES OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

15.0 Objective:

The objective of the lesson is to explain the implementation of urban and rural community development programmes and limitations and problems in its implementation.

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7.6 Summary

7.7 Key words

7.8 Exercises

7.9 Reference Books

7.1 Introduction:

The community development programme does not only refer to development of rural areas but community development also includes urban community development, rural community development as well as tribal community development. The problems and issues pertaining to communities are - rural or urban is not so simple to find solutions. Therefore the implementations of urban community development programmes as well as rural community development^t programmes also have several limitations and problems. This is more so when the needs or issues are enormous and the resources available in our country, the form of programmes are limited, but with the implementation of various programmes by the government the lives of the urban and rural communities have undergone changes. Still there are number of limitations an^d problems in implementation of the various urban and rural community development programm^{es} which need to be looked at very seriously.

7.2 RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES :

The community development programmes was launched in 2nd Oct 1952. Its main aim is to bring about an integrated development of rural India covering social, economic and cultural aspects of community life. The highest priority in the programme is according to agriculture. Other important sectors include improvement of communications, health, sanitation, housing, education, rural employment, welfare of women and children and cottage and small scale industries.

District Rural Development Agency (DRDA)

The agency is to provide rural people for cultivation of land and agricultural loans. It also provides subsidiary loans to the self help groups and Dwacra groups. The interest rate of the loan is 25 paise. D.R.D.A. will also give subsidiary loans through the Banks for Water Schemes.

SFDA : 'Small Farmers Development Agency' and marginal farmers and Agricultural labourers development agency were introduced for making small and marginal farmers economically viable and improving the lot of landless agricultural labourers by raising the output of small holdings and generating employment through subsidiary occupations. These programmes were introduced to reach the weaker sections of the rural community.

Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)

The main objective of the IRD Programme will be 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.

National Rural Employment Programme (NREP)

National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) was started in October 1980, replacing the food for work programme during the sixth five year plan. This was implemented as a central sponsored scheme and its actual commencement began from April 18, 1981.

The pattern of financing NREP was on 50:50 sharing basis between the Central Government and the State Government. The programme had three fold objectives.

1. Generation of additional gainful employment for the unemployed persons in rural areas.
2. Creation of productive community assets for improving the income level of the rural areas
3. Improvement in the overall quality of life in the rural areas.

Landless labourers were supposed to get first preference for employment in all works. Among them SC and ST and women were to be given priority for employment. The District Rural Development Agency is the new implementing agency for the execution of the works regarding the rural employment.

Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) :

Rigal poverty pertaining to the unemployment of the landless labourers during the agricultural season, had to be tackled. Accordingly new scheme called rural landless employment guarantee programme (RLEGP) was introduced in 1983. The basic objectives of the programme are

To improve and expand employment opportunities for rural landless with a view to providing guarantee of employment to atleast one member of every landless labour house upto 100 days in a year.

The programme was fully founded by the Central Government while the overall responsibility of planning and supervision, monitoring and implementation of the work projects deals with the State Government.

Training of Youth Self Employment (TRYSEM)

It should be treated as part of the IRDP especially meant for unemployed rural youth to embark upon a career of self employment. Thus the salient features of the programme introduced on 15th August 1979, are the rural youth in the age group of 18-35 yrs from families below the poverty line with technical and managerial skills to enable them to take up self employment ventarey in agriculture and allied activities, industries, services and business, providing basic income generating investment to TRYSEM trainees. Every TRYSEM trainee is thus a potential beneficiary of IRDP.

Social development projects will involve improvement in all the aspects, social, economic, and other aspects of rural life. The main objectives are the following :

Agricultural Development : Agriculture is the foundation of rural economic life. The happiness and the prosperity of the village depend upon the progress of agriculture. The main cause of the poverty in the Indian villages is 'the backward condition of agriculture. The main problems of Indian agriculture are old techniques of agriculture dearth of new tools, absence of manures and fertilizers, excessive subdivision of land, dearth of the means of irrigation, shortage of good seeds etc.

Economic Progress : The greatest prblem of rural life in India is its poverty. The CD Projects have encouraged cottage industries and hadicrafts. Unemployed people are provided with look through anxiliary and useful services.

Development irrespect of animals : Another major problem and obstacle to progress in **the** indian villages is the deplorable condition of the animals which are even today employed in ploughing the fields. Improved poultry have also been arranged for the development of poultry farming.

Development of Education : Most of the people residing in the villages of India are uneducated and illiterate. At the same time they lack modern knowledge. Without the spread of education in the rural areas of India progress of any kind what soever can possibly be expected. The community development projects have paid the desired and necessary attention to the education of children and adults, Men and Women. Schools for primary and adult education have been opened.

Training for development In the villages of India social and economic development can take place in the existing circumstances. It is necessary to have people trained and skilled in rural development. Under the community projects arrangements have been made to train village workers both male and female.

Development of the Means of transport : In the villages of India there is a dearth of the means of transport, serious enough to prove a great obstacle to industry and Business. The community development projects have repaired the old roads and also managed to construct new roads

Cleanliness : Dirtiness reigns supreme in the Indian villages. It is the cause of the spread of kinds of diseases and it lowers the general standard of health. The community development projects have not forgotten to arrange for the villages, sanitation and cleanliness.

Protection of health and the maintenance of a certain standard : In the villages of India epidemics and many less wide spread diseases carry off many men, women and children. Every year due to the almost utter absence of medication and facilities delivery. The condition of the health of women and children is extremely dissatisfactory. Arrangements have been made for one health each development block.

Arrangement for residences : Most of the houses in the villages are old-fashioned and small. The CD projects have decided to assist the villagers in building houses, and also arrange for providing them with modern plans and the building methods of good and cheap houses, under Indira K Pathakam.

Social welfare : The community development projects have also given due attention to welfare in the villages, making arrangements for games, variety shows etc. for the entertain the public gramophone, radio and cinema with a view to provide the villager with entertainment also serve to enhance his stock of knowledge.

Development is a process of improving the well being of the people. It is about raising standard of living of the people, improving their education and health and also opening out equal opportunities for a richer and more varied life.

Development process is complex and multifaceted. The components of the process include the social, political, administrative, economic and cultural dimensions which all inter play in the total development process.

The Ideology of popular participation was accepted by the state as an instrument development. There is available evidence for popular participation at the grass - root development in India, as provided in the constitution. It resulted in the emergence of an system of Panchayati Raj, which facilitates popular participation in development.

7.3 Implementation of Urban Community Development Programmes

Clean Drinking Water:

Supply of Drinking Water forms part of the Minimum Needs Programme (MNP) in the State Plan, under this programme, it is sought to: (i) provide safe water for all villages, (ii) assist local communities to maintain the source of such water supply in good condition, and (iii) pay special attention to supply of water to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. During the year 1999-2000, the achievement was 75,178 numbers of villages/ habitations against the target of 90,061, which is 83% of the targets. During the period April to July 2000, the achievement has been 11,968 villages/ habitations, against the target of 17,806 villages/ habitations, which is 67% of the target.

Community Health Centres (CHCs) :

These centres are fully equipped with medical facilities for a population of 1 lakh and above. During the year 1999-2000, against the target of establishment of 729 Community Health Centres, only 92 centres could be opened, which is only 13% of the target. The performance has been poor, because the acquirement and construction of land for public purposes are time consuming. The nodal Ministry is the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (Department of Health).

Primary Health Centres (PHCs) :

The Primary Health Centres are set up for a population of 20,000 to 30,000. During the year 1999-2000, the targets for Primary Health Centres was 381 numbers, but only 144 Centres were opened, which was 38% of the target. The target for the period April-July 2000 has been construction of 31 Primary Health Centres, and the corresponding achievement has been 2 Primary Health Centres. The achievement has been poor, because the acquisition of land and construction of building for public purposes are time consuming. The nodal ministry is the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (Department of Health).

Immunization of Children :

The objectives of this programme are to reduce morbidity and mortality due to diphtheria, tetanus, poliomyelitis, tuberculosis, measles and typhoid. The target for immunisation for the year 1999-2000 has been 247.16 lakh infants and the achievement has been 240.29 lakh infants during this period, which is 97% of target. The target for the period April-July 2000 has been fixed for Immunisation of 81.17 lakh infants, against which the achievement has been immunisation of 60.41 Lakh infants which is 74% of target. The nodal ministry is the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (Department of Health).

Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) :**Blocks (Operational) and Anganwadis:**

The scheme of ICDS is aimed at providing enhanced nutritional, educational and health services to children below the age of six and to pregnant women and lactating mothers. The focal point for delivery of services under the scheme in the rural areas is the Anganwadis, each .

catering to a population of 700 to 1000. During 1999-2000, against the target of 3,882 ICDS Blocks (Cumulative) the achievement was also 3,882, i.e., 100%. The target for ICDS Blocks (operational) during the period April to July, 2000 has been 4,498 and the achievement has been 4,356, which is 97% of target. The target for Anganwadis for 1999-2000 was 4, 41,172 and the achievement has been 4,95,870 number of Anganwadis, which is 112% of target. The target for the period April to July, 2000 was 5, 02,938, number of Anganwadis, and the corresponding achievement has been 5, 07,129 number of arganwadis, which is 100% of target. The nodal Department is the Department of Women and Child Development.

Justice to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes:

The SC population accounts for 16% of the country's total population. The strategy evolved for their upliftment includes: (i) special component plan of the States and central ministries, (ii) special central assistance, and (iii) Scheduled Castes Corporations in the State. During the year 1999-2000, against the target of 25 lakh families to be assisted, 19.31 lakh families have been assisted, which is 77% of the target. The target for the period April to July, 2000, was to assist 6, 19,313 number of families and the corresponding achievement has been 2, 08,942 number of families, which is 34% of target. The nodal Ministry for SC families is the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment.

The ST population is 8% of the total population of India. The tribal areas are 15% of the total geographical area of the country. The Tribal Sub-Plan (TSP) concept accepted during the 5th Five Year Plan continues to be the main instrument for development of tribal people and tribal areas. Serveral economic development programmes have been undertaken in various sectors of development, such as, agriculture, rural development, horticulture, animal husbandry, sericulture, forestry, fisheries and small business for tribal people. During the year 1999-2000, 10.29 lakh ST families have been assisted against the corresponding taraet of 11.13 lakh families for this period, achieving 92% of target. The target for the period April to July, 2000 has been fixed at 2.10 lakh ST families, and the corresponding achievement has been 1.57 lakh ST families which is 75% of the target. The nodal ministry is the Ministry of Tribal Affairs.

Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY) for SCs and STs:

The objective of IAY is primarily to help construction of dwelling units for members of Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes, freed bonded labourers and also for non-SCs/STs and rural poor below the poverty-line, by providing them with grants-in-aid. During the year 1999-2000 the achievement has been 8.36 lakh houses against the target of 8.45 lakh houses, which is 99% of target. During the period

April to July, 2000, 1.37 lakh houses have been constructed against the corresponding target of 2.40 lakh, achieving 57% of target. The nodal ministry is the Ministry of Rural Development.

Economically Weaker Sections (EWS) Houses:

The Scheme is mainly for SCs, STs and people below poverty line, in urban areas. During the year 1999-2000, 68,598 number of houses were to be constructed, against which the achievement was 1, 02,477 number of houses. It is 149% of targets. The target for the period April to July, 2000 was to construct 13,837 houses, against which the achievement has been construction of 1, 02,883 houses; this constitutes 744% of target. The nodal ministry for this item is the Ministry of Urban Development and Ministry of Urban Employment and Poverty Alleviation.

Low Income Group (LIG) houses:

The objective of this scheme is to provide housing units to persons belonging to low income group in urban areas. During the year 1999-2000 against the target of 40,153 houses to be constructed, the achievement has been 26,834 houses which is 67% of the target. The target for the period April to July, 2000 was to construct 8,099 number of LIG Houses and the corresponding; achievement for this period has been construction of 5,688 LIG Houses, which is 70% of target. The nodal ministry is the Ministry of Urban Development and Ministry of Urban Employment and Poverty Alleviation.

Improvement of Urban Slums:

The scheme of Environmental Improvement of Urban Slums (EIUS) is being implemented under MN P. It provides a package of basic services to improve the environment prevailing in the slums by providing minimum civic facilities, viz., drinking water, community bath rooms, street lighting, sewers, storm water drains, street paving etc. During the year 1999-2000, against the target of 47_06 lakh population to be covered under slum improvement, the achievement has been 55.73 lakh populations. In terms of percentage, it is 118% of target. The target for the period April to July, 2000 was to cover 9.49 lakh populations, achievement for the corresponding period being 5.50 lakh populations, which is 58% of target. The nodal ministry for this item is the Ministry of Urban Development and Ministry of Urban Employment and Poverty Alleviation.

7.4 Limitations and Problems in Implementation of Urban Community Development Programmes:

Inspite of several efforts for promoting urban community development, the conditions of the urban community dwellers remained unsatisfactory and the number of people living below poverty line is still alarming. To overcome this problem of poverty and unemployment in urban areas several programmes are implemented. Urban community development implies both the economic betterment of people as well as social development. Through urban community development programmes, problems like poverty, unemployment, health, housing, problems of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes are tackled. Programmes such as poverty alleviation, employment generation activities, health, housing, drinking water and the like are implemented. Urbanization has resulted in growth of slums, shanty towns and urban unemployment. There is a problem of overcrowding, pollution in urban communities

calling for planned development oriented programmes. Poverty alleviation programmes, clean drinking water programme, income generation programmes, health programmes, programmes for the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, housing schemes for the poor are some of the programmes which have been implemented for urban community development. Urban community development programmes are designed in response to the felt needs of the poverty groups in the city. Various programmes have been formulated for women, children, youth and S.C. & S.T communities. There are also problems and limitations in the implementation of the programmes such as random selection of beneficiaries, poor infrastructural facilities or poor participation of the beneficiaries, corruption among officials, and lack of proper monitoring mechanisms. Problems are also found while forming mahila mandals, DWACU groups, vocational programmes, home making and Nutrition programmes. Youth welfare programmes also have certain limitations such as poor choice of group members, inadequate training and poor participation. Since housing is a major problem in the cities, housing improvement programmes, slum development programmes, distribution of house site pattas which are undertaken for improving the living conditions of the urban poor also face number of problems. Especially rural urban migration has also resulted in aggravating the situation.

7.5 Implementation of Rural Community Development Programmes:

Rural development implies both the economic betterment of people as well as greater social transformation. Increased participation of people in the rural development process, decentralization of planning, better enforcement of land reforms and greater access to credit and inputs go a long way in providing the rural people with better prospects for economic development. In order to boost rural development, the State government has brought out its commitment which comprises generation of gainful and regular employment opportunity to rural and urban poor and thereby checking the outflow from rural to urban areas, diversification of agriculture, bringing improvement in the skill and managerial ability with participation of NGOs/ private sector and creation of durable assets suited to development and backward linkages.

Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana:

To begin with IRDP was the only self-employment programme. Beginning with training of Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM), a number of allied programmes have been added over the years such as Development of Women & Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA), Supply of Improved Toolkits to Rural Artisans (SITRA), and Ganga Kalyan Yojana (GKY). The multiplicity of programmes, being viewed as separate programmes in themselves, resulted in a lack of proper social intermediation, absence of desired linkages among these programmes inter se and the implementation being more concerned with achieving individual programme targets rather than focusing on the substantive issue of sustainable income generation. To rectify the situation Government have decided to restructure the self-employment programmes. A new programme known as "Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana"

(SGSY) has been launched from April 1999. This is a holistic programme covering all aspects of self-employment such as organization of the poor into self help groups, training, credit, technology, infrastructure and marketing. SGSY will be funded by the Centre and State in the ratio of 75:25.

With the coming into force of SGSY, the earlier programmes IRDP, TRYSEM, DWCRA, SITRA, GKY and MWS are no longer in operation. The unspent balances as on 1-4-99 under these erstwhile programmes will be pooled under the head SGSY and utilized as per the new guidelines.

The objective of SGSY will be to bring the assisted poor families (swarozgaris) above the poverty line in three years, by providing them income-generating assets through a mix of bank credit and government subsidy. It would mean ensuring that the family has monthly net income of at least Rs. 2000. Subject to availability of funds, the effort will be to cover 30% of the poor families in each block during the next five years.

SGSY will adopt a project approach for each key activity. Project reports will be prepared in respect of identified key activities. The banks and other financial institutions will be closely associated and involved in preparing these project reports, so as to avoid delays in sanctioning of loans and to ensure adequacy of financing.

The existing infrastructure for the cluster of activities will be reviewed and gaps will be identified. Critical gaps in investments will be made under SGSY subject to a ceiling of 20% of the total programmes allocation for each district. SGSY will also focus on Group approach including women group.

Subsidy under SGSM will be 30% of the project cost subject to a maximum of Rs.7500. In respect of SC/ST, however these will be 50% and Rs.10, 000 respectively. For Groups of Swarozgaris (SHGs), the subsidy would be at 50% of the cost of the scheme, subject to a ceiling of Rs1.25lakh. There will be no monetary limit on subsidy for irrigation projects. Subsidy will be back- ended. SGSY will be implemented by the DRDAs through the Panchayat Samiti.

IRDP: During Eighth Plan:

During Eighth Plan (1992-97), total sum of Rs.56373.67 lakh was utilized. By utilizing the above amount, 19.24 lakh families were benefited under the programme. Physical target and achievements under its allied programmes are given below:

Item Unit Add Eighth Plan

Level Target Achievement

1. Beneficiaries/ lakh Add. 18.31 9.24
identified level 100.98 101.98
2. Youth under lakh Add. 3.60 1.66
Self-employment lakh level 6.15 4.21

3. DW CRA: Groups No. Add. 6400 12821

Organized/strengthened level 13936 203357

Progress Durang Ninth Plan (1997-2002):

An outlay of Rs. 61064.00 lakh was fixed for the Ninth Plan (1997-2000). During the year 1997-98 and 1998-99 a total sum of Rs.9951.63 lakh and Rs.15560.39 was utilized benefiting 3.50 lakh and 3.92 families respectively.

1999-2000:

During the current year 1999-2000, an outlay of Rs.15050.00 is proposed for the new programme of Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana as a state's share. Physical target for the current year is proposed to benefit 8998 groups containing in 42871 swarozgaris.

Credit —cum- Subsidy Scheme for Rural Housing:

There are a large number of households in the rural areas, who could not be covered under Indira Awaas Yojana , as either they do not fall within the range of eligibility or due to the limits imposed by the available budget. On the other hand, due to limited repayment capacity, these rural households cannot take benefit of fully loan based schemes offered by some of the housing finance institutions. The needs of this large majority can be met through a scheme which is part credit and part subsidy based. The introduction of a part credit, part subsidy based scheme will be an important step in the direction of redefining the role of the govt. from that of a 'provider' to a ' facilitator' as envisaged in the National Housing and Habit Policy 1998. This new scheme has come into effect from 1-4-1999.

The target group under the Credit- Cum- Subsidy Scheme will be rural households having an annual income of upto Rs.32000/- only. However, below poverty line rural households shall be given preference. At least a minimum of 60% of the funds allocated under this scheme as subsidy shall be utilized in financing the construction works of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and freed bonded labourers.

The subsidy element of Credit-cum- Subsidy scheme will be shared on 75:25 percent between the Centre and States. Ceiling of subsidy that can be given under. This scheme is Rs. 10000 per household. The upper limit of construction loan admissible under this scheme will be Rs 40,000 per household. The loan will be sourced and disbursed from either a scheduled commercial bank, Housing Finance Institution or the State Govt. directly.

A target of 20160 houses is proposed for 1999-2000 for which an outlay of Rs. 2015.95 lakh is being proposed including state share of Rs. 503.98 lakh.

The Indira Awaas Yojana guidelines pertaining to sanitary latrines, improved chulhas, and use of cost effective and environment friendly designs, materials and technologies shall apply mutatis mutandis to the Credit- cum- Subsidy scheme for rural housing.

Drought Prone Area Development Programme (DPAP):

The DPAP was launched in 1973 in arid and semi-arid areas with poor natural resource endowments. The objective was to promote more productive dry land agriculture by better soil and moisture conservation, more scientific use of water resources, afforestation, and livestock development through development of fodder and pasture resource, and in the long run to restore the ecological balance.

It is a multidisciplinary area development programme. Micro watershed of about 500 ha. area is the limit of integrate development works, planning and implementation. The process of planning and implementation is done by the sectoral departments at district level with the overall supervision and co-ordination of concerned DRDAs. According to guidelines of Govt. of India efforts are being made to engage maximum number of NGO's and voluntary organizations in the operation of the scheme.

The programme is in operation in 91 selected blocks of 18 districts including 30 blocks of 5 hill districts on a 50:50 sharing basis between Centre and State. For improving the effectiveness and utility of the programme, new directions have been given to the planning, implementation and maintenance aspects. Programme implementation will be done according to the Guide lines of Govt. of India in the light of local needs of the beneficiaries.

During Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97) an area of 202505 ha. is treated against the target of 97500 ha. at an expenditure of Rs. 112.42 crore including state share of Rs. 56.21 crore.

During 1997-98 and 1998-99, 60797 ha. and 52777 problem areas were treated with different development activities with expenditure of Rs. 17.78 crore and Rs. 16.77 crore including state share of Rs. 9.14 crore and Rs. 8.38 crore respectively. Also, 6.51 lakh mandays and 8.57 lakh mandays were generated during the year 1997-98 and 1998-99 respectively.

For improving the utility and effective monitoring of the programme several steps viz., Peoples participation in formulating plans and in their implementation, Implementation of the programme through watershed committees, Maintenance and Management of assets by the beneficiaries themselves, creation of technical audit cell, etc. have been taken.

