CHAPTER I

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

Review of Literature
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In 50 years of planning in India, eight Five Year Plans and three phases of Annual Plans (1966-69, 78-80 & 90-92) have been enacted. The Ninth Five-Year Plan (1997-2002) is presently going on. In response to requirements of the nation's priority all the successive plans were accorded varied thrust. The First Plan (1951-56), in order to remove the gross imbalances in economy caused by the partition, placed the highest priority on agriculture, including irrigation and power projects. The Second Plan (1956-61) emphasised industrialization to generate employment opportunities outside the farm sector and to remove regional imbalances in industrial development. The Third Plan (1961-66) aimed at self-sustaining growth, hence, it accorded priority to balanced growth of agriculture and industry. The Fourth Plan (1969-74), preceded by three Annual Plans (1966-69), focused on removal of structural and regional imbalances in development. The Fifth Plan (1974-79) laid emphasis on removal of regional imbalances in social infrastructure to raise the level of social development in backward areas. The Sixth Plan (1980-85) focused on the eradication of poverty and employment generation through
integrated rural development programme. The Seventh Plan (1985-90) emphasised local area planning by stressing on democratic decentralisation. The Eighth Plan (1992-97) emphasised on building and strengthening people's institutions and making people active participants within the liberalisation and privatisation framework. The main focus was on population control, environmental protection and infrastructure development. The Ninth Plan (1997-2002) aims at growth with social justice and equity.

Removal of regional imbalances in development has remained the avowed goal of planning in India. Hence, a number of programmes were initiated in different plans for the development of backward areas. During the 1950’s and the early 1960’s Indian planning encouraged a ‘place prosperity’ based regional policy by installing state-owned industrial and service facilities in backward or lagging states (Dutt, 1989, p.193). Defining the entire state as backward/developed cannot be justified. A backward state may have developed pockets and vice-versa.

Identification of backward areas is never an easy task. To overcome the complexity of the task involved, backwardness was seen as associated with certain type of areas, such as hill, tribal and drought prone, during the sixties. It had an unintended fall out. There was an overlapping of some schemes within the same area, implemented by different agencies in isolation (Bhat, 1985, p.317).

The area development programmes, designed for ecologically, socially and strategically sensitive areas such as hill, desert, tribal and border were termed as ‘special area’ programmes. They emphasised the need for a long term strategy for the development of such areas.

Several terms are, however, used interchangeably in literature, including in the Five-Year Plans to denote backward areas. For example, the draft outline of the Fourth Plan refers to such areas as 'Hill and Special Areas' (p. 59), whereas plan draft and final plan of the same plan termed these as 'Special and
Backward Areas', subdividing further into 'Hill and Border Areas', 'Backward Areas', and 'Other Special Areas' (p. 346).

The draft Fifth Plan (1974-79) refers to all such programmes as 'Backward Areas' programmes (pp.282-286). The Sixth Plan (1980-85) lists hill areas, tribal areas, North- Eastern Council and backward areas as the Special Area Programmes (Annexure 4.3, p.57). In the Seventh (1985-90), Eighth (1992-97) and Ninth (1997-2002) Plans, the ecologically, socially and strategically sensitive areas are covered under the Special Area Development Programmes. Other backward areas, such as drought prone, tribal, industrially backward, are placed under the sectoral programmes.

All this indicates to a conceptual ambiguity, which resulted in imprecise identification of and policy formulation for backward areas. On the other hand, academic disciplines also failed to pay due attention to various issues pertaining to backward area development programmes. The geographic aspects of backward area programmes, which are important in their own capacity, have been often overlooked. Issues, such as geographical coverage under various programmes, spatial organisation of administrative frame work for implementing programmes and allocation of development funds at different spatial scales, failed to attract the attention of geographers although all these were essentially spatial in nature.

Review of literature

A perusal of geographic literature shows that there is hardly any systematic interest of geographers in examination of public polices and programmes. Geography has always been shy of policy research for its pre-occupation with themes of areal differentiation. They missed a grand opportunity of interacting with government.

