MICRO LEVEL PLANNING FOR INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT
A Case Study of Chandaus Block District Aligarh

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Dedicated
To
Bhaijan Md. Anwer
Bhabhijan BIBI Asfia
CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Mr. Md. Afsar Alam has completed his M.Phil. dissertation, entitled "MICRO LEVEL PLANNING FOR INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT, A case study of Chandaus Block, District Aligarh" (U.P.), for the award of degree of M.Phil. under my supervision.

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Introduction
Introduction

India is an agricultural country. True India lives in the vast ocean of rural humanity. It is the second most populous country and the seventh largest in area in the world. Five out of every six persons live in the countryside. Three out of every four persons working in the rural area depending on agriculture for their livelihood. A high proportion of India's national economy is predominantly contributed by agriculture. The cultivated land per capita is less than one third hectare. The average size of land holding is about 2.6 hectares; two out of every five holdings are less than an hectare in size. Agriculture alone contributes 33% of the national income and supports 70% of the rural working force.

In a country where more than three fourths people live in rural areas, any strategy of socio-economic development in India that neglects rural people and rural areas cannot be successful. The rural
character of the economy and the need for regeneration of rural life was first stressed by Mahatma Gandhi. He wrote in Harijan (4 April 1936):

"India is to be not found in its few cities but in its 700,000 villages. But we town dwellers have believed that India is to be found in its towns and the villages were created to minister to our needs".

He further wrote in Harijan (29 August 1936),

"I would say that if the village perishes, India will Perish too. It will be no more India. Her own mission in the world will get lost. The revival of the village life is possible only when it is no more exploited."

Thus rural development is the task of prime importance in India. It is a pre-requisite of overall development of India. The real development of the country is not possible without developing agricultural sector of the

country, because agriculture is the backbone of Indian economy. The sector sets the pace of growth in other sectors of the economy. This is why agriculture gets the most attention from our planners and policy makers. As number of steps have been taken during the last four decades to raise agricultural production. These steps can be classified into three following parts:

1. Institutional reforms
2. Technological reforms
3. Infrastructural reforms

Institutional reforms have been taken the form of various measures like abolition of intermediaries, ceiling on land holdings and consolidation of holdings etc. These various measures are also known as land reforms. Technological reforms relate to introduction of better technology and improved inputs in agriculture. Infrastructural reforms consists of far reaching changes introduced in the agricultural finance and marketing system. In short, a new orientation has been sought to be given to the agricultural sector in our five year plans.
In view of the multi-dimensional economic development of a region, the regional planning in the light of micro level planning for integrated rural development is essentially an attempt which can be considered as a measure to redress the regional imbalances.

The present study, therefore, is a theoretical discussion for the further research work. This M.Phil dissertation attempts to explain the concept of micro-level planning for integrated rural development and discloses the problems involved in the selection of Methodology for further work and suggests a common strategy which may be applicable to the Indian conditions.

With this inherent notion, the study has been divided into five chapters through which an attempt has been made to describe and analyse the structural base for doctoral research.

The first chapter deals with the history, objectives and different theories of planning, as a
tool of planning. The second chapter deals with the aspects of rural development. The third chapter presents the geographical background of the study area. Chapter fourth is devoted to the review of the work done. Fifth, the final chapter reviews the different measures and deals with the problems of the research and methodology and tools and techniques for integrated rural development programme.
Chapter I
A Conceptual Framework of Planning
CHAPTER I

1.1 History and objectives of Planning

A plan is a blueprint for action. It points out a precise way to reach a predetermined goal within a pre-determined period of time with the means that are available with planners under the prevailing circumstances.

In common parlance the word 'plan' and 'Planning' are used in different meanings. For example, planning is pre-vision and pre-arrangement, in logical and temporal order, of an action so that it yields certain desired results with a minimum dispensation of effort.

So far as the idea of planning is concerned, it is deeply rooted in human psychology. It is nearly 2400 years old, having been first formulated by Plato in his Republic. It was later developed, shaped and moulded by a galaxy of eminent thinkers and writers through the centuries.
The idea of economic planning, in its present form is comparatively new, though it seems to be somewhat implicit in Marxian Socialism. In the later part of the 19th century, intellectuals, theorists, thinkers and writers in western Europe had become fed up with the inequities and contradictions of pure, unalloyed capitalism and so the idea of state intervention to set matters right was put forth with a good deal of fervour. But it was state intervention which was advocated at the time. There was little or no reference of "economic planning", to be conducted by the state or its agencies. The first author who included the existence of Planning in his definition of economic activity was the Norwegian theorist, Professor Kristian Schonheyader who greatly emphasised the idea of economic planning in a small treatise published in the year 1910\(^1\). The idea of planning was given some practical shape in Germany during the First World War\(^2\). But it was only a temporary acceptance of

the idea. As soon as the war was over, the idea of economic planning was discarded and the state withdrew into its former shell. It was, however, in 1928 that the Soviet Union gave the idea of economic planning or a real shape when it formulated its first five year plan with a view to achieving "the rapid transformation of a backward agricultural state into modern industrial power".

In India the concept of planning was not altogether new. Even under British rule, there had been a good deal of thinking on the subject of planning in India. The first to advocate the idea of planning for India was the grand old man, Sir M.Visvesvarayya who published in 1934 the first book on Planning entitled "Planned Economy for India". In 1937, the Indian National Congress set up the National Planning Committee under the chairmanship of Pandit Nehru. But owing to the political vicissitudes the work of the committee remained suspended from 1942 to 1946. The committee was able to submit its plan only in 1949.
India began the process of Planned development nearly 44 years ago with the start of the First Five Year Plan in April 1951. The central purpose of planning was identified as that of initiating "a process of development which will raise living standards and open out to the people new opportunities for a richer and more varied life". The manner in which this purpose was translated into specific objectives has varried from plan to plan. However, in a broad sense, the basic objectives of Planning in India can be grouped under four heads: growth, modernisation, self-reliance and social justice. In one form or another but possibly with varying emphasis these objectives reflect the views of all sections of the population and represent a national concensus on the aims of Planning. Thus in view of this, at this stage it is worthwhile to represent a brief account of India's Five Year Plans.

India's First Five Year Plan

"India's first five year plan had a two-fold objective. Firstly, it aimed correcting the dis-


equilibrium in the economy caused by the war and partition of the country. Secondly, it proposed to initiate simultaneously a process of all-round balanced development which would ensure a rising national income and a steady improvements in living standards over a period". It also emphasised that the aim was not merely to plan within the existing socio-economic framework but to change this framework progressively and by democratic methods in keeping with the large ends of policy enunciated in the constitution.

The first five year plan thus aimed both at utilising, more effectively, the available resources (human and material) to secure a larger output of goods and services and also producing inequalities of income, wealth and opportunity.

India's Second Five Year Plan

Within the broad framework of the socialist pattern of society, the second five year plan had been formulated with reference to the following principal objectives:-
(i) A sizeable increase in national income so as to raise the level of living in the country;

(ii) rapid industrilisation with particular emphasis on the development of basic and heavy industries;

(iii) a large expansion of employment opportunities.

India's Third Five Year Plan

The aims and objectives of the third five year plan are as follows:-

(i) to secure an increase in national income of over 5 per cent per annum;

(ii) to achieve self-sufficiency in foodgrains and increase in agricultural production to meet the requirements of industry and export;

(iii) to expand basic industries like steel, chemical industries, fuel and power and establish machine building capacity;

(iv) to utilise the fullest extent possible the man resources of the country and to ensure a subs-
tantial expansion in employment opportunities; and

(v) to establish progressively greater equality of opportunity and to bring about a reduction in disparities in income and wealth and a more even distribution of economic power.

India's Fourth Five Year Plan

The fourth five year plan reaffirms the objectives enunciated in the earlier plans and includes such policies and programmes which would help in the attainment of economic-self-reliance with adequate growth rate and accelerate the progress towards a socialist society. In drawing up the fourth plan the following principal objectives have been kept in view:-

(i) For ensuring the achievement of self-reliance as early as possible, highest priority will be given to all such schemes of agricultural and industrial production designed to promote exports and replace imports;

(ii) For ensuring price stability, effective steps will be taken to check all inflationary
factors and avoid deficit financing;

(iii) For enlarging the income of the rural population, as well as for augmenting the supplies of food articles and agricultural raw materials, all possible efforts will be made to maximize agricultural production;

(iv) For enabling this objective to be realised, production of such goods as fertilizers, insecticides, agricultural implements, including pumps, diesel engines, tractors etc. will be given the highest priority;

(v) For enlarging the supplies of essential mass consumption goods on which additional incomes will be spent, production of articles like textiles, sugar, drugs, kerosene, paper etc. will be stepped up;

(vi) For ensuring continued growth in different industries which are important for self-reliance will be completed with maximum possible efforts for meeting the basic needs of the country during the fifth plan period;
(vii) For limiting the growth of population and ensuring better standard of living for the people, all necessary resources will be provided to enable the family planning programme to be implemented on a massive and countrywide scale;

(viii) For the development of human resources, substantial additional facilities will be provided in the social services sector, especially for the rural areas and these will be suitably reoriented in the direction of increasing productivity.

India's Fifth Five Year Plan

The fifth five year plan was formulated at a time when the economy was facing severe inflationary pressures. The major objectives of the plan were to achieve selfreliance and to adopt measures for raising the consumption standards of the people living below the poverty line. The plan, also gave high priority to bringing inflation under control and to achieve stability in economic situation. The fifth plan was
ended one year ahead with the close of the annual plan 1977-78 and work was initiated for a new plan for the next five years with new priorities and programmes.

India's Sixth Five Year Plan

The removal of the poverty was the foremost objective of the sixth Five-Year Plan, even though it was recognised that with the given magnitude of the problem, it could not be accomplished in a short span of five years. The sixth plan envisaged a public sector outlay of Rs.97,500 crore during 1980-85. Of the public sector outlay of Rs.97,500 crore, Rs.12,539 crore were provided for agriculture and allied activities and Rs.12,160 crore for irrigation and flood control. These two taken together made a total outlay of Rs.24,699 crore for the agricultural sector of the economy which was a little more than 25 per cent of the total envisaged public sector outlay of sixth five year plan.

India's Seventh Five Year Plan

The main objectives of the seventh plan were the same as stated in the earlier plans. Hence under this
plan the stress was on growth, modernisation, self-reliance, employment and social justice. In all these, employment was treated as a direct focal point of policy.

Apart from these major objectives, the seventh plan had listed a few other objectives as an appendage. These included improvement in technology in the fast growth areas, control of inflation and improvement in the physical well being of the people and the environment in which they live.

India's Eighth Five Year Plan

The eighth five year plan has envisaged a set of objectives to be achieved within the period of five years.

(i) Whole-hearted involvement of people in the implementation of development activities;

(ii) generation of adequate employment to achieve near full employment level by the turn of the century;

(iii) encouraging people's active cooperation and a comprehensive scheme of incentives and disincen-
tives to control population growth;

(iv) eradication of illiteracy and universalisation of elementary education among the people in the age group from 15 years to 35 years;

(v) complete elimination of scavenging; provision of safe drinking water and primary health care services for all;

(vi) strengthening the infrastructure (especially energy, transport, communication and irrigation) in order to attain and sustain stable economic growth;

(vii) continued reliance on domestic resources for capital formation, advancement of technical capabilities and competitive efficiency in order to keep pace with and take advantage of the global developments;

(viii) reorientation of planning process in order to weed out uneconomic projects, divert funds from sectors having surpluses to the needy ones and generate net additional resources through non-inflationary measures.
India's Ninth Five Year Plan

The aims and objectives of the ninth five year plan are as follows:-

(i) Poverty alleviation through greater employment opportunities.

(ii) Employment assurance scheme will be made universal.

(iii) Growth with equity will be the main objective and women, SCs, STs and OBCs will be the major beneficiaries.

(iv) As to the implementation of the plan, cooperatives, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and local bodies will be given their due role.

(v) For the first time local bodies would be asked to mobilise resources by levying taxes such as entertainment tax and the like.
1.2 Theories of Planning

A. The Central Place Concept

Central Place Theory outlines the logic of systems of central places, focusing particularly upon the numbers, sizes, activities and spatial distribution of such places and their associated regions¹.

The notion of central place may be explained as follows. The major characteristics of country villages and towns is to be centres for their rural surroundings as well as mediators between their local Commerce and the outside world. Large cities play a similar role with respect to systems of small villages and towns, which finds in the large places. Thus towns, cities and other urban centres serve in a structural relationship- as central places for surrounding regions.

Central Place theory is fundamentally concerned with the patterns through which wholesale retail

services, and administrative functions, plus market oriented manufacturing are provided to consuming populations. Thus it can also be designated as the theory or urban trade and institutions or the theory of location of tertiary production. As such it complements the theory of agricultural production originally formulated by J.H. Von Thunen\(^2\), and the theory of location of industry, which has its roots in the work of Alfered Weber. Central places are associated with "regions" of "Organisation" or "nodal" regions which derive their unity from contact with or movement through the central place. It may be noted that regions can be grouped into two great classes—regions of organisation, on the one hand, and uniform or homogenous regions on the other. The latter are characterised by essential similarities of some physical, social or economic features.

The hierarchy of central places has its exact counterpart in a hierarchy of corresponding regions of

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\(^2\) J.H. Von Thunen, op.cit.
organisation. Thus central places, considered as a system of points, fits into a global system of areal organisation; tributary areas are seen as organised around these points, which are connected, both with one another and with the tributary areas by lines of human movements.

Central Place theory begins by considering two conditions that affect the variety of goods and services (central function) which are to be provided to consumers. These are:

(a) conditions of entry (thresholds), the minimum market sizes (in quantity of sales) necessary to support establishment of each kind, and

(b) maximum distance, consumers are willing to travel to each kind of establishments of any kind is equal to demands for the commodity divided by threshold, while the minimum numbers of establishments (if all consumers are to be served) is equal to demands for the commodity divided by threshold, while the minimum number
of establishments (if all consumers are to be served) is equal to demand by maximum possible size of the market.

Central functions may be arranged along a continuum at one end of which is the activity with greatest threshold (the highest order function) and at the other end, that with the lowest threshold (the lowest order function). The problem, is therefore, to locate the varying numbers of establishments of each variety of central functions as efficiently as possible.

Efficiently, in terms of this model, it requires

(a) that consumers minimise costs of transportation by visiting the nearest location offering the goods demanded and

(b) that there is active competition among business to serve the consuming population. Under these conditions, supplying firms, spread out in spatial pattern.
To strengthen the CDP in 1970s, a search was on by spatial planners to identify potential central places in the community development blocks for providing facilities and services. The spatial planners who have given thoughtful attention to the study of distribution of functions are Lalit K. Sen, VLS Prakasa Rao, Waheeduddin Khan, and R.P. Mishra. They adopted Christallerian approach with suitable modifications for identifying settlement hierarchy within their study region. Lalit K. Sen, in his study area identified two tier hierarchy in rural settlements, viz. (a) dependent villages and (b) central villages. He defined dependent villages as those having lowest level of both the functions as well as hierarchy. But the central villages are large villages with high order functions and they form the second level of hierarchy. A number of villages around central village depend for higher order functions on central village.

The central village concept of Sen is similar to that of lower order service centre concept of Pilot Research Project in Growth centres. These studies suggested a package of functions to the primary service centre. The functions suggested to the dependent villages are those whose threshold requirements are fulfilled by the population of the dependent villages.

Regional settlement system forms a hierarchical pattern over geographical space. Central places consist of different levels of functional hierarchy depending on the quality and quantity of functions which they perform. In theory, central places of one order are equidistant from each other arranged in hexagonal pattern and nesting the central places of lower order. Such an ideal pattern rarely occurs in reality. However, the hierarchical pattern of settlements does exist in one form or the other depending on the socio-economic conditions of an area.

A close review of literature on RDP of the last few decades, however, gives the impression that the
central place concepts, theories and approaches which give this discipline meaning, identity and purpose are getting diluted. Regional development planning is not merely a disaggregated version of national development. It has a distinct philosophy and orientation, a distinct role and purpose; and a distinct contribution to field of development planning. The situation has now come to a pass that it is often viewed as a disaggregated and decentralized version of national development planning. Most of so called regional economic theories of economic growth applied, at times inappropriately, to regions. And they often suffer from greater fallibility than the growth theories as such do, for they are not only "misplaced and often contrived to fit an empirical" situation which either does not exist in reality or has only semblance of existence.