Integrated Rural Energy Programme:

Under Integrated Rural Energy Programme (IREP), the blocks are selected under the guidance of Central government. GOI provide funds for the staff at block level. Against the Ninth Plan target of covering 25% blocks in the state, only 130 blocks are covered up to 1998-99 at least one in each district of the State. In the selected blocks, various efficient energy devices and new and renewable energy systems are being promoted for domestic

and productive purposes. Efforts are also being made to install the systems like night soil based bio-gas plants and solar lantern charging stations for providing community blocks in the State under the IREP by the end of the Ninth Plan period. Therefore, inclusion of 33 more blocks in 1999-2000 is proposed.

Against the agreed outlay of Rs. 19.00 lakh for the Ninth Five Year Plan, Rs. 384.00 lakh, Rs. 613.00 lakh have been approved during the annual plan 1997-98 and 1998-99. An outlay of Rs. 703.94 has been proposed for 1999-2000.

Rural Employment: Jawhar Gram Samridhi Yojana:

Jawahar Rozgar Yojana was being run which was terminated at the end of the second year of the Ninth Plan. To rectify the short comings like lack of proper social inter-mediation, absence of desired linkages enumerated during implementation of the programme, the Govt. of India has decided to restructure the on going Jawhar Rozgar Yojana. A new programme known as "Jawhar Gram Samridhi Yojana" has been launched from April, 1999 nationwide.

Objectives:

Jawhar Gram Samridhi Yojana will have following objectives

Primary Objective:

1. Creation of demand driven community village infrastructure including
2. Durable assets at the village level
3. Assets to enable the rural poor to increase the opportunities for sustained employment

Secondary objective:

1. Generation of supplementary employment for the unemployed poor in the rural areas.
2. Special Safeguards for the Weaker Sections of the Community.
22.5% of annual allocation shall be earmarked for SCs/ STs individual beneficiary scheme.
3. The wage employment under the programme shall be given to below poverty line families.

Status:

The programme will be implemented as a Centrally Sponsored Scheme on cost sharing basis between the Centre and the States in the ratio of 75:25. In the case of Union Territories entire funds under the scheme will be provided by the Centre.

Programme Strategy:

The programme will be implemented through the Village Panchayats

Definition of Village Panchayat:

- a) Village panchayat means the lowest elected body and includes Gram Panchayats, Mandals Nagar Panchayats, or traditional village institutions like Village Councils and Village Development Boards having statutory character.
- b) Where the duly elected Village Panchayats are not in existence their (Village Panchayat Panchayats) share of funds will be passed on to the concerned Panchayat Samitis who will be responsible for implementing the Gram Samridhi Yojana in those Panchayats. The works to be taken up would, however, be decided at the village level itself by the Gram Sabha (Village Assembly) of the concerned panchayats.
- c) The existing forest villages which are not part of an existing village panchayat will be treated as a village panchayat.

During Eighth Five Year Plan an amount of Rs. 2257 Cr. has been spent including central share and employment equivalent to 6617 lakh additional mandays have been generated. Community assets like 18777 Kms. rural roads, 2623 irrigation tanks, 10990 school buildings, 163981 drinking water resources, 10172 irrigation wells, 17335 sanitary latrines and 41028 panchayat ghars have been constructed till 31-3-1997 with an expenditure of Rs. 457.31 cr. as State Share. Approximately, 30 Cr. additional mandays are targetted be generated during Ninth Five Year Plan with an outlay of Rs. 481.00 cr. as State share.

Indira Awas Yojana:

Indira Awas Yojana introduced as a sub scheme of Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme in 1985-86 was being implemented as part of Jawahar Rozgar Yojana since 1989-90. From the year 1995-96 it has become an independent scheme. Earlier this scheme was only for SC/ ST. Since 1993-94, it has been opened for all castes with the restriction that at least 60 percent benefit will go to the SC/ST. The main objective of the scheme is to provide free of cost houses to homeless families living below poverty line in rural areas. Unit cost per house is Rs.20, 000/- in plain areas and Rs.20,000 in hills and other difficult areas. The beneficiaries are selected in the open meeting of gram sabhas normally held in the first quarter of the financial year. The houses are being constructed by the beneficiaries themselves on their personal plots. The beneficiary is free to choose the design and to purchase the building materials from open market. The only restriction is that the plinth area of the constructed house must be 20sq. Mts. To empower the woman of the family the Indira Awas is being allotted to her.

Upto end of 1998-99, no funds were earmarked for the up gradation of Kachcha houses. From 1-4-1999. 80 percent of allocation will be spent on construction of new houses and 20% funds will be spent on upgradation of Kachcha houses.

Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS):

This scheme was started from 2nd October 1993 with a view to provide employment to agricultural laborers during the lean season. The scheme basically intends to provide 100 days of assured employment to members of such families. Upto Eighth Five Year Plan only 360 blocks out of total 902 have been covered under the scheme. From the year 1997-98 all the blocks of the State have been covered under this scheme.

In order to provide employment at the doorstep of the needy persons, the State Govt. has also authorized gram panchayats for implementation of such projects in their villages duly approved by Block Committee & District Committee. In order to provide technical assistance the gram panchayats have been authorized to appoint diploma holders and' to pay them from the administrative head.

Million Wells Scheme (MWS :)

The scheme was being implemented as an allied scheme of Jawahar Rozgar Yojana since 1989-90. Under this scheme, the facility of land development and irrigation resources was being provided to the small and marginal farmers of SC/ ST and freed bonded labourers. But since 14-99 this scheme has been merged in Swarn Jayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana with new orientation. During Eighth Plan, 14.24 cr. mandays have been generated with an expenditure of RS. 134.59 cr. as state share.

Ganga Kalyan Yojana:

With an objective of giving special focus on higher income generation by providing new assets and upgrading the existing assets of ground water based minor irrigation schemes(borewells and tubewells) being financed under IRDP and [VMS on individual or group basis, a centrally sponsored scheme Ganga Kalyan Yojana was being operated since 1-2-97. The expenditure under the scheme was shared on 80:20 bases by Govt. of India and State Govt. respectively. Now,. This scheme is merged with SJSY from 1-4-1999.

Ambedkar Vishesh Rojgar Yojana:

Ambedkar Vishesh Rojgar Yojana was launched on Sept.25, 1991 to give a multi- dimensional orientation to the programme in every region based upon the requirements and availability of opportunities and resources in order to generate regular employment and thus bring economic mobility to the area. The scheme is based on the project approach with ensured availability of raw material at the local level and the sale of finished products at remunerative prices at the near-by areas.

Objectives:

1. Creation of sustained employment in rural areas based on local resources and skills.
2. To reduce pressure on primary sector by implementing schemes in secondary and tertiary sectors.

3. To make available institutional facilities like training, procurement, finance, marketing etc through project cum package approach.

Involvement of NGOs:

The task force constituted for Vishesh Rojgar Yojana have approved **157 different** schemes for different regions as per their geographical characteristics and availability of resources. During Eighth Plan 1998 projects have been sanctioned under this scheme. An amount of Rs. 99.³⁶ crore have been utilized for these projects as AVRY share. These projects were expected to generate employment for 4,19,661 persons during Eighth Plan period. By the end of 1996-97 2,73,506 persons have got employment under this scheme. During Ninth Plan, it is proposed to provide employment including backlog to 5,85,494 persons under this scheme. By the end of 1998-99 2,17,806 persons have got employment and for the year 1999-2000, it is proposed to provide employment to 1,15,000 persons under this scheme, for which an outlay of Rs. 70.01 crore is earmarked.

Land Refor TO Consolidation of Holdings:

The Consolidation of Holdings scheme was started in the year 1954 in the state. This scheme is a welfare scheme and is directly related to land reforms, green revolution and rural development. The main objective of consolidation is to boost agricultural production and productivity in order to raise the standard of living of rural population.

Upto March 1999, under the first and the second round of Consolidation scheme, the transfer of possession over an area of 222.33 lakhs hectares was completed. In the year 1998-99, a target of 1.85 lakh hectares area was fixed for the confirmation of scheme u/s 23 out of which confirmation of scheme u/s 23 has been completed on 1.50 Lakh hectares. For the year 1998-99, according to work norms of available staff a target of 1.82 Lakh hectares has been fixed for confirmation of scheme u/s 23 for which an outlay of Rs. 11316.38 lakh has been proposed for the year 1999-2000.

To achieve physical targets for the year 1998-99 well in stipulated time, it is necessary to get the work of preliminary stage completed and there after the physical targets could be achieved.

Financial Assistance to Ceiling land Allottees: Financial assistance to ceiling land allottees was a centrally sponsored scheme from 1977-78 to 1996-97. Now it is in district sector. In this scheme each allottee gets Rs. @ 1000.00 per acre for starting agricultural activities in the allotted land. For the year 1999-2000 an outlay of Rs. 12.62 lakh has been earmarked.

Construction of Record Rooms under the Tenth Finance Commission :- With passage of time, the Record Rooms at district head quarter and as well as Tahsils are getting crowded day by day and because of availability of enough space in the various record rooms, the records are lying unarranged and are deteriorating gradually. In order to save

these records the district headquarters and tehsils, additional record rooms are proposed to be constructed for which an outlay of Rs. 440.00 lakh has been proposed for the annual plan 1999-2000.

Other Rural Development Programmes :

Training Programmes:

Rural Development constitutes one of the major sectors of the nation's development activity. For the progress of rural areas and to raise the standard of living of the villagers, various programmes, like Swarnjayanti Gram Swarajgar Yojana (Previously IRDP, DWCRA, TRYSEM). Gram Samridhi Yojana previously JRY), Rural drinking Water Scheme, National Bio-Gas Scheme, Rural Housing Scheme, Minor irrigation etc. are under operation. To accomplish the objectives inherent in these schemes, it was felt that the people connected with the implementation of these schemes should be given training to enable them to gain proper knowledge of these schemes and thus to ensure the proper implementation of them. It was due to this that right from the inception of community development schemes the extension training programmes are under operation

Rural Development with its multi-pronged objectives of all round development has a full-fledged network of training **institutes** with Deen Dayal Upadhyay State Institute of Rural Development, Bakshi Ka Talab, Lucknow at the apex and 22 Regional Institutes of Rural Development and 33 District Institutes of Rural Development under it. These institutes while shouldering the responsibility of future development of human resources have to strengthen their infrastructural facilities and streamline their programmes to meet the changing requirements.

With the adoption and implementation of 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act the burden of providing training to Panchayat Raj officials and non-officials has increased. The Government has entrusted this gigantic task to SIRD with its whole networks of training institutes.

The SIRD has also been entrusted with the new task of coordinating the establishment of Mini ITI's in Blocks of the State and also with the responsibility of monitoring their activity.

Thus, the responsibility of SIRD and its subordinate institutes (RIRD's/DIRD's) has tremendously increased necessitating their strengthening at a very faster pace to enable them to stand upto their new assigned role along with their present responsibility.

State Institute of Rural Development (SIRD):

The institute conducts short term training courses of the officials and non-officials connected with rural development programmes, organises seminars, conferences and workshops at State, region and districts level; undertakes action oriented research on various aspects of rural development and administration and provides consultancy services; arranges training for trainers; takes up the evaluation work

of the on- going programmes; collects relevant information pertaining to rural development and disseminates it; arranges literature for attached institutions etc.

In the Eighth Five Year Plan, this institute had set a target for training as many as 18581 participants against which 24658 participants have been trained.

The State Institute of Rural Development has fixed a target of providing on campus training to 15875 participants during the Ninth Five Year Plan. In addition to this, foundation courses for Block Development Officers, C.D.P.Os and Supervisors of Women and Child Welfare Development and also off-campus courses are to be conducted. Besides this, facility of distance learning education will also be provided.

To achieve the above objectives, it has been decided to strengthen and upgrade the existing infrastructure facilities of the institute. This includes the construction of hostels and other buildings, creation of new posts and purchase of audio-visual and such other equipments. An outlay of Rs. 15 lakh is proposed for 1999-2000.

Rural Development Department:

Regional & District Institute of Rural

Development: These institutes conduct:

1. Pre-service 2 years training course for Village Development Officers, Pre-service 6 months training courses for Village Panchayat Officers, one month training course for promoted Assistant Development Officers, 10 days training courses for Village Development Officers in the on-going schemes, 6 days training courses for Assistant Development Officers in the on-going schemes, training programmes for Assistant Development Officers, Village Development Officers (Women) in the on-going schemes, training courses for clerks of development department, 10 days training courses for accounts clerks of DRDAs in the double entry system.
2. Training courses for people's representatives and gram pradhans.
3. Farmer's training courses

The regional and district institutes of rural development have given training to 13, 93,136 participants as against the target of 12, 50,000 participants during Eighth Plan.. A target of training 12, 50,000 participants during the Ninth Five Year Plan has been set for the SIRDs and DI RDs. An outlay of Rs. 10 lakh is proposed for the year 1999-2000.

Rural Group Life Insurance Scheme:

This scheme is being implemented in the State since 15.8.95 with an objective to provide insurance cover of Rs. 5000 to the persons of rural areas who are between the age group of

20 to 60 years. The persons who are in the age group of 20 to 40 years have to pay Rs. 60 and those in the age of 40-50 years have to pay Rs. 70 as annual premium, so that they may become members of the scheme and the insurance cover may be renewed every year upto the age of 60 years. The persons belonging to below poverty line families have to pay 50 percent of annual premium, the rest 50% is shared equally by Govt. of India and State Govt. On the death of the member of the scheme Rs. 5000 is paid to the nominee of the deceased.

During 1996-97, Rs. 1.00 crore was made available to the districts as State share to subsidise annual premium of persons belonging to below poverty line families. Similarly, during 1997-98, Rs. 1.00 crore was made available to the districts for the same purpose. Against the above amount, 3.53 lakh persons were covered during the above mentioned years. During the year 1998-99, 1.16 lakh persons were covered.

For Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002), an outlay of Rs. 5.00 crore has been provided out of which Rs. 4.00 crore will be for general category and Rs. 1.00 crore for SC/ST. An outlay of Rs. 1.00 crore has been proposed for the year 1999-2000.

National Improved Chulha Programme:

In order to save dwindling fuel stock, safeguard the health of rural women-folk from the ill-effects of smoke which causes numerous ocular and lung diseases, the above named programme is being implemented in the State since 1983-84. Govt. of India is providing cent per cent financial assistance to the programme.

Since the inception of the scheme, 27.34 lakh improved chulhas had been distributed till 31.3.99. For the year 1999-2000, target of distribution is 2.50 lakh improved chulhas.

National Biogas Development Programme:

Keeping in view the depleting reserves of conventional fuels and their adverse effect on environment, the programme for construction of biogas plants is taken up in the State to promote non-conventional sources of energy especially in rural areas. Total expenditure on the various components of the scheme is borne by Govt. of India. Biogas plants operate on animal dung which is an easily available commodity in villages and provide cooking gas for rural households. Despite it, the slurry that comes out of the plant is rich organic manure with comparatively higher percentages of N. P. K and thus helps in increasing agricultural productivity in the villages.

Since the inception of the scheme 1.95 lakh biogas plants have been established till 31.3.1999. For the year 1999-2000 target of establishing is 8500 biogas plants.

Community Development Programme:

Under the community development programme residential and non-residential buildings of blocks and district development offices are constructed. Residential buildings of village development officers are also constructed under this scheme. During the Eighth Plan period Rs. 103.06 crore were spent and 400 new buildings were constructed. For the Ninth Plan, outlay of Rs. 90.00 crore for plain areas and Rs. 3.00 crore for hills have been fixed against which an expenditure of Rs. 24.55 crore and 8.40 crore was incurred during 1997-98 and 1998-99 respectively. For the year 1999-2000 outlay of Rs. 33.98 crore for plain areas and Rs. 3.64 crore for hill areas has been proposed.

Panchayati Raj:

Following the Constitutional (Seventy Third) Amendment Act 1992, the U.P. Panchayati Raj Act, 1947 and the U.P. Kshetra Samiti and Zila Parisad Adhiniyam, 1961, were amended and came into force on 22-4-1994. In conformity, legislation extends the spirit of the Seventy-third Amendment, by providing for reservation for Scheduled Castes, other Backward Castes and Women at all levels of the three-tier Panchayati Raj structure. In the light of the provisions of the Amended Acts, election to the three tier Panchayati Raj bodies were held in 1995 and 58,620 Gram Panchayats, 904 Kshetra Panchayats, and 83 Zila Panchayats were constituted.

The State Government is committed to devolve administrative and financial powers to PRIS and strengthen these institutions of local self Government. Hence, the State Government has declared Gram Sabha as the unit of development and 1999-2000 as the year of decentralisation and people's participation. In first phase State Government has transferred selected activities/ functions of several departments and during 1999-2000, nearly 10% of the Annual State Plan outlay i.e. Rs 1100 crore will be directly transferred to the Village Panchayats :

Besides, services of village level workers/officers of 10 departments have been placed under the administrative control of Village Panchayats along with their salary. State Government schemes were started and several Tribal colonies were established. Cooperative Farming Societies had been introduced and a number of concessions were offered to the tribal people by Forest Excises, Revenue Departments and other departments in their respective field. Though District Level Planning was envisaged during this plan, but they could not take concrete shape, as actual planning was not done at the grass root level. Sectoral planning with schematic budget was also introduced during this planned period.

Fifth Five Year Plan:

In view of the weaknesses of the earlier area based programme viz. Tribal development Blocks and Tribal Development Agencies, a new strategy was evolved in the fifth five year plan for the foundation of sub plan for the areas of tribal concentration. This is intended to achieve an intensity of attention to the tribal areas and devise measures to suite their local ethos. About 2/3 of tribal population in the country is estimated to be covered by the subplans as were in operation in the Fifth plan. In our country, the problem of Tribals was broadly classified into two categories (1) Areas of Tribal concentration and (2) Dispersed Tribes. In respect of the former, it was decided to accept an area development approach with focus on tribals; for dispersed tribals, family oriented programmes were taken up. The tribal sub-plan includes all scheduled areas and Tehsils/ Blocks, with more than 50% Tribal population. Substantial tribal population was covered under sub-plan according to these formulations. In States, where the tribal population was more dispersed these norms were relaxed with a view to covering a reasonable proportion of tribal population. Tribal sub-plan areas under the relaxed norms were delineated in A.P, Orissa, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharastra, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal and Uttar Pradesh. For operational purposes, the Tribal sub-plan areas have been organized in 178 Tribal Development Projects during Fifth Plan. It is the level at which the entire development efforts have been integrated. The financial investment flows from four important sources in Tribal sub-plans from the sources viz. (1) outlays from the State Governments plan, (2) Sectoral outlays from Central Ministries/ Departments, (3) Institutional Finance and (4) Special Central Assistance.

Sixth Five Year Plan:

In the Sixth Five Year Plan, it was noticed that certain pockets of tribal concentration outside the tribal sub-plan area were still left out of the tribal sub-plan strategy. It was therefore decided during the Sixth Plan that pockets of centre groups villages / pockets having a minimum of 10,000 tribal population of which at least 50 percent are scheduled tribes, should be carved for intensive integrated development and Modified Area Development Approach, (MADA) under the Tribal sub-plan. A definite target of 50% of the scheduled tribal families to cross the poverty line was adopted during the Sixth Plan for the first time. By and large, the targets set for the Sixth Plan have been achieved. Against the target of 4.70 million scheduled tribal families to be brought above the poverty line, it was estimated by the end of 1984-85, 3.45 million scheduled tribal families have been assisted. Numbering 13.95 lakhs have been taken up for the development through projected approach. In order to ensure cent coverage of tribal under the ISP approach, it has been decided since 1986-87 to include.

During the plan period, 2 lakh hectares of tribal households were under soil conservation, 9000 tribal villagers were electrified and more than 80000 villages were provided with drinking water supply. The state of Sikkim was added during this period. 245 MADA pockets of tribal concentration were identified during this period. By the end of the forty years of Sixth plan, 181 of IFDPS, 245 MADA pockets and 72 primitive tribal projects were in operation in the country. The coverage of tribal population during this plan reached 75 percent as against 65% in Fourth plan.

Seventh Plan:

In the Seventh Plan the objective remains to be mix of area-cum-family development. Simultaneously paying attention to the vulnerable section amongst the scheduled tribes it can easily be ascertained that their resources base mainly on environmental devastation. For the Seventh Plan period (1985-90), about 40 lakhs scheduled tribe families below the poverty line are targeted to be provided economic assistance. In this plan, 3 new ITDPs have been added in

\ Sikkim, by scheduled tribe population concentration norms as a special case and by the end of 1987-88, total of 184 ITDPs are functioning. In addition about 73 primitive tribes dispersed tribals under the "approach, while identifying their castes wherever possible, 47 clusters, each with a total population of 5000 with 50%, or more tribal concentration there have been identified. Among the important contributions of the Tribal Sub-plan strategy over a period of years in our country has been the gradual evaluation of the concept of family oriented programmes for eradication of poverty in the tribal areas.

The Eighth and Ninth Plans aimed to empower STs by creating an enabling environment conducive for them to exercise their rights freely, enjoy their privileges and lead a life of self-confidence and dignity, on par with the rest of society. This process essentially encompassed three vital components, viz. i) Social Empowerment; ii) Economic Empowerment; and iii) Social Justice. To this effect, while ST-related line Ministries/Policy commitments, the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare continued to give focused attention to improve the health conditions of STs by implementing various health care programmes besides relaxing norms with a major objective to attend to the health needs of STs. A separate Tribal Development Planning Cell has been functioning under the Ministry since 1981 to co-ordinate the policy, planning, monitoring and evaluation of the health care schemes for the welfare and development of STs.

7.7 SUMMARY :

Rural population in India is very large Their needs are multiple; The resources of are limited, But with the initiation o. the programmes launched by the govt, such as IRDP, DWACRA, has brought about changes in the live's of the rural population. Still much more done so as to bring about rural community development.

7.8 KEY WORDS

IRDP	:	Integrated Rural Development Programme
RLEGP	:	Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme
NIRD	:	National Integrated Rural Development
CD	:	Community Development
TRYSEM	:	Training of Youth for SelfEmployment

SFDA : Small Farmers Development Agency

7.9 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is rural community development? Explain the various programmes of rural community development?
2. Discuss the earlier Experimental Rural Development Programmes.