Historically, the former Soviet planners were perhaps the first to recognise the significance of a sound regional development strategy along with inter-
temporal growth strategy. Right from the beginning of planning era, in 1928, in the former USSR reduction of economic disparity among regions and early liquidation of backwardness of various regions were the prime objectives. The removal of backwardness of the Central Asian republics such as Uzbekistan, Tadjekistan, Kirgizia, and Turkmenia was initially attempted (Gidadhubli, 1978, p.43). Since resource mobilisation is one of the problems that backward areas generally face, it was overcome by the Soviet policy of diverting large resources from the central budget to these areas. In addition, resources were also raised within the region. For the speedy economic development of Central Asia, large investments from the central budget were made.

The concern for the development of depressed areas in the United Kingdom has also been documented. In 1934, the British government enacted the Special Area Development and Improvement Act. Barlow Commission Report (1940) has been responsible for attracting the attention of planners, economists and geographers in devising means to identify backward or lagging regions and formulate a strategy to balance regional development in the United Kingdom (Dutt, 1989, p.193).

Backward regions in the United Kingdom are called Development Areas. These are regions designated as areas in need of assistance through ‘positive discrimination’ under UK’s current inter-regional planning policy. They represent the latest in a series of Area-Based Policies favouring those regions of below average economic and social performance. The hope of the late 1920’s of solving severe regional unemployment problems through moving workers to areas where work was available was supplanted in 1934 by efforts to bring work into these depressed regions, then termed ‘special areas’. Important changes have been made in the types and levels of financial and infrastructural assistance, in the terminology, and in the areas covered. From 1947 onwards, the positive incentives have been supplemented by corresponding negative controls, in non-development areas, through the requirement to obtain industrial development certificates and, between 1965
and 1979, office development permits on substantial manufacturing and office projects respectively (Johnston, 1981, p. 80).

Seers (1969, p. 3) stated that poverty will be eliminated much more rapidly if any given rate of economic growth is accompanied by a declining concentration of incomes. He further outlined that while looking at development in a country one must answer as to what has been happening to poverty, unemployment and inequality? If all three of these have declined from high levels, then beyond doubt this has been a period of development for the country concerned.

Ackerman (1975, p. 46) in a study on Argentina refers that education must play an important role in depressed areas. It prepares migrants for better employment in their destination areas, and better enables those who remain to cope with their problems. He also emphasises that knowledge of the location, extent, and economic organisation of problem areas is a pre-requisite for regional development.

Berentsen (1981, pp. 135-36) compared the regional planning policies of Austria and erstwhile East Germany. He states that both nations set their national goals toward the enhancement of ‘people prosperity’. However, additional emphasis was given in Austria for a ‘place prosperity’ in which planning strategies were devised to prior expansion of economic activities in lagging regions. Such ‘place’ emphasis in the planning strategy is partly responsible for greater regional equity in Austria.

Gradus (1983, p. 399) in his study on Israel mentions that reducing spatial disparity with traditional policy instruments such as economic subsidies and incentives is not sufficient. He further states that it is necessary to transfer authority from national functional organisation to local and regional territorial bodies.
Regional inequality is probably concomitant with the process of economic development. Hall (1984, p. 48) in his study on Costa Rica concludes that all countries undergo a similar sequence of spatial evolution.

Backward areas are found both in developed and developing countries. Dutt (1989, p. 194) mentions that the poverty of Appalachia, old industrialised areas of England, the Netherlands’s northern and southern provinces have been documented for uneven regional development. Several policies have been set up to ameliorate their backwardness.

India, which has followed policies identical to those of the United Kingdom, was ideologically inspired from the former Soviet Union. It is perhaps among the first few developing countries that adopted area-based development policies.

A perusal of geographic literature available on the theme reveals that contribution of Indian geographers has been minimal in regional planning. Deshpande (1985, p.332) noted that the planning inputs have been largely decided by the policy makers, administrators and local leaders, without understanding the scale of priorities as envisaged by regional communities, nor of their outlook and ability to accept innovations placed at their disposal under planned expenditure.

Rao (1977, pp. 93-94) indicated that an objective measurement of economic backwardness at the national level is imperative in a federal country not only for the purpose of transferring resources from the federal to the federating states but also to assess their competing claims for additional assistance and/or investment. Without it, individual states develop their own standards for identifying less developed regions. Sometimes these divergent standards may assume serious proportions. She categorically mentions that it becomes imperative on the part of Central Government to develop a dispassionate and objective standard, to identify states/regions, which are lagging behind in socio-economic development.
While reviewing the progress of research in geography during 1964-68, Chatterjee stated that regional geography was not properly attended. Raza (1981) warned of a heavy price that geography is paying for ignoring the spatial dimensions of the development process.

