CHAPTER – II
HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA

I – Introduction:

The village in India holds a unique place, both in the social and economic spheres. There were 212.6 million people living in rural areas in 1901, in 2001 rural population has increased to 721.1 million naturally the density of population has increased, land under agriculture has diminished, affected the forests and exodus to urban areas accelerated agricultural labor continued to be exploited. The phenomenon of Rural Development is becoming more and more complex despite technological advancement and availability of resources as well as continued efforts from the pre independence period. Rural Development has a long history in India. There are various approaches, strategies, philosophies, policies, programmes, enactments, efforts, experiments, methodologies, which needs to be studied and analyzed to understand the Rural Development. Present chapter is an attempt to discuss historical analysis of Rural Development programmes right from pre-independence period to present period until 2009 – 10. Starting with the conceptual clarity from national and international perspectives this chapter gives the historical background of Rural Development from the pre independence period. It describes the review of various experiments in the pre and post independence period. It gives brief detail of Gandhian ideas and contribution in the area of rural development. There is analytical description of five year plans, major schemes and performances of Rural Development. The chapter includes major issues of Rural Development.
II – Emergence of Rural Development in International Setting:

Emergence of the Idea of Rural Development in the World and in India:

In India as well as other developing countries the economic development strategies failed which turn our attention to ‘Rural Development’ as the main objective of development. The lessons of the development experiences were as follows:

1. The practice of identifying development with growth in terms of aggregate figures was not correct;
2. Economic growth had only selective impact which benefited the relatively developed areas and the relatively better off people;
3. The percolation theory of growth had failed;
4. If development is not viewed only as growth, then the creation of employment opportunities and deliberate distributive measures were required to achieve the objective of developing the ‘forgotten majority’ of rural poor in developing countries,
5. Development should cover larger dimensions of the ‘quality of life’ of the vast majority of the people; and
6. The realization that the traditional method of agriculture in the developing countries could be transformed through modern technology and modern farming practices were other aspects of the rethinking on development.

A major consequence of all these ‘new truths’ of the development experience is current concern of ‘Rural Development’. It occupied the central place in the development dialogue of the World Bank, which became the champion of the cause.¹

III – Rural Development in pre independence period

Rural Development has never been a new concept for India it is rather interwoven in the heritage of Indian culture, mention of it has been made along with the history of mankind. Even in the famous epics and dramas like Ramayana and Mahabharata the instances of rural governance in terms of welfare of the people, justice to the people has been made. The philosophy of governance in such literature gives hints of Rural Development.

Rural Development traces back its history to the Seventeenth Century when voluntary efforts to serve the mankind were initiated. A religious society of people known as ‘Friends’ or ‘Quakers’ had emerged as a movement in this direction for the first time in England and then in the other parts of the world in rapid strides. It aimed at providing services to mankind transcending bonds of religion, territory and culture. The Quaker was a kind of rebel. In the mid of the seventeenth century, the main plank of the Quaker movement was that every human being has infinite dignity, that he is worthy of reverence simply because he is a human being and therefore, a temple of God.\(^2\) The main spirit behind this movement has been one of the selfless service and sacrifice and it runs like a wire, as it were exponents of the Quaker faith. The Quaker service to India was brought by Rachel Metcalfe. She left England in the year 1866 and came to India with meager resources and with no previous arrangements for launching a project of social reconstruction. In the quarter of the nineteenth Century, a few more Quakers arrived in India to actively participate in reconstruction of the society. But the unfortunate part was that the famines of 1895-96 and 1899-1900 converted these Quakers into simple relief workers.\(^3\) Thus the Quakers can be


\(^3\) Tewari, R.T. and Sinha R.C., Rural Development in India, Ashish Publishing House, New Delhi, 1988, p.1-2
considered as one of the major milestones in the pre Independence history of Rural Development.

British rule in India began under a trading company, namely the East India Company which under compulsions and temptations acquired functions of governance also. The basic British policy in India, reflective of the governing political philosophy in Great Briton, was to restrict itself to the task of governance and not to interest itself in social and economic matters relating to the people. Even otherwise, eschewing such larger societal concerns was one of the lessons which was learnt from the upspring of 1857. Yet the British Government could not adhere to such a policy for long, and the logic of the colonial economy, reinforced by the local situational pressures, compelled a broadening of governmental responsibilities, in general and governmental entry in the field of rural development, in particular.

The rural development functions in India were assumed by the government in the context of recurrent famines, but in the beginning, they did not have any legal sanctions behind them. In the first few decades after 1858, some district officers seized (in the midst of famine) the food grain stocks and controlled the market to ensure their distribution among the needy. All this was done without any apparent legal sanction, motivated, as the action purely was, by determination to control profiteering and alleviate rural suffering.4

**The nationalist movement and Rural Development:**

With the entry of Mahatma Gandhi in to Indian Public life Rural Development received mass popular support. The Rural Development was perceived with the concept of Gram Swaraj, Swa Desi, Khadi, Safai, Shram Dan etc. The Non-Cooperation movement, started by Mahatma Gandhi in 1920, was the first

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political attempt in India to mobilize the villagers. The Non-Cooperation Resolution, moved by Mahatma Gandhi and passed by the Indian National Congress in its Calcutta session of September 1920, articulated the approach to rural development by recommending ‘hand-spinning in every house and hand-weaving on the part of millions of weaver who have abandoned their ancient and honorable calling for want of encouragement.’ Khadi became the dress of Indian Freedom Fighters, and its adoption by the Congress was the first genuine organized concern for the rural poor. The spinning-wheel economy, adopted by Gandhiji, was the first voluntary exercise in rural development in India.

Mahatma Gandhi also designed a comprehensive programme of rural development which included khadi, promotion of village industries, eradication of untouchability, provision of basic and adult education, prohibition, women’s upliftment, and propagation of the national language. Gandhiji was translating these ideas into action at Warda in Sevagram. Along with the freedom movement the volunteers were engaged in rural reconstruction programmes all over the country.

Rabindranath Tagore set up Srinikiten Institute of Rural Reconstruction in 1921 with the aim of making the rural population self-reliant and self-respectful. This initiative is popularly known as Sriniketan Rural Reconstruction Programme. Tagore’s experiment in small area of a few villages aimed at both economic as well as social development of the rural community. Attempt were made to develop village crafts, schools for boys and girls with boarding and lodging facility, training for boys and girls in kitchen garden, poultry, dairy, carpentry and other crafts. Rabindranath Tagore desired that the local government should take up the responsibility of rural development programmes. This idea in those days appeared to be strange and was not well received by the Government. Tagore wanted increase of material wealth through cooperative effort and increase of

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cultural wealth through music, drama and dance at Sriniketan. Thus Tagore’s contribution to all round improvement of the villages covered by his experiment is commendable.6

Martandam experiment was started in Madras under the leadership of Yang Men’s Christian Association ‘to bring about a complete upward development towards a more abundant life for rural people, spiritually, mentally, physically, socially and economically. The Martandam rural reconstruction programme was based on certain principles known as “pillars of policy.” The important principles were:

1. The programe of rural reconstruction must be people’s own and the personnel associated with the programmes were only there to guide the people to help themselves with emphasis on “self-help.”
2. People of all communities must be included in the developmental programmes and focus of help must be on the poorest of the poor
3. It must be comprehensive programme covering development of cottage industries like mats and basket making, palmyra sugar, hand-woven cloth, poultry keeping, bee-keeping, etc.
4. Spirituality should be the basis of every programme
5. Simplicity at all levels should be the keynote so as to achieve the results with less cost, benefiting the rural poor.
6. Honorary extension services must be tapped whenever possible. In this programme, demonstration centers were established at selected places to convince the people to take bee-keeping, poultry-keeping, basket-weaving, etc.

The initiative taken during the year 1921 still proves to be most relevant even in today’s context.

The Gurgaon Experiment: F.L. Brayne, the then district collector of Gurgaon who started in 1927 a programme of rural reconstruction based on ancient virtues of hard work, thrift, self respect, self control, self-help, mutual help and mutual respect. Mr. Byren experienced uncertainty of rainfall, abject poverty, filthy dwellings, ill-health, ignorance, illiteracy of the rural people, with a view to improve the living conditions of the rural people living in Gurgoan district. “Gurgaon Scheme” is the practice application of the principle that central figures, viz., the villager himself must be made to take greater interest in himself and in his village before any results can be achieved; and the government agencies should so more to combine and co-ordinate their activities in order to assist, help and guide him. The Gurgaon scheme claimed to deal with the whole life and the activity of the peasant and his family and to present a complete remedy from the terrible conditions in which he lived. The approach of Gurgaon project was to jerk the villager out of his old groove, convince him that improvement is possible, and skill his fatalism by demonstrating that climate, disease and pests can be successfully fought. The development work was taken place concerning all the spheres of rural development; a) Institutional work Comprised in the setting up of School of Rural Economy to train guides for rural uplift, development of co-operation, public health work (preparing people for vaccination visit), digging of manure pits, Domestic school of economics to uplift village women, Health association to improve public health. Women’s Institute to manage ladies gain. b) Rural Sanitation with a view to improve the living conditions in the villages by using manure pits as latrines, to fight epidemics like small-pox, plague and cholera. C) Agricultural development to exhort farmers to set up model farms, improve seeds, adopting improved equipments. Consolidation of fragmented landholdings. D) School teacher was made center of all development in the village.