As the matters stand today, RDP is getting subsumed in regional economics and urban planning, and if this trend continues, the day is not far off when it will become a discipline of the past.
The theory assumes that an area to be served is divided into the threshold market areas of the highest-order central function. Because consumers travel to the nearest places offering the goods, the locations providing the highest order goods will be exactly "central" to their market areas, these locations are therefore central places in terms of the model. The problem then arises as to how lower-order functions will be provided.

B. Growth Pole Theory

The concept of Growth Pole was developed by the French regional economists, particularly Francois Perroux, in 1955. Perroux was basically concerned with the phenomenon of economic development and with the process of structural change. In the theory, he attempted to explain how modern process of economic growth deviated from the stationery conception of equilibrium growth. In doing so, he based his argument

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heavily on Schumpeter's theories of the role of innovations and large scale firms. In Schumpeter's analysis, development occurs as a result of discontinuous spurts in a dynamic world. Such "discontinuous spurts" are caused by the innovative entrepreneur whose activities generally takes place in large scale firms. These large scale firms are able to dominate their environment in the sense of exercising reversible and partially reversible influences on other economic units by reason of their dimension, negotiating strength, and by the nature of their operations.

The close relationship between scale of operation, dominance, and impulses to innovate become the most important features of Perroux's theory and lead to the concept of dynamic propulsive firms and leading propulsive industry. The characteristics of a dynamic propulsive firms are that it is relatively large, has a high ability to innovate, belongs to a relatively fast growing sector, and the quantity and intensity of its interrelations with other sectors of economy are important enough for the induced effects to
be transmitted to them. The characteristics of a leading propulsive industry are also similar such an industry has (i) highly advanced level of technology and managerial expertise (ii) high income elasticity of demand for its products, (iii) marked local multiplier effects and (iv) strong inter industry linkages with other sectors. Such linkages can be of two types: forward linkages and backward linkages. In case of the backward link an industry encourage investment in earlier stages of production by expanding its demand for inputs (which are the outputs of industries in the earlier stages of production). In case of forward linkage, an industry encourages investment in the subsequent stages of production either by transmitting innovations or effects of innovation forward one possibility is that as a result of innovation, costs of production in the industry decline. This could lead to a fall in the price of its output. If this happens, the demand for this industry's output by those industries which use its output as input will increase.
Thus there are two corner-stones on which Perroux bases his theory.¹

1. Schumpeterian theory of Development.

2. Theory of inter-industry linkages and industrial interdependence.

According to him growth does not appear everywhere and all at once, it appears in points or development Poles, with variable intensities; it spread along diverse channels and with varying terminal effects to the whole of economy. The concept of Growth Pole is closely related to Perroux idea of economic space as a field of forces consisting of centres (or poles or foci) from which centrifugal forces emanate and to which centripetal forces are attracted. Each centre being a centre of attraction and repulsion, has its proper field, which is set in the field of other centres.

Perroux's concept of space was essentially an abstract one. It was Boudville who gave it a regional characteristics and a specific geographical content.² Consequently it was with Boudeville that the

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¹. Ibid.
². Ibid.
growth pole theory received a specific geographical and regional importance. He defined a regional growth Pole as a set of expanding industries located in an urban areas and including further development of economic activities throughout zone of influence. The place where these "expanding" or "propulsive" or "dominant" industries are located in the regions becomes the Pole of the region and agglomeration tendencies are promoted. Such tendencies arise because of external economies and result in polarization of economic activities around that Pole. The external economies that became available in areas, constituting the growth Pole of a region are basically of the following three types.

1. Economies internal to the firms

These are the lower average costs of production resulting from an increased rate of output. These are the economies which any single firm by its own organisation and efforts can enjoy.
2. Economies external to the firm but internal to the industry.

On account of the close locational proximity of linked firms, as industry expands at a particular location, cost per unit of output to a firm declines.

3. Economies external to the industry but internal to the urban area.

These can be termed urbanization economies. They include development of urban labour markets, access to a large market, and provision of a wider range of services.

In his theory of unbalanced growth A.O. Hirschman emphasizes that because of these external economics there is a tendency among investors to concentrate in (and around) the growth Pole. According to him, what appears to happen is that the external economies due to the Poles, though real, are consistently over estimated by the economic operators. Thus, a sort of "dualism" in the economic progress of nations develops- a country is split-up into developed and backward areas.
The modified growth centre concept advocators considered central villages as nodal points in regional space. The provision of package of functions to central villages along with the development programmes are expected to activise the nodal points and the nodal points in turn assumed to generate development impulses in their hinterland.

1.3 Levels of Planning

A number of problems arises in planning. Therefore, to identify these problems, plannings are generally carried out at three levels:

(i) Macro-level Planning.
(ii) Meso-level Planning.
(iii) Micro-level Planning.

Macro-level planning may be defined as large areal unit for planning and decision making in regard to majority of issues involved in the region.

Meso-levels are sub-divisions of macro-levels of planning. Thus it is an intermediate level of planning where effective exploitation of resources, conservation
and utilization of resources are possible.

Micro-levels are sub-divisions of meso-levels. It is very much at this level that a researcher may discover minute problems of the area regarding infrastructure, environment and social services etc. At this level, service centres, growth centres, and central places find their due places. Demand and supply of important goods and services, estimating and mobilising the necessary domestic and foreign resources of money and skills and allocating them to those specific uses among different sectors of the economy which seem likely to make the greatest contribution to achieving the national goals.

Macro level planning is, of necessity, based on highly aggregated data and on considerations that are usually of broad significance.

In view of different agro-climatic, techno-economic, and socio-cultural factors obtaining in different regions of India, national planning should be realistic and effective, has to be decentralised to
sub-national/sub-state levels. Duly recognising the need for decentralised planning, the Indian planners have accepted a multi-level and decentralised planning approach. Decentralisation or regionalisation of planning and development is a logical step for a democracy. This is a movement which permits the wider involvement of people in the process of planning and implementation, reduces discrepancies between national and sub-national plans which arise from regional or area characteristics that differ from national assumptions.

India's approach to development planning has been predominantly macro-oriented emphasising national goals and priorities. The national planners really do not know whether their targets can, in fact, be achieved and what it takes to achieve them. And the planners at the sub-national levels do not know what the effect of their plans would be on aggregate input requirements and aggregate output of the country as a whole. Thus, for successful and effective planning it is necessary that the macro and micro plans are
harmonised at some intermediate (region/area) level. In a nutshell, to make development planning effective we must follow a two-way approach working simultaneously and in a coordinated way from the gross roots level up and the national level down.

Apart from national and state level planning, we now have district and block level plans formulated annually within the framework of the five year plans. Planning at these sub-national levels, especially at the district and block levels, may be considered as meso (intermediate) level planning. The main function of meso level planning is to translate the macro level plant into concrete and operational programmes and projects taking into consideration the peculiar characteristics and requirements of the district/block concerned.

Micro level planning refers to planning at the level of the basic unit of production which may be a farm, a factory, a household enterprise, or any other production/service unit. Micro planning is concerned
with the what, how much, how, when, and where questions, relating to production, consumption, credit, and marketing. In nutshell, micro level planning is concerned with the allocation of the resources of the planning entity concerned to maximise whatever goals the entity may have.

If micro level planning is to play an effective role in the modernisation of the Indian economy, it must be treated as an integral part of development planning. Micro planning, in itself, has not much use in the formulation and implementation of national development plans and policies. Micro plans should be vertically integrated with national plans via the regional/area planner. He is at an intermediate level between micro and macro planning systems and his job should be to blend them together relying on his knowledge of the overall plan and his familiarity with the micro details of the region. It is his task to bring about a synthesis of macro and micro planning in such a way that what is desirable at the national/
state level should be made worthwhile and feasible for the individual producer and consumer.

The horizontal integration embraces inter-sectoral coordination between different sectors—agriculture, industry, and services—within a spatial specific framework. Micro plans should be horizontally integrated with plans for the supply of production inputs and credit, marketing plan, infrastructure development plan and industrial development plan for the area.

The usual practice of looking at rural problems from national and urban perspectives should be counter balanced by a "bottom-up" approach. Both are important. At present only the "top-down" process operates. It is high time the "bottom-up" process is also introduced. A strong centre is necessary to protect the nation; and a strong local government is necessary to protect the community. Governments in developing countries are unable to devolve greater responsibilities to representative local governments for one reason or the other.
In fact, the tendency is to weaken the representative elements of the local government and to strengthen the bureaucratic elements.

Nothing can be achieved if growth centre planning is just a physical planning exercise and is a one-shot affair of just identifying the centres and then bunching the activities and putting them in those places. It requires much more careful and continuing planning and programming at the regional complex level. This is possible only if enough machinery, programmes and legal tools are created to carry out such an exercise. This would not mean enormous efforts on the part of the government in most countries; it would only require some restructuring of bureaucracy and development administration. Such planning can only be indicative in most developing countries given the present structure of governments. Annual and periodic planning exercise carried out by the planning cell at the urban centre should include:
(a) Programme for agricultural production and diversification of agricultural activities wherever possible;

(b) Arrangements for marketing and distribution of inputs at proper times and places, and

(c) Planning of agro-industrial and other industrial units in terms of process planning and assistance to entrepreneurs and cooperatives.

Apart from this pragmatism which dictates the creation of regional settlement complexes, there is another important aspect of concern. The rural growth centre or the urban centres, that are created should not be allowed to independent entities which are "propulsive" and superior to the exploitators of the rural settlements around them. They should become organic parts of the complex. This can happen only if there are strong economic and social links both ways, not just administrative links. When we put these concepts in concrete terms, it will amount to the creation of urban centres at the regional level and central villages or services centres at the lower level so that:
(a) needed economic and social services are available to every rural settlement within reasonable distance; and

(b) enough secondary and primary activities are created to take away extra hands "rejected" from primary activities are carefully planned and have productive links with the primary sectors.¹

¹ Mishra R.P., "Organising organic communities from below", pp. 759-60.
1.4 Gandhian concept of Decentralization:

"INDIAN independence must begin at the bottom. Thus every village will be a republic or 'Panchayat' having powers. It follows therefore, that every village has to be self-sustained and capable of managing its own affairs, even to the extent of defending itself against the whole world. It will be trained and prepared to perish in the attempt to defend itself against any onslaught from without".

These few lines written by Gandhiji in one of the issues of 'Harijan', reflect the spirit of his well-thought policy for the overall development of the rural masses.

There is no other Indian leader who touched the public mind so deeply as Gandhiji did. He was not only the leader who guided the country to Independence through a non-violent struggle, but was a person with a deep insight into the social as well as economic aspects of Indian life. He was always with the masses as one of them. He served the Indian people who were condemned to political subjection and poverty.
Gram Swaraj:

Gandhiji formulated the policy of decentralisation of power through self-government units or Gram Swaraj as he called it, for the development of each individual.

He always insisted that the future development of the country be centred around the villages, as the majority of people of India live in its villages. Gandhiji dreamt of an ideal village where all the villagers are provided with minimum necessities of life such as food, drinking water, clothing, housing, formal education, health and improved sanitation etc. He felt that in order to raise them morally, economically and spiritually, it was essential to infuse in them a spirit of self-respect and self-reliance in their struggle against the exploiters.

In pursuit of the ideal of village self-sufficiency Gandhiji advocated reliance on village industries. To him, Khadi and village industries symbolised economic freedom and equality as they would generate employment in a big way for the millions of
villagers and thereby, eradicate poverty.

Gandhiji had visualised the birth of a new India in which the last is equal to the first or in other words no one is to be the first and none last. He envisaged a society which practised the essence of democratic socialism- and preferred free federations of groups- all parallel to one another.

Gandhiji was thinking of village republics, completely free to manage their own affairs and united by mutual aid ultimately it is the individual who is the unit. The relations between the individuals must rest upon equality, mutual aid and willing cooperation. His main proposition was that man is endowed with all distinct qualities to solve his own problems. Gram Swaraj is meant not only for self-government, it is meant for developmental activities.

Panchayat Tradition:

Like other basic social and moral values, the Indian people have traditionally inherited a system of rural self-government based on the concept of the
government by the elders or the Panchayati Raj. These local self-governments or direct democracies have preserved Indian civilisation for over thousands of years. There was a homogenous and harmonious self-sufficiency inbuilt in the entire economic structure of rural India. Traditionally a village community had all the facilities necessary for a stable rural life. With the advent of an industrial society, the self-supporting economy of the village was disturbed.

Gandhiji's idea that Gram Swaraj or local self-government units be revived, became widely accepted by the time India attained independence. The country has been having Panchayati Raj set up for well over four decades and they are functioning with different structural models. There has been a growing consciousness in the recent years that the involvement of the people themselves, in development process, is imperative for it to succeed.

In this context, the present government has enacted the constitution (73rd Amendment) Act 1992,
which has paved the way for decentralization of power, both political and economic, to the grassroots level. The amendment will bring in 30 lakh elected members all over the country in Panchayats and municipalities. Gram Sabhas, consisting of all adult members of a village Panchayat gives voice to the people living in 6 lakh villages of India.

The Act, which came into effect on April 24, 1993, has brought new responsibilities to the common man. In order to give adequate representation to women in decision-making process, 30 per cent seats in Panchayats have been reserved for women. Reservation of seats for SCs and STs as well as women is not only in membership of Panchayats, but also for posts of Sarpanchas. In earlier attempts a lack of enthusiasm on the part of some state government was noticed to bring Panchayati Raj system all over the country. The latest amendment contains some mandatory provisions for the states. These include continuous existance- the gap allowed being only six months; a five year term; disequalification of 'Panchas' and direct election of
'Panchas'.

It will ensure that the Panchayati Raj Institution will no more remain a plaything for the arbitrary exercise of power. It is the people of the village who will determine the profile of the Panchayat. It seeks to achieve responsive administration through the devolution of administrative and financial powers. It is hoped that this will usher in Gandhiji's dream of bringing 'Swaraj' to every village, into reality.

The only way to alleviate poverty and ultimately eliminate it, is to adhere strictly to Gandhiji's system of decentralisation of Planning and execution of all plans and programmes at village Panchayat, mandal and block levels, because only the village knows the facts and reasons of poverty and how to deal with it. As most of the people of India still reside in villages, the Mahatma's legacy of the philosophy of Gram Swaraj can inspire the policy-makers even today, to plan for the nation's development more effectively.  

1.5 Rural Development in Five Year Plans:

In India's five year plans rural development and agriculture has been given high priority. This is evident from the high proportion of total public sector outlay of each plan that is allotted to agriculture, allied activities and rural development, major and medium irrigation projects, flood control and village and small industries\(^1\).

All these activities which directly or indirectly contribute to rural development, accounted for 46.6 per cent of the total plan outlay in the public sector in the first five year plan. In the second plan, the share of rural development in the total plan outlay declined to about 25 per cent. The decline was mainly due to the exclusion of outlay on power for rural development; in the first plan outlay on power was included in the outlay on major and medium irrigation projects - and thus formed part of rural development outlay. Another reason for the decline was

the relatively high priority accorded to the heavy industries in the second plan which was at the expense of rural development. From the second plan onwards, the share of rural development in the public sector plan outlay has varied within a very narrow range of 23 to 27 per cent. In absolute terms, the outlay on rural development increased from Rs.624 crores in the first plan to Rs.26,479 crores in the sixth plan\(^2\). On the whole the total outlay on rural development from the first to the sixth plan amounted to Rs.48,903 crores which is about 26 per cent of the aggregate public sector outlay of the six five year plans\(^3\).

The first plan was dominated by the Community Development Programme (CDP) which reflected India's overriding concern with nation building and equity. The second plan accorded a high priority to the development of heavy industries and consequently, under the constraint of limited resources, food production

\(^2\) India's Sixth Plan, 1980-85, Planning Commission, Govt. of India, New Delhi, 1980, p.51.
\(^3\) Ibid.
suffered. By the middle of the second plan, it became increasingly evident that whatever the success of the CDP, a new approach would be required if agricultural production was to stay ahead of the demand of India's mounting population. In 1957-58, India faced its first post-Independence food crisis. In response to this crisis and on the basis of recommendations of the Ford foundation Sponsored Team of American Agricultural Production Specialists, a new programme called the Intensive Agriculture District Programme (IADP) or Package Programme was formulated and launched in seven selected districts in the country in 1960-61, was later extend to eight more districts.

The IADP represented a significant departure from the CDP in that it employed the concentration principle in deploying resources as opposed to the equity criterion of the CDP. Its main objective was to achieve rapid increases in agricultural production through the use of complementary inputs and services.