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Lesson - 8

PROGRAMMES FOR URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

8.0 OBJECTIVE :

The objective of the present lesson are to explain the programmes for Urban Community Development.

Structure :

- 8.1 Introduction**
- 8.2. Urban Community Development (UCD)**
- 8.3. Community participation in UCD**
- 8.4. The UCD Programmes**
- 8.5. Urban Community Development - Important programmes.**
- 8.6. The Achievements**
- 8.7. Summary**
- 8.8. Key words**
- 8.9. Self - Assessment Questions**
- 8.10 Reference Books**

8.1 INTRODUCTION :

India is considered to be a highly urbanized land since about 25.7 percent of the total Indian population reside in urban area as per 1991 census. India is the second largest country in the world next to China in terms of absolute number of the total urban population which constitutes 217.2 million. The urban population of India increased during 1981-91 by 57.7 millions (from 159.5 to 217.2 millions) that is from 23.3 to 25.7 percent. The growth of urban population (36.17 percent during 1981-1991) was much higher than the growth of rural population. This growth of urban population was due to the rapid increase in the population of class I cities of India with population of one lakh and above.

One of the confronting problems of Urbanization is the challenge posed by poverty. The urban poverty groups face the problems of exploitation, misery, subhuman working and living conditions which particularly the disadvantaged people who live in the cities suffer from. Urban poverty is manifested in many forms such as growth of slums, growth of informal sector, lack of civic amenities, rising crime rates and group violence. The urban poor can not afford to live in inadequate and comfortable shelters. They settle in areas near their work places which are considered unfit for human habitation. The dwelling places of urban poor are unplanned without any civic amenities, public sanitation and hygienic conditions. Since the formal sector cannot absorb surplus labour

force migrated to cities, they seek employment in the informal sector in which they get low wages and they are made to work for long hours without any regulation of working conditions. The municipal authorities are not able to provide civic amenities for this large influx of migrated population.

The uncontrolled movement from rural to urban areas resulted in congestion and overcrowding in the cities. Added to this there is indiscriminate location of factories and industrial establishments in the cities. These factors led to the growth of slums in all towns and cities which constitutes a great hazard to health and wellbeing of citizens. The Sen Committee highlighted the alarming proportion of slums in India and estimated slum population as ranging from 7 to 60, percent of the total population in large Indian cities. The housing conditions of these slum dwellers are woefully unworthy of human habitation.

In view of the above living conditions of urban poor, many approaches such as slum clearance, slum improvement and community welfare services have been attempted and found inadequate in some way. Most of the welfare programmes undertaken by government have not proved successful because they could not change the attitude, and the practices of the poverty groups living in squalid urban conditions. Any attempt to change the physical conditions of poverty groups will not be successful unless and otherwise the people are involved in those programmes and their attitudes are changed.

8.2 URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :

In Delhi a pilot project was initiated in 1985 with the assistance of Ford Foundation and an attempt was made to use community development methods and techniques to promote social change and better community life in the slums of the cities. The Delhi project was aimed at promoting the growth of community life, participatory approach in the programmes of self-help and civic improvement. Similar projects were started in Ahmadabad (1960) and Baroda (1965) with the help of American Friends Service Committee. This was followed by 20 more UCD projects in selected cities. The state of Andhra Pradesh started the UCD projects in Hyderabad during 1967, Visakhapatnam (1979) and Vijayawada (1983) with UNICEF assistance. In 1981 the Urban Community Development, low cost sanitation and small and medium town projects supported by UNICEF were merged into a new scheme called Urban Basic Service (UBS) Overseas Development Authority (ODA) started extending assistance to the UCD projects in Hyderabad and Visakhapatnam during 1987 and to Vijayawada in 1990.

8.3 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN UCD :

The community or the target system is enabled to participate in planning, implementing and monitoring of the programme. Since the programme depends on community participation, the role of community volunteer is emphasized at the grass root level. For every 20 families, one resident community volunteer is elected as representative to act as a development catalyst and to work as a bridge between people and the government machinery. There are about 1000 resident community volunteers for monitoring the UCD programme in the city. About 100 neighbourhood committees are constituted, each committee comprising 8 to 10 members. There are 4 registered community development societies representing 50 municipal divisions covering all the poverty groups in the city.

8.4 THE UCD PROGRAMMES :

The UCD programmes are designed in response to the felt needs of the poverty groups in the city. Various programmes have been formulated for women, children and youth. The major

programmes for women include formation of Mahila Mandals, DWACUA groups, Vocational Training programmes, Home making and Nutrition programmes. The programmes for children cover Balwadis, Social welfare hostels, Health, Nutrition and Educational Programmes. Youth welfare programmes comprise non-formal education, vocational training programmes, sports and games, youth clubs and civil defense. Since housing is a major problem in the cities, house improvement programmes, distribution of house site pattas are being undertaken for improving the living conditions of the urban poor. In addition under the UCD programmes a good number of other activities have been undertaken for the improvement of socio-economic conditions of the poverty groups and also for the protection of the urban community.

8.5 URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT - IMPORTANT PROGRAMMES :

The Firka Scheme of Madras : The firka development scheme was initiated in the 34 firkas of Madras state in 1946. The object behind the scheme was to stimulate initiative among the urban villagers to organise their economic and social life on co-operative lines with a view to make them self-sufficient and self reliant.

Nilokhani Project : Among these, two projects were significant in particular. One was the Nilokhari projects started by Shri S.K. Dey. The project was intended to rehabilitate displaced persons over 1,100 acres of swampy land about 87 miles north of Delhi. Shri Dey infused among the displaced persons a spirit of community work and set about the task of developing a composite community soon. This project started paying back and developed into a rural-cum-urban township by integrating the surrounding villages. This experiment provided the answer for an integrated and balanced development of rural areas.

Mass rapid transit system - MRTS for Delhi urban area has been identified by the metropolitan transport team of the Planning Commission. The Metropolitan Transport Project (Railways) is conducting techno-economic and engineering feasibility studies of the MRTS network. The town and country planning organisation is carrying out traffic studies for MRTS.

The Slum Clearance and Improvement Scheme : SCIS

The scheme was introduced in 1956 as a centrally sponsored programme under which financial assistance was given to State and Union territories for the clearance and improvement of slum areas and rehousing of slum dwellers whose income does not exceed Rs. 350 per month. From 1 April, 1969 the scheme was transferred to States.

Central scheme for Environmental improvement in slum area :

To bring about improvement of environmental conditions in slum areas, a programme known as the central scheme for environmental improvement in slum areas was launched in 1972 in ten cities, namely, Ahmedabad, Bombay, Bangalore, Delhi, Hyderabad, Kanpur, Lucknow, Madras, Nagpur and Pune. During 1973-74, ten more cities, viz, Calcutta, Cochin, Cuttack, Gauhati, Indore, Jaipur, Ludhiana, Patna, Rohtak and Srinagar were also covered under the scheme.

The Bustee improvement scheme :

The scheme in Calcutta was also made part of the programme. The concerned state governments were given full financial assistance for the provision of drinking water, sewerage and drains, community bath and latrines, street lighting and widening and paving of existing lanes in

slum areas. The scheme has been transferred from the central sector from 1 April, 1974, to be implemented by the State Governments.

Minimum needs programme : During the fifth plan period it was proposed to cover cities with population of three lakhs and above, or one city in each state where the scheme has not so far been extended.

The Jhuggi and Jhopri Removal scheme : The scheme is designed to provide attemptive accommodation to unauthorised occupants of government and public lands in Delhi and New Delhi.

Among the important programmes on which work is in progress is the National capital Region plan around Delhi which covers on area of about 30,000 Sq Km in the Union Territory of Delhi and parts of Haryana, Rajasthan and Uttarpradesh. The plan envisages integrated regional development programmes for drinking water supply, drainage, power supply, community for cilities and services over the whole region. For 1974-75 a sum of Rs. 36 lakhs was provided for the Scheme of Development of the National capital region. Out of this Rs. 34 Lakhs were given as loan assistance to the constituent states of National capital Region, Namely Haryana, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh for supplementing the investment made by them for development of ring towns of Gurgaon, Alwar and Meerut.

Housing Finance : Housing finance is the most crucial element in house construction and building activities. In the field of housing the public sector has a marginal through promotional role to play. The bulk of the investment in housing is, however, expected to come from the private sector.

A number of specialised agencies have come up in recent times in the country, yet the bulk of the finance for housing originates from a selected group of central financial institutions comprising the Life Insurance Corporation of India (LIC), The General Insurance Corporation of India, Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO), The Employees Provident Fund Organisation, etc. Funds are also provided and channelised through the State Apex Co-operative Housing Societies, State Housing Boards and Housing and Urban Development Authorities, Nationalised Commercial Banks etc.

Development of Women and Children in Urban Areas (DWCUA) :

In 1982-83 exclusive scheme for woman 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 DWCUA a group of woman are granted assistance to take up viable economic activity with 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 lakhs women. During 1990-91 against a target of 7,500 groups 7,139 were actually formed.

While 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 DWCUA and their inability to identify activities that could generate sustained incomes. In this sphere, the role of voluntary organisations would be crucial 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 first, and then start them one economic work have been successful.

DWCUA, a special strategy of IRDP, was first introduced in 1978 as pilot project in 50 selected districts and extended to all States in 1982-83 and one district and extended to all States in 1982-83 and one district in each Union territory during 1985. Initially the district was chosen on the criteria of low female literacy and high infant mortality rates. Promoted by the Central Government, the scheme has also been with the co-operation of UNICEF. The expenditure is shared equally by the Central Government the State Government and UNICEF.

There was no effort to utilise the skills of women who, being experienced women makers, are adept at managing frugal resources. They are more conscious of and concerned about the needs of the family and children.

Studies show that female workers have been discriminated against in terms of availability of work, number of hours of work and wages.

DWCUA :

The main objectives of the scheme are :

- (a) Promotion of self employment among the urban women below the poverty line by providing training in vocations.
- (b) Organising beneficiaries in group activities and promote economic and social self-reliance.
- (c) Generation of income for the urban poor by creating avenue for production of goods and services
- (d) Organising production - enhancing programmes in urban areas;
- (e) Promoting care for the children of working women by providing an improved environment, care and food by establishing creche/balwadis.

The scheme also identifies women in the age group of 18 to 35 years who are below the poverty line in urban areas. The identified women are given training for six months and paid Rs. 200 as stipend per month. Also a group of organisers is selected for each group. The organisers would have to undergo a separate training during which they are paid a stipend of Rs. 250 per month. After the completion of training each beneficiary is given a loan ranging from Rs. 4000 to Rs. 6,000 depending upon the nature of activity to start own business as self - employed ventures.

8.6 THE ACHIEVEMENTS :

So far the project covered about 130 slums in the city and 4 community development societies have been registered, which comprise 1000 members who were identified as president community volunteers. About 1200 self help groups and 304 DWACUA groups were formed. A revolving fund of Rs. 25,000/- is given to each of the registered community development societies which is jointly operated by the community organiser of the locality and the president of the society. The Revolving Fund is utilised for giving loans to the identified entrepreneurs from the community to take up economic activities.

One of the major achievements of the UCD programme is that the poverty groups developed a sense of participation and involvement in the development programmes which are meant for their betterment. The programme is not confined to slums alone and it is extended to all the poverty

groups including the non-slum localities also. Further, the beneficiaries of the target groups have developed the community structures through which they are participating and involving themselves in the various programmes. The income generating programmes, self help groups (Thrift/savings) and self-employment programmes have promoted a sense of responsibility, awareness and self help among the poverty groups. The programme is successful in the sense that most of the problems and pressures in the context of rapid urbanization and over urbanization in the city.

8.7 SUMMARY :

Through the communities are normally divided into 'rural and urban' the line of demarcation is not always clear as Macluer has remarked these two types of community. "There is no sharp demarcation to tell where the city ends and country beings". Every village possesses some elements of the city and every city carries some features of the village. The concept of rural urban convergence' refers to the striking similarities between the village and the town in some aspects of community life.

Cities are growing in number and size every where. It is true that urban culture is diffusing at a very fast role in the rural areas. The urban way of life can be carried far beyond the city boundaries and can thus characterise people who do not actually live in cities.

8.8 KEY WORDS :

UCD : Urban Community Development

CITY : Urban Community

8.9 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Mention the main programmes of urban development.
2. What is urban community development ? Explain the various programmes of urban community development.

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Lesson - 9

TRIBAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

9.0 OBJECTIVE

The objective of this lesson is to explain the concept of tribal welfare development programmes, constitutional provisions, schemes, strategies and voluntary organisation efforts for the tribal development.

Structure :

- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Concept
- 9.3 Constitutional Provisions
- 9.4 Twenty Point Programme
- 9.5 Tribal Development and Welfare Strategy
- 9.6 Objectives of Tribal Development
- 9.7 Eighth Finance Commission Award
- 9.8 Centrally Sponsored Schemes
- 9.9 Tribal Co-operative Marketing Federation
- 9.10 Impact of the Programmes
- 9.11 Role of Voluntary Organisations
- 9.12 Conclusion
- 9.13 Suggestions
- 9.14 Key words
- 9.15 Self - Assessment Questions
- 9.16 Reference Books

9.1 INTRODUCTION

Despite the reservations of the Govt of India and some Indians scholars about the UN definition of indigenous people should have been an occasion to review the status of the tribals in India and formulate a plan of action for the upliftment and welfare of the tribals in India. (Fernandes, Roy Burman, Singh K.S. 1993). The constitution of India had promised the tribals of Indians protection against exploitation, respect for their tradition and heritage, assistance for the improvement of their socio-economic and educational status. Despite constitutional guarantee the tribals have been the most adversely affected ethnic group by the so called big developmental projects in post-independence period.

9.2 CONCEPT :

The term scheduled tribes has been used for the first time in the constitution only and the earlier expressions used in pre-independence days were aboriginal tribes, backward tribes, etc. There is no universal definition of a tribe acceptable to all social scientists. But the definition of a tribe given by the late Dr. D.N. Majumdar, has maximum acceptance. He defined a tribe "a social group with territorial affiliation, endogamous, with no specialisation of functions, ruled by tribal officers, hereditary or otherwise, united in language, or dialect, recognising social distance from other tribes or castes but without any stigma attached in the case of caste structure, following tribal traditions, beliefs and customs, illiberal of naturalization of ideas from alien sources, above all conscious of a homogeneity of ethnic and territorial integration". Tribal origin, primitive way of life and habitation in remote and less easily accessible areas; and general backwardness in all respects are the features common to the tribes in various states.

9.3 CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISIONS FOR TRIBAL WELFARE

The constitution provides various safeguards for promotion and protection at the interests of the Scheduled Tribes. Provisions contained in Articles 19, 46, 164, 244, 275, 330, 332, 334, 338, 339, 342 and the 5th and 6th schedules of the constitution are relevant in this regard. The Government of India's responsibility in relation to the development of scheduled tribes and the scheduled areas extends not only to the provision of funds (Article 275) for their development but also to evolving policies and programmes for their rapid and harmonious development in consultation with and cooperation of the State Governments.

9.4 TWENTY POINT PROGRAMME :

The importance attached to tribal development is also reflected in the new 20 point economic programme -1986 which lays special emphasis on the development of Scheduled Tribes. Being the nodal ministry for over all policy, planning and co-ordination of programmes for the development of scheduled tribes, the Welfare Ministry is concerned with the following points relating to tribals :

- (a) Point 11 : Justice to scheduled tribes.
- (b) Point 7(3) : Pay special attention to water supply for scheduled tribes.
- (c) Point 14(3) : Lay special emphasis on construction of houses for scheduled tribes.
- (d) Point 16(2) : Protect the traditional right of Tribal population and local communities of access to fire, wood and forests produce.

The British Govt in India was mainly concerned with the maintenance of law and order rather than with economic and social development in tribal areas. In Assams the policy of 'exclusion' was followed and no outsiders except missionaries with known antecedents were allowed to go there. Since independence of the country, the chief programmes for the scheduled tribes have been directed to raising their standard of living, developing agriculture and industry in tribal areas and providing for their educational, social and economic development.

Essential conditions for schemes for tribal welfare :

Schemes for tribal welfare must fulfil two essential conditions, namely, conformity to the social values and patterns of the life of the people for whom they are intended and the psychological

receptivity and the ability of the tribal population to absorb them. Theoretical perfection of a scheme or its suitability to the people, in general, must not be regarded as the criterion for tribal people. Ignorance of these basic facts and inability to appreciate them are responsible for the failure of many development schemes which by themselves are unexceptionable. The third five year plan also said. "It would be an error to over-administer them in the name of development. In facilitating the development, the tribal people should be enabled to develop along the lines of their own genius, with genuine respect and support for their own traditional arts and culture and without pressure or imposition from outside. In tribal areas every effort should be made to train and build up a team of their own people to do the work of administration and development, the constant aim being to develop local personnel both as official functionaries and as social workers.

9.5 TRIBAL DEVELOPMENT AND WELFARE STRATEGY :

The population of the Scheduled Tribes as per 1981 census was about 5.38 crores (including the projected figures in respect of Assams) constituting about 7.8 percent of the total population. Tribal development has from the beginning been based on a two - pronged policy. Viz 1. Protection and promotion of their interests, thorough legal administrative support and 2. Implementation of developmental schemes to raise their level of living. The tribal sub plan (TSP) concept evolved and implemented during the fifth five year plan period continues to be the main instrument for development of tribal people and tribal areas. The TSP is in operation in 17 States and 2 Union Territories.

The TSP approach consists of three main components. viz, (a) Integrated Tribal Development Projects (ITDPS) comprising generally administrative units like Sub-divisions / Tehsils / Talukas with 50% or more scheduled tribe population.

(b) 248 pocket of tribal concentration (MADA Pockets) having a total population of 10,000 or more and Scheduled Tribe population of 50% or more and (c) 73 primitive tribal group projects. In addition, during the seventh five year plan period clusters having a total population of 5,000 and 50% or more scheduled tribes concentration therein are being identified.

9.6 OBJECTIVES OF TRIBAL DEVELOPMENT :

During the 6th plan the major objectives in tribal development were :

1. Taking up family oriented beneficiary. Programmes through raising productivity levels of the beneficiary families in the fields of agriculture, horticulture, animal husbandry, small industries, etc.
2. Elimination of exploitation of tribals in the spheres of alienation of land, money lending, debt-bondage, forest, etc;
3. Human resources development through education and training programs. and
4. Infrastructure development

Funding of tribal development programmes :

The TSP funded through resources drawn from (1) State plans (2) special central assistance of the Ministry of Welfare (3) central and centrally sponsored programmes, and (4) Institutional Finance.

The State plan investment includes amounts of proposed under various sectors of activity of the State Govt and also includes amounts earmarked towards states share of the centrally sponsored schemes. According to the guidelines for quantification of funds for the TSP the total financial outlay in a state plan is to be divided into divisible and non-divisible components. The non-divisible components would represent investments where the benefits cannot be identified to have flown to any specific area or region or any target group. During the 6th plan the State Govts were advised that they should earmark an amount of outlay for the TSP keeping in view

- (1) Proportion of the TSP area in the total geographical area of the state.
- (2) Relative level of development of Tribal areas vis-a-vis other areas in the state and
- (3) Percentage which the tribal population in the state bears to the total population. The flow to the TSP for the country as a whole was 8.25% at the total state plans (Rs. 3,495.24 crores out of Rs. 42,390.60 crores)

The Special Central Assistance (SCA) was instituted in the beginning of the 5th plans period. The purpose of the SCA was that it should be an additive and catalyst for spurring financial investment by the State Govts and financial institutions. The SCA from Rs. 190 Crores in the 5th plan period was increased to Rs. 486.11 crores in the 6th plan period. The expenditure under the SCA is reported to have been Rs. 441.51 crores.

The Central Govt wholly finance certain schemes of national importance and these are known as central sector schemes. Besides there are certain centrally sponsored schemes in most of the plan sectors which are usually common to all the states and which are financed by the Central Govt and the State Govts usually in the ratio of 50:50. Most of these schemes are concerned with anti-poverty goal and are based on part-subsidy to be drawn from the state and the central plans and part-loan drawn from financial institutions. The proportion between subsidy and loan is generally 50:50. The idea that earmarking of funds also under the centrally sponsored schemes should be done under the TSP was mooted in the 5th plan period, but the progress in this regard was not satisfactory. According to available data only six states viz. Andhra Pradesh; Gujarat; Madhyapradesh, Orissa; Rajasthan; and Tamilnadu, could quantify Rs. 197.49 crores from their centrally sponsored schemes during the 6th plan period.

The report of the working group of Tribal development during the 6th plan have observed that in formulation of programmes specific problems of each area and the target group in terms of family should be clearly defined and schemes directly benefiting the individual tribal family given the highest priority. A Tribal family is given 50% subsidy and 50% loan in the field of agriculture. However, the relative percentage of subsidy and loan component may vary from state to state and further in a state from scheme to scheme. In the field of credit-cum-marketing the part to be played in institutional finance is vital. Both production and consumption credit have come to occupy a pivotal position in the promotion of tribal economy. Institutional finance is thus an important ingredient in the entire beneficiary oriented programme. While subsidy element is available from the central and state funds, the loan component has to flow from financial institutions.

9.7 EIGHTH FINANCE COMMISSION AWARD :

The Eighth Finance Commission allocated funds amounting to Rs. 88.70 crores to 13 tribal sub-plan states for raising the level at administration in tribal areas. The award was for grant of compensatory allowance to personnel working in tribal areas and construction of residential quarters

for transferable Govt. employees posted in tribal areas. The 8th Finance Commission in addition to providing enhanced grants compared to the recommendations of the 7th Finance Commission has provided funds for creation of infra structure facilities in selected tribal villages @ Rs. 5 lakhs per village. The commission also provided Rs. 19.27 crores as compensatory allowance, Rs. 30.97 crores for residential quarters and Rs. 38.45 crores for infrastructural facilities in villages for a period of four years (1985-89) in respect of 13 states. The four tribal sub plans states have not been covered in under this award.