In 1932 the princely state of Baroda launched a broad-based programme of rural amelioration to promote the will to live better and a capacity for self-help

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7 F.L. Brayne: Better Villages, Bombay: Oxford University Press, 1946, p.268
and self-reliance. State initiated rural reconstruction programme was commenced in Baroda province around 1890 by Maharaja Sayaji rao. First, the programme was confined to a group of villages. The programme took interest in the establishment of village panchayats, taluk and district boards. Focus was laid on making education compulsory to all children in the age group of 6 to 11 years. Village libraries were set up and people were encouraged to make use of the library. This initial step paved the way for comprehensive programme of rural reconstruction spread to other parts of Baroda State also. Before the commencement of the rural reconstruction programme, a survey was made to identify the minimum needs of the village. Local works such as construction of feeder roads, connecting villages with the nearest railway station, digging of village wells, formation of grazing fields, etc., were taken up with 50 per cent contribution by the villagers in the form of money and/or labor except in the most backward areas. The Debt Regulation Act of 1935 and the Debt Conciliation Act of 1938 were some of the important steps taken for the welfare of rural poor.

An intensive scheme for rural reconstruction was launched by the then Bombay government with a view to carry on the Mahatma Gandhiji’s programme of Sarvodaya. This was the first rural reconstruction scheme sponsored by the government in the pre-independence era for the development of backward rural economy. The main thrust was to include among the villagers the spirit of self-help and mutual co-operation. The sanchalak was responsible for organizing reconstruction.

Mention must be made of the Government of India Act, 1935, which conferred autonomy on the provinces in a sphere of activities which included, among others, all the ingredients of rural development. A new department of development was constituted in most provinces and rural development received a further push. The congress party fought the election under this Act of 1935, promising wide range of agrarian reforms; substantial reduction in revenue and
relief from the burden of rural debt. Its broad based concern for rural development has been mentioned in its election manifesto of 1945.

One more important step can be considered is Kishan Sabha under the leadership of the Communist party worker Mrs. Godavri Parulekar in 1945. Adivasis fought for their rights against landlords, moneylenders and contractors. As a result, the Minimum Wages Act was brought under enforcement in Forties to safeguard the interests of Adivasis working for forest contractors and plantation owners.

While summing up it is found that whatever approaches, methodologies, priorities, strategies which are being adopted today for rural development are not new but are refined forms of inheritance of rural development practices of pasts. Wage employment, self employment, entrepreneurship, self-help, community mobilization, reconstruction, credit, voluntary effort, legal provisions, social actions, everything that we find today as part of rural development were there in past also.

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9 The Congress manifesto is reproduced in Pattabhi Sitaramayya, ibid., Appendix I.
IV – Mahatma Gandhi and Rural Development

“I know that the work [of making an ideal village] is as difficult as to make of India an ideal country. But, while it is possible for one man to fulfill his ambition with respect to a single village some day, one man's lifetime is too short to overtake the whole of India. But if one man can produce one ideal village, he will have provided a pattern not only for the whole country, but perhaps for the whole world. More than this a seeker may not aspire after”. ¹¹

Gandhiji was one of the biggest actors who has contributed towards the field of rural, his experiments as well as inspiring thoughts have always been the source of inspiration, for the actors involved in rural development be it volunteer, policy maker, researcher or anybody.

With Gandhi’s advent on the Indian scene in 1915, things began to change all round. Gandhi looked at Rural Development in his own unique way. Gandhi never equated happiness with economic prosperity and physical pleasure alone. His concept of the Rural Development was totally opposed to the utilitarian concept of development. It is Gandhi's deep-rooted conviction that individual happiness lies in the happiness of society and vice-versa; and this is constantly seen in almost all his pronouncements regarding rural development. He considered man superior to the system he propounded, and so he was against the system which brought about moral degradation of Indian society. Gandhi never drew a sharp distinction between economics and ethics. For him, economic policies which were harmful to the moral well-being of an individual, community, society, country or a nation were immoral and therefore, sinful. For him happiness meant the happiness of the society as a whole and was indicated

¹¹ Harijan, 4-8-1940
primarily, by its moral standard and secondarily, by its physical and economic well-being.

Let us examine several thoughts, ideas, initiatives, experiments, vision and principles of Mahatma Gandhi that carries eternal value in terms of source of replication, motivation, inspiration in the area of policy formulation, implementation, management, evaluation, monitoring, research etc. in the area of Rural Development.

1) Sarvodaya:

One of the ideal concepts of Mahatma Gandhi is ‘Sarvodaya’ the greatest good of all through truth and non-violence became the ultimate goal of Gandhi in social welfare. His methods of working towards this goal were different from those of many other leaders and social reformers. He took an integrated view of life and disapproved of dividing an individual's life into different compartments. Also the individual was looked upon by him not as a separate entity but as a constituent unit of society. When he returned from South Africa he extensively travelled over India and felt that political freedom was the foremost requirement of the country but along with it equally important is to get freedom from grinding poverty.

To him, the individual was as important, if not more, than the society, as he firmly believed that the happiness of the individual formed the constituent part of the happiness of the society. So, for him, social welfare meant the conscious submission of the individual and a voluntary contribution of one's possession to the society, which consisted of all, not a majority and, in return, the social system, built upon the principles of non-violence and democracy, was to give a complete guarantee for the maximum development of the individual's personality.
2) Village Development:

He did not want India be industrialized in the modern sense of the term. According to him the people are rooted to the soil and the vast majority is living a hand to mouth life. Whatever may be said to the contrary, having traveled throughout the length and breadth of the land with the eyes open and having mixed with millions are living in enforced idleness for the last four month in a year. He did not want Agriculture to change revolutionary but he advocated for the supplementary industry. The most natural was the introduction of the spinning wheel but not the handloom because according to him it used to be so even a century ago. It was driven out not by economic pressure but by force deliberately used as can be proved from authentic records. He believed that the spinning wheel solves the economic problem of India at a stroke.

His idea of village development is that it is a complete republic, independent of its neighbors for its own basic needs and yet interdependent for many others in which dependence is necessary. Thus, every village's first concern will be to grow its own food crops, and cotton for its cloth. It should have a reserve for its cattle, recreation and playground for adults and children. Then, if there is more land available, it will grow useful money crops, thus excluding GANJA, tobacco, opium and the like. The village will maintain a village theatre, school and public hall. It will have its own waterworks ensuring clean water supply. This can be done through controlled wells or tanks. Education will be compulsory up to the final basic course. As far as possible, every activity will be conducted on the co-operative basis. There will be no castes with graded untouchability. Non-violence with its technique of Satyagraha and non-co-operation will be the sanction of the village community. There will be a compulsory service of village guards who will be selected by rotation from the register maintained by the village.
3) All-Round Village Service:

Gandhiji believed that THE REAL India lies in the 7,00,000 villages. If Indian civilization is to make its full contribution to the building up of a stable world order, it is this vast mass of humanity that has to be made to live again.

He was concerned about triple malady which holds our villages fast in its grip: (I) want of corporate sanitation; (ii) deficient diet; (iii) inertia . . . They [villagers] are not interested in their own welfare. He was worried that villagers don't appreciate modern sanitary methods. They don't want to exert themselves beyond scratching their farms or doing such labour as they are used to. But despite these challenges he had unquenchable faith in his mission. He urged his coworkers that they have to deal with a chronic disease. Patience and perseverance, if they have them, overcome mountains of difficulties. According to him the people involved in the act of rural development are like nurses who may not leave their patients because they are reported to have an incurable disease.

Villages have suffered long from neglect by those who have had the benefit of education. They have chosen the city life. The village movement is an attempt to establish healthy contact with the villages by inducing those who are fired with the spirit of service to settle in them and find self-expression in the service of villagers....Those who have settled in villages in the spirit of service are not dismayed by the difficulties facing them. They knew before they went that they would have to contend against many difficulties, including even sullenness on the part of villagers. Only those, therefore, who have faith in themselves and in their mission will serve the villagers and influence their lives.¹²

Such vision of him carries eternal relevance for the theory and practice of rural development in general and rural mass mobilization in particular.