Geography has responded, in a restricted manner though, to the challenge of providing the regional component of planning at different levels. Alam (1984) stated that despite a marked advancement in both quantity and quality of research, Indian geographers, in general, seem to be shy of research on spatial implications of policy decisions. He further mentions that area studies have so far been neglected. Gosal (1989) pointed out that regional and sectoral planning be considered as input while revising the courses of several universities. It reflects his observations on the inadequate coverage of regional component. Bhat (1995) specified that relationship between regional disparities in development and pattern of spatial organisation of economy has not been looked into. Misra (1996) said that we did not venture in the associated field of planning and development.

Ahmad (1998, pp. 2-4), while listing tasks for geographers, made a point for generating model research to bridge the gap between the developed and the under-developed regions of India between the privileged and the lagging sections of our population. He added to warn Indian geographers that geography would be an academic redundancy if its value as a utilitarian discipline is not generally recognised. A positive concern for the ailments of the society should develop among geographers. He pointed out a need for ‘data along the space scale’ on the prevalence of economic inequality.

He stated that Planning Commission depended on economists for evolving even a scheme of agro-climatic regions of India. In regional perspective planning, infrastructural or transport studies conducted by the Planning Commission, geographers rarely figured.
Sundaram (1982) presented a vivid background of ‘Backward Area Development in India—Strategies, Policies and Trends’. He mentions that an increasing perception of the problem of growing regional disparities in the different parts of the country led to the initiation of such programmes. The origin of these programmes, he states, dates back to the discussions in the 7th meeting of the National Development Council. He made a mention of the following seven approaches to the backward area problem in India: (i) The Industrial Incentive Approach, (ii) Relief Works-Resources Based Approach, (iii) The Target Group Approach, (iv) The Approach to Tribal Development, (v) The Approach to Hill Area Development, (vi) The Basic Needs-Oriented Approach, and (vii) The Integrated ‘small area’ based Planning Approach. Drawing lessons from the Indian experience he draws following generalisations: (i) The Indian approach towards these programmes appears to be characterised by three elements: selectivity, specificity or focus and dynamism or flexibility, (ii) An ‘all at once’ approach to the problem has been discarded: indeed such an approach is not feasible, and (iii) Removal of backwardness is not necessarily achieved through lumpy investments alone.

‘Area Development: Trends and Perspectives’ was the theme of the First V.L.S. Prakasa Rao Memorial Lecture (1997) delivered by Sundaram. He deliberated on ‘area development trends in India from 1969-1989’ and commented that the spatial dimensions and area development components in our planning emerged only during the Fourth Plan.

‘Backward Area Development’ was the focal theme of the twentieth Indian Geography Congress, (Dec. 28-30, 1998) held at Gorakhpur, Uttar Pradesh. Three key research issues identified were (i) definition of backwardness and backward areas, identifying indicators of backwardness as well as criteria and methods of delineation of backward areas. (ii) backward area typology in terms of characteristics and problems and priorities to be addressed, (iii) development strategies: policy options and investment packages for their development.
'Backward Area Development: Policies, Strategies and Experiences' was the theme of one of the panel discussions.

Sundaram (1999) in his presidential address entitled ‘sub-national development and under development’, stated that ‘the backward area development strategy adopted in India is one of transition growth, which means initially making a deep dent into the diagnosed critical problem of the area, and gradually enlarging the effort in definite progression, along a development continuum. The transition, he conceived as a time-bound, is a period of identifying the crucial bottlenecks to progress and the barriers to development. To overcome them means must be elaborated in the Plan. To him continuity in policies and acceleration has been sacrificed midway. He outlined that ‘a regressive trend in the pattern of allocation, the take-off stage for backward areas is an illusion and a mirage’. The empathy of central government towards these area-based programmes is an outcome of its occupation with macro-economic adjustments.

Apart from the overall tempo of public investment, what is also critical is the division of resources between backward and developed states and the pattern of investment in the backward regions, since a higher rate of public investment in the underdeveloped regions is an important prerequisite for the reduction of disparities (Chakravarty, 1987; Prasad, 1988).