(Package approach) at the farm level. Farm Planning formed the core of IADP. By 1966, the basic concept of concentration and effective use and better management of resources had gained national acceptance, and a number of new agricultural development programmes such as the Intensive Agriculture Area Programme (IAAP), the High yielding varieties Programme (HYVP), the Intensive Cattle Development Programme (ICDP) had been patterned like IADP. All these programmes were growth oriented, they did not address themselves to equity issues. They demonstrated, on the one hand, the effectiveness of the concentration principle in achieving rapid increases in food production, and on the other, the failure of the growth oriented strategy to solve the basic problems of rural poverty and income inequality. The most important lesson learned from experiences with these programmes is that a rising economic growth rate is no guarantee against worsening poverty and that a direct frontal attack on the basic problems of poverty and unemployment is called for.
The failure of the sixties growth oriented strategies to make any marked impact on the problem of poverty led to a reexamination of these strategies. As a consequence, special programmes like small farmers, marginal farmers, and Agricultural Labourers' Development Scheme, Drought Prone Area Programme and Tribal Area Development Programme for the 'weaker sections' and 'economically depressed areas' were introduced in the seventies. These programmes were aimed at tackling the problems of poverty and backwardness directly, by helping the 'Weaker Sections' to increase their incomes through self-employment and wage-paid employment. To supplement the income increasing effect of these programmes, a programme to provide civic amenities and community facilities was launched in the fifth plan. This programme is known as the Minimum Needs Programme (MNP). In 1978-79 the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) was launched in 2300 selected community Development blocks in the country and from 2 October 1980, it was extended to all the blocks. It is the single largest anti poverty programme currently
underway in the country. The major premise of the special programmes launched in the seventies was that their benefits would flow to the weaker sections and backward areas because of the specificity of the target groups and target areas.
1.6 People's participation in Rural Development:

Like Gandhi our Rural Planners are now keen to interact and understand with all sections of people, particularly rural people, how to make our democracy stronger and more vibrant and have greater involvement and participation of the people in our development process.

Our rich heritage had seen experiments of people's republic one of the first anywhere in the world. The leaders during the freedom struggle were fully conscious of the participation of the people in the administration and development in independent India. Gandhiji said, "Real Swaraj will come not by the acquisition of authority by a few but by the acquisition of the capacity by all".

To fully explore the reasons of administrative inefficiency and unresponsiveness at the grassroots levels when some of the finest brains and people with administrative ability are chosen for the civil service, our late Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi decided
to have a direct dialogue with functionaries at the
district level on Responsive Administration. A
responsive administration has to be a representative
administration, an administration which is responsive
to the people. He realised that this capacity can only
be provided by strengthening people’s institution and
by providing "Power to the People". It does not seem
possible to have real development in the country unless
the Panchayat are made responsible for development in
the villages and the people who live in the villages
are involved in their own development. There is great
need to bring about changes in the Panchyati Raj so
that they could stand on their own feet and no one
could erode their powers and authority. That would be
in the true spirit of the ideals already given by
Gandhiji, Nehruji and Indiraji. He was so keen to
eradicate the weaknesses of the earlier institutions
that he visited interior parts of the country and met
common people and talked to mukhias and sarpanches.

For Rajiv Gandhi Panchayat Raj was not just a
political process but an instrument of social and
economic change especially of the poor and the downtrodden. He wanted that weaker sections of the society especially scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and women have adequate representation and say in the functioning of these bodies. To ensure that they should have real say, he spent several hours with the representatives of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and Panchayati Raj representatives. He also consulted nearly 800 women representatives of Panchayati Raj institutions drawn from all over the country.

It was after such wide-ranging consultations, unprecedented in the annals of independent India, that he shared his views with the Chief Ministers of the states. It was truly a remark of humility when he told the Chief Ministers, "The proposals we place before you are not really our proposals. They are the proposals of people of India, articulated through their representatives in Panchayati Raj institutions. This, in itself, makes this occasion historic".
Our rural planners unfolded his revolutionary proposals. There was to be a constitutional sanction and guarantee for regular elections to Panchayats like Parliament and state legislatures. Constitutional protection for representation through reservation for scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and women in the Panchayats who would not be nominated but would come through the electoral process as true representatives.

To make the Panchayats viable principles of sharing resources and finance would be through establishing a state finance commission. His deep understanding of the culture and traditions of India was reflected when he suggested that certain states which have a strong vibrant traditional bodies fulfilling the objectives of Panchyati Raj institutions need not to be disturbed. He wanted that a transition period be given to the states to suitably amend their laws to give shape to the ideals of the Panchayati Raj.

He thus envisaged that people of India would now have the power and resources to formulate and implement
their own development plans. These plans would be made from below rather than handed down from above and would truly focus the poor and the downtrodden who are in urgent need of attention and whose aspirations have also been rising.

Rajivji said, "we are on a threshold of a mighty revolution. It was a revolution envisaged by Jawaharlal Nehru when Panchyati Raj was launched three decades ago. The revolution was not realised because it lacked constitutional underpinning".

The approach to rural development followed so far has been essentially bureaucratic rather than participatory. Rural development plans have been prepared at the national and state headquarters and passed on to local level offices of the government for execution. Involvement of the local people has been rather limited. Consequently, there has often been a mismatch between what the people wanted and what they got from the government.
Studies of India's planning experience have thrown up numerous cases of Planners giving uniform or stereotype schemes which are not suited to local needs or resources in several areas. According to one study, a large number of lower caste marginal farmers were providing with a superior breed of buffaloes in a Rajasthan village, but they could not maintain these animals as they failed to produce the required dry and green fodder. Some of them, therefore, sold these animals to the higher caste big farmers. In other cases, loans and subsidies were given to some farmers for digging open wells and bore wells but electricity could not be provided for the pump sets. Whether it is IRDP, DPAP or any other programme, the dead uniformity which has occurred in the name of national planning has proved highly unproductive.

The reliability of data and information procured through government machinery has been also quite doubtful. There have been numerous examples of inefficiency arising out of the non-availability or unreliability of data. These deficiencies are
reflected more particularly at the micro levels since the smaller the area, the less the scope of the applicability of the law of large numbers and the smaller the chances of cancelling out of errors.  

Chapter II

A Critical Study of Rural Development Programmes
2.1 Meaning of Rural Development:

There is no universally acceptable definition of rural development, and the term is used in different ways and in vastly divergent contexts. The term 'rural development' is of focal interest and is widely acclaimed in both the developed and developing countries of the world. As a concept, it connotes overall development of rural areas with a view to improve the quality of life of rural people. In this sense, it is a comprehensive and multi-dimensional concept and encompasses the development of agriculture and allied activities- cottage industries and crafts, socio-economic infrastructure, community services and facilities, and above all, the human resources in rural areas. As a phenomenon, it is the result of interactions between various physical, technological, economic, socio-cultural and institutional factors. As a strategy, it is designed to improve the economic and social well-being of a specific group of people- the rural poor. As a discipline, it is multidisciplinary
in nature representing an intersection of agricultural, social, behavioural, engineering, and management science. Robert Chambers went to the extent of saying that Rural Development is a strategy to enable a specific group of people, poor rural women and men, to gain for themselves and their children more of what they want and need. It involves helping the poorest among those who seek a livelihood in the rural areas to demand and control more of the benefits of rural development. The group includes small scale farmers, tenants and the landless.¹

Thus, rural development may mean any one of these, depending upon our focus. To avoid ineffective floundering among the myriad definitions, rural development may be defined as a process of developing and utilizing natural and human resources, technologies, infrastructural facilities, institutions, and organisations, and government policies and programmes to encourage and speed up economic growth in rural areas,

to provide jobs, and to improve the quality of rural life towards self-sustenance. In addition to economic growth, this process typically involves changes in popular attitudes, and in many cases even in customs and beliefs. In a nutshell, the process of rural development must represent the entire gamut of change by which a social system moves away from a state of life perceived as 'unsatisfactory' towards a materially and spiritually better condition of life. The process of rural development may be compared with a train in which each pushes the one ahead of it and is in turn pushed by the one behind, but it takes a powerful engine to make the whole train move. The secret of success in development lies in identifying and, if needed, developing a suitable engine to attach to the train. There are no universally valid guidelines to identify appropriate engines of growth, if at all they exist. It is a choice which is influenced by time, space, and culture.
2.2 Elements of Rural Development:

Whatever the geographic location, culture, and historical stage of development of a society, there are at least three basic elements which are considered to constitute the 'true' meaning of development. These are - life sustenance, self respect, and freedom as defined below.

1. Life-sustenance

People have certain basic needs without which it would be impossible to survive. These basic necessities include food, clothes, shelter, healthcare and security. When any of these are absent or in critically short supply, it may be stated that a condition of 'absolute underdevelopment' exists. Provision of these 'Life sustaining' requirements to everybody is a basic function of all economies whether they be capitalist, socialist or mixed. In this sense, we may claim that economic growth is a necessary condition for the improvement of the 'quality of life' which is 'development'.

2. Self-respect:

Every person and every nation seeks some basic form of self respect, dignity, or honour. Absence or denial of self-esteem indicates a lack of development.

3. Freedom:

In this context freedom refers to political or ideological freedom and freedom from social servitude. As long as a society is bound by the servitude of men to nature, ignorance, other men, institutions, and dogmatic beliefs, it cannot claim to have achieved the goal of 'development'. Servitude in any form reflects a state of underdevelopment. The new economic view of development considers reduction or elimination of poverty, inequality or unemployment. Dudley Seers\(^1\) succinctly tackled the basic question of the meaning of development when he wrote that questions to ask about a country's development are, therefore, what has been happening to poverty? What has been happening to unemployment? What has been happening to inequality?

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If all three of these have declined from high levels then beyond doubt this has been a period of development of the country concerned. If one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, especially if all three have, it would be strange to call the result 'development' even if per capita income doubled.

While economic progress is an essential component of development, it is not the only one, as development is not purely an economic phenomenon. In an ultimate sense, it must encompass more than the material and financial side of people's lives. Development should, therefore, be perceived as a multi-dimensional process involving the reorganisation and reorientation of entire economic and social systems. In addition to improvements in incomes and output it involves radical changes in institutional, social and administrative structures, as well in popular attitudes and, in many cases, even customs and beliefs. Finally, although development is usually defined in a national context, its widespread realisation may necessitate
fundamental modifications of the international economic, social and political systems as well.

Objectives of Development:

All societies must have at least the following objectives irrespective of what development means to them.

1. To increase the availability and widen distribution of basic life-sustaining articles such as food, clothes, shelter, healthcare and security.

2. To raise standards of living, including, in addition to higher purchasing power, the provision of more jobs, better education, and greater attention to cultural and humanistic values.

3. To expand the range of economic and social choice to individuals by freeing them from servitude and dependence.
2.3 Integrated Rural Development Programme:

Since the beginning of the fifth plan the major goals of India's economic policy was progressive reduction and ultimate eradication of poverty. Although group scientific and area specific rural development programmes were initiated during the fourth plan, the basic strategy of combining the minimum needs programme with programmes for employment and income generation took a concrete shape towards the end of the fifth plan when the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) was launched.

The sixth plan launched a direct attack on the basic problems of rural poverty and unemployment. In 1979-80, an estimated 51 per cent of the population lived below the poverty line which corresponded to a consumer expenditure of Rs.76 per capita per month in rural areas and Rs.88 in urban areas. This came down to 37 per cent by the terminal year of the sixth plan, 1984-85. The government expects the rate to fall further to 23 per cent by the end of the seventh plan.
This is part of a long term plan to cut the poverty rate to 10 per cent by the end of the Eight plan (1994-1995). In pursuance of this strategy, the seventh plan gave a wider base to the IRDP by integrating it more effectively with agricultural and other rural development programmes.

The IRDP is the single largest anti-poverty programme currently underway in all the community development blocks in the country. It was launched in 1978-79 in 2300 selected blocks in the country and was extended to all the 5011 blocks with effect from 2 October 1980. It aims at providing income generating assets and employment opportunities to the rural poor to enable them to rise above the poverty line once and for ever. The IRDP in effect seeks to redistribute assets and employment opportunities in favour of the rural poor.

Target Group:

The IRDP's target group consists of the poorest of the rural poor—small and marginal farmers, agri-
cultural and non-agricultural labourers, rural artisans and craftsmen, scheduled caste and scheduled tribe families who live below the poverty line. The government of India Manual\(^1\) defines the target groups of beneficiaries as follows:

**Small Farmer:**

A cultivator with a land holding of 5 acres or below is a small farmer. In the case of class I irrigated land, as defined in the State Land Ceiling Legislation, a farmer with 2.5 acres or less will also be considered as small farmer. Where the land is irrigated but not of the class I variety, a suitable conversion ratio may be adopted by the state government with a ceiling of 5 acres.

**Marginal Farmer:**

A person with a land holding of 2.5 acres or below is a marginal farmer. In the case of class I irrigated land, the ceiling will be one acre.

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Agricultural Labourer:

A person without any land but with a homestead and deriving more than 50 per cent of his income from agricultural wages is an agricultural labourer.

Non-agricultural Labourer:

A person whose total income from wage-earning does not exceed Rs.200 per month is a non-agricultural labourer. Persons who derive their income partly from other sources can also be brought under this category, provided at least 50 per cent of their income is from non-agricultural sources. They need not have a homestead but must be residents of the village in which they are identified.

Approach and Strategy:

The IRDP employs the cluster approach to select villages for implementing various components of the programme, the antyodaya approach to select beneficiaries within the selected villages, and the package approach to assist the selected beneficiaries. The cluster approach ensures that the supporting infra-
structure is either already available in the selected villages, or can be made available at a relatively low cost, the antyodaya approach makes sure that the poorest of the poor are selected the first, and the package approach assures the beneficiaries full benefits from the complementarity between various inputs and services.

In this sense, the IRDP's strategy represents a synthesis of the various approaches tested and found effective in India's rural development programmes, especially the Intensive Agriculture District Programme's Package Approach, the small farmers and Marginal farmers Development Agencies' target group concept, the Drought Prone Area Development Agencies' cluster approach and the Antyodaya Programme's antyodaya concept. The IRDP gives special priority to the SC and ST people. At least 30 per cent of all beneficiary families are to be drawn from SC and ST families and at least 30 per cent of the subsidies and loans earmarked for them.
Financing:

The IRDP was financed by the government of India and the state governments. It was proposed to cover 15 million rural families under the IRDP during the sixth plan period. This was to be achieved by assisting on an average of 600 families per block per year. The plan provided for the programme an outlay of Rs.750 crores in the central sector which was to be equally matched by the state governments on a ratio of 50:50. An outlay of Rs.35 lakhs per block was earmarked for the Sixth Plan period at the rate of Rs.5 lakhs for the first five year, Rs.6 lakhs for the second five year and Rs.8 lakhs each for the last three years of the Plan. The broad allocation of funds was as follows: beneficiary-oriented programmes- 72.50 per cent, infrastructural facilities - 10 per cent, training 10 per cent, and administration 7.50 per cent.

Besides the total plan outlay of Rs.1500 crores, it was also intended to mobilise an investment of Rs.3000 crores in the form of institutional credit.
support for the programme. Thus an investment of Rs.4500 crores was expected to be mobilised during the sixth plan period for the IRDP.

During the sixth plan period, the number of poor families assisted under the IRDP was 16.56 million which was 110.04 per cent of the target of 15 million. The total expenditure on governmental subsidies amounted to Rs.1650.27 crores which was 110 per cent of the targetted amount of Rs.1500 crores. The total bank credit mobilised for the IRDP was Rs.3080.41 crores which represented 103 per cent achievement of the target of Rs.3000 crores. Some 65 lakh SC/ST families (39 per cent of the total beneficiaries) benefited from the programme as against the target of 45 million, recording an achievement of 144.4 per cent\(^2\).

Organisational Structure:

The organisational structure of the IRDP is not markedly different from the standard bureaucratic form; the only difference being the establishment at the

\(^2\) Kurukshetra, August 1985, Vol.33, No.11.
district level of an autonomous agency called the District Rural Development Agency (DRDA). At the national level, the Department of Rural Development in the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development is responsible for policy planning, direction, coordination, and monitoring of the IRDP.