¹² Harijan, 20-2-1937
4) SAMAGRA GRAMASEVA:

Gandhiji’s approach and strategy of rural development gets reflected in his initiative of ‘Samagra Gramseva’ According to him a Samagra Gramaseva must know everybody living in the village and render them such service as he can. That does not mean that the worker will be able to do everything single-handed. He will show them the way of helping themselves and procure for them such help and materials as they require. He will train up his own helpers. He will so win over the villagers that they will seek and follow his advice.

Supposing I go and settle down in a village with a GHANI (village oil press), I won’t be an ordinary GHANCHI (oil presser) earning 15-20 rupees a month. I will be a Mahatma GHANCHI. I will be a Mahatma GHANCHI. I have used the word ‘Mahatma’ in fun, but what I mean to say is that as a GHANCHI I will become a model for the villagers to follow. I will be a GHANCHI who knows the Gita and the Quran. I will be learned enough to teach their children. I may not be able to do so for lack of time. The villagers will come to me and ask me: "Please make arrangements for our children's education". I will tell them: "I can find you a teacher, but you will have to bear the expenses". And they will be prepared to do so most willingly. I will teach them spinning and when they come and ask me for the services of a weaver, I will find them a weaver on the same terms as I found them a teacher. And the weaver will teach them how to weave their own cloth. I will inculcate in them the importance of hygiene and sanitation, and when they come and ask me for a sweeper, I will tell them: "I will be your sweeper and I will train you all in the job." This is my conception of Samagra Gramaseva. You may tell me that I will never find a GHANCHI of this description in this age. Then I will say that we cannot hope to improve our villages in this age. . . . After all, the man who runs an oil mill is a GHANCHI. He has money but his strength does not lie in his money. Real strength lies in knowledge. True knowledge gives a moral standing and moral strength. Everyone seeks the advice of such a man.13

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13 Harijan, 17-3-1946
5) ECONOMIC SURVEY:

The villages will be surveyed and a list prepared of things that can be manufactured locally with little or no help which may be required for village use or for sale outside, such for instance as GHANI-pressed oil and cakes, burning oil prepared through GHANIS, hand-pounded rice, TADGUD, honey, toys, mats, hand-made paper, village soap, etc. if enough care is thus taken, the villages, most of them as good as dead or dying, will hum with life and exhibit the immense possibilities they have of supplying most of their wants themselves and of the cities and towns of India.14

These ideas reveals his vision of self sufficient rural development, the ideas has potentials to prove best alternative even in the era of capitalism.

6) ARTS AND CRAFTS:

He had strategies for self reliant rural entrepreneurship and rural marketing, according to him the villagers should develop such a high degree of skill that articles prepared by them should command a ready market outside. He was of the belief that when villages are fully developed, there will be no dearth in them of men with a high degree of skill and artistic talent. According to him there will be village poets, village artists, village architects, linguists and research workers. In shout, there will be nothing in life worth having which will not be had in the villages.

Today the villages are dung heaps. Tomorrow they will be like tiny gardens of Eden where highly intelligent folk whom no one can deceive or exploit dwell. The reconstruction of the villages along these lines should begin right now….. The reconstruction of the villages should not be organized on a temporary but permanent basis.15

14 Harijan, 28-4-1946

15 Harijan, 10-11-1946
7) ECONOMIC REORGANIZATION:

..... I would say that, if the village perishes, India will perish too. India will be no more India. Her own mission in the world will get lost. The revival of the village is possible only when it is no more exploited. Industrialization on a mass scale will necessarily lead to passive or active exploitation of the villagers as the problems of competition and marketing come in. Therefore, we have to concentrate on the village being self-contained, manufacturing mainly for use. Provided this character of the village industry is maintained, there would be no objection to villagers using even the modern machines and tools that they can make and can afford to use. Only, they should not be used as a means of exploitation of others.¹⁶

In his writing on cent per cent Swadeshi He has shown how some aspects of it can be tackled immediately with benefit to the starving millions both economically and hygienically. He wrote that the richest in the land can share the benefit. Thus, if rice can be pounded in the villages after the old fashion, the wages will fill the pockets of the rice-pounding sisters and the rice-eating millions will get some sustenance from the unpolished rice instead of pure starch which the polished rice provides. Accordingly he shows the way of each and every minute problem of Rural Development.

8) NON-VIOLENT ECONOMY:

You cannot build non-violence on a factory civilization, but it can be built on self-contained villages. . . . Rural economy as I have conceived it, eschews exploitation altogether, and exploitation is the essence of violence. You have,

¹⁶ Harijan, 29-8-1936
therefore, to be rural-minded before you can be non-violent, and to be rural-minded you have to have faith in the spinning wheel.\textsuperscript{17}

According to him we have to make a choice between India of the villages that are as ancient as herself and India of the cities which are a creation of foreign domination. He believed that the cities dominate and drain the villages so that they are crumbling to ruin. His Khadi philosophy reveals that cities must subserve villages when that domination goes. He considered exploitation of villages itself as organized violence. He said that If we want Swaraj to be built on non-violence, we will have to give the villages their proper place.

\textbf{9) FOOD REFORM:}

In his writing we find his ideas even on minute points related to rural development he quotes \textit{“Since the economic reorganization of the villages has been commenced with food reform, it is necessary to find out the simplest and cheapest foods that would enable the villagers to regain the lost health. The addition of green leaves to their meals will enable the villagers to avoid many diseases from which they are now suffering. The villagers’ food is deficient in vitamins; many of them can be supplied by fresh green leaves. An eminent doctor told me a proper use of green leaves is calculated to revolutionize the customary notions of food and much of what was today being supplied by mild may be supplied by green leaves.”}\textsuperscript{18}

\textsuperscript{17} Harijan, 4-11-1939

\textsuperscript{18} Harijan, 15-2-1935
10) POWER MACHINERY:

He was heaving very different ideas about rural technology i.e. use of technology in the process of rural development. He considered the existence of power wheels for the grinding of corn in thousands of villages as the limit of our helplessness. He quotes that suppose India does not produce all the engines or grinding machines. . . . The planting of such machinery and engines on a large scale in villages is also a sign of greed. In his view Is it proper to fill one's pocket in this manner at the expense of the poor? Every such machinery puts thousands of hand-CHAKKIS out of work and takes away employment from thousand of housewives and artisans who make these CHAKKIS.

Moreover, the process is infective and will spread to every village industry. The decay of the latter spells too the decay of art. If it meant replacement of old crafts by new ones, one might not have much to say against it. But this is not what is happening. In the thousands of villages where power machinery exists, one misses the sweet music, in the early morning, of the grinders at work.\textsuperscript{19}

He gives a message that in any development before thinking the benefits of development the care must be taken that of displaced or to say who are going to lose with that particular development rather than gain.

11) PANCHAYAT RAJ:

The source of inspiration behind the Inclusion of Panchayat Raj in directive principles of state policies and later in the form of 73\textsuperscript{rd} Constitutional is Gandhiji's ideas on Panchayat Raj and Gram Swaraj.

\textsuperscript{19} Harijan, 10-3-1946
India has had experience of... village republics, as they were called by Mayne. I fancy that they were unconsciously governed by non-violence. . . An effort has now to be made to revive them under a deliberate non-violent plan.\textsuperscript{20}

The best, quickest and most efficient way is to build up from the bottom... Every village has to become a self-sufficient republic. This does not require brave resolutions. It requires brave, corporate, intelligent work...\textsuperscript{21}

According to him the Government of the village will be conducted by the Panchayat of five persons, annually elected by the adult villagers, male and female, possessing minimum prescribed qualifications. These will have all the authority and jurisdiction required. Since there will be no system of punishments in the accepted sense, this Panchayat will be the legislature, judiciary and executive combined to operate for its year of office. He presented an outline of village government. Here there is perfect democracy based upon individual freedom. The individual is the architect of his own government. He even said that to model such a village may be the work of a lifetime. Any lover of true democracy and village life can take up a village, treat it as his world and sole work, and he will find good results.

These thoughts are always proving to be the source of inspirations for rural development policy formulation and execution especially administration and management of Rural Development.