Moonis Raza had special interest in the development of backward areas, specifically the mountainous regions. He inspired and persuaded a number of his colleagues and students at the Centre for the Study of Regional Development, at Jawaharlal Nehru University to work especially on the problem of mountainous areas and hilly regions. Mountain areas present a special case in regional development and planning due to their distinct spatial characteristics requiring special treatment beyond the standard regional and locational analysis. Mountain perspectives in the literature of International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD), Kathmandu (Nepal),
consists of a set of mountain specificities, namely, inaccessibility, fragility, marginality, diversity, niche and human adoption mechanism.

Raza and Singh (1983, p. 238) argued that the problem of ‘backward’ areas cannot and should not be analysed within the framework of the paradigm of environmental determinism, wherein the low levels of development of backward areas are considered to be essentially the function of environmental constraints. The backwardness of regions should be rather viewed as a component of the system of regional disparities entrenched in the polities that had been brought under the erosive influence of the colonial mechanism.

Development planning in mountain areas will have to rely primarily on a lead sector(s) strategy, specialising in a few sectors and avoiding temptation to develop all conceivable activities (Papola, 1998, p. 30). It is contrary to the conventional notion of self-sufficiency and implies a larger role for trade in goods and services. But this seems essential for the improvement of living standards in the mountains, as insistence on self-sufficiency is likely to condemn them perpetually to poverty. Indigenously - evolved institutional arrangements should be used and strengthened as far as possible by providing modern scientific, technical and management inputs. Agro-climatic zones and sub-zones, and watersheds have been advocated as more suitable planning units. A watershed is a natural geo-hydrological unit incorporating the area from which all surface water flows out naturally through a single channel. It is a naturally defined unit of planning and development and may be demarcated more extensively as a macro-watershed or less extensively as a micro-watershed, according to need (Papola, 1998, pp. 24-43).

Department of Geography of the Sri Venkateshwara University, Tirupati, held a seminar on drought prone areas in 1978. The publication entitled ‘Drought Prone Areas of India’ (Reddy, 1979) has 72 papers covering different aspects of drought prone area programme from conceptual and methodological issues to case studies on different areas. In this volume, B. Arunachalam, (1979, p.
65) in his paper entitled ‘the problem of drought: what can the geographers do?’, highlighted the need for geographers to undertake the task of ‘identifying and documenting drought parameters on an area-base and mapping them so as to identify drought -prone areas of varying magnitude’.

There is limited literature available on industrially backward area programme. It is mainly accessible from the government documents that provide information on various incentive schemes for establishing industries in industrially backward districts/areas. However, the Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy (1987, p. 9.11) has done an excellent job by mapping industrially backward areas in one of its publication. Besides Industrial Finance Corporation of India (1984-85, p. 125) in its publications listed industrially backward districts/areas in accordance to their degree of backwardness. Under a modified scheme, districts were divided into A, B, and C category of industrially backward districts to distribute industrial investment subsidies.

An edited volume emerging out of the proceedings of a seminar on backward area by Nanjundappa and Sinha (1982), touched upon various issues relating to backward areas. However coverage is quite selective and conceptual and methodological issues were not covered. Most of the papers dealt with a specific area or problem.

Most of the literature available does not yield any comprehensive and systematic study of all the programmes. The spatial aspect of our planning in the form of area programmes has surprisingly remained unnoticed.

Some stimulating ideas on backward area programmes in India can be gleaned from the reports submitted by the official Commissions, Committees, Working Groups, Expert Groups and Evaluation Committees constituted by the Government of India, from time to time.
The Planning Commission of India asked the Pande Committee (1968) to identify the industrially backward areas in India. The committee, using a set of six criteria, discussed in the following chapter, identified industrially backward states. It also recommended another set of six indicators to be used for state-wise identification of the industrially backward districts.

In 1971, another committee known as Gidwani Committee was asked to finalise the list of drought prone districts to be covered under Rural Works Programme. In 1973, the Working Group headed by B.S. Minhas recommended the addition of eighteen partially covered districts under the Rural Works Programme for administrative convenience.

For evolving a comprehensive policy for backward area development, the Planning Commission formed a National Committee on Development of Backward Areas (1978). The Committee headed by Sivaraman produced a voluminous report dealing with different types of backwardness. The committee has very comprehensively produced as many as eleven reports. Most of these reports deal with one or the other type of backwardness.