Government circulars constitute the most important means employed by the Ministry to fulfil its responsibilities. Since the inception of the IRDP in 1978-79, some 132 circulars had been issued by the Ministry till the end of July 1982. Through these circulars, the Ministry has sought to revise, clarify and supplement the original guidelines and instructions incorporated in its Manual on the IRDP (January 1980). A perusal of these circulars would show that most of them had been issued in response to the feedback, comments, and suggestions received by the Ministry from various sources from time to time. This shows that the

3. Important circulars on Integrated Rural Development Programme, issued prior to October 2, 1980 and issued since October 2, 1980, Ministry of Rural Development, Govt. of India, New Delhi, April 1982 and July 1982.
Ministry has been sensitive, open, and responsive in its approach to the planning and implementation of the IRDP. This structure and its modus operandi seems to be appropriate to meet the policy and planning needs of the IRDP at the national level.

At the state level, in most of the cases, either the Department of Planning or of Rural Development is responsible for policy planning, implementation, coordination, supervision and monitoring of the IRDP. In a few states like Gujrat, a commissionerate of Rural Development which is headed by the Secretary, Rural Development as its commissioner, has also been established to ensure proper implementation, supervision, monitoring and evaluation of the IRDP. The central Ministry has recommended this as a model for emulation by the remaining states as well. A state level coordination committee which is chaired by the chief secretary/Agricultural production commissioner/Principal Secretary, Agriculture, reviews, sanctions, coordinates, monitors, and evaluates all schemes of the IRDP in each state. Members of this committee include
heads of concerned departments, namely, Agriculture, Animal husbandry, cooperation, Irrigation, Forestry, Fishery, Finance, Industry and Planning, representatives of the government of India in the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, the Reserve Bank of India, the National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD), and the cooperative and commercial banks. The committee normally meets once in three months.

At the district level, an autonomous agency called the District Rural Development Agency is responsible for planning, implementing, coordinating, supervising, and monitoring the IRDP. The DRDA is constituted under the societies' Registration Act Public Trust Act and chaired by the District Collector/District Development Officer. The governing body of the DRDA consists of local MP and MLAs, chairman of Zila Parishad or his representative, district level heads of technical departments, representatives of concerned cooperative and commercial banks, and representatives of the weaker sections and
rural women. The Chief Executive of the DRDA is normally a senior state administrative cadre officer and is designated as Project Officer or Director. He is assisted by eight or nine assistant Project Officers in various subject matter areas like agriculture, animal husbandry, credit, monitoring, industries etc. Some supporting ministerial staff is also provided. The Governing Body usually meets once in three months but emergent meetings may be called as and when necessary to discuss urgent matters.

At the block level, there is a complete tie-up with the existing planning and implementation machinery and the programme is wholly dealt with by the Block Development Officer (BDO). The block structure varies from state to state but the guidelines from the Union Ministry have underlined the need to strengthen the block machinery by appointing one additional extension officer and ten village level workers and to upgrade the status and salary of the B.D.O. To ensure proper co-ordination with financial institutions at the block
level, some state governments (Gujarat for example), have provided for the constitution of a block level consultative committee on the pattern of the district level consultative committee.

Planning and Implementation:

Under the IRDP, a community Development Block has been accepted as the unit for planning and implementation. Pending decentralisation of the planning process, the block plan for the IRDP is intended to include the schemes that are eligible for assistance under the programme. The IRD plan is intended to be a component of a comprehensive block plan which is supposed to be formulated as per the guidelines issued by the planning commission on the subject in December 1979.

Generally speaking however, block level planning has not been done systematically anywhere in the country. This is because the block staff as provided at present is inadequate and lacks expertise in formu-

lating comprehensive development plans and projects. Even for the purpose of implementation, it would be necessary to supplement the existing block level machinery suitably. It seems the provision of one additional Extension Officer (EO) and ten additional village level workers (VLWs) per block under the IRDP is inadequate for the core planning and implementation functions. The following is a brief discussion of the major steps involved in the planning and implementation of the IRDP.

Selection of Villages

Under the operational guidelines for implementation of the IRDP, it is laid down that the cluster approach should be adopted in the selection of villages. The cluster approach requires, inter alia, the existence, in the villages to be selected, of Programme specific supporting infrastructure including credit institutions. This approach is justified in terms of economic efficiency, i.e. returns from scarce financial and administrative resources invested in the selected clusters. But by denying the benefits of the
programme to the poor families living outside the selected clusters, this approach does not fulfil the criterion of equity.

Selection of Beneficiaries

Selection of IRDP beneficiaries is expected to be made by the Village Level Worker (VLW) following the antyodaya principle, i.e. selecting the poorest of the poor first. In actual practice however, the antyodaya principle is not strictly followed. This is, due partly to some genuine difficulties in following this principle and partly to some deliberate defaults on the part of the VLWs. The genuine difficulties include reluctance and/or inability of the poorest of the poor to be able to purchase and manage one of the assets identified for him at the time of household survey with bank loans and IRDP subsidy. This may be due in part of the lack of managerial ability of the householder and partly to his inability to bear the risk involved in purchasing a loan financed asset. This means that it needs to identify and formulate bankable projects
that would suit the managerial and risk bearing ability of the poorest of the poor.

In our opinion, the expertise needed for this purpose is not available at any level in the district, neither with the DRDA nor with the banks concerned. This is one of the crucial areas in which it would be worthwhile to seek consultancy assistance from some reputed public or private organisations engaged in rural development management.

Formulation of Household Plans:

The Government's instructions require a detailed household plan to be formulated for each selected beneficiary. A format for the plan is also prescribed. This plan is supposed to be prepared by the VLW on the basis of the household survey of the beneficiary. The plan format provides for the inclusion of such details of each of the schemes proposed to be executed by the beneficiary, as estimated cost, subsidy and loan to be provided, loan repayment period, amount of loan installment and estimated additional net income over a period
of time. The plan is intended to be comprehensive enough to include all feasible economic activities necessary to enable the beneficiary to cross the poverty line over a period of five years or so.

But in actual practice, detailed household plans along the government of India instructions are not prepared for the selected beneficiaries. Therefore, it is suggested that a detailed household plan be prepared for each selected beneficiary, one to be kept by VLW, and one to be attached with the bank loan application and one to be retained by the beneficiary. For this purpose, the village, block, and district level staff need to be invigorated.

Preparation of Village and Block Plans

The Government of India Manual 1980 on IRDP specifies that the village and block plans under the IRDP are to be based on the detailed household plans of the beneficiaries. In practice, however, village and block plans are not prepared according to the instructions contained in the Manual. This is because the
requisite manpower and expertise is not available. What is done in the name of a village plan is merely the aggregation of requirements of various inputs, services, credit and subsidy based on the household plans.

Similarly, a block plan is prepared by aggregating the villagewise requirements of inputs, services, credit etc. No serious attempts are made to identify the infrastructural gaps, to integrate the IRDP plans with plans for the other sectors, and to establish forward and backward linkages with other agencies.

Preparation of a District Plan

At the district level the picture is not very different from the block level. Although the planning commission’s guidelines for Block Level Planning provide for the constitution of a three-member planning team at the district level consisting of an economist/statistician, a credit planning officer, and a small and cottage industries officer, there is only one Assistant Project Officer responsible for formulating the
district level IRD plan. A draft district IRD plan is prepared every year as per the guidelines issued by the Rural Development/Planning Department of the state government concerned.

Provision of Loans and Subsidies

The IRDP beneficiaries are assisted through viable bankable projects which are financed partly by subsidies and partly by bank loans. The present guidelines stipulate subsidies at differential rates ranging from 25 to 50 per cent of the capital cost the scheme, subject to a maximum of Rs.3,000 in non DPAP and Rs.4,000 in DPAP areas; for a tribal beneficiary the limit is Rs.5,000.

Acquisition of Assets

The IRDP beneficiaries are assisted by the EOs/ VLWs in acquiring the desired assets. In many states, purchase committees have been constituted at the block level to assist the beneficiaries. However, it has been observed that in most of the cases, assets are purchased by the beneficiaries alone. This is because
it is only rarely that all the members of the committee are available when required. Thus, this procedure does not seem to be practicable. Besides, there have been numerous cases where no assets were purchased but the certificates to that effect were issued by the committee members in return for bribes.

Provision of Inputs, services and Marketing Facilities

As far as the provision of a package of necessary inputs and services and of assured market facilities is concerned, Sabarkantha district of Gujrat presents a good example. Through a tripartite agreement between the DRDA, the banks concerned and the Sabarkantha District Cooperative Milk Producers' Union (Sabar Union), all the beneficiaries of the milch animal distribution scheme have to become members of the village dairy cooperative societies. They are provided balanced cattle feed, animal healthcare facilities and artificial insemination services at subsidised rates by the sabar union through the DCS. The milk is purchased by the DCS at remunarative prices which is based on the
fat content of the milk, and the loan instalments are deducted from the milk bill of the beneficiary. This arrangement is working very well and may be emulated by other states also.

Seeking Inter-agency Cooperation

A big anti poverty programme like the IRDP is likely to perform better by relying more on inter-agency cooperation through the use of both formal and non-formal networks than on hierarchical controls. This must be reorganised by the policy makers and provided for in the new strategy of the IRDP.

After six years of launcing the IRDP, in 1985 the G.V.K. Rao Committee set up to review the adminis-trative arrangement for rural development and poverty alleviation, had noted that the setting up of District Rural Development Agencies and the strengthen­ing of the blocks under IRDP had not resulted in the needed integration or overall coordination at the district or block level and there were a number of instances in which a battery of schemes aimed at the
same target group or the same geographical area were being planned and implemented by independent agencies in a totally uncoordinated manner. Many other Asian countries which were far less endowed with growth potential and scientific expertise and far less radical in their social and political philosophy had wiped out in a big way hunger and destitution of the rural masses but these remained a chronic feature in a large parts of India.

There were many reasons ascribed for this by experts. One was the fragmentation of the concept of the development into several programmes which did not automatically fit into the integrated rural development framework. Another was that a strong administrative set-up was lacking in many states to implement IRDP. It was also felt that by merely giving assets to the rural poor rural poverty could not be eliminated. Yet another view was that the weak planning component was a serious drawback.

The seventh five year plan document made specific mention of the multiplicity of programmes and
and diversity of organisational structure and stressed the need for a re-examination of the entire structure with a view to simplifying, rationalising, reducing duplication and ensuring horizontal coordination at local levels.

The G.V.K. Rao Committee also expressed the view that the time had come to take a total view of rural development, encompassing all economic and social development activities handled by different agencies at the field level. In its view, government machinery alone could not deliver the goods and local initiatives should be encouraged. In this context it recommended activisation of the Panchayati Raj institutions, besides suggesting that the district should be the basic unit for policy planning and programme implementation. It mooted the concept of a District Budget and a District Plan besides the designation of a senior official in the rank of the chief secretary as Development Commissioner at the state level to oversee rural
development. The report of this committee did not appear to have received the attention it deserved.

However, the strengthening of the Panchayti Raj Institutions (PRIs) to ensure active participation of the community in the planning and implementation of rural development programmes took place in the early 1990s backed by an amendment of the constitution to ensure regular election, devolution of funds and increased representation for women etc. with a comprehensive list of developmental activities to be entrusted to the PRIs for implementation through DRDAs.

This assumes significance because the allocations for rural development programmes are proposed to be doubled in the Ninth Five Year Plan from the eighth plan level of Rs.30,000 crore to Rs.60,000 crore as the present government has committed to eradicate poverty by the year 2005. The anti-poverty programmes will have to be redesigned to achieve this goal. It is further stated that the recommendations of the G.V.K. Rao Committee deserve to be considered.
The committee had, inter alia, suggested the creation of a post of District Development Commissioner, who would be of higher status than that of the District Collector, besides designation of an officer of chief secretary's rank as Development Commissioner at the state level under whom should be brought all departments which deal in one way or the other with issues of rural concern.
2.4 Measures of Development

There are two types of measures of development. One is the statistical and the other is quantitative measurement. Statistical measurement of the progress of rural development is important for a number of reasons. Quantitative measures of development are needed to indicate the extent of economic and social well-being to serve as a benchmark for future planning, to serve as instruments of monitoring, evaluation and control of ongoing programmes, to facilitate spatial and temporal comparisons of development and to serve as a criterion for granting foreign aid and loans. At present there is no single indicator of rural development which adequately captures its multi-faceted nature. A variety of development indicators have been used by economists to reflect the multiplicity of goals which characterise rural development. A critique of some of these indicators is presented in the following sections.
Per capita Real Gross National Product (GNP)

The Gross National Product is the market value of all final goods and services produced in a year and attributable to the factors of production supplied by the normal residents of the country concerned. Real GNP is the GNP adjusted for changes in prices and is computed by dividing GNP by general price index. Per capita real GNP is the most widely used measure of the economic well-being of the people. If computed for rural people separately, it could be used as a measure of the economic component of rural development. Increase in real GNP per capita means that on an average the people are economically better off. But in reality, GNP has some weaknesses as a measure of economic well-being. First, it does not include the value of physical and mental satisfaction that people derive from leisure. Second, it does not include the value of non-paid housewives' services, and home labour such as gardening, painting and care of pets and domestic animals. If a bachelor marries his maid, the
GNP is reduced because he no longer pays for her services.

Per capita Public Expenditure on Community Facilities and Services

The level of development of a country is a function of the consumption of goods and services by its inhabitants. It does not matter whether the goods and services consumed are purchased by a person with his personal income or whether he receives them without a specific expenditure on his part. Certain services, facilities and civic amenities such as schools, hospitals, roads, parks, police protection, street lights, are provided by the government free of cost to the people. The availability of these facilities and services represent 'real income' and therefore, constitute part of the level of living. Per capita public expenditure on these amenities is a good measure of social welfare. This measure used in conjunction with per capita real income constitutes a reasonably satisfactory index of general well-being.
Adelman and Morris Indicators of Development

Adelman and Morris use forty indicators of socio-cultural, political and economic development to analyse the process of development in seventy-four developing countries. These indicators are:

1. Size of the traditional agricultural sector.
2. Extent of dualism.
3. Extent of urbanisation.
4. Character of basic social organisation.
5. Importance of indigenous middle class.
6. Extent of social mobility.
7. Extent of literacy.
8. Extent of mass communication.
9. Degree of cultural and ethnic homogeneity.
10. Degree of social tension.
11. Crude fertility rate.
12. Degree of modernisation of outlook.
13. Degree of national integration and sense of national unity.
14. Extent of centralisation of political power.
15. Strength of democratic institutions.
16. Degree of freedom of political opposition and press.
17. Degree of competitiveness of political parties.

18. Predominant basis of the political party system.
20. Political strength of the traditional elite.
21. Political strength of the military.
22. Degree of administrative efficiency.
23. Extent of leadership commitment to economic development.
24. Extent of political stability.
25. Per capita GNP.
26. Rate of growth of real per capita GNP.
27. Abundance of natural resources.
29. Level of modernisation of industry.
30. Change in degree of industrialisation.
31. Character of agricultural organisation.
32. Level of modernisation of technique in agriculture.
33. Degree of improvement in agricultural productivity.
34. Adequacy of physical overhead capital
35. Effectiveness of the tax system.
36. Improvement in the tax system.
37. Effectiveness of financial institutions.
38. Improvement in financial institutions.
39. Rate of improvement in human resources.
40. Structure of foreign trade.

Some of these indicators are traditional, such as per capita GNP, some are distinctly non-traditional, e.g., strength of democratic institutions, degree of national integration, extent of social mobility and the like. Adelman and Morris first heuristically obtain quantitative or semi-quantitative data for each of the forty indicators, then assign each of a sample of seventy-four developing countries a better grade with respect to each indicator and finally convert the better grades to numerical scale. Their study under­scores the importance of non-economic factors in explaining growth within and between different stages of development.

Uphoff and Esman Indicators of Rural Development

Uphoff and Esman\(^2\) identify seven dimensions of rural development, in their study of eighteen country

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cases aimed at establishing relationships between local organisation and rural development.

1. Agricultural productivity measured in terms of average cereal yields per hectare and per capita total agricultural production.

2. Improved technology measured in terms of use of fertilizers per hectare, irrigated area as per cent of cultivated area, and adoption of high yielding varieties of cereals—rice and wheat;

3. Rural welfare measured in terms of levels of nutrition, health and education;

4. Security measured in terms of protection from natural disaster, protection against violence, and access to justice;

5. Income distribution measured in terms of the ratio of income accruing to the top 20 per cent of households vis-a-vis that accruing to the bottom 20 per cent;

6. Rate of population growth and level of employment; and
7. Political administrative participation measured in terms of electoral participation, control of bureaucracy, influence on rural development policy, and allocation of public services and resources.