\textsuperscript{20} Harijan, 4-8-1940

\textsuperscript{21} Harijan, 18-1-1922
V – Five Year Plans and Rural Development

When India emerged as an independent country in 1947, it inherited this momentum from its immediate past and had, moreover, the nucleus of technical know-how and even infrastructure in rural development. India has been a welfare state ever since her Independence and the primary objective of all governmental endeavors has been the welfare of its millions. Planning has been one of the pillars of the Indian policy since independence and the country’s strength is derived from the achievement of planning. The policies and programmes have been designed with the aim of alleviation of rural poverty which has been one of the primary objectives of planned development in India.

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

1) First Five Year Plan

While formulating the 1st Five Year Plan the following experiences gained in Sevagram in Madhya Pradesh, in the Firka Development scheme in Madras, in the Sarvodaya centres in Bombay, in Etawah and Gorakhpur in Uttar Pradesh and other centres which are perhaps less well known were taken into consideration:
i. When different departments of the Government approach the villager, each from the aspect of its own work, the effect on the villager is apt to be confusing and no permanent impression is created. The peasant's life is not cut into segments in the way the Government's activities are apt to be; the approach to the villager has, therefore, to be a coordinated one and has to comprehend his whole life. Such an approach has to be made, not through a multiplicity of departmental officials, but through an agent common at least to the principal departments engaged in rural work, whom it is now customary to describe as the village level worker.

ii. Programmes which have been built on the cooperation of the people have more chances of abiding success than those which are forced down on them.

iii. While the official machinery has to guide and assist, the principal responsibility for improving their own condition must rest with the people themselves. Unless they feel that a programme is theirs and value it as a practical contribution to their own welfare, no substantial results will be gained.

iv. Programmes largely dependent on expenditure by the Government, in which the elements of self-help and mutual cooperation on the part of villagers are present only in a nominal degree are shortlived. The essential idea should be the reduction of chronic unemployment which is a feature of rural life—through the practice of scientific agriculture and cottage and small-scale industries.

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

vi. Whatever the measures of the effort which the Government wishes to make, the best results will be gained if the programmes are pursued intensively, and practically every agriculturist family has its own contribution to make through a village organisation.
vii. The approach to the villager would be in terms of his own experience and problems, conceived on the pattern of simplicity, avoiding elaborate techniques and equipment until he is ready for them.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**2) Second Five Year Plan**

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

i. establishment for development at the village level of an appropriate agency which derives its authority from the village community;

ii. integration of activities of various development departments in the district and the provision of a common extension organisation;
iii. linking up, in relation to all development work, of local self-governing institutions with the administrative agencies of the State Government;
iv. regional coordination and supervision of district development programmes; and
v. Strengthening and improvement of the machinery of general administration.

**Village Planning and Village Panchayats:** The preparation of the first five year plan in the States took place mainly at State headquarters. Subsequently, attempts were made to break up State plans into district plans. It has been recognised that unless there is comprehensive village planning which takes into account the needs of the entire community, weaker sections like tenant-cultivators, landless workers and artisans may not benefit sufficiently from assistance provided by the Government. Rural progress depends entirely on the existence of an active organisation in the village which can bring all the people—including the weaker sections into common programmes to be carried out with the assistance of the administration.

These considerations were taken into account in the preparation of the second five year plan. Early in 1954 State Governments were requested to arrange for the preparation of plans for the second five-year period for individual villages and groups of villages such as tehsils, talukas, development blocks, etc. It was essential that local initiative in formulating plans and local effort and resources in carrying them out should be stimulated to the maximum extent possible. This would help to relate the plans to local needs and conditions and also to secure public participation and voluntary effort and contribution. Village planning was to be concerned primarily with agricultural production and other associated activities, including cooperation, village industries, communications and other local works programmes. These suggestions were generally followed and in all States village plans and district plans were prepared and formed a basis of the draft plans presented by State Governments.
The methods adopted for preparing the second five year plan have provided valuable training both to the rural people and to rural officials associated with development. It was realized that the pattern of district administration envisaged in the national extension and community development programme would remain incomplete unless village institutions are placed on a sound footing and are entrusted with a great deal of responsibility for carrying out local programmes. The experience of setting up ad hoc bodies in villages to implement development programmes has also reinforced this conclusion. The development of village panchayats on the right lines has significance for several reasons. Under the impact of new developments, including the growth of population, land reform, urbanization, spread of education, increase in production and improvements in communications, village society is in a state of rapid transition. In emphasizing the interest of the community as a whole and in particular the needs of those sections which are at present handicapped in various ways, village panchayats along with cooperatives, played a considerable part in bringing about a more just and integrated social structure in rural areas and in developing rural leadership.

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

i. framing programmes of production in the village;

ii. in association with cooperatives, framing budgets of requirements for supplies and finance for carrying out programmes;

iii. acting as a channel through which an increasing proportion of government assistance reaches the village:

iv. developing common lands such as waste lands, forests, tanks, etc., including measures for soil conservation;

v. construction, repair and maintenance of common village buildings, public wells, tanks, roads, etc.;

vi. organisation of mutual aid and joint effort in all activities;

vii. promotion of cooperative societies;

viii. organising voluntary labour for community works;

ix. promoting small savings; and

x. Improvement of livestock.

The functions of panchayats in respect land management were:

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

ii. cultivation of lands set apart for the benefit of the village community, as in consolidation of holdings;

iii. adaptation of standards of good management and cultivation to local conditions and their enforcement; and

iv. association with the work of maintenance of land records;

v. determination of land to be allotted to owners and tenants on the exercise of rights of resumption for personal cultivation,

vi. determination of surplus lands on the application of ceilings on agricultural holdings, and

vii. redistribution of surplus lands arising from the imposition of ceilings.
During the second plan period the judicial functions of panchayats were decided as follows:

i. the administration of civil and criminal justice,
ii. enforcement of minimum wages for agricultural workers, and
iii. simple disputes pertaining to land.

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

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

3) Third Five Year Plan

The focus of the third five year plan was Housing and Rural Planning. Improvement in housing conditions in the villages has a manifold significance. It raises the level of living, provides greater opportunities for work and is a vital element in the transformation of rural life. Yet, because of the magnitude of the problem and its inherent difficulties the task of improving housing conditions in
the villages has to be viewed, not as an isolated objective, but as a part of the larger scheme of rural development. Consequently, rural housing is intrinsically a part of community development and village planning. The specific programme for rural housing as such is intended to supplement the resources of the community development movement at the level of the block and the village by way of assistance in the form of technical advice, demonstration, provision of improved designs and lay-outs, better use of local materials and, to a limited extent, provision of finance. Its essential object is to help create healthy environmental conditions for all sections of the village population and for balanced development of rural life as a whole. It is against this background that the village housing scheme which was introduced in 1957 has to be considered and its working reviewed.

The village housing scheme provides for the selection of villages in groups of four to six and the preparation of lay-out plans for these villages after carrying out physical and socio-economic surveys. The implementation of lay-out plans and rebuilding of houses is taken up in stages so that the entire village is remodelled over a period of 8-10 years. Cooperatives for the manufacture of different building components are organised. Assistance in the shape of loans up to 662/3 percent of the cost of construction subject to a maximum of Rs. 2000 per house is given for building of houses. Loans are also given for carrying out improvements in existing houses in accordance with the standards prescribed by the State Governments. Provision has also been made in the scheme for acquisition of land required for streets, community buildings, new house sites and for thinning out densities etc. Research-cum-training centers have been established at six centers for promoting research in improving local building materials and construction techniques and for training personnel required for executing the scheme. The rural housing cells set up in the States for preparing lay-out plans and model designs etc. have been further strengthened.
During the Second Five Year Plan about 3700 villages were selected and socio-economic and physical surveys of about 2000 villages were completed. Lay-out plans of 1600 villages were drawn up and loans amounting to Rs. 3-6 crores were sanctioned for construction of about 15,400 houses. About 3000 houses were completed and the remaining houses were under different stages of construction.

In the working of the village housing scheme during the Second Plan it has been observed that as a rule the scheme has been taken up in isolated villages and not in groups of villages as was envisaged in the scheme. The latter aspect is important because it is only when a small group of villages is taken up together that it is possible to arrange to set up a brick kiln or arrange for the supply of components on a cooperative basis to meet a continuing demand. The full impact of a housing programme in the rural area by way of increase in employment and improvement in environmental conditions cannot be obtained unless the programme is undertaken systematically in groups of adjoining villages. Lay-out plans are at present prepared generally for selected villages. They provide for the extension of the village site, improved village streets and drainage and land for such common amenities as the village school, the playground for school children and the panchayat bhavan. However, not enough is being done in these directions, and the available funds tend to be devoted mainly to the construction and improvement of a small number of houses. It is suggested that the first claim on the resources provided for the village housing scheme should be on account of the extension of the village site, improvement of roads and drainage and allotment of land for essential purposes of interest to the community as a whole. The key to improved housing is the availability of land for the extension of village site. To the greatest extent possible, the community itself, through mutual arrangement, should be expected to provide the additional land required. However, for assisting the community to acquire land for providing house sites for agricultural workers and Harijans it may be useful, as suggested later, to provide for a limited measure of assistance. The first place in the programme for
improving village housing should be given to housing for Harijans, agricultural workers and those sections of the community whose housing conditions are especially deplorable. For scheduled tribes and scheduled castes in particular, besides funds available under the village housing scheme, assistance by way of subsidy is also given under the programme for the welfare of backward classes. Provisions under the two programmes should be utilised in a coordinated manner.