9.8 CENTRALLY SPONSORED SCHEMES FOR SCHEDULED TRIBES

There are three centrally sponsored schemes for scheduled tribes viz., (1) girls hostels for scheduled tribes; (2) Research and training; and (3) Aid to voluntary organisations

9.8.1. Girls Hostels : The scheme of girls hostels for scheduled tribes is in operation since 3rd Five Year Plan and has considerably helped promotion of girls education amongst tribal communities. The expenditure on this item is shared between the state and the centre on a matching basis ie., 50:50.

9.8.2. Under the Centrally Sponsored Schemes, Tribal Research : Institutes have been setup at Hyderabad, Gauhati, Ranchi, Ahmedabad, Calicut, Bhopal, Pune; Bhubaneswar, Udaipur, Lucknow and Calcutta. Another fullfledged tribal research institute is proposed to be set up at Imphal. These institutions are substantially contributing to the developmental efforts through research, evaluation, collection of statistical data, training and providing professional input in the preparation of Tribal sub-plan documents. The scheme is operated on sharing basics, the expenditure on plan items are met by the Central and State Govts in the ratio of 50:50. A Central Tribal Research Advisory Council was setup in 1988-87 to guide and co-ordinate the activities of institutions. Two other components of the scheme are : grant of research fellowship to students working on tribal problems and supporting research project by expert bodies. The scholarship holders are selected by a selection committee duly constituted in the Ministry of Welfare for the purpose.

9.8.3. Grants - in - AID to Voluntary Organisations : Grant-in-Aid to voluntary organisations of All India character which are operating in more than one state for the development of scheduled tribes in given on year to year basics. The activities of the voluntary organisations include education, training, medical and public health. During 1987-88 a provision of Rs. 80 Lakhs existed for the purpose and about 25 organisations were assisted.

9.9 TRIBAL CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING FEDERATION :

To explore new markets to improve the marketing of tribal produce, eliminate intermediaries and obtain better value for tribal produce to augment the income of tribal families, a Tribal Co-operative Marketing Development Federation (Trifed) at the National level was set up during 1987-88 and a sum of Rs. 2 crores was provided as share capital assistance to TRIFED.

9.10 IMPACT OF THE PROGRAMMES

Despite these efforts of the Govts and Voluntary organisations for development and welfare

of the scheduled tribes it is alleged that the tribal people have experienced nothing but the backlash of development leading to disorganisation as a community and destitution as individuals.

The Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Tribes in his latest (Twenty-eight) Report has lamented that the denial of right to life which is basic and self-created and is enshrined in our constitution in the biggest anomaly of our national life and the worst sufferers are members of the scheduled tribes whose protection and welfare in the special responsibility of the state under the constitutions. In various States, the govts have not been finding it too easy to cut through bureaucratic maze, land reforms are often mythical, in specific pockets all over the country, quite a few tribals routinely end up as bounded labourers. And as the commissioner puts it, "In implementing the law of bonded labour no action is usually taken against a person who violates the same, the emphasis is on liberation, it does not make any difference to the employer". Another important aspect of the scheme. The rehabilitation of bonded labourers is neglected. In many cases a person may be presented as bonded labourer for the sole objective of getting a rehabilitation grant. But the money meant for the labourer is misappropriated by the employer and the official. In this situation it is difficult even to identify the real bonded labour.

The conditions of tribal masses in the country as a whole has been deteriorating from year to year. They have been alienated from the rest of society by moneylenders, landlords or their touts. Their customary rights in the forests have long been forgotten, and in many areas even the traditional "Jhum" cultivation has been banned without arranging employment through other avenues. They are victims of eviction and displacement due to the construction of irrigation dams and other projects which take years to take off without any proper alternative land, compensation or even employment to the tribals. There are numerous cases of attacks on them. Furthermore, they are being driven out of forests by the same officials who, along with contractors, are denuding the forests. All this, despite the fact that agro-forestry research clearly shows that inside these very forests crops of specific types can be grown without damage to the trees. No wonder that some of the tribals, aided by vested interest, are taking to the separatist path.

What is needed is some measures to end the transfer of tribal land to non-tribal people, protection of their customary right to forest produce and land, the protection of their right to the "Jhumias" till rehabilitation is arranged satisfactorily, preventing the degradation of environment in tribal areas by mining companies and other enterprises, and ensuring pure drinking water to these people. Their exploitation by forest and public officials, contractors and timber merchants, who pay starvation wages, must be ended and they must be given full rights to participate in Panchayat activities. A Govt with a vision has to look for forest-based activities. A Govt with a vision has to look for forest-based industries and economic activities to make them self-reliant. The Govt will also have to recognise their cultural and linguistic distinctiveness. Moreover, where they are in majority they should be granted regional or local autonomy within the state concerned.

9.11 ROLE OF VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS :

Voluntary organisations play a significant role in advancing socio-economic progress of the community in general and that of the scheduled tribes in particular. Some of the agencies of all India character received direct grants -in-aid from the Ministry of Welfare. Some of the prominent organisations working for the scheduled tribes are : Bharatiya Adimjati, Sevak Sangh, New Delhi; The Nilgiris Adivasi Welfare Association; Kotagiri The Nilgiris District (Tamilnadu); Banasthali Vidyapith (Rajasthan); Ramakrishna Mission, Shillong; Gharmora Model Satra Mills & Plains Cultural Institution, North Lakshimpur (Assam); and Rama Krishna Mission Boys Home. P.O. Rahara, District 24 parganas (West Bengal)

The important role played by the voluntary organisations in the development of scheduled tribes during the 7th Five Year Plan made a number of important observations and recommendations. The Planning Commission themselves gave a set of criteria for recognising voluntary agencies working in the field of development. This, inter alia, envisaged that these agencies should not be linked directly or indirectly with any political party. They will adopt legal and non-violent means in the furtherance of their goals and objectives. These guidelines are unexceptionable and should be adopted by the State Govt as well. Voluntary agencies in tribal development work can play a crucial role in the remote areas where the functioning of the governmental agencies is not satisfactory for a variety of reasons. These areas can be effectively covered by selfless voluntary workers. Even elsewhere the voluntary organisations can play an important role in mobilisation of the tribal people and organising them into voluntary groups for social and economic development programmes. The basic problem in the tribal areas in lack of confidence between the people and the administration and the voluntary workers can serve as a valuable bridge between them.

9.12 CONCLUSION :

The Government is satisfied with the soundness of the strategies adopted for the welfare and development of scheduled tribes since the fifth plan and according to Prime Minister V.P. Singh the results of the strategy adopted so far have been encouraging and the targets had been achieved in many cases while in some cases the targets had in fact been exceeded. He had asked all Central Ministers and Chief Ministers to formulate innovative schemes in the Eighth plan and make adequate allocations for the benefit of scheduled tribes and sent them copies of a letter sent by the Late Prime Minister. Indira Gandhi on March 12, 1980. He had suggested that out of the total plan outlay of each State/U.T., a proportion equal to the percentage of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe population in the State/U.T. should be set apart for the special component plan and the tribe sub-plan. There should be no division of the total plan outlay into so called divisible and non-divisible components with the SCP and TSP being combined to the divisible outlays alone. The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are entitled to a share in the total plan size of the state equivalent to that of their population in the State/UT and no less. In fact they need Justifiable more, considering the extent of their past and present deprivations and the magnitude of problems before them. Their development needs should be identified according to the order of priorities.

The fact of the matter however is that the condition of the Scheduled Tribes continues to be pathetic in spite of the numerous constitutional safeguards and exclusive programmes for their welfare for millions of those belonging to the weaker sections with small land holding, as also the landless, escape from the atrocities suffered for centuries is still a distant dream. On the one hand, caste-based inequity is being accentuated despite claims to the contrary and, on the other hand, tribal regions all over the country are simmering with discontent, Technological advances, instead of helping them march towards a better tomorrow, are ravaging them with increased severity. The situation in tribal areas is particularly disturbing, as is evident from the demand for a separate JHARKAND or BODO land. The claims of the state, in utter disregard of their traditional rights and virtual forced displacement for making room for the so-called developmental projects, have made the tribals restive. Atrocities against the weaker sections have acquired a new economic dimension. With the consolidation of the vested interests, the task of ensuring an equitable deal to the under-privileged has now become more difficult.

9.13 SUGGESTIONS :

1. Protective laws meant to control the alienation of land from scheduled tribes should be enforced.

2. Ways should be found to allot land to the landless Scheduled Tribes, and also provide necessary agricultural inputs to them.
3. Centrally sponsored schemes meant for the protection vulnerable groups should not be transferred to States.
4. The economic rehabilitation could be successful only when these vulnerable groups come up educationally also.
5. The 8th plans allocation for the vulnerable groups should be more than the percentage justified by their number to make up for the backlog. In formulating the detailed schemes, the Planning Commission should work in cooperations with the National Commission on Scheduled Tribes.
6. So far there had been considerable leakage in delivering the benefits and ways would have to be found to plug them.
7. The regulations under the fifth schedule should be framed immediately to streamline administration in tribal areas vigorously. The autonomous district council might not be as effective as autonomous village councils.
8. The provision relating to self-management available under the 6th schedule should also be suitably made applicable in the 5th scheduled areas.
9. The country liquor shops should be closed down in the predominantly tribal areas, whether declared scheduled areas or not.
10. The National Commission for scheduled tribes should undertake a comprehensive evaluation of development programmes for scheduled tribes to effect mid-term corrections.
11. There should be a price commission for fixing procurement price for minor forest produce in line with the Agricultural Price Commission.
12. The functioning of the financial and development corporations in the states for the benefit of the scheduled tribes should be supervised by the National Commission of scheduled tribes.

The implementation of all welfare programmes for the socio-economic development of scheduled castes/tribes as also atrocities against them is dealt with in the Ministry of Welfare. It shall be desirable that the subject of atrocities against scheduled castes/tribes be re-entrusted to the Ministry of Home Affairs who have all the machinery for law and order and channel of communication of orders and instructions at their command. And in the state level, the welfare of scheduled castes/tribes is taken care of by the department of general welfare.

The Commission for Scheduled Castes/Tribes has been recommending to the government in its successive annual reports for the conferment of constitutional status and vesting it with the power of a commission of Enquiry under the Commission of Enquiry Act, 1952. The commission is handicapped to do its best without the required status/power. The National front government is committed to accept this recommendation. The State Governments fail to supply information relating to implementation of constitutional safeguards for scheduled castes/tribes. That impedes the

functioning of the commission. The state government should therefore, supply the required information regularly speedily.

The two institutions of commissioner for scheduled castes/tribes and the commission for scheduled castes/tribes have been assigned similar and overlapping functions. The commissioner was an ex.officio member of the commission until 1st september 1987 when it was reconstituted as the National Commission for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes with separate functions. The commissioner's post had remained vacant for about seven years (24th Nov 1981 to 10th Feb 1986) and his report for that period was covered by the report of the commission of scheduled castes/tribes. The commissioner does not have enough powers while the commission had no statutory powers. To avoid the duplication of functions and the lacuna the two institutions suffer from, the Ministry of Welfare has a proposal to merge the office of commissioner with the commission and give it statutory powers. This proposal when implemented will go a long way in improving and streamlining the functioning of the institution charged under the constitution with the duty to investigate all matters relating to the safeguards for the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

It is alleged that the government at the centre and those in the state are concerned only with the funds they make available for to use their eliche, the amelioration of the downtrodden and they do not bother whether they reach the beneficiary or not. Again the political parties are interested in the extension of reservations and the grant of specific concessions to scheduled castes/tribes as vote catching instruments. These charges though quite valid need to be met with by the political parties in showing genuine concern for the upliftment of the water weaker sections of society by initiating programmes at the grass roots to eradicate untouchability and ensure that the underprivileged sections of today acquire a position of honour and dignity due to all citizens of our great country.

9.14 KEY WORDS :

1. Tribal sub-plan (TSP)
2. Special central assistance
3. Grant-in-Aid
4. Self-Reliant

9.15 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain tribal welfare and its constitutional provisions?
2. Write on tribal development and welfare strategy?
3. Discuss centrally sponsored schemes for scheduled tribes
4. What is the role of voluntary organisations in the development of tribals?
5. Write some of the suggestions or recommendations for tribal development?

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Lesson – 10

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATORY APPROACH – PRA METHODS

10. 0 Objective:

The objective of this lesson is to explain community participatory approach through various PRA methods.

Contents:

- 10.1. Introduction**
- 10.2. Definition and Meaning**
- 10.3. Typology of participation**
- 10.4. People's participation: Advantages**
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10.1. Introduction:

Participation occupies a central place in development thinking and practice. Government, funding agencies, donors, and civil society actors including NGOs and multi-lateral agencies like the world Bank and the international monetary fund have all agreed that development cannot be sustainable and long lasting unless people's participation is made central to the development process. While there is unanimity about the need for people's participation in development, there are divergent views on the concept of participation and the ways of achieving it. Participation means different things to different people.

Programmes like velugu, DWACRA and others involve an element of people's participation. The efficacy and success of the programme depends on this. People's participation strengthens the programme as any programme is ultimately oriented to people's welfare. People's participatory approach refers to active participation and involvement of people in all aspects of a development or welfare scheme programme. The participation of people although an old concept, has been revived in the recent years as this has been emphasized and stressed by several studies, including those of world Bank. Thousands of crores of rupees have been spent on poverty

eradication programmes since the country became independent, but, as many studies pointed out, there has been only a marginal reduction in the percent of intensity of poverty. It has been realized that one of the main causes for this failure has been that of the people, for whom the programme have meant, have been left out of the decision making and implementation of the programmes.

10.2. Definition and Meaning:

Participation means different things to different people. The way participation is defined largely depends upon the context and background in which participation is applied.

Participation is defined as a voluntary contribution by the people in one or another of the public programmes supposed to contribute to National development, but the people are not expected to take part in shaping the programme or in criticizing its contents (Economic commission for Latin America, 1973)

Participation includes people's involvement in decision- making processes, in implementing programmes, their sharing in benefits of development programmes and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes (Cohen and Up Hoff, 1977)

What gives real meaning to popular participation is the collective effort by the people concerned to pool their efforts and whatever other resources they decide to pool together, to attain objectives they set for themselves. In this regard participation is viewed as an active process in which the participants take initiatives and actions that are stimulated by their own thinking and by deliberations over which they exert effective control. The idea of passive participation which only involves the people in actions that have been thought out or designed by others and controlled by other is unacceptable.

(Acc Task Force and working group on Rural Development Programme Harmonisation, Rome 1978)

People's participation is essentially to do with economic and political relationships within the wider society; it is not just a matter of involvement in project activities but rather the process by which rural people are able to organise themselves and , through their own organization, are able to identify their own needs, share in design, implement, and evaluate participatory action. (FAO, 1982)

Community participation is an active process by which beneficiary or client groups influence the direction and execution of a development project with a view to enhancing their well-being in terms of income, personal growth, self-reliance, or other values they cherish. (Paul, 1987).

10.3. Typology of Participation:

Participation is conceptualized and understood differently. Various attempts have been made to develop a typology of participation (Arnstein, 1969; Hart, 1992; Pretty, 1994). There are seven types of participation as conceived by pretty et al (1995).

1) Passive Participation:

People participate by being told what is going to happen or has already happened. It is a unilateral announcement by an administration or project Management without listening to people's responses. The information being shared belongs only to external professionals.

2) Participation in information giving:

People participate by answering questions posed by extractive researchers using questionnaire surveys or similar approaches. People do not have the opportunity to influence proceedings as the findings of the research are neither shared nor checked for accuracy.

3. Participation by consultation:

People participate by being consulted and external people listen to views. Such a consultative process does not concede any share in decision-making.

4. Participation for material incentives:

People participate by providing resources, for example labour, in return for food, cash or other material incentives. People have no stake in prolonging activities when the incentives end.

5. Functional Participation:

People participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the project. Such involvement does not occur at the stage of project planning. These institutions tend to be dependent on external initiators and facilitators, but may become self – dependent.

6. Interactive Participation:

People participate in joint analysis, development of action plans, and formation or strengthening of local institutions. Participation is seen as a right, not just the means to achieve project goals.

7. Self – mobilization:

People participate by taking initiative independent of external institutions to change systems. They develop contacts with external institutions for resources and the technical advice they need, but retain control over how resources are used. Such self- initiated mobilization and collective action may or may not challenge existing inequitable distribution of wealth and power.

Passive participation is where people are told what to do. On the other end is self – mobilization where the local people themselves are in total command. In the case of passive participation, people's control is almost Non-existent. In the case of self – mobilization, people have almost total control over the processes while the role of outsiders is at best minimal.

Participation by manipulation and passive participation can disempower community. Both interactive participation and participation by self – mobilization can be highly empowering.

10.4. People's participation: Advantages:

Participation in development is now being sought the world over, because of its usefulness in development projects. The following are the major advantages of participation.

Efficiency:

Participation can ensure effective utilization of available resources. The local people take responsibility for various activities. All these improve efficiency and make the project more cost-effective.

Effectiveness:

People's participation can make the projects more effective by granting them a say in deciding the objectives and strategies and by participating in implementation, thereby ensuring effective utilization of resources.

Self – reliance:

Many development interventions have been seen to create a kind of dependence syndrome. With active involvement of the local people, it is possible not only to break the mentality of dependence but also to increase their awareness, self-confidence and control of the development process.

Coverage:

Development interventions are directed towards the upliftment of the weaker sections of society. People's participation can ensure that resources are available for wider coverage of the weaker sections of society than would otherwise be possible.

Sustainability:

People's participation is regarded as an essential prerequisite for the continuity of the activities. The involvement of local people and the utilization of local resources generates a sense of ownership over the development interventions to the people. The sense of ownership is essential for the sustainability of the interventions even after external funds cease to flow.

10.5. People's participatory approach (PPA):

There are, broadly, four elements in PPA

1. People's participation in decision- making
2. People's involvement in the implementation of the programmes.
3. Opportunity for supervision and monitoring by the people in the execution of the programmes
4. Evaluation by the people.

Principles of PPA:

PPA is based on four principles namely,

1. Right attitude which is again based on openness, humility, curiosity, acceptance and sensitivity.
2. Right behaviour that includes willingness to share information, spirit of friendliness, showing respect, accepting errors / mistakes, curiosity to listen and self – imposed restraint on lecturing.
3. Qualities of flexibility and innovation.
4. Adoption of technique of triangulation to verify information and application of diversity of analysis.

Tools to be adopted in the PPA technique:

1. Good rapport- building
2. Semi- structured interview
3. Focussed interviews
4. Participant observation
5. Non-verbal presentation.

There are certain methods which can be applied in the PPA or PRA.

10.6. PRA Methods:**1. Social Mapping:**

A Social map of the village can be prepared that gives a clear picture of the physical structure of the village, its infrastructure, demography. Socio-cultural characteristics and any other feature that can be represented on the map by the people.

Social mapping is the most popular method in PRA. It seeks to explore the spatial dimensions of people's realities. It depicts habitation patterns and the nature of housing and social infrastructure: roads, drainage systems, schools, drinking – water facilities etc. it is made by local people and not by experts. A social map is different from a resource map. It depicts the lanes, sub-lanes school, railway track, temple, post office, well, community hall etc, in the village. It provides household – wise details on educational status of children both by age and by gender. It reveals the exact number of boys and girls who are out of school; it reveals that more – boys go to school than girls; more girls are unenrolled than boys' and that more girls drop out than boys in the (6-11) year age group.

2. Resource Mapping:

The resource map focuses on the natural resources in the locality and depicts land, hills, rivers, fields, vegetation etc. Resource mapping is not done by experts but by the local people. The

local people are considered to have an in-depth knowledge of the surroundings where they have survived for a long time. Hence the resource map drawn by the local people is considered to be accurate and detailed. It reflects the people's perceptions. The resource map reflects how people view their own locality in terms of natural resources.

Resource maps depict various aspects related to the natural resource management of a locality including:

1. Topography, terrain and slopes
2. Forest, vegetation and tree species
3. Soil type, fertility, erosion and depth
4. Land and land use, command area, tenure, boundaries and ownership.
5. Water, water bodies, irrigation sources, rivers and drainage.
6. Watershed development, various soil and water conservation measures, denuded areas, etc.
7. Agricultural development, cropping pattern, productivity, etc.

Resource maps provide a focused spatial structure for discussion and analysis. They help to create a common understanding amongst the participants as well as baseline for monitoring and evaluation. Resource mapping instills self – confidence amongst the participants. Resource maps are useful for analysis of problems, looking at solutions and planning for action. Resource maps generate discussions among the participants about natural resources, their utilization, problems related to deforestation and soil erosion etc.

3. Transect Walk:

A resource map and transect go hand in hand. Generally a resource map is done first and discussed in detail. This may raise doubts to be cleared and issues to be resolved. Transect walks provide an opportunity to get a first –hand feel of the situation and to clarify most of the doubts. It is a common practice to carry resource maps during transect walks because they prove to be handy references and can be cross- checked in the field.

A resource map can also be combined with a mobility map. With the village in

The centre, the various places people visit, can be depicted along with the purpose of the visit using different types of life patterns. Thus, this combination of resource and mobility maps helps in arriving at a detailed understanding of the spatial location of resources and the mobility pattern of the villagers.

Transect walks can be undertaken through the village to study the natural resources of a village, problems associated with them and to assess opportunities.

How to do a Transect walk?

1. Identify local people who are knowledgeable, able and willing to walk and help

2. Discuss with them aspects to be noted –soils, trees, topography, streams, water sources, crops etc., and a rough route of the same.
3. Assign task in the team
4. Walk the transect which can be in a straight line, a Zigzag sweeping etc.,
5. Observe, ask and listen. Do not lecture.
6. Ask about and discuss problems and opportunities
7. Note contrasts and changes, identify Zones.
8. Make a transect diagram.

Try to be inquisitive and interested without rusting and lecturing.