They have done an ingenious job of first making quantitative estimates of all these seven dimensions of rural development for a sample of eighteen countries and then ranking the countries in terms of each of these dimensions.

Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI)

Morris and McAlpin have developed a measure that can help policy makers in determining the extent to which their policies actually do benefit greater or smaller proportions of their societies. The measure is called the Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI). PQLI as a measure of quality of life supplements per capita real GNP which is the most widely used measure of economic growth. It does not attempt to incorporate everything of measurable welfare but measures the

progress that is (or is not) being made in satisfying certain basic needs of the poorest people. It has three components namely, infant mortality, life expectancy and basic literacy. These three component indicators lend themselves to intra- and international comparisons, are simple to compute and understand, are fairly sensitive to changes in distribution of benefits of development, do not reflect the values of any specific cultures and reflect results, not inputs.

Measures of Income Inequality

A country with a high per capita real GNP but with a less equitable distribution of income would rank lower in terms of aggregate economic welfare than the one with the same level of per capita real GNP but with a more equitable distribution of income. In general, higher per capita real GNP and its more equitable distribution means a higher level of economic well-being.

There are wide variety of measures which are used by economists to measure income distribution.
They include among others, Pareto index, shares of bottom 20 per cent and top 20 per cent of households in the aggregate income, standard deviation of logarithms of incomes, Lorenze curve and Gini concentration ratio. A good measure of income inequality should possess two characteristics. First, it should be unaffected by equal proportional increases in all incomes; so that if the distribution of income for the year, X, is simply a sealed up version of that for the year Y, then they should be regard them as characterised by the same degree of inequality. Second, it should be sensitive to disproportionate changes at all levels of income; so that if from year X, to year Y, the incomes of lower income households increase proportionately more than the incomes of the higher income households, this ought to lead to a strictly positive reduction in the index of inequality and not merely leave it unchanged\(^4\).

Simple Measures of Development

Realising that reduction or elimination of poverty, inequality and unemployment is an important index of development, one may specify a few simple measures of development by posing the following six questions;

1. Has the number of people below the absolute poverty line been declining over time?

2. Has the degree of income inequality been declining over time?

3. Has the level of unemployment been declining over time?

4. Have the nature and quality of public educational, health and other social and cultural services been improving over time?

5. Has economic progress enhanced individual and group esteem both internally vis-a-vis one another and externally vis-a-vis other nations and regions?
6. Finally, has economic progress expanded the range of human choice and freed people from external dependence and internal servitude to other men and institutions?

If the answer to each of these questions is 'yes', then clearly these phenomena constitute real 'development' and a nation in which they are manifested can unquestionably be called 'developed'.

2.5 Policies For Rural Development

According to Webster policy is a definite course of action selected (as by government, an institution, a group, or an individual) from among alternatives and in light of given conditions to guide and usually to determine present and future decisions\(^1\). The most common social and political, usage of the term policy refers to 'a course of action or intended course of action conceived of as deliberately adopted and pursued or oriented to be pursued\(^2\).

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It is important to distinguish between (i) Policy, (ii) Programme; and (iii) Project. Policy is a comprehensive term and connotes a set of intended actions. It subsumes programmes. Programme is narrower in scope than policy and is more specific with regard to what is to be done, how, by whom, and where. A policy has to be translated into number of programmes before it can be implemented. Project is highly specific and detailed in terms of its objectives, location, duration, funds and executing agency and lends itself to Planning, financing, and implementation as a unit. A programme may consists of several projects. A rural development project may be defined as an investment activity where resources are expended to create a producing asset from which it can expect to realise benefits over an extended period of time.

Need for Rural Development Policy

The farther one moves away from simple, small scale handicraft industry and self-contained and subsistence agriculture, a greater need develops for
public policy in the economic field. The individual, as a producer and as a consumer, depends more and more upon the general conditions of market, of employment, output and production efficiency of the nation as a whole and upon the way income is distributed among the people; in short, upon the economic welfare of the country. Some specific reasons favouring government intervention are:

1. Socialist pattern of society

India has chosen to establish a 'socialist pattern of society'. This means that the basic criterion for determining the lines of advance must not be private profile, but social gain, and that the pattern of development and the structure of socio-economic relations should be so planned that they result not only in appreciable increases in national income and employment but also in greater equality in incomes and wealth³.

2. Agricultural Fluctuations

The country often experiences violent agricultural fluctuations. Fluctuations in agricultural output led to still higher fluctuations in agricultural prices and hence agricultural incomes. This is because the demand for most agricultural products is inelastic. Most of the farmers, being small scale operators and poor cannot bear the consequences of fluctuations in farm output and prices. They need some protection from the adverse effects of free market and niggardly nature. Such protection can be provided by the government in the form of price support, insurance and credit policies.

3. Rural Poverty and Income Inequality

The average per capita income in rural areas is not only lower than in urban areas but is also more unevenly distributed. In 1977-78, about 51 per cent of the rural population was below the poverty line as compared to 38 per cent in urban areas. The material

blessings of development in India, have been more bountiful for urban people than for the rural masses. This is true for other countries as well. The injustice of the plight of rural people is reason enough for government intervention to support rural income and improve its distribution through anti-poverty programmes.

4. Unorganised Rural Enterprises

Most rural enterprises are small, scattered and unorganised. Due to these characteristics their owners have very low or practically no bargaining power vis-a-vis those to whom they sell their produce and from whom they buy their supplies. This results in exploitation on both fronts—selling as well as buying. This heightens the need for government policies aimed at equalising opportunities, at strengthening the bargaining power of individuals and groups in rural areas, and restraining the powerful from exploiting the weak.
5. Poor Basic Infrastructure in Rural Areas

Rural areas are at a great disadvantage in relation to urban areas as far as provision of basic infrastructural facilities and services such as roads, drinking water, electricity, schools, hospitals, police protection, transport and communication is concerned. Not only these public facilities and amenities in rural areas inadequate but are also very poorly organised and undependable. As a result, poor villages are damned, generation after generation, to poor education, poor health, unemployment and poverty. Improvement of their plight requires intensive government intervention. In fact, the government has already intervened by launching programmes like the Minimum Needs Programme and the Applied Nutrition Programme.

6. Predominant Agriculture

Agriculture occupies a predominant place in India's economy. It is the single largest sector of India's economy contributing about 40 per cent of the national income and providing the main source of
livelihood for about two-thirds of India's population. Agricultural and rural development is, in fact, the sine qua non of national development. Therefore, a meaningful strategy of national development must have agricultural and rural development as one of its major planks.

Goals of Rural Development Policy

Rural development policies are designed to improve the conditions under which rural people work and live. The goals of policies are governed by what people desire, and the measure of policies, by what people think the government can and ought to do to bring about the desired change. This is the theory of public policy. Changes are desired only when people do not like the way things are going. Pressure for public action arises when people feel that they, individually, cannot bring about the desired adjustments. They have in mind some 'norm', some image of an ideal situation towards which they strive. These norms become the goals of policy towards which objectives of specific programmes are directed.
There are two dominant goals of India's economic policy: first, increasing the national income; and second, improving the distribution of national income among the members of the society. These goals are reflected in India's economic policies that are enunciated in its five year plans. The sixth plan (1980-85) lays down these major objectives:

1. A significant step up in the rate of growth of the economy, the promotion of efficiency in the use of resources and improved productivity;

2. Strengthening the impulses of modernisation for the achievement of economic and technological self-reliance;

3. A progressive reduction in the incidence of poverty and unemployment;

4. A speedy development of indigenous sources of energy with proper emphasis on conservation and efficiency in energy use;

5. Improving the quality of life of the people in

general with special reference to the economically and socially handicapped population through a minimum needs programme;

6. Strengthening the redistributive bias of public policies and services in favour of the poor contributing to a reduction in inequalities of income and wealth;

7. Progressive reduction in regional inequalities particularly in the pace of development and in the diffusion of technological benefits;

8. Promoting policies to control the growth of population through voluntary acceptance of the small family norm;

9. Bringing about harmony between the short and the long term of goals of development by promoting the protection and improvement of ecological and environmental assets;

10. Promoting the active involvement of all sections of the people in the process of development through appropriate education, communication, and institutional strategies.
Chapter III
Geography of Chandaus Block
CHAPTER - III

In this chapter an attempt has been made to examine the existing position of the study area in terms of location, physical features, cultural setting, drainage, climate, soils, land use pattern, irrigation, cropping pattern, cattle wealth, demographic profile, social functions etc. to serve as a base for further work.

3.1 Location and Physical Setting

The Chandaus block is one of the 17 blocks of Aligarh district. It is located between 27° 57' and 28° 11' North latitude and 77° 49' and 78° 2' East longitude. It is surrounded by Buland Shahar district on the north, Lodha block on the southeast, Jawan block on the east and Tappal block on the West. Chandaus comes under Khair tehsil and lies in the northern West of Aligarh district.

The geographical area of Chandaus block is 321.30 sq Kms. It shares 30.9 per cent area of Khair tehsil and 6.40 per cent area of Aligarh district. There are 94 villages spreading over 321.30 sq. Kms. The maximum width of the block from West to East is about 32 Kms and the maximum length from North to South is about 26 Kms.
LOCATION MAP
MAP OF DISTRICT ALIGARH SHOWING
THE LOCATION OF CHANDAUS BLOCK

Fig. I
It may be seen from the given figure that Aligarh district has been divided into 6 Tehsils, namely, Koil, Atrauli, Sikandra Rao, Khair, Iglas and Hathras. There are 17 blocks in Aligarh district viz, Dhanipur, Lodha, Jawan, Atrauli, Gangiri, Bijauli, Akrabad, sikandra Rao, Hasayan, Khair, Chandaus, Tappal, Iglas, Gonda, Mursan, Sasni, and Hathras.

So far as the topography of the study area is concerned, it forms the part of Aligarh district, therefore its topography is very much similar to the district.

Topographically Aligarh district as a whole presents a shallow trough like appearance with ganga and yamuna making it high rims.

On the basis of topography the district could be divided into three divisions:

1. The Khadar plains along the river ganga in the east and along the river yamuna in the west.
2. The eastern and Western up land.
3. The central depressions.

Geologically, Aligarh district forms a part of Indo-gangetic plain. This land has been filled with allunium brought down by the Himalayan rivers. The deposition of this alluvium started after final upheaval of the mountains and has continued through out
the Pliostocene. Various hypothesis have been put forward to explain the geological evolution of this plain. Sir Sydney Burrard on the basis of geodetic observations suggested that the Indo-gangetic depression is a great sub-crustal crack or rift. This rift was filled with alluvium. Edward Suess concluded that the Indo-gangetic trough represented a foredeep when the Himalayas were upheaved by the inflexible solid land mass of the Peninsula. A third and more recent view regards this region as a sag in the crest formed between the northward drifting Indian continent and the comparatively soft sediments accumulated in the Tethyan sea well as in the connected basins of the north. The crumpling of the sediment resulted in the formation of mountain system (Krishnan, 1982).

Administrative Units

Chandaus block consists of 94 revenue villages, out of which 92 are inhabited and 2 are uninhabited villages. There are 86 gram sabhas in the block. For administrative and development purposes the 86 gram sabha of the block have been grouped into eleven Nyaya Panchayats. The number of towns in Chandaus block is nil.

Area of Chandaus block, Nyaya Panchayat and village wise is given in Table - I.
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<th>Name of Nyaya Panchayat/Village</th>
<th>Area in Hectares</th>
<th>Name of Nyaya Panchayat/Village</th>
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Fig. 3
| Table-I continued |
|------------------|------------------|
| **Bisara N.P.** | **3484.00** |
| **Daurau Chandpur N.P.** | **2959.00** |
| **Hisail** | 232.00 | **Kinhuia** | 374.00 |
| **Chandner** | 209.00 | **Pahavati** | 311.00 |
| **Aramgarhi** | 126.00 | **Bhagwanpur** | 102.00 |
| **Thanpur Khanpur** | 361.00 | **Noorullahpur** | 116.00 |
| **Udaipur** | 428.00 | **Daurau Chandpur** | 431.00 |
| **Barka** | 551.00 | **Deopur** | 167.00 |
| **Visara** | 749.00 | **Somna** | 322.00 |
| **Bamoti** | 828.00 | **Madhuala** | 782.00 |
| | | **Pahavati** | 311.00 |
| | | **Bhagwanpur** | 102.00 |
| | | **Noorullahpur** | 116.00 |
| | | **Daurau Chandpur** | 431.00 |
| | | **Deopur** | 167.00 |
| | | **Somna** | 322.00 |
| | | **Madhuala** | 782.00 |

| **Imlahara N.P.** | **2255.00** |
| **Hursena N.P.** | **2431.00** |
| **Amritpur Bakhatpur** | 636.00 | **Hussaina** | 247.00 |
| **Aogipur** | 11.00 | **Arjunpur** | 160.00 |
| **Sinhpur** | 99.00 | **Moharana** | 495.00 |
| **Chivanpur** | 134.00 | **Syampur** | 114.00 |
| **Nawabpur** | 227.00 | **Rampur** | 137.00 |
| **Imlahara** | 268.00 | **Lalpur** | 234.00 |
| **Nagla Sarua** | 229.00 | **Ganagala Rajoo** | 531.00 |
| **Marhki** | 224.00 | **Gwalara** | 134.00 |
| **Raseedpur Gorna** | 322.00 | | |
| | | | |
Fig. 4
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<tr>
<td>Khyamai</td>
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</table>

Source: National Informatic Centre, U.P. State Unit.
Climate

Chandaus lies in upper Ganga-Yamuna Doab. Hence its climate is very similar to that of other parts of the Doab as a whole. Climate of the study area is characterised by a rhythm of seasons which is caused by the southwest and northeast monsoons. Thus precipitation, temperature, pressure, wind, relative humidity etc. exhibit well marked seasonal variations. The pressure reversal takes place regularly twice in the course of year. At the time of north east monsoon (November to middle of June). Winds are of continental origin and blow gently generally from west to east. It is usually a dry period except a few showers brought by the Western depressions. The South West monsoon which blow from mid June to October usually enters the area by the end of June. The study area comprises four principal seasons similar to our country and gets most of its rainfall in rainy season. Thus taking into consideration the temperature and precipitation, the whole year has been divided into four distinct seasons;

(i) The cold weather season (December-February).
(ii) The hot weather season (March to mid June).
(iii) Season of rains (June-September).
(iv) The season of retreating South West monsoon (October-November).

Cold Weather Season

The beginning of winter season is marked by a considerable fall in temperature. In this season, a
relatively low pressure exists over the Indian ocean, thus causing winds to blow from plain towards seas.

The mean maximum temperature varies from 26.63°C in November to 22.78°C in March. The average minimum temperature for these months is 13.77°C, 8.75°C, 8.20°C, 11.12°C and 16.07°C respectively. Nights are very cold while days are comparatively warmer with foggy mornings. The relative humidity ranges between 56.07 per cent to 77.15 per cent. The rainfall is irregular and scattered. In the month of January it is very cold (8.20°C - 21.61°C), the temperature begins to rise from 16.07°C to 30.97°C in the month of March.

The Hot Weather Season

This season begins with a sharp rise in temperature and fall in pressure, which continues up to the onset of monsoon. The minimum and maximum temperatures in April are 22.21°C and 38.50°C respectively. June is the hottest month with mean temperature 33.5°C, maximum temperature 40.08°C and minimum 27.55°C. Days are hot and dry with the relative humidity declining to 37.07, 42.56 and 49.31 per cent in the month of April, May and June respectively. The month of May and half of June is the period of intense hot dry and dust ladden West winds. These winds are
locally known as 'loo' and blow at its full fury during a major part of the day. This season is known for its dust storms locally known as 'Andhi', ending up in the light showers of rain which is sometimes accompanied by hailstorm. The total average rainfall in this season is generally small.

The Season of General Rains

With the burst of monsoon temperature falls and air becomes cool and pleasant by the end of June. July is the wettest month of year followed by August and September. The average relative humidity is 73.73 per cent and 62.82 per cent for these two months respectively. The sky is generally overcast. Rains usually set in by the end of June or early July and continue until the end of September or early October. The maximum rainfall occurred about 215.33 mm and 205.00 mm in the month of July and August respectively.

The Season of retreating South West monsoon

Rainfall in this season is very meagre but it is useful for the rabi crops and for the maturity of late rice. The mean maximum temperature in October remains as high as in September on account of the clearer skies. The South West monsoon starts retreating by the last weak of September. Rain is low and the retreat of monsoon forms a series of intermittent rains and dry
weather. The maximum and minimum temperatures in the month of September are 33°C and 24°C respectively.