Rural housing cells, which have been set up in the States, and research-cum-training centres are already engaged in designing, houses suited to different parts of the country, and involving the use of local materials. Work in these directions has to be intensified. There is frequently a temptation to resort to houses on urban patterns constructed in brick and cement without sufficient emphasis being placed on the use of local materials, economy of construction cost, cultural traditions and background of the locality and functional requirements of rural life. There is also inadequate stress on community effort in improving roads and drainage, contribution by way of land for the extension of the village site and mutual aid in constructing improved housing. The scale of the rural housing problem is so vast that provision of additional funds by itself, necessary as this may be, can produce only a small impact. In the main problem is one of creating a widespread desire for better living, evolving practical methods for improving the village environment and building better houses at relatively small cost based mainly on cooperative self-help, community effort and contribution and the use of local building materials.

In the Third Plan it will be essential to link up the programme more closely with different schemes of community development such as provision of water supply, roads, drainage, public health, education etc. It is also necessary that rural housing activities should be effectively coordinated with other connected programmes of rural development so as to ensure that the villages selected under the village housing scheme derive the maximum benefit from the limited
resources which are available. For example, the subsidy admissible under the programme for ameliorating the living conditions of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes should be made available to members of these communities residing in the villages selected under the scheme. Village and small industries should also be set up to the extent possible in the selected villages. Special attention has to be given to the setting up of brick-kilns and local production of building components, such as doors, windows, etc. For this purpose, cooperatives should be organised, and they should be given technical assistance and materials such as wood and coal-dust.

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

4) Fourth Five Year Plan

The major thrust of the fourth five year plan was Cooperation and Community Development. The volume of cooperative credit (short and medium-term) for agricultural purposes increased from Rs. 203 crores in 1960-61 to Rs. 429 crores in 1967-68 and an estimated Rs. 490 crores in 1968-69. Long-term credit increased from Rs. 12 crores in 1960-61 to about Rs. 120 crores in 1968-69. Appreciable progress took place in the cooperatively organised processing of agricultural produce mainly in the sector of sugar factories, which now account for about a third of the total sugar production. The value of agricultural inputs distributed by cooperatives rose from about Rs. 36 crores in 1960-61 to about Rs. 250 crores in 1968-69. Of the inputs, the largest item consists of fertilisers and the value of these distributed by the cooperatives increased from about Rs. 28 crores in 1960-61 to nearly Rs. 200 crores in 1968-69, representing about 60 per cent of the total consumption of fertilisers in the country. The total value of agricultural produce handled by cooperative marketing and processing societies rose from Rs. 174 crores in 1960-61 to an estimated Rs. 583 crores in 1968-69. The value of retail consumer trade undertaken by cooperatives in rural areas recorded an increase from Rs. 17 crores in 1960-61 to Rs. 275 crores in 1968-69. The corresponding figures for turnover in urban areas were Rs. 40 crores in 1960-61 and Rs. 270 crores in 1968-69.

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

**Approach to Cooperative Development:** Growth with stability being the keynote of the Fourth Plan, agricultural cooperatives on the one hand and consumer cooperatives on the other will occupy a central position in the strategy of cooperative development. Growth of agriculture is largely dependent-on intensive agriculture and this involves a substantial increase in credit, inputs and services. The aim will be to ensure that the services which the farmer requires are institutionalised to the greatest extent possible. In the process of such institutionalisation, which will not be to a set pattern, the cooperative form of organisation will have ample opportunities not only to expand but also to establish itself as viable and efficient. It will be part of policy during the Fourth Plan to ensure that the opportunities before cooperatives are as large and varied as they can utilise effectively. While it will be for the cooperatives themselves to make the effort involved and reach those standards of efficiency which will enable them to compete with other forms of organisation serving similar purposes, Government for its part will endeavour to assist the cooperatives to equip themselves for the future in important aspects such as finance, organisation
and trained personnel. In regard to agro-industries, preference will continue to be given to cooperatives in the matter of licensing and institutional finance.

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

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

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

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

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

v. Bigger cultivators who can repay loans in shorter periods will be encouraged to avail of medium term credit for investment, so that larger volume of long-term credit can be made available for small farmers from land development banks.
Rural Electric Cooperatives: One of the significant developments contemplated in the Fourth Plan relates to the involvement of the cooperative form of organization in the programme of rural electrification. Pilot rural electric cooperatives are in the process of being set up in five States. The licensing of these cooperatives is among the functions allotted to the Rural Electrification Corporation. The objectives of the cooperatives include the supply of electricity for agricultural and agro-industrial purposes and the encouragement of active participation of the people by giving them some degree of control on electricity supply.

Community Development and Panchayati Raj: The Community Development programme was started in 1952. It now covered the whole country. Its remained the block and its aim that of achieving rural development through people's participation and initiative. The assistance from Government, so far as resources would allow, took the shape of a budget grant for the block and a team of extension workers under a Block Development Officer. The latter was to coordinate all schemes of a developmental character within the block. In the integrated programme, divided into stages of five years each, agricultural development occupied the foremost position.

During this plan the step was taken that of attempting to weld together Panchayati Raj and Community Development. This objective followed from the acceptance of the recommendations of the Study Team of the Committee on Plan Projects (Balwantrai Mehta Committee). The three-tier Panchayati Raj system, together with its modifications in different States, thus set the pattern of local development administration. At each level—village or group of villages, block or group of blocks, and district—there was to be a link between the administrative apparatus and elected representatives.

New Dimensions: With all their drawbacks, the Community Development Programme and Panchayati Raj institutions had provided a new dimension to
rural development and introduced a structural change of considerable importance in the district administration. Within the limitations of resources the present plan attempted to do something which in many cases, had never before been attempted. Improvement of agriculture has remained in the forefront throughout. Investment from the available block funds on agricultural development has over the years almost equaled the provisions for all other sectors of development taken together. In many States, the block organisation was virtually the only field agency for carrying out development programmes. There was sizeable contribution from local communities to the developmental effort. There was considerable flexibility with regard to the type of organisation, contents of programme and extent of resources. Also important was continued emphasis on priority programmes such as agriculture and family planning. The State Plans accordingly provide Rs. 84.69 crores for programme of community development. Simultaneously, there was progressively larger devolution of programmes and resources by the States.

**Pilot Study on Growth Centers:** As a part of studies on area planning, a centrally sponsored scheme of Pilot Research Project in Growth Centres was launched. The aim of the pilot project was to evolve a broad research methodology and pattern for identifying emerging growth centres, and to indicate how the growth potential of these centres could be promoted through comprehensive and scientific study of the overall development needs, and how these centres could be meaningfully woven into the frame of the district plan and thus help in the process of planning from below. The scheme was thus brought under close study action strategies relevant to the acceleration of integrated area development around potential growth centres. Number of projects were taken up in different areas in the States and Union Territories. Few projects were located in institutions working on planning methodology. To facilitate integration with district planning, the growth centres were located in districts for which detailed plans in terms of guidelines and norms provided by the Planning Commission were drawn up.
5) Fifth Five Year Plan

20-Point Programme: The 20-Point Economic Programme was announced by the Prime Minister on 1st July, 1975. The various constituents of the 20-Point Economic Programme, especially those which require financial investment, were identified. Priority was accorded to the implementation of the schemes falling under this programme.

Minor Irrigation: According to the outlays available to the states for the first three years of this plan maximum potential of nearly 3'4 million hectares was created during the first three years of the Plan. The provision made in the following two years of the Plan almost equals the provision in the first three years.

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

Area Development: This important programme for optimizing the use of irrigation water and utilisation of the potential created from selected commands of major irrigation works also took time to make a start. Command Area Development Authorities were set up and other infrastructure facilities developed. Therefore, the provision in the Central sector would be almost 22 per cent higher for the remaining two years as compared to the outlays for the first three years. The provisions in the respective states adequately match the provision made in the Central sector.
Forestry: Taking note of the fact that forestry development was assumed a significant dimension as a source of timber and fuel and for the maintenance of the natural ecological system, special programmes for social forestry and economic plantations have been given high priority. Accordingly, for the remaining two years of the plan, the provision made was almost double the outlays provided for in the first three years of the Plan. Adequate provision has also been made for 'project Tiger' and for the development of National Parks and for strengthening the research programme in the forestry sector.