4. Mobility Map:

Mobility map is a PRA method used to explore the movement pattern of an individual, a group or the community. The focus is on where people go and for what. Other aspects of movement, like the frequency of visits, distance, and the importance of the places visited, may also be studied and depicted. It reflects the people's perception of movement patterns and the reasons there of. Mobility maps can be used for various purposes including.

1. Understanding the mobility pattern of the local people – where they go and for what.
2. Increasing gender – sensitivity and awareness by using them for highlighting the difference between the mobility patterns of men and women.
3. Evaluation of the impact of certain interventions in terms of their effects on mobility patterns.
4. Planning for intervention and projects.

Mobility map overlap with services and opportunities map:

The mobility map at times overlaps with the services and opportunities map. Both the maps look quite similar. In the mobility map, however, the focus is on the places which people visit and the reasons thereof, while in the services and opportunities map, the focus is on the services and opportunities. In the services and opportunities map, the services and opportunities available in the village are also represented.

Trends in mobility pattern:

Trend analysis and mobility mapping can be combined together to gain valuable insights into how the mobility pattern has changed over the years. This method provides reasonable scope for improvisation.

Seasonality of mobility pattern:

The changes in the mobility pattern with season can be another area of interest, particularly in rural areas where the seasonal variations exert a significant effect on livelihood and mobility patterns,

Seasonality Analysis:

This technique helps us to understand seasonal variations of any given activity or phenomenon, credit, rainfall, availability of labour, agricultural operations etc. The local calendar is to be used for this. Information relating to rainy days, crops, fuel, income, migration, food availability, total rain, animal fodder, agricultural labour, expenditure and sickness can be obtained by this technique.

Comparing mobility patterns of different groups:

We can also map the mobility patterns of two different groups: for example, school- going and out – of – school children, working and non- working women etc., This help to compare and contrast the different mobility patterns and also provides many valuable insights. Studying mobility patterns of men and women from the same village or community can be helpful in highlighting the gender factor.

Mobility map as a monitoring and Evaluation Tool:

Mobility maps can also be used as a monitoring and evaluation tool. For certain projects or interventions – a women's empowerment project, for example – mobility can be one of the indicators of empowerment. We should know how the mobility patterns have changed over the years with an intervention or project. So we can draw two mobility patterns, one before the intervention and one after it. Here, trend analysis is combined with mobility map. Though the base – line is necessary, we can manage without it as well. The participants can reconstruct the situation before the intervention by recall. Mobility map provides a good understanding of the mobility patterns of an individual, group or community.

Services and opportunities Map:

Services and opportunities map is another PRA method used to explore the spatial realities of the local people with specific reference to the local people's perceptions of the services and opportunities available.

A services and opportunities map appear similar to a mobility map in many ways. Here, however, the focus is on the availability of services and opportunities while in the latter, the focus is on the places local people visit. A services and opportunities map, in addition, can also reflect the distance, importance, and accessibility of local services as perceived by the participants.

The various services including education, health, transportation, railway station, bus station, telephone and markets are depicted in the map. The distances of the various services from the village are also represented. The exercise provides valuable insights into people's perception of the services, their aspirations, their feelings of deprivation etc., which are useful in any kind of planning.

Services and opportunities map provides valuable information on services and opportunities available in an area as provided by the local people. The discussions also help in identifying the aspirations of people and the ways in which they can be realized.

Services and opportunities map can be used as a monitoring and evaluation tool. A map is made in the beginning and then the subsequent changes in the services and opportunities are depicted. It proves handy in identifying the changes, and in initiating a discussion on the causes and on the ways of improving the services. Even when the base line map is not available, the participants can be asked to draw the same based on their recollection of the situation as it was earlier.

Services and opportunities map provides valuable visual information on the services and opportunities available in an area as provided by the local people. The discussions also help in identifying the aspirations of people and the ways in which they can be realized.

Trend/ Time Lime:

This technique is used to study villagers. It helps to understand farmer's priorities in crop varieties, vegetables, tree species, live stock categories etc., The purpose of this is to gain better understanding of farmers decision. Making process and identify criteria used to prioritize and select certain items of activities over others.

Venn (Chapathi) Diagram:

This diagram gives an insight into people's perceptions of relationships within the community between important persons, classes, government departments, and such others, or between the community and outsiders.

Wealth- Ranking:

It is a process by which members of a community jointly determine the relative wealth of all its members taking into account all assets, sources of income and liabilities of an individual family. In village wealth – ranking, the criteria for rich or poor to be determined by the villagers themselves may interestingly vary from land – holding to the number of chronic patients in the family.

Participatory census method:

Traditionally, questionnaire surveys have been the most predominant mode of data collection. But such surveys have been accompanied by numerous problems. In fact disenchantment with questionnaire surveys was one of the reasons behind the emergence of PRA and the subsequent evolution of PRA. Though participatory census is yet to establish its credibility with the researchers, it has come up as a possible alternative to questionnaire surveys.

Applications:

Participatory censuses generally follow social mapping and are aimed at taking a closer look at the individual households. They have been used to collect household level data. The information collected from a participatory census has shown a very wide range including.

1. Demographic details, for eg., age group and sex – wise distribution.
2. Ethnic group details, for e.g., caste, religion etc.
3. Productive assets, for e.g., land holding, livestock, trees, equipment, means of transportation, etc.

4. Health related information – prevalence of particular diseases, children requiring immunization, pregnant women and lactating mothers, malnourished children, etc.

Once the house hold- wise details are available, they can be compiled and figures arrived at. The data generated from participatory censuses have been used for various purposes including.

1. Identifying house holds with specific problems
2. Arriving at an estimate of the magnitude of the problems and issues at the local or community level.
3. Providing a base line for planning as well as subsequent monitoring of changes in the situation due to intervention
4. Analyzing of the problems and issues to design projects to improve the situation.
5. To initiate a process of thinking and analysis among the local people about the problems and what they can do themselves
6. Identifying households which require immediate intervention and which fall under the target group.

10. 7. Summary:

Participation occupies a central place in development thinking and practice programmes like Velugu, DWACRA and others involve an element of people's participation people's participation strengthens the programme.

Participation includes people's involvement in decision – making process, in implementing programmes, their sharing in benefits of development programmes and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes (Cohen and Uphoff, 1977).

There are seven types of participation namely (1) Passive participation; (2) Participation in information giving, 3) Participation by consultation; (4) Participation for material incentives; (5) functional Participation; (6) Interactive participation, (7) Self- mobilization.

The advantages of people's participation include, (1) Efficiency, (2) Effectiveness, (3) Self- reliance; (4) Coverage; (5) Sustainability.

The PRA methods include, (1) Social mapping; (2) Resource mapping' (3) Transect walk; (4) mobility map; (5) Seasonality analysis; (6) Services and opportunities map; (7) Trend/ time line. (8) vlnn (chapathi) Diagram; (9) Wealth – ranking; and (10) Participatory census method.

10.8. Key Words:

- a) People's Participation
- b) People's Participatory approach(PPA)
- c) Participatory rural appraisal (PRA)

10.9. Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the concept of community participatory approach.
- 2) Explain the various PRA methods and their importance.

10.10. Reference Books:

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Lesson - 11

SELF-HELP GROUPS AND INCOME GENERATING PROGRAMMES FOR WOMEN

11.0 Objective:

The objective of the present lesson are to explain the formation of self help groups and income generating programmes for women.

Structure:

- 11.1 Introduction**
- 11.2 Promotion of Community Based Organisations**
- 11.3 Organising SHGS**
- 11.4 Stages of Group Formation**
- 11.5 Why Should They Save and Lend?**
- 11.6 Advantage of SHGS**
- 11.7 Case Study**
- 11.8 Major Indicators of Effective SHGS**
- 11.9 Observations and Suggestions for NGOs**
- 11.10 Instructions by Reserve Bank of India**
- 11.11 NABARD Guidelines for Financing SHGS**
- 11.12 Networking of SHGS**
- 11.13 Women's Bank/Mahila Bank**
- 11.14 Income Generating Programmes**
- 11.15 Economic Empowerment of Women**
- 11.16 Summary**
- 11.17 Key-Words**
- 15.18 Self-Assessment Questions**
- 11.19 Reference Books**

SELF-HELP GROUPS

11.1 Introduction:

In the process of community organisation, Sangams are promoted, be it a village development association, Farmers Association, Mahila Mandali (Women's Association) Self-help groups, youth clubs, co-operatives or other kinds of people's body. These people's organisations are federated after a given period of time.

Community organisation is being accomplished through awareness, motivation, education, exposure, training, capacity, building, conducting village meetings and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) exercises, facilitation etc.

Theoretically one may tend to think that community organisation is a preliminary process and community development then takes place. But in reality community organisation is a long, ceaseless and intertwined process and sails throughout the course of development.

11.2 Promotion of Community Based Organisations (CBOs):

Community Organisation comes to action when community based organisations start functioning. Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) Promote different kinds of CBOs say, Mahila Mandals, Farmers Clubs, Youth Associations, Water Shed Committees, Health Committees, Disaster Management Committees, Co-operatives, Environmental Associations, Tree Grower Associations, Self-Help Groups, Vegetable Cultivators Associations, Water and Sanitation Committees and the like based on issues or programmes concerned. In the community organisation NGOs are very much process oriented enabling people to come together and workout the bylaws, modalities of operations etc.

Here the concept and organisation of Self Help Groups (SHG) has been described as a illustration for understanding. NGOs by organising SHGs, facilitate a 'silent sustainable grass-root revolution' for ameliorating the lives of the rural poor, particularly women.

11.3 Organising SHGs:

Organising Self-Help Groups emerged as a popular activity among the NGOs during 1990's.

The concept of SHG evolved out of women's organisations (Women Sangams). Earlier, NGOs organised the Woman Sangams in villages. The total number of members would exceed even 100 depending upon the women population of the villages. The executive committee consisted of a minimum of 7 members. Usually the president of the sangam functioned as a dominant personality and there was not much scope for all the members to interact in the affairs of the sangam.

The major participation of women was giving a monthly subscription sometimes the sangams were registered. They would be awaiting some financial help from the State Social Welfare Board, Panchayat Union, Bank etc. There were incidents that women sangams were organised and registered only to avail the grant-in-aid programmes from welfare boards and after a spell the sangams got disorganised, disrupted and vanished.

In other words, the women sangams were dependent upon or looking for somebody's help from outside. Either there by any appreciations or accusation of the sangams, the president was help responsible because she was the one who decided or influenced much on decision making.

NGOs who lived with the rural communities and closely observed and examined such women's activities visualised alternative paradigms to substitute the traditional women sangams so as to evoke active participation among all the members of the women groups. They identified the women groups as discerning and potential force among the villages through whom development programmes could be well initiated. The fact that smaller the group, higher the participation was realised by NGOs and hence small groups of similar interests were organised and found effective. Thus the self-help group were born.

It is very appropriate to state that India and other Asian countries inherited the principles of management etc; from the U.S. and European countries whereas the concept of SHGs blossomed in India so also in other neighbouring countries like BANGLADESH and the same is inherited in other parts of the world. It is a pride for this country that many experts from NGOs fly to different regions of the world to promulgate the SHG concept. Many NGO's who organised SHGs and promoted indigenous banking were invited to participate in the conference on Micro Credit held in Washington.

Through SHGs, women's movement and a silent revolution among women folk in taking place. NGOs according to their competence organise SHGs numbering from 50 even upto 500 groups, in a given region. Big NGOs like MYRADA, ASSEFA etc. and also many other regional NGOs have organised SHGS in large numbers districts-wide and also statewide.

SHGS are motivated to function as AGENTS OF SOCIAL CHANGE. Gender awareness, social education and trainings are imparted to these groups to improve their knowledge and skill and elevate their decision making power. Each group is restricted to 20 members so that effective participation could be ensured.

NGOs organise SHGs with the following objectives:

1. To inculcate self-help attitude among women folk;
2. To develop collective leadership.
3. To enhance effective women's participation in their development programmes.
4. To promote saving habit and develop an indigenous banking system within the village among the women folk;
5. To federate these SHGs under one umbrella or apex body not only for credit purpose but also to promote women's solidarity and eventually women's empowerment.

While the traditional women's associations took up for help from outside, the SHGs help themselves with their savings and resources. Hence helping themselves becomes the prime motto of SHGs.

11.4 Stages of Group Formation:

Various experiments of NGOs reveal that there are 4 important stages in the process of promotion of SHGS. The same are discussed below:

(a) Forming Stage:

This is the first stage during which the NGOs explain the concept of self help groups. After listening to this concept, women usually say that they are prepared to form a group. They give their names but it is observed that there exists an innate fear and anxiety. Some come forward to give their contribution on the same day and some others after two or three meetings. It takes a week to 3 months time between their first meeting and first lending. The group is trained to maintain their accounts. Each member gets her passbook from the group for her ready reference. The members choose a name to identify their group.

(b) Storming Stage:

In this stage, a lot of queries arise in the minds of the member of the Self Help Groups. The hidden anxiety and fear flare-up. The conflict between the individual interest and group interest happen to flash. The members tend to argue with organisers that their savings will have to be distributed to them after a said period of one year or so. When the members are told that self help group is a continuous process, some of them may withdraw their membership claiming their contributions.

In certain group meetings, elderly women may raise a query like this "I am getting old. Suppose something happens next year what will be the benefit for me". So also questions are asked as to what would happen to the savings made by the unmarried girls after they are married to persons outside the village. Some members pose questions to the organisers of NGOs as follows: "You are asking us to contribute our money. How much are you contributing for the group on your part? Can not you give a lumpsum amount, say, Rs.5000/- or Rs.10,000/- to start a viable in group leading? Why should we save if you are not contributing anything for us"?

This is a crucial stage for NGOs that the numbers are clearly educated that the self help group has been organised not like a chief fund/group which will be wound up after a said period, sharing their savings and profits. The members are appraised that the group's growth is a continuous process which can run not only all through their lives but even by generations if they wish. Any problem will have to be solved only through the divisions of the members themselves and not by the organisers. In this stage the group members are ensured that everyone in the owner of the group and not a nominee by the NGO or any outsider. The members have their sole authority to decide as to what to make as bye-laws; when to select as members; how much to contribute; how long to contribute; how much to lend to each individual, how to settle the account if any untoward incident happens to any individual, what welfare activities are to be undertaken for the village, how they can avail credit from banks and facilities from the government, how to make the credit and lending systems accountable to each member of the group and also to the financing institutions etc. They are reminded that it is the women's and women-owned groups for helping themselves and not an NGO's Self Help Group. In fact, NGOs build up competencies to manage and sustain the groups and to maintain their group's accounts and individual's pass-books. Self Help Group members are being enlightened that Self Help means, helping one's ownself and that is why self help is the best help.

(C) Norming Stage:

In this stage, members have a change to internalise the concept of Self Help groups. In the process of discussions in the group meetings, interactions, contributions, savings, lending, a mutual trust is being built and established among the members. Once the sense of being together is enjoyed by the group they tend to speak good about the groups to others. Group morale and group dynamics are found emerging collective decisions making gains prominence.

(D) Performing Stage:

Both the task and the maintenance functions of the group are clearly realised by the members of the group at this stage. Saving, lending and recovery activities go on smoothly with a sense of implied responsibility on the part of the members. They approach the Bankers for further credit assistance. They discuss about their family as well as village problems. Social obligation of the group is found articulated. They widen their hopes and thoughts that the group can surely be a tool for achieving socio-economic development through income generation and empowerment through collective actions. At this state the group mature to function on its own.

11.5 Why Should They Save and Lend:

The poor people in villages largely depend upon the money lenders to meet their urgent and immediate credit needs. It is a sad plight in the rural areas that people in low waters resort to borrow loans from the money lenders at a high rate of interest which is usually 120% per annum.

Suppose a person borrows Rs.100, he/she has to pay Rs.10 as interest per month. Hence in a year totally Rs.120 is paid as interest alone for a principal of Rs.100. Such exorbitant interests are collected by money lenders exploiting the magnitude of the emergencies and urgencies of the poor and unprivileged because the down trodden are not easily accessible to the regularised banking system to meet the immediate and important pecuniary needs of the women members or their families.

SHGs offer alternative better solutions to overcome such problems. The women members save at least Rs.20/- or more per month depending upon their saving capacities. Hence, in a SHG which consists of about members a minimum Rs.300/- per month is saved and the same is lent among the members from the first month onwards. Similarly in the second month again they collect another Rs.300/- and hence the savings is enhanced to Rs.600/-. Like wage, every month they save additional Rs.300/- and in a year the total saving would be Rs.3,600/- and along with the interest, the saving will accrue to Rs.4000/- a year. There is an aphorism in English that little drops of water make a mighty ocean and this has been made true among SHGs.

11.6 The Advantage of such SHGS:

Even a meagre amount, say Rs.50 or Rs.100 can be borrowed as loan.

The right and the deserving beneficiary is chanced to avail the loan on priority. Give and take principle is cultivated among the members.

People who are in exigencies like that of sickness are given preference.

Money is readily available right in the village itself. SHGS chance to create linkage with the Banks and approach Rashtrya Mahila Kosh and the Government for further assistance.

No cumbersome procedures need to be adhered to in granting the loan.

Almost 100% recovery is ensured. Otherwise the defaulters will be put in share by the other group members.

Above all, they feel that they are the owners of the group, custodian of the funds and beneficiaries of their own resources.

NGOs promote these SHGS not merely as an activity but as a value based social institution in the village. Looking at the vast potentials of the SHGs promoted with the profound commitment of the NGOs, the NABARD has recognised these SHGs though unregistered.

Accordingly, all the rural branches of the Nationalised and Commercial Banks have started linkage with SHGs at the initiative of the District Managers, NABARD.

Hence, suppose a SHG has a resource of Rs.5000/- the concerned service area bank provides it with an additional credit of atleast two times say a minimum of another Rs.10,000/- at a nominal rate of interest (below 12% per annum).

The group can grant loan to anybody as the members decide. The rate of interest can be fixed by the SHG itself. (usually 24%). The extra interest so collected from members can be pooled into the funds of SHGs. The bankers will not contact the beneficiaries directly but only the group. This saves a lot of time, stationery and documenting procedures that are involved in granting loans to individuals.

There are SHGs endowed with resources of more than Rs.5 lakhs. Many exemplary socio-economic programmes, have also been carried out by the SHGs. Here a wonderful case study of a SHG sponsored by MYRADA and patronised and financed by the Indian Bank in Dharmapuri District is given below for reference.

11.7 Case Study:

VOWAL THOTTAM SHGS DID WONDERFUL THINGS TO THEIR VILLAGE

Vowal Thottam is located 1.5 Kms from Othakkadai on the Madurai Melur high way in Tamilnadu. This village is inhabited with 500 families hailing from different caste groups and religions. In 1997, **Dr. N. Sethuraman**, founder of Meenakshi Mission Hospital desired to carryout some outreach programmes to the rural poor. He envisioned to promote Vowal Thottam as a model village. He believed that development of human resources particularly women is the crux of development of the country.

Under his guidance, SHGs named "SEMAM" were organised at Vowal Thottam. Semam means "well being". In another sense it means "to keep the reverses for the future use". Mrs. Lakshmi a widow who was committed to help womenfolk mobilised the local women and initiated to the form semam SHGs. Their activities are not confined to savings and lending. They have done wonderful things to their village what men could not do over the years. Some of them are listed below:

(a) Fair Price Shop:

The people of the village had no fair price shop. They had to walk to Kodikulam, 6 Kms. away from Vowal Thottam.

The men had been trying to bring a fair price centre for more than a decade but their efforts bore no fruits. Neither were they serious nor consistent in that endeavour or in any other village development activities. But these SHG women had a meeting among themselves previously known to men and worked out their plans to get a fair price shop. Suggested by Dr. N. Sethuramam, they wrote a petition to the District Collector. They obtained signatures of all the SHG members during

the night. The next day early morning, a group of ten women left to meet the collector at this bungalow as if they went for market purposes. (Had men know, they would not have allowed women to go to the Collectorate).

These women under the leadership of Mrs. Lakshmi met the collector at 7 AM at his residence at Madurai and the latter listened patiently to the women expressing the crying need for the fair price shop, in their village. He assured them to do the needful at the earliest. These women dispersed happily. They went to the sandy and other places to take care of their routine domestic requirements.

Before they returned to their village, the Tahsildar reached Vowal Thottam in his jeep with the order from the Collector and asked the local people to show a building to open the fair price shop. It was a pleasant shock and surprise for the people of Vowal Thottam. The women immediately located a building. The house owner asked for a rent of Rs.300/- per month. The Tahsildar told that the rent has to be borne by the local people and the women readily accepted to met the same out of their savings. Accordingly, the shop was opened in the presence of Dr. N. Sethuraman, District Officials, local leaders etc. The men enlised that the SHG members have really done a wonderful job for the common weal of the village. When the shop was opened, only 125 families had the ration cards but now all the 500 families have been issued the family cards. They regularly get the rice, wheat, kerosine, sugar, atta, and all the essential commodities.

1. The SHGs have pressurised the Government and six hand pumps have been erected. They are also fortunate with adequate and sufficient potable drinking water.

2. A drainage with a cost estimate of Rs.3 lakhs was constructed under the direct supervision of the SHGs. This has solved the health and sanitation problems in the village.

3. The internal roads with a cost estimate of Rs.50,000/- were repaired.

4. A bus stop for the village was approved by the transport authorities. Otherwise they had to walk either to Othakadai or Agricultural University gate walking more than 1.5 Kms.

5. Every year, the villagers celebrate the temple festival. The men used to mobilise and manage the finance. But now the women take care of the entire financial management of such festivals. The women now sit with all dignity and honour in the Panchayat and Gramsabha meetings; their voice is being heard from local panchayat to District Administration. They also settled cases with the police amicably and locally.