Soils

The study area is situated on the sandy loam tract which is boardered on the West by sandy bed of the river Yamuna. The river Yamuna is much nearer to the area. So it is an acceptable fact that the soils of the block have been formed from the parent material (sandy loam) brought down by the Yamuna. This sandy loam has given rise to sandy soils with varying proportion of sand and silt. Time, climate and slope of the area have played important role in the formation of soils.

On the basis of profile, texture, colour etc., the soil survey Department (1985) classified the soils of the block into four types. They are

1. Yamuna sandy loam
2. Yamuna Khader
3. Trans-yamuna Khader
4. Usar Soils

Yamuna Sandy Loam

Yamuna sandy loam covers the entire tehsil of Iglas, most of the area of Hathras tehsil, and especially Chandaus and eastern part of Tappal block of
Khair tehsil. The entire area of these soils form an upland topography.

Yamuna Khader

The soil is generally clayey or clayey loam in texture. This type of soil is further divided into two types namely, yamuna clayey loam and yamuna sandy - loam. Yamuna clayey - loam occurs on the Western part of the Chandaus block. The yamuna sandy - loam is found in the north, south and east of the yamuna clayey - loam.

Trans - Yamuna Khader

Trans - yamuna Khader soil covers the Western part of Chandaus block of Khair tehsil. The texture of the soil is fine sandy - loam to loam in character.

Usar Soils

Usar soils are largely found in the Western part of the district, especially on the comparatively elevated land of Chandaus in Khair tehsil. These soils are sandy in texture and being deficient in organic matter are not suitable for agricultural operation.

Drainage

The present day drainage of Aligarh district is developed as super imposed drainage over a Palaco-Flood Plain of major river system which emerged from the
CHANDAUS BLOCK
DRAINAGE SYSTEM

Fig. 6
vindhyan plateau and flowed towards north in the central Depression around merut in the Indo-Gangetic plain. The present day drainage is controlled by Ganga and Yamuna and their tributary streams. The study area Chandaus block is drained by several micro-watersheds of Yamuna basin. The Yamuna basin in the district has been sub-divided into seven micro-watersheds which have been designated as Y1, Y2, Y3, Y4, Y5, Y6 & Y7 to facilitate the description. The given table presents the details of micro-watershed.

**TABLE - II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Name of watersheds</th>
<th>Designation</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td>Dehar Nadi Micro-watershed</td>
<td>(Y1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>Patwaha Nadi Micro-watershed</td>
<td>(Y2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td>Jamon Nadi Micro-watershed</td>
<td>(Y3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d)</td>
<td>Karwan Nadi Micro-watershed</td>
<td>(Y4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e)</td>
<td>Somna Nala Micro-watershed</td>
<td>(Y5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f)</td>
<td>Aligarh Drain Micro-watershed</td>
<td>(Y6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g)</td>
<td>Sengar Nadi Micro-watershed</td>
<td>(Y7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among these micro-watersheds Chandaus is drained only by Karwan Nadi, Somna Nala and Aligarh Drain micro-watersheds d) **Karwan Nadi Micro-watershed: (Y4)**

The micro-watershed Y4 covers about 548 sqkm are in parts of Chandaus, Khair, Gonda, Iglas and Mursan blocks which are drained by Karwan Nadi. This
micro-watershed has seventeen streams which includes thirteen streams of first order and two streams of second order, one stream of third order and one stream of fourth order. Lengths of stream segments $L_1$, $L_2$, $L_3$ and $L_4$ (for 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th order streams) are 65.5 Km. 19.75 Km. 59.5 Km. and 14.25 Km. respectively.

(e) Somna Nala Micro-watershed ($Y_5$)

This micro-watershed covers about 634 sqkm. area in parts of Chandaus, Lodha, Khair, Sasni, Gonda, Hathras, Iglas and Mursan blocks which are drained by Karwan Nadi. The micro-watershed has eight streams which includes five streams of 1st order, two streams of 2nd order and one stream of 3rd order. Lengths of stream segments $L_1$, $L_2$, $L_3$ (for 1st, 2nd and 3rd order streams) are 12.55 Km. 11.62 Km. 35.25 Km. respectively. (f) Aligarh Drain Micro-watershed ($Y_6$)

The micro-watershed covers about 486 sqkm. are in parts of Khair, Chandaus, Lodha, Jawan, Iglas, Hathras, Sasni and Mursan blocks which are drained by Aligarh drain. The micro-watershed has total of nine streams of which eight streams are of 1st order and one stream of 2nd order. Lengths of stream segments $L_1$, $L_2$ of the 1st order and 2nd order within the district are 32.5 Km. and 68 Km. respectively.
Natural Vegetation

The study area forms part of the northern sub-tropical deciduous type of vegetation division of the country and there is paucity of natural vegetation because of heavy pressure of population that has accelerated the speed of deforestation. However, there are small patches of land covered with trees scattered here and there. Important trees are Shisham, Mango, Jamun, Babul, Imali, Neem, Peepal etc. Now a day Eucalyptus trees are being planted in a fashionable way. Thus Eucalyptus tree is a common site now in the open fields. Young garden in various villages of the block are also coming up gradually to add greenery to the area. On the whole, there is scarcity of forest cover to maintain the eco-system of the region.

3.2 Cultural Setting

Population

As per the census of 1991 Chandaus block has a population of 148096 persons, of which 80131 (54.10 per cent) are males and 67965 (45.89 per cent) are females. The block accounts for 6.40 per cent area and 4.5 per cent population of Aligarh district and has a density of 466 persons/sqkm. There are 21165 occupied residential houses and 23748 families in the 92 inhabited villages of Chandaus block.
Caste and Community break-up

Caste occupied a very significant place in rural society, even now it represents the socio-economic condition of the people. In Chandaus block there is a considerable number of schedule castes and schedule tribes. The total population of schedule castes and schedule tribes is 36833 of which 19992 are males and 16840 are females. Total population including institutional and houseless population of the Chandaus block, Nyaya Panchayat and village wise is given below.

Table - III

Chandaus Block Population, 1991

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Nyaya Panchyats/Villages</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>439</td>
<td>427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rakrana</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>398</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jalokhari</td>
<td>838</td>
<td>446</td>
<td>392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shahpur</td>
<td>1492</td>
<td>779</td>
<td>695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raupur</td>
<td>791</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pisawa</td>
<td>8120</td>
<td>4407</td>
<td>3713</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rupnagar</td>
<td>1735</td>
<td>944</td>
<td>791</td>
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</table>
CHANDAUS BLOCK POPULATION 1991

POPULATION IN THOUSANDS

Total Population 148096
Males 8013
Females 67965

Fig. 8
Table-III continued

<table>
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<th>Saidpur N.P.</th>
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<th>4033</th>
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<td>Detakhurd</td>
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<td>1394</td>
<td>1188</td>
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<td>Majoopur</td>
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<td>274</td>
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<td>Detakalan</td>
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<td>Dargava</td>
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<td>900</td>
<td>812</td>
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<td>Badhiyana</td>
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<td>Surajpur</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bhojpur Gyanpur</td>
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CHANDAUS BLOCK
NUMBER OF VILLAGES
PER NYAYA PANCHYATS 1991

Fig. 9
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<tr>
<th>Village</th>
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<th>Population</th>
<th>Population</th>
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<td>844</td>
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<td>2060</td>
<td>1789</td>
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<tr>
<td>Panihavar</td>
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<td>Nagla Nattha</td>
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<table>
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<td>Moharana</td>
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<td>1731</td>
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Table-III continued

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<th>Village</th>
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<tr>
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<td>950</td>
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<td>Gwalara</td>
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<td>482</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Jakhauta N.P.</strong></td>
<td><strong>9769</strong></td>
<td><strong>5373</strong></td>
<td><strong>4396</strong></td>
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<td>685</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>311</td>
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<tr>
<td>Khempur</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>168</td>
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<td>Bhimpur</td>
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<td>Maharajpur</td>
<td>1103</td>
<td>596</td>
<td>507</td>
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<td>Virpura</td>
<td>2671</td>
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<td>1207</td>
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<td>Ghoroth</td>
<td>730</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>325</td>
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<td>Karanpur</td>
<td>1095</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>515</td>
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<td>Jakhauta</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Pairai N.P.</strong></td>
<td><strong>6709</strong></td>
<td><strong>3584</strong></td>
<td><strong>3125</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rampur</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanhoi</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>284</td>
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<td>Hasanpur</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>478</td>
<td>468</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pairai</td>
<td>1787</td>
<td>975</td>
<td>812</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chuharpur</td>
<td>935</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>425</td>
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<td>Lohpur</td>
<td>1072</td>
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<td>508</td>
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<tr>
<td>Khyamai</td>
<td>967</td>
<td>529</td>
<td>438</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CHANDAUS BLOCK
VARIATION IN POPULATION

OECADAL VARIATION IN POPULATION

ALIGARH

CHANDAUS

Fig. 10
Literacy

As per 1991 census out of 148096 people of Chandaus, 53796 people are literate of which 40911 are males and 12885 are females. Percentage of literates to the total population is 36.5 per cent. Of this 76 per cent are males and 24 per cent are females.

In 94 villages of Chandaus Pisawa is highly literate. Out of 8120 people, 3134 are literate of which 2391 are males and 753 are females giving a percentage of 38.60. Jalakha village of Chandaus Nyaya Panchyat is most backward so far as literacy is concerned. Here out of 59 people, only two persons are literate.

Occupational Structure

According to the census 1991, there were 38695 total main workers accounting for 26.12 per cent of the total population of Chandaus as against 29.95 per cent for Aligarh district. Of the total number of workers in the block, 27.10 per cent are agricultural labourers; 406 per cent are marginal workers; 1.66 per cent are
CHANDAUS BLOCK
POPULATION OF LITERATES 1991

Fig. 11
engaged in manufacturing, processing, servicing and household industries; 1.05 per cent are engaged in trade and commerce; 1.96 per cent are in other activities and 69.13 per cent are non-workers. As the study area is basically rural in character therefore, 50.53 per cent people are cultivators.

Land Resource

Chandaus block has 34241 hectares of fertile agricultural land, which account for 23.07 per cent of the total reporting area of the block. Cultivated land is the foundation on which the super-structure of agricultural development is raised. Ownership of shrinking land resources in rural areas is the major determinant of household economy and accounts for socio-economic status of the rural people.

Livestock Population

As per 1991 livestock census, total livestock population in the block is 78777 heads of animal, of which 17105 are cows, and 8377 are their calves, 11283 are goats and sheeps, 562 are horses, 2839 are pigs,
CHANDAUS BLOCK
OCCUPATIONAL STRUCTURE
1991

REFERENCE

- - AGRICULTURAL LABOURER

LIVESTOCK, FORESTRY, FISHING AND PLANTATION ORCHARDS AND ALLIED ACTIVITY

MANUFACTURING, PROCESSING SERVICING AND REPAIRING IN HOUSEHOLD AND OTHER THAN HOUSEHOLD INDUS.

TRADE AND COMMERCE

CULTIVATORS

CONSTRUCTION

TRANSPORT, STORAGE AND COMMUNICATION

OTHER SERVICES

Fig. 12
43650 are buffaloes (especially he and she bhensas), and 6668 are poultry birds. Table No. IV shows the livestock population in the block.

Table - IV
Chandaus Block, Livestock Population, 1991 census

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td><strong>White Cattle</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(i) Bullocks (above 2.5 years)</td>
<td>53345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(ii) Cows (above 2.5 years)</td>
<td>17105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(iii) Calves (below 2.5 years)</td>
<td>8327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td><strong>Buffaloes</strong></td>
<td>43650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(i) He buffaloes (above 3 years)</td>
<td>21485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(ii) She buffaloes (above 3 years)</td>
<td>15927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(iii) Calves (below 3 years)</td>
<td>6238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td><strong>Goats, and sheeps</strong></td>
<td>11,283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td><strong>Horses</strong></td>
<td>562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td><strong>Pigs</strong></td>
<td>2839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td><strong>Poultry birds</strong></td>
<td>6668</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Roads

The total surfaced road length in Chandaus block is 80 kms. of which 68 kms. are PWD roads along with 11 bus stopages.

Postal Facilities

The total number of Post office in the block is 36. There are 13 Telephone connection in the block and 4 Public call offices.

Amenities and services

The strength of an area is chiefly determined by the resource it commands and the capacity of its people to utilize and conserve these resources. This requires wise resource management, productive skills and technology so that maximum benefits accrue to the community. The availability of amenities within easy reach reflects on the infrastructural development of the area. The area under study is well equipped with all sorts of modern amenities, such as, almost the entire villages of the block are electrified. There
are 11 bus stopage and one railway station, 4 Public offices, 36 post-office, 13 telephone connection, 3 nationalised banks and 6 gramine banks providing credit facilities etc.

Educational Facilities

Of the total 92 inhabited villages in the block, there are 80 Primary schools. Only 12 are not having schools within the villages. There are 18 junior high schools (15 for boys and 3 for girls), and 7 intermediate colleges. There are no degree colleges in the block. As whole there are good educational facilities in the Chandaus block.

Medical Facilities

There are 4 Primary Health Centre (PHC) at Chandaus and 2 Ayurvedic hospitals which covers a wide area and provide better health care. Apart from this there are 4 veterinary hospitals with 23 life development centre, 4 artificial breeding centres and 19 sub-centres which avail every type of quick and well managed facilities for curing animals.
The literature further indicates that:-

1. Proximity of Chandaus block to Aligarh and Delhi contributes significantly to its socio-economic development.

2. As Chandaus forming a part of upper Ganga-yamuna Doab, the block has sandy loam soil which is well suited for agricultural operation.

3. Variability of rainfall is the only main climatic problem in the study area.

4. Chandaus accounts for 6.40 per cent area and 4.50 per cent population of Aligarh district, with a density of 466 persons/sq.kms.

With the above infrastructural resource base Chandaus block is placed at the medium level of socio-economic development among 17 blocks of Aligarh district. Present study is designed to identify infrastructural inadequacies and disparities in order to suggest package of functions at locations most suitable for integrating the total block in the process of development.
Chapter I V

Review of The Work Done
Since the inception of IRDP in the country, a number of persons engaged in different disciplines like geography, agriculture, agricultural economics and other social sciences have studied various aspects of IRDP in special as well as temporal perspectives. Moreover, they have measured the performance of IRDP in the respective areas of their interest and suggested a large number of methods for realising better results of this programme.

Apart from the above some micro level studies have also been made on rural development by National Institute of Rural Development, Hyderabad and individual research scholars with a view to procure some insight into the problems of the areas. Generalisations have been made and methodologies used for micro level planning.

Bhat (1976) in his study on Karnal area deals with the identification of resources, central functions and centrality of places. On the basis of 23 variables
at the grass root level, attempt has been made to work out coorelation and space relations among various settlements. However, no projection has been attempted to workout the sectoral growth and social achievement at various levels of settlement hierarchy.

Subramaniam (1976) in his study of 'A strategy for Rural Development' has analysed that a strategy of Rural Development should be based on a comprehensive survey of natural resources, their exploitation based on technologies appropriate to the local environment, mass mobilization through a process of education, all with a view to scientific utilization and equitable sharing of available resources. It is aimed at to improve the efficiency of utilization of the physical resources, and facilitate an intensive use of available labour, whether it be in strengthening transport, improving irrigation, and drainage, conserving soil or rationalising land and water use.

His study shows that the Integrated Rural Development should have villages plans. A village plan
provides, firstly, for those activities which the people of the village can themselves undertake, using their own manpower and other resources to maximum extent and, secondly for supplies and credit and technical help which the village needs from outside.

Kang (1978-79) in her study with reference to Ferozpur district has focussed the nature of development through integrated rural development programme in Punjab. Subsequently, she has realised the need for integrating all the programmes, for total development of the area i.e., agriculture, education has led a concept of integrated rural development. A number of programmes have been planned with a view to develop the rural areas. Under this scheme she selected a cluster of five contiguous villages representing each block of the district. She has also attempted to measure the achievements of different departments engaged in rural development work. Finally, it has been stated that

people's participation in integrated rural development programme and knowledge of villagers as regard the integrated rural development programmes are essential to implement the programme in a successful manner.

Sinha (1979) made his study on the foodgrain production development policies in India. In his study he has initiated his concern about the emerging food situation in the country to make proper programmes and policies to deal with that situation. The study has taken into consideration about the states efforts in providing inputs like, fertilisers, improved seeds, irrigation water, credit, power and research have rather been tardy, and adequate attention does not seem to have been paid to land reforms.