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

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

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

6) **Sixth Five Year Plan**

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

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

The strategy and methodology for accelerated rural development were follows:

i. increasing production and productivity in agriculture and allied sectors;
ii. resource and income development of vulnerable section of the rural population through development of the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors;
iii. skill formation and skill upgrading programmes to promote self and wage employment amongst the rural poor;
iv. facilitating adequate availability of credit to support the programmes taken up for the rural poor;
v. promoting marketing support to ensure the viability of production programmes and to insulate the rural poor from exploitation in the marketing of their products;
vi. provision of additional employment opportunities to the rural poor for gainful employment during the lean agricultural season through a national rural employment programme (NREP);
vii. provision of essential minimum needs; and
viii. involvement of universities, research and technical institutions in preparing a shelf of projects both for self-employment and NREP and in preparing strategies for the scientific utilisation of local resources.

Three broad categories of these programmes namely (1) Resource and income development programme for the rural poor, (2) Special Area development programme and (3) Works programme for creation of supplementary employment opportunities were introduced during this plan period which were
directly aimed at the development of the target group of the rural poor and the principal institutional instruments relevant therefore.

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

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

ii. Soil and Moisture conservation measures.

iii. Afforestation with special emphasis on social and farm forestry.

iv. Development of pasture lands and range management in conjunction with development of sheep husbandry. (v) Live-stock development and dairy development.

v. Restructuring of cropping pattern and changes in agronomic practices, and

vi. Development of subsidiary occupations.

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

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7) Seventh Five Year Plan

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

Integrated Rural Development Program: This scheme was launched in the Sixth Plan. Its assessment at the end of the Sixth Plan period revealed several shortcomings. Keeping this in view and the feed-back received from the State Governments, suitable changes were introduced in the guidelines for the IRDP in the Seventh Plan. The poverty line was based at Rs.6400, but those eligible for assistance under the IRDP had to have an average annual income of Rs.4800 or less. It was assumed that those households with income levels between Rs.4800
and Rs.6400 would be able to rise above the poverty line in the process of
growth itself. It was targetted that 20 million families would be assisted under
IRDP during the Seventh Plan of which 10 million were new households and 10
million old beneficiaries who had been unable to cross the poverty line and
required a second dose.

During the Seventh Plan, the subsidy expenditure on IRDP was Rs.3316 crores
which was in excess of the target of Rs.3000 crores. The total investment
including the institutional credit amounted to Rs.8688 crores. In quantitative
terms, the physical achievement of about 18 million households fell short of the
original target of 20 million households but exceeded the cumulative target which
was only 16 million families. The sectoral composition indicates that, of all the
schemes selected under IRDP, 44 per cent were in the primary sector, 18.5 per
cent in the secondary sector and 37.5 per cent in the tertiary sector.

A system of concurrent evaluation of the IRDP programme was also introduced
under which data were collected by independent research institutions for the
entire country on a sample basis. State wise details of performance are available.
The findings suggest that the IRDP was quite successful in terms of providing
incremental income to poor families. However, the number of households able to
cross the poverty line was relatively small. It may be partly due to the low levels
of initial investment.

Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment: TRYSEM was introduced to
provide technical skills and to upgrade the traditional skills of rural youth
belonging to families below the poverty line. Its aim was to enable the rural youth
to take up self-employment ventures in different spheres across sectors by
giving them assistance under IRDP. During the Seventh Plan about 10 lakh
youth were trained under TRYSEM, of which 47 per cent took up self-
employment and 12 per cent wage employment. The remaining 41 per cent could
not avail of either. On the other hand, a sizeable proportion of IRDP beneficiaries
who needed training could not receive it. In fact, only 6 to 7 per cent of IRDP beneficiaries were trained under TRYSEM. During 1990-91 the number of youth trained was 2.6 lakhs, of which 70 per cent got employed.

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

In principle, this scheme is a sound one; in operationalising it the impact has been inadequate. This is perhaps due to a lack of cohesion among women groups formed under DWCRA and their inability to identify activities that could generate sustained incomes. In this sphere, the role of voluntary organisations would be crucial in organising women to take up group-based economic activities which are viable within the context of an area development plan. Experiments in some States to form women's thrift and credit societies first, and then start them on economic work were successful.

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

**Jawahar Razgar Yojana (JRY):** During the Seventh Plan, JRY was launched with a total allocation of Rs. 2600 crores to generate 931 million mandays of employment. The primary objective of the programme was generation of additional employment on productive works which would either be of sustained benefit to the poor’ or contribute to the creation of rural infrastructure. Under this programme, Centre’s contribution was 80 per cent, and 20 per cent was the State’s share. The JRY was implemented in all villages in the country.

Central assistance was provided to the States on the basis of proportion of the rural poor in a State/UT to the total rural poor in the country. From the States to the districts, the allocations were made on an index of backwardness which was formulated on the following basis:

i. 20 per cent weightage for the proportion of agricultural labourers in the total workers in the rural areas.

ii. 60 per cent weightage to the proportion of rural scheduled castes and tribes population in relation to the total rural population; and

iii. 20 per cent weightage to the inverse of agricultural productivity.

Of the total allocations at the State level 6 per cent of the total resources are earmarked for housing under the Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY) which are allotted to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and freed bonded labour. In addition, 20 per cent are earmarked for Million Wells Scheme (MWS). In fact, this scheme was launched as a special feature both under NREP and RLEGP in 1988-89. The objective was to provide open wells, free of cost, to poor SC/ST farmers in
the category of small and marginal farmers, and to free bonded labourers. However, where such wells are not feasible, the amounts allotted may be utilised for other schemes of minor irrigation like irrigation tanks, water harvesting structures and also for development of lands of SCs/STs and freed bonded labourers including ceiling surplus and bhoodan lands.

**Land Reforms:** During this plan period the following Land Reforms majors were taken:

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

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

Elimination of poverty continued to be a major concern of development planning. Expansion of employment opportunities, augmentation of productivity and income levels of both the underemployed and employed poor would be the main instrument for achieving this objective during the Eighth Plan. Given the enhanced outlay for ‘rural development’ in the Eighth Plan, resources were utilised for building up of rural infrastructure, which was an essential pre-requisite for a more sustained employment and development. All weather roads were given priority, particularly in tribal, hill and desert areas, where inaccessibility to markets and to information and input was a severe bottle-neck. Minor irrigation works and water harvesting structures were vital in order to conserve the scarce water and schemes for soil conservation and social forestry would go a long way in reducing soil erosion and top soil water cup-off as well as wherever required school buildings and primary health centres and sub-centres were constructed.

Land Reforms: Land, the single most important asset in rural India and given the present state of agricultural technology even a small farm can be viable, both in terms of employment and income of a family. The need for land reforms was recognised at the time of independence and has been reiterated in the successive Five Year Plans. The Seventh Plan enunciated land reforms to be an intrinsic part of the anti-poverty strategy. The importance of land reforms continues to be significant. Its main tenets are abolition of intermediaries, security of tenure for tenant-cultivators, redistribution of land by imposition of a ceiling on agricultural holdings, consolidation of holdings and updating of land records. The Eighth Plan therefore addressed itself to the factors that have come in the way of realising the goals of land reforms policy. First, it would aim at ensuring that an atmosphere is created whereby the actual cultivators were made aware of their rights and enabled to claim their benefits. Secondly, it would encourage steps to be taken for early detection of surplus lands. Thirdly, it would be necessary to ensure that the newly acquired lands are brought under profitable agronomic
practices, thus meeting the twin objectives of poverty alleviation and output growth. The management of land records and the skills and capabilities of the lower level official machinery would need to be given the necessary support of resources and modernisation so that they help, rather than hinder, the evolution of an equitable agrarian order. The land reform program introduced with the following objectives:

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

Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP): During the Eighth Five Year Plan the total allocation (Centre and State) under IRDP was Rs.5048.29 crore and the total investment amounted to Rs.11541.06 crore. In quantitative numbers, 10.82 million families were covered under IRDP against the initial target of 12.6 million families fixed for the entire Eighth Plan period. However, from 1995-96 physical targeting under the programme was abolished with the focus shifting to financial targets and qualitative parameters. Of the families covered 50.06 per cent were Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and 33.59 per cent women. The coverage of women was still lower than the target of 40 per cent.