11.8 Major Indicator of Effective SHGs:

Study on SHGs promoted by NGOs reveals that the following are the indicators of effective SHGs:

PARTICIPANTS/SIZE MOTTO	: Small groups of 5-20 members. Self Help and Mutual Help.
ECONOMIC STATUS	: SHG Members are usually from poor families having similar interest.

allow group	OFFICE BEARERS	: The term of office bearers should be fixed with a minimum period of one year. Longer terms consolidation of power thereby weakening cohesion.
	MEETINGS	: Group meeting with a frequency of atleast once of footnight is found to be strong.
	SCHEDULE	: Meetings with a fixed schedule of day and time.
	ATTENDANCE	: Attendance register will be maintained. Average attendance may be over 90%.
	RULES	: Each SHG should frame its own rules governing its conduct, behaviour, management of finance and activities.
	SAVINGS	: Regular savings by each member is an indication of the member's commitment to the group and to personal growth and progress.
	COMMON FUND	: If the common fund revolves briskly it indicates that the group is "ACTIVE".
	DECISION MAKING	: Collective Decision.
	LEADERSHIP	: Collective Leadership.
	INTEREST ON SAVINGS	: The group should be free to fix the interest rate on savings and loans.
	RECORDS	: A good SHG maintains the following account books/ records viz. Attendance register, Minutes book, savings ledger member's pass-book, Receipt and payment vouchers, cash book, loan ledger etc.
	OVERDUES	: Normally recovery is 100%. In case of overdues, it should not exceed 5% of outstandings. Penalties are imposed on defaulters.
	PATTERNS OF LOANS	: Need based and priority based. Most of SHGs functioning well begin with tiny loans (Rs.500) mostly for consumption purpose and slowly graduating to larger loans for productive purposes.

11.9 Some Observations and Suggestions for NGO's in Organising SHGs:

NGOs educate the Self Help Groups, particularly in the area of accounts keeping that every individual member must be provided with a pass-book which is the most essential part of Self Help Group. This ensures the accountability of the groups and the members towards are another. This avoids suspicion and manipulation.

NGOs link the Self Help Groups with the concerned service area banks so that they can avail credit from the same. Lending of money raised by the members themselves may not suffice for

extending credit for viable income generation activities. The Commercial Banks, on observing six months savings of the Self Help Groups, grant loans double the amount of their savings. Likewise, the bank will give loans again and again double or triple the amount of their savings. Hence in this process SHGs are advised by the NGOs that saving must be continued at all times though enormous resources are being mobilised from other sources.

The group must be equipped to gain the confidence of the bankers. There are examples that even upto Rs.5 lakhs have been granted to Self Help Groups by the Banks. The NABARD is very much keen to guide the Bankers in this regard. NGOs encourage and motivate the Bankers too to extend credit to SHGs. In fact, they carry the concept of SHGs and instructions of R.B.I. and NABARD to the remote Rural Branches of Commercial Banks and convince the Branch Managers to establish rapport with SHGs and assist them financially and professionally.

11.10 Instructions by Reserve Bank of India:

- (1) SHGs, registered or unregistered, may open Saving Bank Account with banks.
- (2) SHG lending to be part of the bank's mainstream credit operations and may be treated as a business opportunity.
- (3) Lending to SHGs is an additional segment under priority sector advance of banking.
- (4) Lending to SHGs may be included in service Area Action Plans.
- (5) If situation warrants, lending to SHGs may be exempt from Service Area Jurisdiction.
- (6) Requirement of security, margin norms relaxed for lending to SHGs.
- (7) Defaults by a few members of SHGs/their family members to the financing banks should not come in the way of financing SHG purse provided the SHG is not in default.
- (8) Banks may prescribe simple documentation.

11.11 NABARD Guidelines for Financing SHGs:

The criteria laid down for financing SHGs are as below:

- (1) The group should have been in active existence for atleast a period six months.
- (2) The group should have successfully undertaken savings and credit operations from its own resources.
- (3) Democratic working of the groups wherein all members feel that 'they have a say' should be evident.
- (4) The group is maintaining proper accounts/records.
- (5) The banker should be convinced that the group has not come into existence only for the sake of pecuniary benefits in the project and availing benefits thereunder. There should be genuine need to help each other and work together among the members.

WIDER SCOPE:

There is a wider scope for NGOs in the country to organize Self-Help Groups and to link credit facilities with Banks.

Rakshtriya Mahila Kosh, a Governmental organisation, is yet another potential resource agency extending financial support to promote Self-Help Groups through NGOs. The same provisions could be exploited.

There are atleast 30,000 “working voluntary organisations” in the country. Hence it is hoped that there is every possibility that each NGO could organise atleast 5 “Sustaining Self Help Groups” every year.

The SGSY lays great emphasis on SHGs that through the latter credit and development interventions need to be executed.

As banks and resource agencies like Rashtriya Mahila Kosh, SIDBI etc. have launched special schemes to promote SHGS, NGOs in the coming years will better utilise such opportunities and can create a milestone in development in general and women development in particular.

Now many states in the country, like A.P. Govt. are massively promoting SHGs through Govt. machineries and federate them under MACS.

The Govt. of Tamilnadu has proposed a set up women banks in all the Districts of the state. The Prime Minister in his Independence Day address (2001) declared that SHGs would have been promoted in all the 14 lakh habitations by 2004 and credit worth of Rs.17000 crores would be lent to SHGs between 2001 and 2004.

11.12 Networking of SHGs:

Networking of Self-Help Groups and federating all such groups under an umbrella has been achieved at the cluster level, mandal level, block level and district level. This has created an enormous strength to the women folk. Networking lays a platform where common issues related to women like gender discrimination, low wages when compared with men, dowry, ill treatment by husbands and their male members, sale of illicit liquor in the villages, atrocities against women and also other issues like basic amenities to the village, environment etc. are being dealt with.

The federation represents the women related issues to the district and the state level officers and get their problems solved and needs fulfilled; and fact, to gain control over the resources and programmes concerned with them.

Thus networking has ultimately resulted in empowering the women folk.

11.13 Women’s Bank/Mahila Bank:

NGOs have facilitated the Self-Help Group to join together and pool all their resources as a common fund. With this capital the women groups run their indigenous banks in a central place of all those villages. The women out and out manage the banks without the involvement of any male member. Their banks are run on par with other modern banking systems in the maintenance of records but very much accessible to the members. The banks are more busier during the sandy days (weekly market days) where women members withdraw/deposit money on account of their transactions.

There are many examples and many models in the country for such women banks. Their resources exceed more than Rs.50 lakhs in certain cases. It would be amazing to observe such women’s banking activities that are promoted by thousands of illiterates and neo-literate women.

Constant and consistent motivation of NGOs have helped these women groups to run and own their banks. Credit facilities are made available to the members timely and justly and a total recovery has been ensured enabling smooth functioning of the banks. Micro credit is being undertaken as a major activity. But this should not be misused as a disguised form of money lending.

11.14 Income Generating Programmes:

Self-Employment is being realized as one of the methods to utilize the potential of women. It may be due to dual role she has to perform, emergence of nucleus family, non-availability of reliable servants and lack of proper hygienic creches. She can adjust her household schedule and business work easily in case of Self-employment activities. There is a need to evolve the strategies in this direction. Women entrepreneurship has been considered as one of the methods to utilize their skills and expertise in gainful economic activities. The need is greatly felt, due to spread of education opportunities, reduction in scope of public sector after introduction of new economic policies in 1991, women have started participating in activities. Still number of women's participation in business is relatively less as per statistically information available in different reports. Information relating to women working in informal sector is also not available. Emergence of women in business is widely felt in urban areas.

Among all the managerial functions, marketing function is one of the important and challenging functions of the business. Marketing poses a major problem both of new material and of finished goods. To cope with the competition in the market, advertising and publicity of the product become indispensable and that again involves heavy funding. The small enterprises do not know anything about markets do not have R & D facilities know-how for improving designs and quality nor do they know the technicalities of pricing etc. It has been observed that most of women entrepreneurs could not continue with their business or trade activity for the want of guidance on consumer demand and market mechanism.

11.15 Economic Empowerment of Women:

a) Poverty Eradication:

Since women comprise the majority of the population below the poverty line and are very often in situations of extreme poverty, given the harsh realities of intra-household and social discrimination, macro-economic policies and poverty eradication programmes will specifically address the needs and problems of such women. There will be improved implementation of programmes which are already women oriented with special targets for women. Steps will be taken for mobilisation of poor women and convergence of services, by offering them a range of economic and social options, along with necessary support measures to enhance their capabilities.

(b) Micro-Credit:

In order to enhance women's access the credit for consumption and production, the establishment of new, and strengthening of existing micro-credit mechanisms and micro-finance institution will be under taken so that the outreach of credit is enhanced other supportive measures would be taken to ensure adequate flow of credit through financial institutions and banks, so that all women below poverty line have easy access to credit.

(c) Women and Economy:

Women's perspectives will be included in designing and implementing macro-economic and social policies by institutionalising their participation in such process. Their contribution to socio-economic development as producers and workers will be recognised in the formal and informal sectors (including home based workers) and appropriate policies relating to employment and to her working conditions will be drawn up. Such measures could include reinterpretation and redefinition of conventional concepts of work wherever necessary e.g. in the census., records, to reflect women's contribution as producers and workers.

(d) Women and Agriculture:

In view of the critical role of women in the agriculture and allied sectors, a producers, concentrated effort will be made to ensure that benefits of training, extension and various programmes will reach them in proportion to their numbers. The programmes for training women in soil conservation, social forestry, diary development and other occupations allied to agriculture like horticulture, livestock including small animal husbandry, poultry, fisheries etc; will be expanded to benefit women workers in the agriculture sector.

(e) Women and Industry:

The important role played by women in electronic, information technology and food processing and agro-industry and textiles has been crucial to the development of these sectors. They would be given comprehensive support in terms of labour legislation, social security and other support services to participate in various industrial sectors. Women at present can not work in night shift in factories unless suitable safety measures are taken to enable woman to work on the night shift in factories. This will be accompanied with support services for security, transportation etc.

(f) Support Services:

The provision of support services for women, like child care facilities, including creches at work places and educational institutions, homes for the aged and the disabled will be expanded and improved to create an enabling environment and to ensure their full co-operation in social, political and economic life. Women-friendly personnel policies will also be drawn up to encourage women to participate effectively in the developmental process.

11.16 Summary:

Community organisation is a preliminary process and Community Development is take place. Community Organisation sails throughout the course of community development organising Self-Help Groups emerged as an activity among the NGO's during 1990. There are four important stages in promoting SHG's (a) Forming Stage, (b) Storing stage, (c) Norming Stage and (d) Performing stage. There are many advantages of SHGs. The beneficiaries avail the loans for income generating

programme. There is a wider scope for NGO's in the country to organise self-help group and to link credit facilities with banks.

11.17 Key Words:

1. Community Based Organisations
2. Storing Stage
3. Norming Stage
4. Performing Stage
5. Net Working

11.18 Self-Assessment Questions:

1. How to organise Self-Help Groups?
2. Write an group formation stages?
3. Explain the advantages of SHGs.
4. What are the major indicators of effective SHGs.
5. Explain Income Generating Programmes for Women.

11.19 Reference Books:

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- DR. A. GOWRI SANKAR RAO

Lesson - 12

DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN RURAL AREAS (DWCRA)

12.0 Objective:

- a. To comprehend and analyse DWCRA programme in India.
- b. To describe various issues relating to DWCRA programme.

Structure:

- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Concept and Objectives of DWCRA
- 12.3 Evolution
- 12.4 Characteristics of strong DWCRA Group
- 12.5 Administrative setup
- 12.6 Procedure
 - a. Formation
 - b. Funding
 - c. Income Generating Activities under DWCRA
 - d. Marketing
- 12.7 Problems of DWCRA members
- 12.8 Impact of the Programme
- 12.9 Monitoring and Evaluation
- 12.10 Summary
- 12.11 Keywords
- 12.12 Self-Assessment Questions
- 12.13 Reference Books

12.1 Introduction:

Women constitute 50% of the population and hence opportunities for the full development of the potentialities of women must be provided along with males for the National development. Unfortunately, provision of opportunities for full development of the potentialities of women remains a pious hope. "While women represent nearly 50% of the adult population and 1/3rd of labour force, they perform nearly 2/3rd of all working hours and receive only 1/10th of the world income and less

than 1% of the property.” (Pillai Kothari Jay, 1995). Hence there is an urgent need for the empowerment of women to bring equality between gender and national development. The empowerment of women is primary objective of the 9th five-year plan. The 9th plan recognizes the need for conducive credit policy to increase women’s access to credit. With a view to enhancing the access of women to credit and financial sources of the formal credit system, Government of India and Reserve Bank of India have announced a 14-point programme.

“In rural areas, the relative share of the female workers was higher among landless agricultural labourers. Due to the existing social conditions, taboos and customs, low level of women’s literacy, physical weakness, early marriage and child bearing, timidity and male domination, there has been discrimination against women in the society. This is despite their higher sense of job investment.” (KSS Uduman Mohideen, 2002).

With regard to health and nutrition there is a lot of discrimination among women. This has relationship with their socio-economic conditions. Women belonging to low class families with low literacy especially from rural areas do not follow good health and nutritional status, which has its impact on their children. There is an urgent need of economic empowerment of women, which will take care of the problems of health and nutritional aspects among them. Economic independence, employment opportunities and position of property will improve the status of women in the society. Hence, credit and Income Generating Programmes must be available to women especially for rural women.

“The government of India is emphasizing the need for the development of rural women and their involvement in the developmental activities. The provision of opportunities of independent employment and income to the illiterate and poor women boosts up their social status.” (Dr. K. Surekha Rao & Rajamanamma, 1996).

12.2 Concept and Objectives of the DWCRA Programme:

The main objective of DWCRA programme is to provide income generating skills and activities to poor women in rural areas thereby improving their social and economic status. “This Programme was formulated due to failures of IRDP to cover the targeted women beneficiaries in rural area. Further, this programme is to increase the income of the rural women folk, there by enhancing their status in the society”. (S. Srinivasan, 1993). Thus, the programme aims to make the rural women more accessible to health, functional literacy, safe drinking water, sanitation and nutrition and there by to improve the quality of life and general well being of the women and children.

Objectives:

- * To inculcate the habit of thrift among DWCRA group members.
- * To organize beneficiaries according to the group activities
- * To organize production enhancing programmes in rural areas.
- * To provide education in family welfare.

- * To enhance mutual self help and group support
- * To provide accessibility to resources and credit for purchasing income generating assets.
- * To provide access to appropriate technology and skills upgradation.
- * To disseminate knowledge about political and social situations.
- * To improve the status and quality of life of poor women and children in rural areas.
- * For enabling women to improve their earning capacities.

12.3 Evolution:

Poverty can be defined as the deprivation of some sections of the population in terms of income and consumption. When human beings are deprived of even the basic, minimum level of resources for human existence, it is called absolute poverty. Among those suffering from these poor social conditions, the section of rural women forms the majority. Rural women in our country suffer from being both economically and socially invisible. Hence, a special component plan for women in all developmental schemes was suggested in this context. In the 6th Five year plan (1980-85), economic independence was emphasized as an important issue for women's equality and directed that they should be included as targets of the anti-poverty programmes, it was only the 7th plan (1985-90) that emphasized that 30% of the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) beneficiaries should be women. With this idea, constant efforts are being made by Government of India to include women from below poverty line particularly women headed families under different anti-poverty programmes such as IRDP and TRYSEM. In spite of these programmes, the economic situation of poor people has not improved upto satisfaction particularly in the case of women. If women are provided with economic support, the whole family will be benefited when compared to men. An ILO study finds that men spend 60% of their income on their home and 40% on themselves, where as women spend 90% of their income on their home and 10% on themselves. Thus, if women get an opportunity to manage the household income, the family gets more benefits. It was with this view the Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas Programme was formulated as a sub scheme of IRDP in 1982-83 in 50 selected districts all over the country. Further, an additional 24 districts were covered during 1986-87. By 1994-95, it covered all the districts in the country. In Andhra Pradesh, this programme was started initially in 3 districts. Those are Adilabad, Cuddapah and Srikakulam. DWCRA programme is a group's approach since reaching women in isolation was considered far more difficult. In this programme, a group of 15-20 women belonging to families living below poverty line were supposed to be organized into groups under the administration of DRDA, which could then be given some benefits to the women. "About 1, 11, 148 DWCRA groups were formed in AP as on March 2000". (Appa Rao, C H, 2000).

12.4 Characteristics of Strong DWCRA Group:

1. The DWCRA members should possess an understanding of unity and a strong 'WE' feeling.
2. All the members should trust each other; communicate freely with each other and receptive to new ideas.

3. The members should be aware of strengths and weaknesses of others, learn from the strengths of others and help to overcome the weaknesses.
4. The members should be fully aware of and have commitment to the objectives and strategies of DWCRA.
5. The members should know their rules and functions in the team and work well.
6. All the members should meet regularly, review, self appraise and evaluate their own performance and make their suitable amends whenever it is necessary.
7. All the members should discuss their problems and resolve amicably conflicts, if any.
8. The team members should possess leadership qualities and should accept the leaders.

12.5 Administrative Set Up:

At the **Central level**, Ministry of Rural Development is incharge of the programme. At the **State level**, the Department of Rural Development handles the programme. A Deputy Secretary (Preferably a woman) is to be incharge of DWCRA programme. The principal secretary is the head of the administrative matters of the programme. At the **District level**, a woman officer as Assistant Project Officer (APO, Women Development) will assist the DRDA. The District Collector and Project Director, DRDA, looks after the administrative matters at the district level. At the **Block/Mandal level**, one Mukhya Sevika, Two Grama Sevikas will look after the programme and Block Development Officer (BDO) or Mandal Development Officer (MDO) will administer the programme. At the **Village level**, the programme is taken care by DWCRA group organizer and members (Baxamusa M. Ramala and Rajakutty S) (Figure No.1)

12.6 Procedure of the Programme:

a. Formation of Groups:

The mandatory size of the group in DWCRA is 10-15 members from the same cluster or adjoining villages who should come together for an activity of mutual interest to all. Mukhya Sevika and Grama Sevika who constitute the staff of DWCRA must stress on the advantages of forming a group in rural areas. The District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) plays an important role by releasing the amount through BDO/MDO for income generation by the groups. With the help of Gram Sevika, each group must open a joint account in the Savings Bank on the group's name. One member of the group, who will be selected as a group leader, must operate the account with the consent of the group. The Gram Sevika must scrutinize the accounts periodically in order to strengthen the rapport between the women i.e. group members and government functionaries. The group meets on a fixed day every month with 100% attendance.

The activity of DWCRA Sangham can be seen in Figure No.2. The DWCRA group which consists of 10 -15 members shall be supported by government in self employment in the thrust area and saving which has its relation to the group members' economic activity like tailoring, weaving, manufacturing etc. On the basis of these economic activities groups shall repay the loans. These groups shall be supported by various issues like adult education, family welfare, non-conventional energy source, protection of environment, protest against activities on women, back to school, health and nutrition. (Figure No.2).

b. Funding:

Rs.15,000/- as DWCRA fund is to be drawn by the group members in an installment manner. The first installment of Rs.7,500/- will be released as Revolving Fund, after some time of the formation of the group. Before getting this first installment Revolving Fund (RF), the group is supposed to develop cohesion and initiate group activities by forming into a group by the same village women or from adjoining villages. The activities must be thrift, adult literacy, immunization and family Planning. The second installment of Rs.7500/- will be released in due course after fulfilling required criteria. In the early 6 months period of group formation, with the help of 'Samakhya', a voluntary organisation the thrift habit is introduced among the group members. The group members contribute Rs.10/- or multiples every month.

c. Income Generating Activities under DWCRA:

Improving the status of women and their empowerment is possible only when income of the women is improved. Hence, identification and provision of appropriate Income Generating economic activity is one of the main thrusts of the DWCRA programme. Further, selection of the right and viable economic activities should be done scientifically for achieving good results.

The identification and then selection of a viable product opportunity is an outcome of the interaction between three factors such as the environment, the enterprise and the entrepreneur. (Figure No.3).

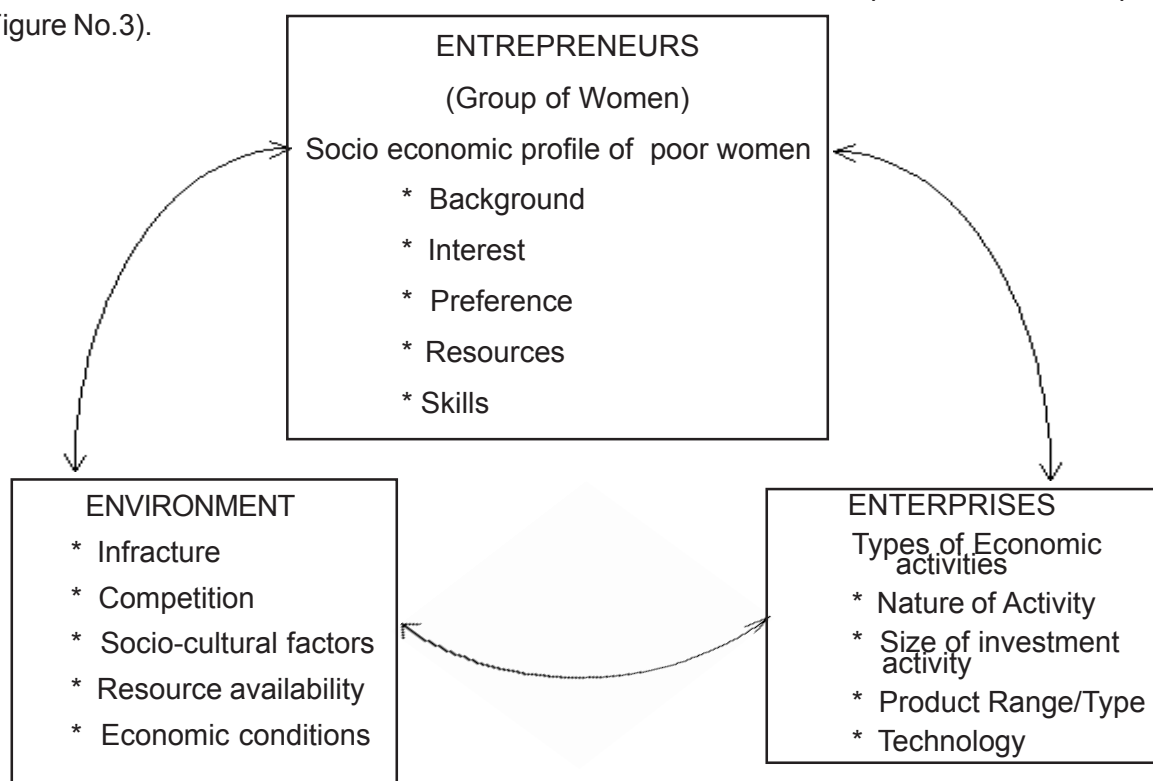


Figure No.3

Source: *Manual for the APOs in DWCRA, Ministry of Rural Development, GOI, By Dr. S. Rajakutty, 1995*

There is a constant exchange of sustenance between the women (entrepreneurs), the enterprise and the environment and the interrelationship between these factors has to be understood during the selection of economic activity. In DWCRA programme also, the integration of these factors must be taken into account to ensure better success.

d. Marketing:

“A DWCRA bazaar is a market where the goods produced by DWCRA women are put into sale at appropriate prices. They serve as a source of inspiration for rural women for getting reasonable profits and further enhancement of their work. Seven such bazaars were proposed in centres like Tirumala, V. Kota, Kuppam, Palamaner, Chittoor, Puttur and Tirupati, Chittoor District has got the distinction of standing second and third during 1998 and 1999, DWCRA bazaars conducted at Hyderabad respectively”. (K. Santha Kumari, 2002).