For evaluating various programmes, government of India has established a programme evaluation organisation in the Planning Commission. Of its 173 evaluation reports during 1952-1999, nine pertain to backward area development programme. Table 1.1 provides details of evaluation reports.

It is evidently clear from the preceding review of literature that geographic studies focusing directly on backward area programmes are few. More glaring is the paucity of research publications on mapping of areal coverage under different programmes and the periodic change therein. In Indian geography, concern for this research gap has been voiced from time to time by scholars such as Sundaram (1998), Mehta (1996), Krishan (2000), Bhat (1995), Rao (1970) and Reddy (1979). The response so far has been grossly inadequate and piecemeal. Comprehensive studies on geographic dimensions of backward area programmes are practically missing.
Table 1.1

Backward Area Development Programmes: A Comparison of their Evaluation by Programme Evaluation Organisation, Planning Commission

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation Report on</th>
<th>Commencement Year of the Programme</th>
<th>No. of times Programme Evaluated</th>
<th>Year in which Evaluation initiated</th>
<th>Year in which report submitted</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Concessional Finance and Other Incentives in Industrially Backward Areas.</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>1981</td>
<td>Study was conducted in 1975-76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) Border Area Development Programme</td>
<td>1987</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Compiled from all the reports referred in the table.

The present dissertation views the situation with concern and has ventured to take up the challenge. Selecting national level major backward area programmes for an in-depth analysis, the study intends to look into following questions:

- What has been the major concerns underlying backward area programmes in India?
- How were identification criteria evolved and implemented? Did any change in criteria led to a higher degree of objectivity?
- What has been areal coverage under different programmes? Has there been any overlap in their areal coverage? What was the extent of this overlap?
- What has been the nature and territorial arrangement of institutional framework evolved to implement backward area programmes?
- What has been the basis and agencies evolved in financial allocation for the programmes?
- To what extent these programmes did impact on the socio-economic development of backward areas?
Objectives

The objectives for investigation are:

• to evolve a geographic perspective about the backward area development programmes;

• to evaluate objectively the identification criteria, location and demarcation of areas covered under various area programmes; and

• to assess the spatio-temporal changes in the distribution of plan funds for area programmes, spatial impact of area based policies and programmes, with a sharp focus on those backward areas which remained under the backward area development programme over a long period of time.

Hypotheses

The major hypotheses of this study are:

• Backward area development programmes would have positive effect on the development process in backward areas.

• Backward areas, located nearer to the metropolitan or state capitals, would respond quickly and more positively to area development programmes than areas having peripheral location.

• Backward areas, equipped better with physical and social infrastructure at the initial stage, would respond faster than others lacking this advantage.

• Backward areas, falling within developed states, would respond better than those in backward states.
Data constraints

Most of the data used in this work were collected from Central Government Organisation/Offices including Planning Commission and Central Ministries. In addition, census data were collected from Census of India. Data of two types were needed: data over time and data on space. Data collected presented the following constraints:

1. Comparability of data: Data were difficult to compare. Administrative changes were not considered in most of the cases. If considered, they were not adjusted to the latest administrative units. While analysing data for different time periods, it was essential to render comparability to data. Comparability of space is very important.

2. Inaccuracy in data: It was essential to clean the data supplied by the Government. Different sources gave varying information. At times, were misleading too. For illustration, in the case of Poo block in Kinnaur district covered under Desert Development Programme, population figures were entered in place of area statistics. Such an erroneous information was made available by Ministry of Rural Development, New Delhi.

3. At the sub-district level area figures supplied by the revenue department are non-planimetric. The use of these figures demands an understanding of the hidden meaning in it.

Period of study

The study covers the last 50 years of Indian Planning. The period of study starts from the beginning of the First Five-Year Plan in India i.e. 1951 to 2001 (third year of Ninth Plan). The backward area development programmes were mostly conceived during the Fourth Plan and made operational by the end of this Plan. Hence the period from Fourth Plan to Ninth Plan holds greater significance for this study.
Unit of study

In order to comprehend backward area development programmes in holistic perspective, the study was conducted for the entire country. There were as many as seven programmes. To get a true spatial perspective, it was decided to work at the district level for all the programmes operative at the national level. There were 466 districts in India in 1991. The study takes into account all the 466 districts, for all the programmes, for the entire country and for various time periods (Fig.1).