At the instance of the Ministry of Rural Development, the Reserve Bank of India appointed in 1993, a High Powered Committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. D.R. Mehta, Deputy Governor of Reserve Bank of India to make an in-depth study of IRDP and recommend suitable measures for its improvement. The
Committee was asked to review among other factors, the process of selection of appropriate income generating assets, credit structure, recovery of loans, and procedural matters in respect of obtaining loans, and efficacy of existing administrative structures of the District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs). In consonance with the recommendations of the High Powered Committee, the new initiatives taken by Government under IRDP in the Eighth Plan included (a) targeting the segment of literate unemployed youth below the poverty line for IRDP activities by giving them subsidy upto Rs.7500 or 50 per cent of the project cost (whichever is lower) (b) promotion of group activities through enhancement of ceiling on subsidy to Rs.1.25 lakh or 50 per cent of the project cost (whichever is lower) for all group ventures involving at least 5 members (c) back-ending of subsidy to prevent leakages in subsidy administration (d) shifting the emphasis to financial targets and qualitative parameters from a perfunctory physical coverage of families and (e) enhancing the limit of allocation to programme infrastructure from 10 per cent to 20 per cent in all the States and 25 per cent in the North Eastern States.

There was considerable diversification of IRDP activities during eighth plan period. Initially, a majority of the beneficiaries under the programme subscribed to primary sector activities. In 1980-81 the sectoral composition of IRDP activities was heavily skewed towards the primary sector which had a sponsorship of 93.56 per cent, while the share of the secondary and tertiary sectors were 2.32 per cent and 4.12 per cent respectively. Over the years, the share of the primary sector has come down considerably and is currently around 55 per cent, while the shares of the secondary and tertiary sectors have increased proportionately to 15 per cent and 30 per cent respectively.

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

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

**Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS):** The Employment Assurance Scheme was launched on 2nd October, 1993 in 1775 identified backward blocks situated in drought prone, desert, tribal and hill areas, in which the revamped public distribution system was in operation. Subsequently, the scheme was extended to additional blocks which included the newly identified Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP)/Desert Development Programme (DDP) blocks, Modified Area Development Approach (MADA) blocks having a larger concentration of tribals, and blocks in flood prone areas of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Assam and Jammu & Kashmir. In addition, 722 non-EAS blocks previously covered under Second Stream of Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) were also brought under the
EAS. The EAS has since been universalized to cover all the rural blocks in the country with effect from 1.4.1997. The main objective of the EAS is to provide about 100 days of assured casual manual employment during the lean agricultural season, at statutory minimum wages, to all persons above the age of 18 years and below 60 years who need and seek employment on economically productive and labour intensive social and community works. The works are to be selected by the District Collector and implemented through the line departments in such a manner that the ratio of wage to the non-wage component would stand at 60:40. Sectoral norms for execution of various works are- watershed development (50 per cent) and agro-horticulture, minor irrigation works (10 per cent) in DPAP and DDP blocks or water & soil conservation including afforestation, agro-horticulture and silvipasture (40 per cent), and minor irrigation works (20 per cent) in non-DPAP/non-DDP blocks. In addition, funds were also earmarked for link roads featuring in the Master Plans developed in the respective districts for this purpose (20 per cent) and public community buildings in rural areas as per the felt needs of the districts (20 per cent). The village panchayats are involved in the registration of persons seeking employment and the panchayats maintain these registers. They also coordinate and monitor the works. A maximum of two adults per family are to be provided employment under the scheme. The applicants, who register themselves for employment under the EAS, were issued family cards in which the number of days of employment are entered as and when such employment is given to them.

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

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

The scheme was primarily intended to provide open irrigation wells, free of cost, to individual, poor, small and marginal farmers belonging to Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and freed bonded labourers with a 20 per cent earmarking of JRY funds. Tubewells and borewells are not permitted under the Scheme. Where wells are not feasible due to geological factors, other minor irrigation works can be undertaken such as irrigation tanks, water harvesting structures as also development of land belonging to small and marginal farmers.

From the year 1993-94 the scope of the MWS has been enlarged to cover non-Scheduled Castes/non-Scheduled Tribes small and marginal farmers who are below the poverty line and are listed in the IRDP register of the village. The sectoral earmarking which was 20 per cent upto 1992-93 had also been raised to 30 per cent from 1993-94 with the stipulation that the benefits to non-Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes would not exceed one third of the total funds utilised during the year.

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

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

9) Ninth Five Year Plan

Poverty eradication has always been one of the major objectives of planned development. The magnitude of the problem is still quite staggering. Thirty six per cent of the Indian population was below poverty line (BPL) in 1993-94, the latest year for which the data are available and the absolute number of poor was 320 million, out of which 244 million (37 per cent of the rural population) lived in rural areas. The incidence of poverty declined from 54.9 per cent in 1973-74 to 36 per cent in 1993-94. But the absolute number of poor did not decline much over this period of 20 years. There were 321 million poor in 1973-74 and 320 million in 1993-94; in the rural areas the corresponding numbers were 261 million and 244 million.
The main determinants of poverty were identified as (i) lack of income and purchasing power attributable to lack of productive employment and considerable underemployment and not to lack of employment per se; (ii) a continuous increase in the price of food, especially foodgrains which account for 70-80 per cent of the consumption basket; and (iii) inadequacy of social infrastructure, affecting the quality of life of the people and their employability. Considering this background of progress and challenges of rural development the ninth plan was formulated with the major focus of poverty alleviation program and Public Distribution system.

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

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

**New Initiatives under IRDP during Ninth Plan:**

i. IRDP was made holistic programme covering all aspects of self-employment, namely, organisation of beneficiaries and their capacity building, planning of activity clusters, infrastructure, technology, credit and marketing.

ii. Sub-schemes of TRYSEM, DWCRA, SITRA and GKY were merged into IRDP.

iii. Progressive shift from the individual beneficiary approach to the group and/or cluster approach.

iv. To facilitate group approach SHGs were formed and steps were taken to nurture them.

v. For cluster approach each district had to identify 4 to 5 activity clusters in each block based on local resources and occupational skills of the people. The infrastructure needs for the identified activities were met in full.

vi. The Banks were involved in the planning and preparation of projects, identification of activity clusters, infrastructure planning as well as capacity building and choice of activity of the SHGs.

vii. Promotion of multiple credit rather than one time credit injection.

**Land Reforms:** In the Ninth Plan the issue of agrarian restructuring was continued to receive the top most priority in the expectation that the States would be able to facilitate changes that would make for more efficient agriculture, leading to increases in both output and employment. This process contributed to the achievement of a higher rate of economic growth with social justice. The main components of the land reform policy were the detection of ceiling surplus land and the distribution of the existing surplus land, besides tenancy reform, consolidation of holdings, providing access to the poor on common lands
and wastelands, preventing the alienation of tribal lands and providing land rights to women.

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

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

_Anti-Poor Laws and Policies:_ Over time, the expenditure on the various poverty alleviation programmes has increased significantly. It is true that these programmes play a vital role in ensuring that the poor are able to sustain themselves, particularly during the lean seasons, through generation of additional employment and incomes. However, it is becoming increasingly clear that
spending money is not the only way of ameliorating the conditions of the poor. Scant attention has been paid to the role of non-monetary policies and institutional arrangements which affect the lives of the common people, especially the poor. There are several laws and policies which are anti-poor. An exercise was conducted during ninth plan period to document some of these laws and policies. In the Ninth Plan, an attempt was made to initiate the process of identifying anti-poor laws/policies, Statewise. These would be brought to the notice of the policy makers, local governments and NGOs so that these may be suitably modified and/or repealed in the interest of the poor.

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

**Institutional Mechanism for Delivery:** Consequent to the 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act, State Governments enacted enabling legislations providing for local bodies at the village, intermediate and district levels. In almost all the States with the exception of Bihar the PRIs have been duly constituted. The State
Governments are required to endow these PRIs with the requisite financial and administrative powers to enable them to function as institutions of self-government. The PRIs would be responsible for preparing the plans for economic development and social justice through the District Planning Committee and for implementing them, in respect of the items listed in the Eleventh Schedule of the Constitutional Amendment. This process of devolution is at various levels of operationalisation for individual States. It is expected, that in the Ninth Plan, the States would devolve funds on the panchayats both from the Consolidated Funds of the States and the allocations made by the Central Government for Centrally Sponsored Schemes. In addition, the panchayats have to be given their own revenue raising powers, as per the recommendations of the State Finance Commissions. It is expected that village level plans would be prepared, based on the felt needs of the people as articulated in the Gram Sabha meetings. These plans would be incorporated into the intermediate level plans and finally merged into a district plan. This district plan would then enable the dovetailing of funds from the various sectoral poverty alleviation and area development programmes. In this way, development planning would begin from below reflecting the aspirations of the people within the constraints of the available physical and financial resources.