The process of selecting income generating programmes is based on identification of any business opportunity which includes information and assessment of skills. For this purpose, there are 3 major steps to follow i.e. identifying suitable economic activity, assessment of the product through a feasibility study in a given location and final selection of the product/project and establishing necessary linkages.

The nature of economic activity must be remunerative and with a small capital investment. Hence, the selection of economic activities may be made from a few areas like traditional female occupations such as post harvest agricultural activities i.e. husking, milling, animal husbandry, poultry, tree plantation, vegetable cultivation etc and female skills like quit making, crafts. Moreover, the activities should have ready marketing outlets.

To make DWCRA income generating activity viable and sustainable, a very strong marketing support is compulsory. Hence, a District Supply and Marketing Society (DSMS) has been established. Moreover, APO should also explore various Governmental programmes which can make use of the products of DWCRA groups. The DWCRA groups should be encouraged to tap new markets for their products like local haats, exhibitions, Melas, Private sector industry, Khadi Bhandar etc.

12.7 Problems of DWCRA Members:

1. Due to non-availability of Training to the members, the members cannot properly work hence there may not be demand for such items.
2. The financial assistance they are getting is also insufficient for the group. While getting the loan or financial assistance from banks, they are facing the problems like redtapism, corruption, involvement of middlemen etc.
3. The most important problem by DWCRA members is lack of marketing for the products made by the members. Apart from that, the members have to spend hours together on the activity along with their regular domestic work.
4. There is the shortage of raw materials for some members.

5. Due to lack of knowledge of the banking procedures, the members are not able to open the bank Account.
6. The members are facing the problems like group formation, lack of infrastructure, poor planning, inadequate support services, low level of skills etc.

12.8 Impact of the Programme:

There are a number of studies through which it is clear that there is a positive impact of DWCRA programme on families particularly in some issues like income, occupation, child schooling, immunization, awareness of family planning methods etc. Further, there is a lot of improvement in women's outlook, understanding, building self confidence, savings, health awareness, capacity to work on their own for their benefits etc.

“Due to this programme, women empowerment can be seen remarkably. As far as suggestions are concerned, the group members suggested that training must be given in different trades to the members so that they can engage in self employment in a proper way, loan amount must be increased, officials must be honest, responsible and corruption must be stopped, information about loans must be given”. (Dr. K. Surekha Rao, K. Suneetha, 2005)

12.9 Monitoring and Evaluation:

Monitoring and Evaluation are very important in order to measure the progress of any activity. The continuous and intensive supervision and follow up action necessary to achieve effective utilization of the assistance provided to the needy people is called monitoring. It is in continuous review by the management, participant and beneficiaries at every level of the implementation of the activity, to ensure that input deliveries and other required actions are proceeding according to the plan. In DWCRA programme APO collects such information. They provide continuous guidance and support to the junior functionaries for an effective utilization of the assistance. The APO and other DWCRA functionaries should assist and facilitate the groups to record and discuss useful information in order to keep track of activities and/or progress towards objective on a day to day or week to week or season to season basis. Monitoring also helps as a corrective mechanism wherever or whenever necessary.

Evaluation is a process done systematically and objectively to know the relevance, efficiency, effectiveness and impact of the project activities in the light of their set objectives. Evaluation provides information on whether a programme is a success or a failure. Hence in DWCRA groups, the APO, other functionaries, and group members periodically evaluate the benefits of the programme.

12.10 Summary:

Women constitute 50% of the population and hence opportunities for the full development of the potentialities of women must be provided along with males for the National development. The empowerment of women is primary objective of the 9th five-year plan. Hence, it recognizes the need for conducive credit policy to increase women's access to credit. With this idea, constant

efforts are being made by Government of India to start a number of anti-poverty programmes and DWCRA is one of it. The main objective of DWCRA programme is to provide income generating skills and activities to poor women in rural areas thereby improving their social and economic status. DWCRA programme was formulated as a sub scheme of IRDP in 1982-83 and it is a group approach since reaching women in isolation was considered far more difficult. In this programme, a group of 15-20 women belonging to families living below poverty line were supposed to be organized into groups under the administration of DRDA, which could then be given some benefits to the women.

Administrative set up of DWCRA programme is at 5 levels. At the central level, Ministry of Rural Development, at the State Level the Department of Rural Development, at the District level DRDA, at Block/Mandal level BDO/MDO will administer the programme. At the village level, the programme is implemented by DWCRA group organizers and members.

Identification and provision of appropriate income generating economic activity is one of the main thrusts of the DWCRA programme which depends on entrepreneur (group members), enterprises (types of economic activity), and environment (infrastructure).

For marketing of the products, DWCRA bazaars have been started by the state governments as a source of inspiration for rural women for getting reasonable profits and further enhancement of their work. Monitoring and Evaluation are done by the APO, other functionaries and group members periodically and evaluate the benefits of the programme. According to number of studies it is clear that there is a positive impact of DWCRA programme on families particularly in some issues like income, occupation, child schooling, immunization, awareness of family planning methods etc. Further, there is a lot of improvement in women's outlook, understanding, building self confidence, savings, health awareness, capacity to work on their own for their benefits etc.

12.11 Keywords:

- i. APO (Assistant Project Officer)
- ii. DRDA (District Rural Development Agency)
- iii. DSMS (District Supply and Marketing Society)
- iv. DWCRA (Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas)
- v. Evaluation
- vi. Funding
- vii. Grama Sevika

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- Dr. K. Surekha Rao

Lesson – 13

INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

13.0 Objective :

The objective of this lesson is to provide comprehensive understanding of IRDP in Rural Development

Content:

13.1. Introduction

13.2. Evolution of IRDP

13.3. Concept of the Programme

13.4 Objectives of the Programme

13.5 Selection and Structure

13.6 Administrative setup of the Programme

13.7. Achievements

13.8. TRYSEM

13.9. Summary

13.10. Keywords

13.11. Self Assessment Questions

13.12. Reference Books

13.1 Introduction

A rural community, that is a village, is an important unit, which consists of a few hundred acres of land supporting rural families. It is a cluster of mud houses, thatched or roofed with tiles and low standard of living. Ill balanced diet, unsanitary housing, ignorance and illiteracy etc as its main characteristics. It is very important to develop the conditions of these villages for a better standard of living. Hence the five-year plans gave preference to uplift the rural areas and bring economic progress in them. "Rural Development is a strategy designed to improve the socio economic life of rural people, with special emphasis on rural poor. It covers output, employment, health, education, transport, commerce, power supply, water control, political and social tensions." (Desai Vasanth, 1990)

According to Sri V T Krishnamachary, as quoted by Mamoria CB (1999) "While reviewing the objectives of the Community Development Programme and National Extension Service Programme, touched the points like leading rural population from chronic under development to full employment, leading rural population from chronic agricultural under production to full production of scientific knowledge, the largest possible extension of the principles of cooperation by making

the rural population like small and marginal farmers, artisans, landless labourers Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Basing on the past experiences with the working of the different rural development programmes, there has been an integrated approach since the beginning of the fifth five-year plan. The concept of integrated rural development programme was outlined in 1976-77 and the programme was launched in 1978-79 initially in 2300 blocks out of a total of 5011 blocks which was covered by the community development programme. Most of the earlier schemes, such as Community Development Programme (CDP), Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA), Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Landless labour Development Agency (MFDA) were merged into the integrated rural development programme. In October 1980, the Union government took a major policy decision of extending IRDP to the entire country and it has come to stay as one of the components of the 20 point programme.

13.4 Objectives of the Programme

The main objectives of the programme are growth and production, benefits to the identified target groups in the disadvantaged sections of the rural community and full employment with certain time frame. (Mamoria CD, 1999). Thus the main philosophy behind IRDP is to uplift the weakest of the weaker sections of the rural society to the above poverty line by providing them income-generating assistance.

It proposes to achieve this target through a package of subsidy and institutional credit. The assets given were animals, birds, tools, machinery or equipment which will help a beneficiary who belongs to the below poverty line in his or her vocation to generate income.

The IRDP envisages the development of the rural areas and people belonging to the weaker sections such as the small and marginal farmers, tenants and share croppers, landless labourers, rural artisans, members of the scheduled caste, Tribal Communities and women who suffer from economic and social handicaps removing poverty and unemployment and developing potentials of local resources to satisfy local needs and bring about environmental balance.

13.5. Selection and Structure

The village level worker or block staff and the Block Development Officer (BDO) prepare the list of poorest of the poor families on the basis of their social and economic status. The list will be placed in the Gram Sabha meeting, which is called by BDO. Local people, non officials, BDO, Bank Officers and important voluntary action groups take part and select the beneficiaries in the meeting. The final selected beneficiaries list should be displayed on the Notice Board of the Village Panchayat or block office. The Project Director, District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) is the highest authority in IRDP.

13.6 Administrative setup of the programme

At the central level, department of rural development in the Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi, has the over all responsibility of policy formulation, monitoring and evaluation of the programme and for release of central share of funds. A central level Co-ordination committee (CLCC) on IRDP and allied programmes had been constituted to assist the department.

fields. The objective of the wage employment was also added to TRYSEM programme in 1983. The selection of the beneficiaries was also same as the selection process followed in IRDP. The DRDA was the implementing authority of this programme. The training duration should not normally exceed six months. The DRDA should issue certificates to TRYSEM trainees after successful completion of the programme. Stipend to the trainees under this programme was also provided depending on the duration, nature and place of the programme. "The TRYSEM programme apart from imparting technical skills to rural youth also provides remuneration to the selected beneficiaries, i.e. a stipend of Rs. 158 per month plus other benefits such Rs. 50 per month for training expenses and Rs. 25 per month for purchase of raw materials. Besides, each trainee is provided with a tool-kit costing Rs. 250 to the government exchequer." (S. Srinivasan, 1993)

13.9. Summary

Rural Community Development Programme was started to improve the socio-economic status of the rural people. In so doing, a special emphasis has been given on rural poor. The block is the basic unit of community development programme. However, in the rural development programme, the rural poor belonging to the bottom stratum left untouched due to organisational inadequacies and improper planning. Hence, to eliminate these drawbacks and to improve the socio-economic life of poorest of the poor living in the rural areas, a new programme was started known as IRDP during the year 1978-79. The main objective of the programme was to provide various facilities to the identified target groups from the disadvantaged sections of the rural community and to provide employment opportunities for them. A prescribed proportion of the people from SC, ST, Women and Physically Handicapped sections were used to be selected as the beneficiaries under the programme.

At the Central level, department of Rural Development in the Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi has the overall responsibility for the programme implementation. The Project Director, DRDA was the implementing Authority at District level. At the block level, the BDO was required to perform the role of the chief co-ordinator in the block and also see that plans were prepared and implemented effectively.

Though the programme could reach the targets according to the guidelines of the programme, the performance of the programme was uneven in different states. Further to bring more benefits to the people, TRYSEM programme was started to the youth between 18-35 years of age to give training to them in various trades and to encourage them to start their own self employment programmes by providing financial assistance.

13.10 Key Words

1. Allied Programmes
2. BDO (Block Development Officer)
3. CDP (Community Development Programme)
4. CLCC (Central Level Co-ordination Committee)
5. DRDA (District Rural Development Agency)

Lesson - 14

IMPLEMENTATION OF RURAL & URBAN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS - PROBLEMS AND LIMITATIONS

14.0 Objective:

The objective of the present lesson are to explain the implementation of Rural & Urban Community Development Projects-Problems and Limitations.

Structure:

- 14.1 Introduction**
- 14.2 Rural & Urban Development Projects of Problems and Limitations**
- 14.3 Special Projects - Problems and Limitations**
- 14.4 Urban Community Development - Implementation**
- 14.5 The Implementing Agencies to take seven steps**
- 14.6 Urban Community Development - Problems and Limitations**
- 14.7 Summary**
- 14.8 Key Words**
- 14.9 Self Assessment Questions**
- 14.10 Reference Books**

14.1 Introduction:

Rural Development involves raising the socio-economic status of the rural population on a sustainable basis through optimum utilisation of local resources, both natural and human. While external help is necessary, rural development can be achieved only when the rural people actively participate in the development process.

The essence of development is not in 'providing' but in 'promoting' the rural sector. The rural population should know how to sustain itself financially and gain economic independence. Therefore, the stress of rural development should be on self reliance. Also rural development should result in greater access to the rural population to goods and services.

Rural Poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon. The approach to rural poverty alleviation should be a realistic one. In the Indian context, rural poverty alleviation calls for (1) according high priority to basic needs and agricultural growth (2) strengthening the assest base of the poor rural households (3) Effective implementation of anti-poverty programmes, both employment generation programmes and asset distribution programmes and above all, (4) Changing the rural power

structure in favour of the poor by closely associating the worker sections with the functioning of organisations at the grassroots level.

Rural poverty alleviation needs concerted, efforts at various levels. Implementation of anti poverty programmes in a prefatory manner would only increase the incidence of leakages instead of reducing the incidence of poverty.

Issues related to on going antipoverty programmes like Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), Training Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) and Drought Prone Area Prgoramme (DPAP) were incorporated in the Eighth Plan for implementation on priority basis.

14.2 Rural & Urban Community Development Projects - Problems and Limitations:

In actual practice, the anti-poverty programmes suffer from many limitations. It has also been rightly observed, that "Poverty in the country cannot be eradicated by investments in anti-poverty measures only, however large, while other investments in the economy are not oriented to this objective and, therefore, offer no assistance to poverty eradicaties and may, on the contrary, add to its volume.

Prof. C.T. Kurien has criticised "the anti poverty programmes on the ground that they are the programmes without a frame work considering realities of the situation on the ground. As a result, what the government gives to the poor through anti-poverty programme is taken away not unstealthily by the social process dominated by the rich".

It is also argued that the target-oriented programmes are prone to confer more benefits on the transiently poor' than on the chronically poor'. This is so because the former can exercise influence, are better educated and can incur the costs of search and bribery more easily. Moreover, the government officially themselves often prefer to deal with the less poor among eligible households.

One difficulty with the anti-poverty programmes is that financial allocations and physical targets are determined without taking into account the local conditions such as incidence poverty, size of population and the resource endowments.

Most rural areas/households suffer from limited credit absorbtion capacity. As such, the seventh plan suggested group oriented activities through co-operatives, registered societies, informal groups etc. By adopting this approach, economics of scale inherent in some activities in the services sector could be fully realised and beneficiaries can also be protected from adverse operations of market forces.

It is however, admitted that the anti-poverty schemes suffer from high incidence of leakages. This is attributed to many factory. The rural sector (in particular the poor) is unorganised and as such does not have correct information about developmental programmes.

There has been wrong identification of beneficiaries. Most studies say that not less than 20 percent of benefits are pocketed by the non-poor. The land records are absent, and even if they are there, they are manipulated through political and money power. As the rural poor are dependent on the rural rich, the latter taken advantage of the former to get the benefits of subsidised food, inputs, credit and even subsidised rationed food and sugar which are made available to the rural poor.

The over-centralisation of development programmes has to a great extent institutionalised the corrupt practices. Some of the beneficiaries receive milch cattle only on paper. The enhanced role of intermediaries and undue delay in the release of assistance are also responsible for high incidence of financial leakages.

There is also the tendency to over price the assets. For instance, higher prices paid by IRDP participants in the livestock market are not compensated by higher quality of the animals purchased. This has naturally eroded development funds.

Of course, the beneficiaries themselves are responsible for these leakages. They may not properly utilise bank funds. The pressure of consumption needs and social obligations are always there.

Most rural schemes are being implemented in a hap hazard manner. About the rural housing schemes, a journalist has this to say.

In parts of Rajasthan, houses constructed under the Indira Awaas Yojana for the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes were cornered by the affluent. All over the country, there are several thousands of these houses lying desolate. Built without consulting the people, they are away from the rest of the village and nobody wants to live in them. Doors windows, roofs and even bricks of these ghost houses have been stolen. Lakhs of rupees have gone down the drain and the government has yet to decide what to do with these abandoned houses.

The situation may not be different in other, states where the leakage of benefit is said to be increasing substantially.

A major drawback of the special schemes is that the assets provided do not match with the requirements of the beneficiaries. The demand pattern of the poor stand completely ignored. As such the goods and services provided by the programmes and official agencies fail to confer benefits on the target groups to the extent expected.

The food grain supply under the anti-poverty programmes has reportedly declined in recent years. This is a disturbing development particularly because both the government and the world bank are harping on the need for new social safety net, to protect the poor from the adverse impact of economic reforms.

The distribution of food grains under the anti-poverty programmes declined from 22 lakh tonnes in 1986-87 to 1.26 lakh tonnes in 1990-91 and to merely 17,000 tonnes in 1991-92. This decline is attributed to inadequate availability of food grains in the buffer and the government's repeated emphasis on releasing the stocked grain to the public distributing systems.

The productivity of these schemes seems a distant dream. There is heavy concentration on the construction on of roads and buildings. Realising this, the government declared that under the new schemes, atleast 50 percent of the funds would be spent on land development activities such as soil conservation and water harvesting while expenditure on buildings and road construction should not exceed 25 percent.

In the implementation of special schemes, geographical targeting is usually forgotten. As a result of implementation of special schemes for well over two decades, poverty ratio is said, has come down in some areas. Therefore, there is no point in allocating funds uniformly among all the blocks under a particular scheme.

Delivering the **J.P. Memorial Lecture** in New Delhi on November 21, 1985, **Prof. B.S. Minhas** observed “our approach to overcome poverty since the early 1970s has been extremely flawed. The anti-poverty programmes have been over-centralised. The best model of development for the removal of poverty, shorn down to its essentials, has been reduced to schemes for dispensing of political and bureaucratic patronage on an individualised basis. It is not only leading us into inefficiency and corruption, but we also run the danger of its being used for perpetuation of poverty as a patron-client basis”.

The existing schemes were centrally planned, designed, managed and controlled by bureaucrats with no participation by the intended beneficiaries or by agencies truly representing them.

Also, these schemes failed to realise the need for a critical minimum level of resource inputs to break out of the poverty cycle. There is no systematic effort to mobilise resources on the scale needed to eradicate poverty.

The main drawback in our planning for the weaker sections appears to be lack of clear understanding of the prevailing environment and the factors associated with them.

There is ample evidence to show that strategies based on the trickle down theory will not be enough to tackle the problem of rural poverty. In most developing countries, not only the growth rate is inadequate, but even the pattern of growth is such that it helps widen the income inequalities.

While a strong case is advanced for the continuance of special schemes, efforts should be made to see that the poor do not depend on the government permanently. These schemes should help the target groups equip with in a reasonable period of time.

Prof. Dantwala has observed that the success of the special employment schemes should be judged by the progressively reduced reliance on them.

14.3 Special Projects - Problems & Limitations:

Rural Handled Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP):

The reluctance of the beneficiaries to accept a part of the wage in kind. Much time is wasted in getting grains from fair price shops.

The wages paid are generally lower than the prevailing wage rates.

1. Though the class of contractors was abolished for this scheme, the practice of incorporating fictitious figures of mandays in the records continued.
2. The ratio between labour and material is fixed at 50:50 if this ratio is observed, certain works remain unfinished.
3. There is absolutely no provision, what so ever, for the maintenance of the projects constructed under this programme.

The seventh plan observed that for the selection of assets under RLEGP, the basis was department plans and not local requirements. The objective of providing/requisite quantum of employment to the landless labourers too remained neglected.

The report further said that identification of rural landless households was not made. Identity cards were also not issued to the individually concerned to serve as a record of employment guaranteed. Also, contrary to the instructions, works were entrusted on contract basis to nominees of Gram Panchayats and payments were made to them. There was also no verifiable record to show that the nominees distributed wheat as wages to workers.

Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY):

1. Release of resources to mandal panchayat was delayed and as a result implementation of the scheme got delayed.
2. JRY wage rates have been reported low as compared to the locally prevailing wage rates;
3. Non-availability of workers and material during certain seasons caused delay in completing the works;
4. Food grains distribution to the workers as part of their wage is difficult due to irregular supply, lack of storage facility, low quality etc;
5. Lack of co-ordination between different agencies involved in implementing the scheme.
6. Works are given on contract basis, though it is not permitted.

The occupational background of JRY workers was 55 percent were landless labourers, 39 percent small and marginal farmers and 6 percent rural artisans. Concurrent evaluation has revealed that annual action plan in accordance with the JRY guidelines were discussed in Gramsabha meetings only in 60.71 percent cases at the national level.