The study finally confines to the arguments that policy making is the domain of the political executive and power has been frequently exercised by the

bureaucrats\(^3\).

Gill (1980) in his study of 'Role of small Farmers Development Agency in Integrated Rural Development Programme' has taken into consideration the small farmers Development Agency as the sole largest reserve for improving the economic conditions of the rural poor. The present study examines the role of the above agency in the district of Sirmaur of Himachal Pradesh. The study shows that a vast amount of investment of the score economic resources has gone into the creation of infrastructure for agricultural development to help mainly the big farmers. Small farmers Development Agency and their similar agencies in the field of rural development are not only helpful but are considered as essential to generate rural income and to increase per capita productivity. The central and state governments have evolved various strategies to streamline each agencies\(^4\).


Basu (1981) in his study on Tribal Development Programme especially in the tribal belt of Bharmour and Pungi sub-division of Chamba District in Himachal Pradesh, has pointed out that no adequate efforts have been made to solve the basic problems of tribals like poverty, malnutrition and exploitation.

The study has further highlighted the development programmes which have failed to elicit popular support and participation of the local persons. He has argued that the approach should be to harness the minimum potentials for decentralised development of villages and small scale industries for maximising the output.

Singh (1982) in his study on 'Rural Modernisation Contradiction and Change' has advocated that it is the development factor that primarily determine the

level of modernisation of villages. The main focus of the study is on to explicate the nature and process of modernisation of individual and social structure in the rural setting. At the individual level the work tends to measure the trends of development and to find out its major resources in each sector. At societal level, it analyses the process of modernisation of different individual families, caste, relation of production and power structure but also focuses upon their inter-relations too.

Sundaram (1984) in his study on Anti-poverty Rural Development in India, has identified the incidence of rural poverty and unemployment in the countries of developing world. He has enumerated various strategies which were adopted to streamline the process of rural development in different areas of the country. under the Community Development Programme efforts were concentrated to increase the agricultural

production in selected areas. Some of the experiences gained through the approach revealed a further need to integrate the programmes for the development of weaker sections by areawise planning.

He has observed in his study, that an encouraging feature of rural development is that, the rural poor do not resist change. They desire to make the full use of the opportunities provided to them.

He has further assessed, that there is a need for strengthening the administrative machinery to help the rural poors. People's participation will lead to proper selection of assets, programme and evaluation of projects. To him the best solution for minimizing the rural unemployment and poverty lies in proper area planning. By this way the use of natural and human resources can properly be done7.

Gaur (1985) in his study adopted growth centre strategy for the integrated rural area development, a

case study of Koil Tehsil of Aligarh district. In the regional analysis, the potential of natural, human and institutional resources were not assessed adequately. Therefore, the study failed to reveal the potential fields in these sectors for the future development of the area.

Breman (1985) in his study on 'Peasant, Migrants and Paupers'. Rural Labour Calculation and capitalist production in West Asia has analysed the reduction of the poor persons below the poverty line. To him the eradication of absolute poverty seems to have been frequently accompanied by increasing relative poverty, i.e. by deterioration of the relative position of the poor.

Misra (1985) in the study of Kerakat Tehsil of Jaunpur, worked out the resources available in the area and developed a plan of functional hierarchy to make


their use. Estimation of sectoral growth and projections of population have not been adequately worked out. The study fails to resolve how the benefits of the economic and social facilities are to be disturbed among the weaker sections of the population.

Maheshwari (1985) has reviewed the major strategies and approaches for rural development launched since independence. A number of poverty alleviation programmes for rural development have more or less benefitted the farmers, those who are possessing land. He has also reviewed the performance of the Panchyati Raj Institutions, Ashok Mehta Committee's Report, Function and Personnel, Financial Resources and Institutional safeguard for the weaker sections.¹⁰

Singh (1986) in the study of Siwan district of Bihar presented a detailed account of rural life in the district. Case study of a block and a village have been made for integrated rural development. But study

has not planned for sectoral development, therefore, study fails to achieve the integration at sectoral and social levels.

Arputharaj and Rajayan (1986) in their study on 'National Rural Employment Programme in Tamil Nadu', have shown that the schemes like construction and repairs of rural roads, construction and repairs of school buildings and construction of Harijan colonies, have generated adequate employment opportunities to the workers. Further they have stressed the need of construction of roads and their proper maintenance as they link the chain of future development and create an incremental benefit to the society.

Rao (1986) while commenting on IRDP has pointed out its many weaknesses as:

(i) Allocation of outlays under IRDP were not made on an uniform basis for each block in the country.

(ii) The chain of intermediaries between the Government and beneficiaries is very long and needs to be reduced.

(iii) In the choice of Programmes and their implementation local institution have to be evolved to ensure that the activities are not of standardised nature but are meeting with the factor endowments and resource potential of the local area. Further the activities/programmes need to be so designed and promoted that a group or cooperative effort on the part of the beneficiaries gets encouraged only group effort can offer great returns through better access to and use of available resources and skills, reduction in production risk and provision of better bargaining power in the market.

He has also examined, the new approaches and methods which have been adopted in the implementation of the IRDP in the context of recent experience in some district of Andhra Pradesh. The programme needs to be
strengthened and should be linked more integrally with the local level planning to improve its effectiveness. The Project/cluster approach and a more objective identification of beneficiaries also need to be built into the system.\textsuperscript{12}

Dhanasekaran et al.\textsuperscript{1986} in their study on 'Diversification of income and Employment Through IRDP in Periyar District of Tamil Nadu, have shown the nature and extent of the variation in income before and after the introduction of IRDP. According to them, there was diversification of sources of income from crop and agricultural wages to dairying, Poultry, secondary and tertiary sector and non-agricultural wages. The diversification is comparatively higher in Kuglar village than in Ayalur. Their study has shown that there was a positive relationship between the percentage of people lifted above poverty line and diversification of sources of income and

employment\textsuperscript{13}.

Awasthi et al.\textsuperscript{(1986)} have evaluated the impact of IRDP on the economic status of rural people in Jabalpur district of Madhya Pradesh. In their study, they have been shown that small and marginal farmers accepted village level business and identified their agricultural business. Agricultural labourers are engaged in animal husbandry to earn their livelihood and rural artisans intensified their business and took up village level business. The financial assistance provided under IRDP scheme to the beneficiaries has raised their income significantly\textsuperscript{14}.

Ghadolia (1986) has based his study on the survey of 120 household comprising 'awareness', benefit and opinion about special programme like IRDP and NREP in 6 villages of three tehsils of Udaipur district of Rajasthan.

\textsuperscript{13} Dhanasekaran, et al., 'Diversification of income and Employment Through IRDP', \textit{A case study in Periyar District of Tamil Nadu}, 1986, Ibid., p.664.

His study reveals that one-fourth of the eligible household actually have derived benefits from the above programmes. The results under the programmes have proved to be beneficial but he points out that efforts should be made to create awareness among the rural masses.

Bhattacharjee and Mondal (1986) have studied the evaluation of IRDP in Sikkim and Darjeeling. They have attempted to evaluate the performance of IRDP scheme operating in Sikkim and Darjeeling. In Darjeeling, the IRD programmes are mainly confined to animal husbandry and tertiery sector but in Darjeeling the IRDP schemes under animal husbandry have failed to achieve the satisfactory results inspite of an extended access to the marketing facilities. The study reveals that very recently certain improvements are visible as regards to beneficiaries in response to more effective measures taken in Sikkim than that of its counterpart in

Darjeeling. They have argued that a successful implementation for backward regions should be favoured with special rate of subsidy, linkage of marketing. Decentralised planning authority and machinery should be provided for successful implementation of IRDP.

Guliani and Singh (1986) in their study show the pattern of loan provided under the IRDP in Hisar district of Haryana. The study reveals that under IRDP the major emphasis in terms of advancement of loans was given to the marginal farmers and agricultural labourers. As regards the purpose wise distribution of loans for the purchase of buffalo, sheeps and bullock pairs and carts by the small farmers, marginal farmers and agricultural labourers and artisans, it was found that the loans advanced for all of the above purpose were not sufficient to meet the actual requirements.


Mohsin (1986) in his study on 'IRDP: Needs for follow-up' he outlines the objectives of IRDP to raise the status of the poor and to bring them above poverty line. He is of the opinion that IRDP should be linked with other development programmes, if poverty alleviation is the main aim. He has emphasises the need of infrastructural development.\(^{18}\)

Rai and Singh (1986) have examined the impact of IRDP on agricultural development in Sultanpur and Fatehpur districts of Uttar Pradesh. According to them, the income and opportunities of employment can be enhanced in a crop enterprise and poultry farming by transferring appropriate technology and input assistance to the poor. The strategy for efficient implementation of IRDP should include an appropriate package of policy measure to assist the rural poor to improve their economic conditions.\(^{19}\)

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Jain (1986) while evaluating the Impact of IRDP on Agricultural sector of Jabalpur District in Madhya Pradesh, has shown that productivity of crops has increased due to the expansion of irrigation which led to an increase in cropping intensity.\(^{20}\)

Harway (1986) in his study 'The Next Stage in Rural Development', Direct Attack on Poverty has revealed that the growth with equity should be the major goals of planning in India. The study shows that the efforts in Indian economy are not very much successful in achieving either the goals of poverty eradication or the objective of high growth rates. The study further throws light that without reducing the number of persons below poverty line, it can be said that planning has not achieved much in eradicating the poverty of the poorest groups of the people. The first major problem in bringing down the poverty line is the non-involvement of the real

Kaur et al. (1986) in their study of Haryana find out the factors hindering the achievements of the objectives envisaged in the IRDP. According to them, the major obstacles found for the effective implication of the programmes were: the irrigational criterion adopted for the selection of beneficiaries which resulted in a large number of Pseudo-beneficiaries, lack of awareness among the rural poor responsible for their not taking advantage of the scheme; absence of any linkages to provide institutional support for the supply of raw material and marketing facilities; lack of follow-up action after the delivery of the assets; existence of credit gap between the loan disbursed and the actual cost of the asset and absence of schemes suited to different areas.


Khatkar, et al. (1986) have studied 'An Impact study of IRDP in Mahendragarh District of Haryana' with a view to examine the process of identification of beneficiaries, the economic viability of scheme, impact of IRDP assistance, proportion of beneficiaries crossing the poverty line and the strategy of uplift the remaining above the poverty line. They have reviewed a number of schemes who have assisted a large number of beneficiaries to bring them comfortably above the poverty line. Among them the minor irrigation works followed by the assistance provided for purchasing buffaloes, camels and carts to small, marginal farmers and landless labourers. They are in opinion that the desirable impact of IRDP can be realised if it is integrated not only with other poverty alleviation programmes but also with the overall development of the programmes of the area.

Misra (1986) in his study on 'Rural Development: A Challenge Before IRDP: A Fresh work, took a view that

as IRDP accounts for about 49 per cent of the total seventh plan rural development investment but it has failed to bring them above the poverty line. The IRDP is associated with many problem of identification of beneficiaries, to coverage of beneficiaries due to decentralised planning, due to linking of subsidy with loans, target oriented approach, lack of coordination between IRDP agencies and other institutions, combersome loaning procedure, and inadequate supervision mechanism24.

Satyanarayanan and Peter (1986) in their study on 'Integrated Rural Development Vis - A - Vis Agricultural Development', have shown that several agro - based schedmes have been formulated under IRDP to alleviate the economic conditions of the landless, small and marginal farmers. These schemes have not yielded impressive results and infrastructural facilities.

They have emphasised that the assistance should be carefully planned with an inbuilt follow - up

facility otherwise, the beneficiaries will be sliding back into the poverty pool. The present poverty alleviation programmes of IRDP are found less effective in bridging the gap in rural development and, on the other hand, proved to be an economic burden to the banking industry.

For better performance of IRDP schemes, it is suggested to have a single window multipurpose approach through well equipped autonomous Rural Development Institutes, established in each development blocks.\textsuperscript{25}

Sexena (1986) in his study on 'Credit Finance for IRDP in Ballia District of East Uttar Pradesh', has shown that the impact of financial assistance on agricultural development. The study aims to evaluate the benefits of bank finance disbursed to rural inhabitants under IRDP in Ballia district. The study reveals, that the IRDP have benefited the small and marginal farmers by enhancing their income by pursuing some gainful

employment. However, the procedure for the sanctioning of loans and identification of households needs to be changed so as to minimise the time taken in the sanction of loans and to reduce the cost of loaning. The result of their study confirms that form and non-form enterprises should be diversified through effective implementation of IRDP\textsuperscript{26}.

Singh (1986) has made an attempt to analyse and evaluate the planning and implementation process of IRDP in two blocks, namely Chitrakut and Barokhar Khurd of Banda district of Uttar Pradesh. While commenting on the programme, he has pointed out that the selection of the beneficiary households was improper, no significant impact of IRDP is seen on the income of the beneficiaries. He has further pointed out, that the schemes financed under the IRDP had no link with the local resources potential and the requirements of the beneficiaries. The amount of loan granted to the

beneficiaries was insufficient to create new assets. The beneficiaries did not get any support from the institution for the purchase of raw materials. The provision for marketing and availability of inputs were not adequate in this district. In the implementation of IRDP schemes, the local people should be involved actively.

Singh (1986) in his study on 'Strategies For Growth With Equity: Lesson of IRDP Experience', has shown that the strategy of IRDP can meet both the goals of growth and equity simultaneously. He has also shown that although the performance of IRDP has varied widely and there have been many short-comings in its implementation, in a balance manner, for a successful promotion of growth and equity simultaneously.

Sinha, A.K. et al. (1986) have studied the people's involvement in IRDP in the eastern Uttar

Pradesh forming a part of Indo-Gangetic plain. They have emphasised that a Gaon-Sabha Level IRDP Committee consisting of Gram Pradhan, special interest like small farmers, marginal farmers, landless labourers, artisans and scheduled caste, VDO and Lekhpal should be entrusted with the responsibility of beneficiary identification and asset supervision and should be involved in the process of project identification to check over saturation and multiplicity of similar projects 29.

Chapter V
Research Methodology
CHAPTER V

5.1 Problems of the Research and Methodology

An attempt has been made in this study to prepare a comprehensive development plan for the block by integrating all the settlements, sectors of economy and sections of rural society into a 5 year perspective plan (i.e. for the period between 1996 and 2001) of resource use and total area development. The detailed methodology adopted for the purpose of formulating the present plan is indicated below:

1. Identification of basic planning units:

To satisfy the criteria of equity and efficiency in the distribution and utilization of various facilities, central places along with their dependent villages forming the 10 first level service area or the basic planning units are to be identified on the basis of centrality scores and functional dependency of settlements. In order to derive the centrality of the settlements, the number of units of each central
function in a settlement are multiplied by their respective location coefficient values. The formula to be used for calculation of location coefficient of a unit of function is given below:

\[ C = \frac{t}{T} \times 100 \]

'C' is the location coefficient of a function, 't' is the one unit of the function and 'T' is the total number of units of that function in the area.

2. Determination of agricultural Productivity

Productivity of 20 sample orchards is to be tested with five independent variables, correlation matrix and regression coefficients of these five variables have been worked out. Over all agricultural productivity of the 10 service areas are determined in terms of (i) value of agricultural produce per hectare of net area sown, (ii) Per hectare of cropped area, (iii) Per agricultural worker, and (iv) Per cultivator. Value of total agriculture produce in money terms is worked out on the basis of service areawise estimated
production of fodders, cereals, sugarcane, vegetables, fruits, oilseeds and pulses in tonnes multiplied by their respective price rates in the concerning year.

3. Determination of levels of agricultural Development

The index of agricultural development in each service area is measured by summation of its ranks in respect of 15 indicators of agricultural development such as intensity of cropping, agricultural land available per cultivator, intensity of irrigation, level of farm mechanisation use of fertilizers and HYV seeds, levels of agricultural productivity etc.

4. Proposals for additional locations of Social Facilities

For proposing additional facilities in education, health, transport etc. in the area by 2001 latest guidelines for these social facilities under Revised. Minimum Needs programme are taken into consideration. Locational gaps have been identified on the basis of population threshold and range of a function.
5. Identification of poor families

The following formula is applied to identify the families below poverty line:

Family below poverty line = \( \frac{\text{TI}}{\text{N}} \) = Rs. less than 1100 'TI' is the total income of a family from all sources, and 'N' is the number of the family. If the value of TI/N has been found less than Rs.1100, the family is recorded below the poverty line.