10) Tenth Five Year Plan

At the beginning of the new millennium, 260 million people in the country did not have incomes to access a consumption basket which defines the poverty line. Of these, 75 per cent were in the rural areas. India is home to 22 per cent of the world’s poor. Such a high incidence of poverty is a matter of concern in view of the fact that poverty eradication has been one of the major objectives of the development planning process. Indeed, poverty is a global issue. Its eradication is considered integral to humanity’s quest for sustainable development. Reduction of poverty in India, is, therefore, vital for the attainment of international goals.
Poverty alleviation has been one of the guiding principles of the planning process in India. The role of economic growth in providing more employment avenues to the population has been clearly recognized. The growth-oriented approach has been reinforced by focusing on specific sectors which provide greater opportunities to the people to participate in the growth process. The various dimensions of poverty relating to health, education and other basic services have been progressively internalized in the planning process. Central and state governments have considerably enhanced allocations for the provision of education, health, sanitation and other facilities which promote capacity-building and well-being of the poor. Investments in agriculture, area development programmes and afforestation provide avenues for employment and income. Special programmes have been taken up for the welfare of scheduled castes (SCs) and scheduled tribes (STs), the disabled and other vulnerable groups. Antipoverty programmes that seek to transfer assets and skills to people for self-employment, coupled with public works programmes that enable people to cope with transient poverty, are the third strand of the larger anti-poverty strategy. The targeted public distribution system (TPDS) protects the poor from the adverse effects of a rise in prices and ensures food and nutrition security at affordable prices.

Tenth Plan has set a target for reduction of poverty and creation of high quality gainful employment during the Plan period. The projected GDP growth rate of 8 per cent for the period 2002-07, if achieved, would lead to reduction of incidence of poverty by 5 percentage points by 2007. Compared to 1999-2000, poverty is expected to decline by 15 percentage points by 2011-12. Effective implementation of anti-poverty programmes would be central to achieving the planned reductions in poverty. The challenge before the State is to provide employment opportunities which provide enhanced incomes. This becomes more important in view of the fact that substantial additions to labour force are expected to take place during the next five years. Enlargement of self and wage-
employment programmes and their effective delivery becomes an imperative in such a scenario.

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

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

**Wage Employment Programme:** The SGRY was the single wage employment programme. Allocations to the programme would be stepped up. The programme
would seek to provide productive employment opportunities in employment-intensive sectors. The Government would endeavour to generate a shelf of projects for execution under SGRY that fits into the overall development plan of an area.

A large number of rural facilities have been built under various programmes over successive Plan periods. However, they have degenerated either due to their initial faulty design and construction, or lack of maintenance. Therefore, a specific proportion of allocations under SGRY would be used for the maintenance of assets. PRIs would play a major role in the planning, implementation and monitoring of wage employment programmes and allocations under the SGRY would be routed through them. A rational criterion would have to be evolved for distribution of funds between the three tiers of the PRIs to ensure balanced development of villages, blocks and districts.

Rural Housing: Though the IAY is one of the successful programmes being implemented by the Ministry of Rural Development, it has certain weaknesses. The provision of free houses has meant that other loan-based schemes have not been able to take off. The scheme has also been open to misuse. Public funds have to be utilised for the promotion of economic activity and growth. The creation of employment opportunities, both self-employment and wage-employment, has to receive a higher priority than provision of free houses. During the Tenth Plan period, free houses under IAY would be provided largely to SC/ST BPL families. For other BPL families, there would be a gradual shift to a credit-linked housing programme. There is a need to create institutional capability in the rural housing sector with reference to designing of houses, supply of raw materials and construction. The rural communities have to be involved in the layout and design of the houses. The houses should have provisions for rain water harvesting, water supply and sanitation.
Social Security Schemes: While the NSAP and state-level welfare schemes had provided some succour to the poor in the form of assistance to the old and the bereaved, a large section of people have not been covered under the schemes because of limited resources. The NSAP was enlarged in scope to cover all eligible beneficiaries. The content and coverage of the social welfare scheme would have to be strengthened during the Plan period to provide meaningful protection to the poor. There are a plethora of welfare schemes in both the central and state sectors. They lead to avoidable overlap and confusion and need to rationalised. Since welfare is basically a state subject, these schemes are best administered by state governments. The NSAP was transferred to states with earmarked funds in the Tenth Plan.

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

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

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

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

11) Eleventh Five Year Plan

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

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

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

**Guaranteed Wage Employment—National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA):** NREGA is introduced as one of the major step in the direction of inclusive growth. Workfare programmes have been important programme interventions in India and elsewhere in developing countries since long. These programmes typically provide unskilled workers with short-term employment on public works. They provide income transfers to poor households during periods when they suffer on account of absence of opportunities of employment. In areas with high unemployment rates and under employment, transfer benefits from workfare programmes can prevent poverty from worsening, especially during lean periods. Durable assets that these programmes create have the potential to generate second-round employment benefits as requisite infrastructure is developed. The objective of the NREGA is to enhance the livelihood security of the people in rural areas by guaranteeing 100 days of wage employment in a financial year to a rural household whose members volunteer to do unskilled manual work. The Act further aims at creating durable assets and strengthening the livelihood resource base of the rural poor. The choice of works suggested in the Act address causes of chronic poverty like drought, deforestation, soil erosion, etc., so that the process of employment generation is on a sustainable basis.

**Self-Employment—Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY):** Persistent efforts made by the government to fine-tune the self employment programmes
during various Plan periods, especially oriented towards improving the implementation quality, yielded some new concepts that emerged at various times and got consolidated. The need to integrate the cluster approach, capacity building, skill upgradation, infrastructure including marketing development and technology penetration were felt more acutely with every passing year. Emphasis also was necessary to be laid on micro enterprise development with effective forward and backward linkages, so as to ensure best returns on the investment. Therefore, the SGSY was launched with effect from 1 April 1999 to bring the assisted poor families above the poverty line by ensuring appreciable sustained level of income over a period of time. This objective was to be achieved by organizing the rural poor into SHGs through the process of social mobilization, their training and capacity building and provision of income generating assets. The SHG approach helps the poor to build their self-confidence through community action. Group processes and collective decision were to enable them in the identification and prioritization of their needs and resources. This process would ultimately lead to the strengthening and socio-economic empowerment of the rural poor as well as improve their collective bargaining power.

Eleventh Plan strategy for SGSY is to take the best out of what has evolved in the Self Help movement across the country over the last few years and integrate it with the programme. Likewise a few aspects of the SGSY programme that have failed to give the desired results given fresh look and if necessary, dropped. Considering the experiences and lessons learnt from various development projects, the revised SGSY programme should aim at promoting and strengthening member-owned, member-controlled, and member-managed institutions of the poor that enable them to secure sustainable livelihoods and better quality of life. These institutions should provide a wide range of services to their members as per their demand. The revised SGSY should promote and nurture a large cadre of activists and leaders from the poor for providing support services to the institutions of the poor on a sustainable basis. The approach for organizing the poor stems from the conviction that there is an immense desire
and latent capability among the poor to come out of poverty. They have a
tremendous potential to help themselves and the potential of each member can
be harnessed by organizing them. Social mobilization enables the poor to build
their own organizations in which they participate fully and directly and take
decisions on all issues concerning poverty elimination.

VI – Concluding Note:

Historical review of rural development gives us idea not only about different
programmes of past but shows us the whole idea of changing and emerging
concepts, approaches and strategies or its implementation. It becomes clear that
the concept of Rural Development is interwoven in the heritage of Indian culture;
it is as old as mankind. It dates back to seventeenth century with some voluntary efforts the from Quaker movement to freedom movement of India and
other movements like Srinikiten, Martandam, Gurgaon Experiment, Baroda
Experiment. The policies and programmes during and after the period of Gandhiji
are highly influenced about his ideas and philosophy of Sarvodayas, Village
Development, All round Village services, Samagra Gram Seva, Panchayati Raj
and non-violent economy etc. After independence the rural development has
taken shape of well planned professional shape from voluntary kind of approach.
It has become government affair with taking place in planning by planning
commission. The review of first to eleven five year plan gives an idea of the
importance and concern given to rural development. Various programmes and
policies for rural development are introduced. Thus it has been understood that
Rural Development was, is and will going to be a major concern for development
policy, planning and implementation. Volunteered efforts before independence
paved basis for concrete policies for rural development, be it creation of separate
ministry, separate department in planning commission, legal framework, political
will and one of the important national agenda today.