Methodology

Various secondary sources were consulted and a thorough perusal of the Government reports and documents including Five-Year Plans (*Drafts, Draft Outlines, Draft Proposals, Final Plans, Mid-term Appraisals*) was carried out. The information gathered from all such sources was analysed and processed to give the study a geographic perspective.

In addition, the reports of the *working/study/task* groups set up by the Planning Commission or other government agencies on backward area development were consulted to examine the conceptual underpinnings. The most important committees/working groups in this context are Pande (1968), Wanchoo (1968) Gidwani (1971), Minhas (1973), Sivaraman (1978), Swaminathan (1982), and Hanumantha Rao (1994), etc.

Time-series data available in various census publications, published from Registrar General and Census Commissioner of India, on demographic, social and economic indicators were analysed to assess the impact of the programmes on the socio economic development in backward areas for the periods before and after the initiation of the programme. The development index for two points of time was worked out.
The territorial waters of India extend into the sea to a distance of twelve nautical miles from the appropriate base line.
Statistical information available in the various reports/publications like RBI Bulletin, Report on Currency and Finance, Economic Surveys and publications of the Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy, were collected, classified, tabulated and analysed. Reports of the National Commission on Agriculture (NCA) and the National Committee on the Development of Backward Areas (NCDBA) were also looked into.

Mapping for areal coverage of the programmes, a very useful resource and one of the most important tasks of this research work, was done using requisite cartographic techniques.

Maps have been prepared on the 1991 base map. The task of adjusting the data, previous and the latest was very challenging. In the former, the reorganisation was taken into account. In the latter, the 1991 situation was reconstructed.

Names of many districts changed over time. A complete study of the information on the changes over time in the name of the district is a must. Division of districts changed spatially the size and shape of the district, completely changing the very socio-economic and geographical essence of the district.

Reorganisation of districts raised two problems. One of the reorganised units retains the original name while a new name is given to the other unit. In certain cases both the units are given new names and the older name is no more in use. Any researcher doing a temporal study of this nature has to come to terms with the entire history of partitioning and naming of districts. Without this the comparison and mapping is virtually impossible.
Limitations

It is natural that a study of this magnitude faces a number of problems. The information on the spatial impact of these programmes was not directly available. In such a situation we resorted to indirect methods to deduce conclusions which may not precisely pinpoint the impact of these programmes on the socio-economic development in the backward area.

Nevertheless, this study has tried to overcome these limitations by focussing sharply on areas, which remained under the backward area development programme over a long period. The longer duration was an indicator of the degree of their backwardness.

Organization of the study

The entire study has been organised in six chapters. Chapter one deals with conceptual framework and methodology including the objectives, research questions, major hypothesis, and review of available literature relating to the theme are presented. Finally, the methodology followed in realising the objectives of research work is described. In the second chapter an overview of all the backward area development programmes since the First Plan has been presented. Backward Area Development Programmes have been classified on the basis of nature of backwardness, area covered, period of operation etc.

Third Chapter is thematic in nature. The criteria of identifying areas for individual programmes are discussed at length. The changes in criteria over time have been tabulated and analysed to infer trends. The criteria have been compared both at inter group and inter-programme level.

In the fourth Chapter ‘areal coverage’ has been discussed in terms of individual programmes and time. They have been mapped separately to understand the emerging patterns and trends in coverage.
The areal coverage of backward area development programmes has been mapped together to know the number of programmes operational in a district. It also helps in revealing the types of backwardness a region or a district is suffering from. In addition, overlapping programmes identical in objectives are brought forward.

Areal coverage of all the programmes has been compared within a group over time and through inter-programme. Similarly, comparison among states of the area covered within a programme and within groups of programmes has been attempted.

In the fifth Chapter the institutional and financial aspects of the backward area development programme has been examined. Existing institutional set up or organisational structure at the different levels has been compared. The next section of this chapter deals with the financial outlay. The criteria for funding and changes incorporated because of it besides allocation and expenditure of funds have been discussed for each programme separately and in comparison.

In the sixth Chapter development impact of programmes has been examined. On the basis of suitable socio-economic data for two points of time, the levels of and change in development have been worked out.

Finally, a summary of conclusions has been presented in a separate chapter.

In the end, important annexures are appended, followed by listing of bibliography including the references.