6. Assessment of Income from different sources

To form norms and guidelines to arrive at a net average annual income from each source the following formula is used.

(a) Net income of an agriculturist per hectare/annum -

\[ \text{NI} = \text{GI} - \text{CP} \]

'NI' is the net income per hectare per annum, 'GI' is Gross income per hectare. On the basis of market price of the total produce during the agricultural year and 'CP' is the cost of production of the total produce per hectare including variable cost, overhead cost, risk
cost and normal profit (Dhondyal 1981).

(b) Net income of hired out farm machinery, freight buffalo carts, shops etc.

$$NI = A \times R - OC$$

'A' is the average number of days worked during the year, 'R' is money receipts per day and 'OC' is the operating charges and overhead cost.

(c) Income of Wage earners

$$I = A \times W$$

'A' is income, 'A' is average number of days worked during the year and 'W' is wage per day money terms.

7. Assessment of Assets owned

Assets like farm machinery, implements, buffalo carts, tools and equipments, livestock etc. are assessed in money terms which are to be mentioned elsewhere.

DATA COLLECTION

Methodology for block level planning necessitates data collection from the secondary sources as well as the primary sources. For meaningful and scientific study on block level planning in geography, data in published form are adequately available. As a consequence the researcher is bound to use the primary as well as secondary data. Primary data will be collected according to the purpose and needs of the study. They provide first hand information based on personal investigation in the field. The secondary data can also be obtained from different sources like census, statistical tables, bulletin etc. with no alternative, researcher has to be dependent on both types of data for his purpose.

Data collected from the secondary sources are often considered inadequate having not covered necessary details. Moreover micro-level planner needs a lot of information covering various facets of village life, which can be gathered only though field surveys
conducted in several rounds with the help of purposive schedules. Thus primary data are collected through personal enquiry based on structured schedules.

STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

All the functions, considered for the study, are not independent of each other. This requires careful formulation of hypothesis regarding the relationship between the dependent variable and the explanatory variables on the basis of logical and empirical evidence. In terms of statistical analysis it is essentially a problem of multivariate technique. It will therefore, be rational to employ such statistical techniques which could deal with multivariable data. Different types of techniques such as multiple regression, correlation analysis and factor analysis may be applied. Factor analysis is by far the widely used multivariable technique of research studies, especially pertaining to social and behavioural sciences.
CARTOGRAPHIC TECHNIQUES

Cartographic technique is the principle component in studying the geographical problems more especially. According to Hart, maps are essential tools and the hallmarks of geography\(^2\). In terms of scientific techniques, geography is represented in the world of knowledge primarily by its techniques of map use. Further more, geographers can claim cartographic analysis as a technique that is distinctively our own, unlike many of the techniques that have been introduced into geography from other disciplines in recent years and one can use it to gain in sights that might not be gained by using other techniques. However, cartographic method adopted in a particular study out to be capable of representing the relevant data quantitatively, for it is retrograde to map statistical data which are already in numerical form, by purely quantitative method. Keeping this in view, the author

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intends to use suitable cartographic techniques in the present work.

5.2 Tools And Techniques For IRDP

There has been a marked increase in interest in tools and techniques of planning for the Integrated Rural Development in our country during the last few years. One remarkable feature has been wide variety of studies produced in this field. Therefore, it becomes essential to throw light on them.

(1) What factors make the Integrated Rural Development Planning necessary?

(2) What are the approaches intended to achieve and what are the pitfalls which these approaches may have?

(3) Which aspect have been neglected in the planning and where do critical weakness exist?

(5) What will be the desired approach to the Integrated Rural Development planning and in what manner it should be implemented?

Experience indicates that a strong commitment to rural development at the national level is necessary if the impact is to be effective and broad based. Tech-
niques aimed to ensuring a flow of new, field tested technological knowledge are essential for the success of Integrated Rural Development Planning. Research and demonstration facilitate the implementation of development techniques in all rural areas.

Fundamentally, the Integrated Rural Development is focussed on the physical and human resources of rural areas. To harness together all the possibilities of the natural and human resources in the rural areas is the crux of development. The outlook, attitudes and skills of the rural people and their capacity to use the natural and economic potentials lying within their grasp are the single most factor for the Integrated Rural Development.

All the different components of Integrated Rural Development are closely inter-related and must be built up together to the greater extent possible. The components and phasing must be formulated both to remove constraints and to support those forces prevailing in rural areas which are favourable to Rural Development. The following components make the Rural Development Planning essential:


(a) Strengthening the physical base;
(b) Strengthening the economic infrastructure;
(c) Accellerating the technological development;
(d) Strengthening the social base; and
(e) Community effort and utilization of man power.

Planning for the Integrated Rural Development has political importance because it reflect on the success or failure of Government in the country. Hence Government plays large roles in planning for the rural development. In this effort, the role of different popular institutions and administrative agencies functioning at the village level is seen as being one of the responsible partnerships.

Strong co-ordination at the centre is increas­ingly regarded as essential to the successful implementa­tion of the Integrated Rural Development Programme while co-ordination at the local level is emphasized because local control provides the flexibility needed for the proper integration and timing of activities, and for modification of programmes in response to changing conditions.

Like any other branch of science and technology, the principles and practices in rural planning are based on broadly accepted concepts, theories and
experiments. Various approaches to rural development have been formulated which differ considerably. One of them is Growth Centre Approach. It refers to appropriate location of social and economic activities over the physical space. It is contented that a framework for decentralising economic and social activities can be provided by locating specific functions at appropriate places; such a net work of Growth Centre can provide a meaningful infrastructure which can attract and sustain diversified growing economic activity. The identification of the Growth Centres and the provision of requisite socio-economic infrastructure is considered to be the crucial variable in Rural Area Development. However, there are certain critical points in this approach which are as follows:

1. There has not been proper relation of Centres; they have failed to stimulate growth in rural areas.

2. The approach does not elaborate the mechanism through which the growth centres would continue to grow, attracting new industries and other non-Agricultural activities to the backward rural areas when side by side the presently

developed centres are competing.

(3) And even if the centres develop, the process through which such implanted centres will transmit economic growth to the hinterland is not spelled out. Infact if the complementarities between the centres and the hinterland are weak, there will not be any spread effect but instead an unfavourable polarization effect will be manifest.

A more comprehensive approach to Integrated Rural Development has been propounded where in the basic variables, viz. factors of production and their interactions, have been considered. The areal unit accepted varies from a single village, a group of villages, say, around a 'mandi' centre to an entire district. Where a village is accepted as a unit, inventory of resources is made, development potential assessed, employment needs measured and on the basis of the existing situation, development schemes are suggested so as to increase the productive activity and to enlarge the employment base. Such schemes rooted in local problems can help in improvement of the local situation. However, they have certain limitations as pointed out below.
(1) Such schemes have a limited general applicability and the implications of such schemes applied on wide scale may be quite different from those when they are applied in a few isolated places.

(2) Although villages can be appropriate unit for detailed physical land use planning. Yet for drawing the total development framework in which transport and communication system, industrial locations, agricultural specialization etc. form an integral part, a wider canvas is necessary.

In district development planning, the district is considered as the basic unit of planning. Within the given socio-economic set up the production plans are to be worked out to ensure that the interests of various classes are harmoniously integrated in the plan. But this approach has several shortcomings.

(a) The experience so far reveals that so long as there are basic contradictions in the interests of the different classes, the production plan worked out by the planning agency cannot serve in interests of all classes and is more likely to safeguard the interests of the group who formulate the plan, neglecting the backward and oppressed classes of the society.
(b) The interest of the weaker sections do not figure as an integral part of the development planning but come only in the form of adhoc schemes as appendages with little chance of success since the basic socio-economic power structure remain undisturbed.

(c) The district planning though comprehensive and integrated in approach, remains partial in the sense that it can reach limited sections of society and cannot be an effective instrument for the transportation of rural society that alone can put the rural areas on the path of continuous development.

Another approach to rural development is the Minimum Package Approach. This aims to provide generally modest but broad based improvements in the levels of living through increased agricultural output. However, under some critical conditions, provision of Minimum Package facilities tends to result in relatively new direct beneficiaries among the rural poor.

A more comprehensive approach to rural development consists of Area Development schemes. Under these schemes, an emphasis on area development is common for agriculture as well as for Rural Development
projects. Area Development Projects on the needs of the rural poor through diversified crops and integrated farming systems. But there are perhaps two major dangers in such schemes given below.

(1) The scheme may concentrate a disproportionate share of resources on providing benefits to a group that are relatively small in relation to the overall size of rural target group.

(2) The schemes tend to suffer from a programme designed that is too ambitious and complex, calling for exceptional leadership that cannot always be made available on a sustained basis.

Sector and special programmes are unusually organized on a nation wide basis. They meet the specific needs of the rural poor. These programmes are Rural Public Works, Education and Training Programmes, and credit schemes. However, such programmes can rarely develop their full potential because their designs and implementation has certain limitations

(a) Projects may be poorly selected and designed, resulting in high cost investment and low efficiency in terms of income supplements to the needy.
(b) Influential groups may alter programmes so as to increase their own benefits at the cost of the poor.

(c) The appropriate blend of local initiative and decision making with central control is difficult to achieve.

The above mentioned approaches to rural development planning, though appropriate in some manner, have some limitations because no approach takes into consideration all aspects of rural development. Hence there are certain difficulties which arise in planning for rural development such as:

(1) The planners do not have a thorough knowledge of the characteristics and proper background of planning situation while it is very necessary for the successful handling of the concept. Is it any wonder that Dame Barbara Ward groaned, "what irritates me about the situation in India is the so called experts who do not know the nation's priorities."

(2) In many cases some aspects or the others of different concepts are consciously and subconsciously incorporated in one solution without visualising the implications of such an
Such failures can be attributed to the lack of basic for identifying the significant characteristic of different planning situations and deep analyses of each concept.

(3) Huge amounts are being spent on the organisation of planning activities and constructional projects but hardly any planned researches are initiated to provide pertinent and essential date.

(4) Although different planning authorities have been conducting many adhoc surveys and studies, yet due to the lack of coherence in these investigations very little of the enormous data available could be readily used and converted into useful comulative knowledge for the growth of planning sciences.

(5) In the apparent attempt to gain quick results, often insufficient attention is given to measure to strengthen the resources base in rural areas, first, by making more efficient use of existing assets and subsequently by creating new physical assets.

(6) Village studies, representing micro-approach, have, by and large gone into a static routine and have become, in many cases, a mere mapping exercises.

(7) Some planners directly import and implement many of the growth inducing innovations experienced by the contemporary developed countries, which cannot be desirable, and also not feasible in Indian conditions because of different socio-economic and cultural setting.

(8) Rural planning is like bridge-building, so long as it remains a theory it does not get us anywhere so long as it is only partially completed it does not get us anywhere. It has to be comprehensive and implemented. But in the country a number of plans and schemes are thought out but few are implemented with all care and effort.

(9) Planning for rural development also fails if the wishes of rural people are not taken into account. Less obviously, perhaps, but with equal certainty, it fails unless the planners make positive arrangements to take those wishes

fully into their calculations and to see that the resulting plans reflect them.

(10) Past experience about academic research regarding plan formulation indicates how specifically the non-recognition of the value orientation of the innovators has failed to achieve the required hegemony of the planners in their task of inducing social change. The whole process of development of Indian economy is arrested because of the domination and monopoly of foreign interests in industry and semi-feudal economic relations in agriculture. In the absence of radical change in the policy and technique orientation at the national level, all the districts or other rural area development schemes, nearly worked out, can achieve very little to help placing the rural economy on the path of self-sustained growth.

(11) The paucity of initial means or of education in case of rural people and the various institutional and administrative hurdles are apt to leave a "gulf between acceptance (Of Planning) which is easy and adoption which is difficult".


(12) There is also the lack of adequate knowledge about production potentialities and capability of different states to implement which could also depend upon the varying level of development mindedness of farmers affecting the adoption of programme.

(13) It is always dubious to make broad generalisations about economic and social change on the basis of a few selected district studies. It is all the more risky with respect to India, where conditions differ not only from the district to district but also from block to block and even from village to village.

Effective rural planning calls for enormous efforts. It should be based on well established standard and standards can be reliably fixed only after extensive research in this regard. Research studies should be undertaken to evolve simple techniques for conducting such surveys and presenting their observations. Analyses of survey data also calls for specialised background and it would be of considerable value of properly co-ordinated programmes of planning surveys can be initiated and their analysis could be centrally organised.

Conclusion
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Integrated Rural Development Programme is more relevant to the present day problems and perhaps the best suited for the country as 80 per cent of her teeming and overflowing population live in the thousands and lakhs of villages. The implementation of the plan for Integrated Rural Development is necessary and desirable for minimizing poverty and mounting unemployment in the study area.

Rural Development is never ending process, the success of a set of programmes takes rural society upwards. India started community Development Programme in 1952, and latter having implemented with varying measures of success, the Intensive Agricultural Area Programme, the Intensive Agricultural District Programme, the small and Marginal Farmers Agency Programme have been engaged in the implementation of the Integrated Rural Development Programme since 1980. The contents of rural development have been changing from time to time in the perception of the local rural society as well as the impulses and forces released by the success of earlier rural development in the study area, however, did not have a good impact on the eradication of poverty.
An attempt has been made in the present study because of the past experiences of the development programmes wherein poor people and areas lacking resources are left untouched and intra-regional disparities in income are created. To ensure a balanced growth of all sections of the society in the area is urgently needed.

The present approach of the IRDP envisages self employment which is basically dependent upon a number of factors such as entire preneurial skill of the individual beneficiaries, requisite potential of the area concerned, forward and backward linkages, no effort seems to have been made on the part of the government to promote wage employment. The very foundation of the IRDP is the notion that every beneficiary possesses the entire preneurial skill and just by extending finance he will be able to plan, manage, organise, coordinate, control and maintained the so called "income generating asset" for his benefit.

In majority of cases the amount of subsidy was not adequate to meet the cost of investment. About 80 per cent of the total beneficiaries reported inadequacy of financial assistance. As a result, the programme could not cover the people belonging to the
categories of destitute and very-very poor' who are unable to contribute anything on their own in terms of money.

It has been also observed that there was weakness in the identification of beneficiaries because of the lack of systematic household surveys, non covering of Gram Sabha for ascertaining the economic position of the would be beneficiaries and political interferences by the local leaders to a great extent, all attribute to such wrongful identification of beneficiaries.

In the majority of cases the beneficiaries were dependent on casual labour for earning their livelihood as the activity financed contributed on an average between 25 to 50 per cent to the family income pool. Thus IRDP could not make a concredent on the economic life of the poor.

Majority of the beneficiaries select the activity on the basis of the experience of their neighbour and friends. It shows that there was a lack of initiative enterprise and innovative thinking on the part of the beneficiaries and also the bankers and the govt. officials regarding New ideas/schemes.

There should be a 'nursing approach' on the part of implementing authorities which implies regular
monitoring and follow-up of the beneficiaries by the staff on the implementing agencies. It should also include the provision for guidance to the beneficiaries as also periodic verification of the assets, their maintenance, gradual economic improvement of the beneficiaries, status and the like.

Like democracy IRDP also believes in quantity rather than quality. Small amount of loans diffused in a very large area covering a very large number of beneficiaries make the monitoring and follow-up not only diffused but also excessively expensive. Therefore, substantial financing to a small number of beneficiaries rather than a meagre amount to a large number of beneficiaries should be the approach of the financing agencies while extending credit to the beneficiaries.

Integrated rural development does not simply mean economic development but total development of economic, social, educational, political and psychological aspects of living in rural areas. For instance, more economic development of an individual will have no meaning if he or she does not develop a sense of health, nutrition, sanitation and hygiene.

Indian villages have a predominantly agrarian economy not with standing that, in some region majority
of the inhabitants in composed of cowherds, shepherds or even hunters in some tribal villages. Our villagers are marked with their unsophisticated simplicity combined with an astuteness of observation of strangers.

Undoubtedly IRDP did help certain beneficiaries to cross the poverty line but its role, taking into consideration the totality of the problem, has been insignificant, because of a number of factors such as selection of beneficiaries not strictly on the basis of social inequalities and political considerations, the quantum of help rendered, faulty occupational distribution, high cost of borrowing, delay in sanction and ineffective management of the business assets. Thus the conclusion is that any micro-level development can be sustained only by micro-level development of resources on the basis of the economy of permanance.
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