Much criticism has been levelled against the delivery mechanism. It is said that only about 57% of the money is left to the panchayat to spend. The remainder is decided at the block/DRDA government officials get frequently transferred and in some states the duly elected panchayat system remains absent.

Also, the wage component ratio so far followed was 60:40. This has resulted in creation of poor quality assets. In order to solve this problem, efforts were made to dovetail JRY with other developmental activities in the Gram Panchayats area. While other schemes reportedly help to provide assets, the wage component was to be paid out of JRY Funds.

The panchayat should become a planning and guiding machinery at the local level. Group activities would be encouraged to reduce the chances of misuse of funds.

Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP):

In the sixth plan nearly 30 percent of the beneficiaries were actually ineligible due to incomplete survey of households non-issue of vikas patikas, non-holding of Gramsabhas and general apathy.

A major problem facing IRDP is wrong identification of beneficiaries which is placed between 15 to 20% in the seventh five year plan. This has been attributed to poor database, non-involvement of people's institutions in the survey and selection process, collision between the government functionaries and vested interests.

The IRDP has also suffered from certain deficiencies no proper identification of beneficiaries, lack of infrastructural facilities, absence of technical guidance to beneficiaries, lack of co-ordination amongst the bank and block officials and under-financing of projects which subsequently resulted in poor return. Also Insurance claims of animals failed to be settled expeditiously.

Delays occur at several points due to lack of co-ordination between the various agencies. The time taken is approximately one year from the time the DRDA application form is filled up till the grounding of the scheme.

The IRDP guidelines are remaining only on paper. According to one case study the 'gram sabha' was never convened; each IRDP beneficiary has to bribe the gram sevak and the household surveys were reportedly not conducted and the URDP list is nothing but a list drawn up after loans have been sanctioned.

Training Rural for Self-Employment (TRYSEM):

All those who obtained training may not be in a position to start their own industrial units. Some of the beneficiaries should be prepared to take up wage employment in small and village industries and also work artisans.

The scheme would become popular and successful in a region only when that region experiences a high rate of growth, particularly in respect of industrial growth. The scheme has failed to produce positive results in regions which suffered from high poverty ratios. This can be taken as an indication that the absorption ratio was impressive in better - off regions. The poor infrastructure has failed to help trainees in the rural sector to follow the pursuits in which they had attained skills under programme.

Various evaluation studies have highlighted certain problems like lack of finance and lack of confidence among the trainees in the implementation of the TRYSEM.

There are some special problems faced by beneficiaries. Travelling long distances, waste of time and high expenses. The training period is stated to be too short to master the skill in trades like handloom weaving; silk and weaving and TV and radio mechanism.

Most trainees are of the opinion that the amount of loans sanctioned is inadequate to carry on their business. This often leads to diversion of loan amounts from productive to unproductive purposes. Also, there is considerable delay, in some cases even two years, in the disbursement of loans.

There has been too much stress on certain trades and skills. This led to shortage of skills in respect of certain trades and surpluses in respect of others. For instances, most women get stitching machines under TRYSEM. But, tailoring may not be remunerative always and in all regions.

In many cases, the training programme organised under TRYSEM and the activities chosen for assistance under the IRDP are totally unrelated.

In certain cases, the duration of training has been very short. For instance, with three month's training, the electrician may not be in a position to undertake any remunerative enterprise.

It is also pointed out that the training imparted had less emphasis on practicals. Training should not be less than one year. There is also the need for raising the subsidy.

The trainees need to be encouraged in terms of incentives and also helped in the preparation of projects. But, in actual practice, there is hardly any effort towards this end. There is very little co-ordinate on among block level administration, banks, DIC and the DRDA to arrange these incentives.

Banks are no doubt taking interest in identifying the potential beneficiaries. But they have to take up a more active role. They must be associated with the scheme right from the stage of selection of trainees to identifying suitable trades and preparation of project reports and schemes introduced by the bank management.

Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA):

The identification of trades is generally done without baseline surveys. Though only a few trades achieve good financial returns, they may not be relevant to the local situation or remunerative to DWCRA beneficiaries.

Case studies reveal that non traditional units have failed to achieve popularity among the rural women. The reason attributed to this crisis is lack of technical skills, among rural women. Moreover, the non traditional items like wig-making, dress-making and cosmetics do not have sufficient marketing. The initial investment for setting up non-traditional units is substantially high.

The women under DWCRA have not been trained in basic skills for appreciating and availing of the benefits of these viable income generating schemes. As a result of poor marketing infrastructure, they have been forced to switch over from product to product.

It has also been pointed out that the DWCRA products lack economic feasibility. Most products are left with no buyers in the absence of aggressive marketing. Some of the assets like machines obtained under DWCRA have failed to enter the market. The trouble would arise when schemes get implemented without conducting surveys to assess the reaction and acceptance levels of the target group or preparing feasibility reports.

According to one study, tailoring trade has faced the problem of developing an appropriate strategy for readymade garments. The major problem of dairy trade is uneven price realisation and that of mat weaving is scarcity of basic raw-materials.

The scheme also suffers from wrong selection of group activities by the groups, the reason being lack of skills, aptitude and local conditions at the initial stage. Lack of co-operative zeal among the members of the group was also observed. They generally lacked management skills.

The scheme suffered from inadequate availability and high cost of raw-materials. The products failed to secure local demand. The products suffered from poor quality and also competition from big companies. Product diversification was an uphill task for women members whereas the market situation required it.

Inadequate provision of backward and forward linkages needed for the smooth functioning of the scheme has emerged as major shortcoming. It has also been observed that the amount sanctioned for revolving funds is inadequate.

The training period is too short to master the skill. The trainees had to wait for four to five years for starting the trades. During this period the trainees may lose their grip over the skills they acquired.

Lack of skill training, staffing as per norms, low motivational levels of various functionaries, low literacy, lack of convergence with existing services, delay in release of funds from the states to

DRDA's and resources constraints are some of the major problems in implementing DWCRA.

The scheme also suffering from many organisational difficulties. It is said that women beneficiaries do not have any say in the kind of activity they could undertake. A gain artificial groupings, lacking in cohesion, may fail to deliver the goods. Furthermore, they are unable to agree upon end select the most suitable activity that has some chance of succeeding. Also frequent staff transfers and too many vacancies have put a question mark on the economic feasibility of the scheme. A low priority has been given to DWCRA by the DRDAs; Little convergence of other social service and programmes like nutrition family welfare, immunisation, adult literacy and inadequate marketing outlets and infrastructural facilities. There is undue delay in the delivery of development assistance. This is mainly due to lack of functional co-ordination among the various agencies, viz, Banks, DRDA and the beneficiaries. The implementing agencies generally do not take proper interest in providing any supporting facility viz, community centres, child care, adult education, immunisation etc.

14.4 Urban Community Development - Implementation:

The implementation of any project/programme involves two aspects (i) Proper utilisation of funds, and (ii) achievement of desired objectives and results.

The implementation stage at present suffers from many deficiencies.

First, the involvement of the implementing agency in terms of efficiency and responsiveness in the programmes lacks commitment.

Second, the implementing agency is not fully aware of the implications of the guidelines received from the above. These guidelines often ignore the local conditions.

Third, the schemes, which are omnibus in character, are not based on the realities, particularly regional variations. The details of the community economy do not also receive due attention.

Fourth, the administration has by and large remained a regulatory agency. When it is called upon to discharge the developmental functions, it may face many difficulties. The regulatory and developmental functions are not always complementary.

Last, the implementing machinery is not concerned with as to how the resources for development would be raised and it has no responsibility towards raising of resources either.

14.5 The Implementing Agencies have to take Seven Steps:

- (i) Planning which includes orientation-Training for the functionaries. The field staff should be aware of the task ahead. The area has to be surveyed and the data have to be properly analysed.
- (ii) Formulation of schemes and projects should be alone taking into account the views of the intended beneficiaries. Awareness building amongst beneficiaries is important. There should be interaction between functionaries and beneficiaries. The selection of schemes and projects and ensuring proper integration by following a cluster approach are important. The intention is to pool up mutually supportive programmes.
- (iii) Planning and formulation of infrastructure development schemes are crucial to the success of schemes. Besides providing infrastructural facilities, the planners should

see that backward and forward linkages are ensured. Implementation of schemes with-out provision of infrastructure amounts to putting the cart before the horse.

- (iv) The execution of schemes/projects should be carried out in an orderly manners. The constraints like adequate skills and inefficiency should be overcome and co-ordination amongst various departments should be ensured.
- (v) Effective implementation of the project should be ensured by organising the beneficiaries and training the group leaders.
- (vi) Monitoring of programmes is important to take mid-course correctives. Reports have to be obtained to analyse them for a follow-up action.
- (vii) Evaluation is needed to judge the quality of implementation. This would help both to improve the plans and ensure effective implementation of programmes in future.

The psychological needs of promoters of the target programme in terms of autonomy and motivation should be recognised. Decentralisation of decision-making gives implementary (promoters) a personal stake in the performance of their jobs. Internal stimuli rather than only material incentives increase commitment. Governments create a new bureaucracy whenever a social problem appears, then need is to carry it to its logical conclusion of sharing decision-making with field implementers and clients.

There is further indication from experience that deficiencies in implementation may also be due to inadequate planning of projects at the initial stage, causing slip pages in schedules, cost overruns and poor performance generally.

14.6 Urban Community Development - Problems and Limitations:

It is not easy to find solutions to the problems cited and discussed above. During the post independence period, the Government of India and the State Government have been providing piecemeal solutions to the problems. But for the first time in the year 1988 the government of India has appointed a National Commission on urbanization to study and analyse the urban situation in India in a holistic perspective and to suggest measures for future planning. Accordingly, the Commission has come out with interesting recommendations on all major areas of urbanization.

There should be equitable access to land and provision of land of housing the poor. Whenever possible squatting on public land should be legalized. People keeping vacant land should be taxed to discourage them from keeping their land vacant. Recycling of land should be encouraged. The recommendations to combat the increasing problem of urban poverty include training of about four lakh urban poor in various skills every year, credit facilities for self employment, production and market support, worksheds for times manufacturers, wage employment in the developmental programs and strengthening of the public distribution system are made. To meet the increased demand for housing policy should aim at increasing the supply of serviced land and low - cost shelter, improving and up grading slums and conserving the existing housing stock. The state should take steps to provide access to land, finance, infrastructure and community facilities. The tenancy protection should be limited to the poor.

Secondly, the residents also believe that their location in the central city is very helpful from the point of view of availability of amenities and services, nearness to shopping areas and work

places - often within the walking distance. The Muslim ladies generally do not move out of their area. The residents have become adjusted to the physical problems for generations.

Certain aspects of the urban economy have received greater attention in the five year plans. Finance for housing, slum clearance and improvement, town water supply and sewerage, urban transportation, and the preparation of city master plans and the related problems in all these areas, the funds allocated are indeed meagre, and even here, the lion's share is allocated for a few major projects in some states, while other parts of the country hardly receive any funds. There is considerable lip sympathy for the small towns and the weaker sections of society.

Urban development has been given low priority in the five year plans. Even when its importance is admitted, the measures suggested for the solution of the problems are half hearted. There is a tendency to advise state government and recommend measures that even the central government cannot implement.

14.7 Summary:

The problems of the rural-urban fringe cannot be resolved within the existing administrative frame work. There is a need to evolve new patterns of administration of the fringe zone.

14.8 Key Words:

UCD : Urban Community Development

RCD : Rural Community Development

14.9 Self-Assessment Questions:

1. Discuss the major limitations in the implementation of Urban Community Development Projects.
2. Discuss the major limitations in the implementation of Rural Community Development Projects.
3. Discuss the Problems faced in the process of implementation of Urban Community Development and Rural Community Development Programmes.

14.10 Reference Books:

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- DR. DHANA LAXMI

Lesson - 15

IMPLEMENTATION OF TRIBAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS : PROBLEMS AND LIMITATIONS

15.0 OBJECTIVE :

The objective of the lesson is to write an implementation of tribal development projects its problems and limitations.

Structure :

- 15.1 Introduction**
- 15.2 Economically and Socially Backward**
- 15.3 Implementation of Tribal Development Projects**
- 15.4 Major Problems**
- 15.5 Limitations**
- 15.6 Summary**
- 15.7 Key words**
- 15.8 Self Assessment Questions**
- 15.9 References**

15.1 INTRODUCTION :

The tribal population suffers from economic and social backwardness. According to 1991 census, tribal population (87.8 million) formed 8.08 percent of the total population of India. In spite of constitutional provisions, integrating the tribals into the mainstreams remains a tough task. About 55 percent of the scheduled tribes population is concentrated in the East and the central tribal belt including West Bengal, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and part of Andhra Pradesh. The tribal areas, rich in forest and mineral resources, constitute 20 percent of the country's total geographical area.

The tribal regions are rich in mineral and forest resources. True, most tribals have more than one occupation. But, they live in poverty mainly because they are exploited, in several ways, by the middle men, money - lenders, traders, landlords, labour contractors and officials. Moreover, in 1981, the percentage of literacy for the tribal population was only 16.35.

According to the Agricultural census 1985-86, out of the total operational landholders (97.2 millions) in India, tribal landholders amounted to 7.6 million (7.9 percent) of India's operated area (164.6 million hectares), 17.2 million hectares (10.5 percent) of land belongs to tribals (net area

cultivated was only 14.9 million hectares) The Eighth Plan seeks to formulate co-operatives for different occupational groups amongst the Scheduled Tribes. In order to encourage self-employment avenues, programmes to enhance productive and managerial skills would be planned to benefit tribals. Measures would also be initiated to ensure greater participation of tribal people in conservation and development of forests and preservation of ecology.

The Govt has made attempts to strengthen the vocational training centres in tribal areas and the State Tribal Development Co-operatives operating in minor produce. An amount of Rs. 5.40 crore has been provided for this purpose during the year 1993-94.

Under the central scheme launched recently to encourage literacy among tribal women, essential educational complexes were reportedly set-up in 48 districts where the rate of literacy among tribal women has been less than two percent. The scheme was developed to impart education and vocational training. A provision of free uniforms, periodical health checkup and incentive of Rs. 30 per month to parents for sending their children to residential schools has been given priority. The proposed scheme also provides for adult education in the evening. The scheme has been implemented by the Govt through voluntary organisations.

Administrative preparation is an important though a missing link in the tribal development programme. Implementation of major and medium irrigation projects often result in displacement of tribal people. This makes it the obligation of the concerned administration to see that they are properly rehabilitated.

It would be better if there is a single line administration in the tribal sub-plan areas. The village assistants should be from the tribal population and priority should be given to land provision to landless tribals.

The age-old links between forests and the tribal people needs to be clearly recognised. The various acts passed to protect forests should take into account the level of the dependence the tribals have on forests. After all, the tribals make a living by selling their produce, and they usually do not exploit forest wealth for profit.

The National Forest Policy has rightly observed that the life of tribals and other poor, living within and near forests, revolve around forests. The rights and concessions enjoyed by them should also be fully protected. Their domestic requirements of fuel wood, fodder, minor forests produce and construction timber should be the first charge on forest produce.

The success of tribal development schemes should not be judged in terms of funds allotted for such schemes. It should be assessed by the positive achievements attained in the direction of social transformation. As such, voluntary agencies with assistance from governmental departments, could play a useful role in raising the socio-economic status of the tribal population.

Tribal development should be also maintain congruity with tribal culture and psychology or else the proposed scheme would remain only far-fetched. Of course, tribal development strategies succeed only when there is inter-departmental co-ordination. More funds would be required for making tribal development schemes cost effective and meaningful. At present, a lion's share of the allocated finance for such schemes goes to infrastructure development. Also intensive training to workers associated with tribal

development programmes is also required. The selection of schemes should also take into account the needs and demands of the tribals and also the absorptive capacity of tribal regions.

15.4 MAJOR PROBLEMS :

The emancipation of tribal community is no easy task, and it has socio-political and economic implications; The powerful feudal and vested economic interests had to be fought against and new-modes of role relations had to be established to ensure tribal claims. Programmes implemented without institutional change had helped to strengthen the already entrenched social interests marginally.

The Eighth plan observed, "The scheduled tribes" problems arise from geographical isolation characterized by low level of Techno-economic development and wide variation in the levels of living between different areas and different tribal groups but all the same assiduously retaining their distinct socio-cultural identity in a large measure.

The beneficiary-oriented schemes are neglected with lower share of outlay. The schemes of sectorarfradrieniatiord UndOr ttie sub-plan denot reflect the felt needs of the tribals and these do not create the'de'Sir6d'irn6act. in many cases t6e project officer has been reduced to the status of a co-ordinatdr..

The tribals are hardworking people. But, they are not in a position to enjoy the fruits of their labour. They are victims of the tricks played by traders, who provide loans to tribals on the condition that they have to deliver agriculture and forest produce to them only at prices much lower than the market prices.. Lands assigned to the tribals very often are passed on to the rural money-lenders sooner or later though laws exist to prohibit such transfers.

Attempts are being made to bring about development of tribal regions through industrialisation. However, such industrialisation has created new problems for the tribals. Any integrated approach to tribal development must take this into account.

The main issues in tribal development are the sight to land-based resources for survival, and to cultural determination as these are fundamental human rights. Welfare oriented programmes alone will create further disparities rather than reducing them.

The real task in to involve tribals in the processes at articulation, assertion and action. Their struggles are to be brought to the centre of political process.

15.5 LIMIWIONS :

1. Agricultural development alone cannot raise the socio-economic status of the tribal people. Development of agriculture and its allied activities alone can provide employment to tribals throughout the year. The Dhebar Commission (1961) had observed, "the ,prclblern§ of destitution and the sub-normal standard of living in the tribal areas. The low potential of agriculture can be mitigated, mainly, through the development of village and cottage industries". Forest - based, industries deserve special attention.
2. The tribals'bargaining power is low and therefore they need tobe organised into **co-operatives**. The large sized Agri-cultural Multi-purpose societies are most appropriate for tribal areas. These societies can look into the credit needs (including consumption credit) of the tribal

- people, provide technical guidance for modernisation of agriculture and arrange marketing facilities.
3. The outlay on tribal development programmes was only 1.0 percent of the total outlay in the First plan. This has steadily increased and reached 5.7 percent in the sixth plan. While the outlay for tribal development was Rs. 5,535 crore in the sixth plan was placed at Rs. 13000 crore in the seventh plan. This ensured developing infrastructure in the tribal areas. Their plight tends to worsens when they borrow for social functions.
 4. There was limited involvement of scheduled tribes in the formulation and execution of programmes resulting in non-adaptability of schemes/policies to cater to their specific needs.
 5. Tribal agriculture needs to be strengthened through co-operative farming, mixed farming involving various high yielding varieties of crops, land shaping and provision of minor irrigation facilities through construction of small check dams across the perennial streams or facilities for lift irrigation from these streams.
 6. The Eighth plan seeks to formulate co-operatives for different occupational groups amongst the scheduled tribes. In order to encourage self employment avenues, programmes to enhance productive and managerial skills would be planned to benefit tribals. Measures would also be initiated to ensure greater participation of tribal people in conservation and development of forests and preservation of ecology.
 7. Literacy is one the basic major obstruction among tribal women and men to implement the programmes for their socio-economic development through Integrated Tribal Development Agency (ITDA) programmes. Because of lack of literacy they could not properly understand the schemes launched for them.
 8. Lack of qualitative education and lack of awareness of the scientific advances and government efforts for their development activities to improve the tribals in all aspects is one of the limitation for proper implementation of tribal programmes.
 9. Administrative preparation is an important though a missing link in the tribal development programme. Implementation of major and medium irrigation projects often result in displacement of tribal people. This makes it the obligation of the concerned administration to see that they are properly rehabilitated.
 10. The age old links between forests and the tribal people needs to be clearly recognised. The various acts passed to protect forests should take into account the level of the dependence the tribals have on forests. After all, the tribals make a living by selling their produce, and they usually do not exploit forest wealth for profit.
 11. Tribal development should also maintain congruity with tribal culture and psychology or else the proposed scheme would remain only far-fetched. Tribal development strategies succeed only when there is inter-departmental co-ordination. More funds would be required for making tribal development schemes cost effective and meaningful. At present, a lion's share of the allocated finance for such schemes goes to infrastructure development and also intensive training to workers associated with tribal development programmes. The selection of schemes should also take into account the needs and demands of the tribals and also the absorptive capacity of tribal regions.

15.16 SUMMARY :

The tribals are backward economically and socially; the tribal groups differ from one another in physical features, language, culture, life style and the nature and intensity of contact with non-tribals. The emancipation of tribal communities is no easy task, and it has su-jo-political and economic implications. Attempts are being made to bring about development of tribal regions through industrialisation; since industrialisation has created new problems for the tribals. Any integrated approach to tribal development must take this into account.

15.7 KEY WORDS :

1. Semi-Tribal Communities
2. Allied - Industries
3. Assimilated - Tribals

15.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Discuss major problems in tribal development?
2. Write an implementation of tribal development projects.
3. What are the limitations in implementing tribal development projects?

15.9 REFERENCES :

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2. Sastry, SAR - 1972 *'Tribal Segment and Social Integration'*
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Mainstream; March 7, 1992.
4. Satya Sundaram, I - 1997 *'Rural Development'* - 1997
5. Kumar Singh,
AMAR, Jabbi, M.K. - 1995 *'Tribals in India - Development, Deprivation and Discontent'* - 1995

M.S.W.

SEMESTER - III

PAPER-IV- COMMUNITY SOCIAL WORK

Time : Three hours

Maximum : 70 marks

Answer any FIVE question.

all questions carry equal marks

1. Define community and discuss the tribal community characteristics
2. Write a major forms of community and the differences among these communities
3. Discuss about women development rural area
4. Write about rural development programs in India
5. Define community development and discuss its objectives
6. Write the programmes for Tribal Development
7. Describe the role of social worker in community development
8. Discuss the Importance of PRA methods
9. Examine the nature of urban community development projects
10. Evaluate the role for self help groups in rural development