Chapter I
INTRODUCTION
"Sustainable access to microfinance helps to alleviate poverty by generating income, creating jobs, allowing children to go to school, enabling families to obtain health care and empowering people to make the choices that best serve their needs”.


1.1 Introduction

It has been estimated that there are more than five hundred million economically active poor people in the world operating micro enterprises and small businesses. Most of them do not have access to adequate financial services. Microfinance has garnered significant worldwide attention as being a successful tool to meet this substantial demand for financial services by low-income micro entrepreneurs. It has evolved over the past quarter century across India into various operating forms and to a varying degree of success. India now occupies a significant place and a niche in global microfinance through promotion of the self-help groups (SHGs) and the home grown SHG-Bank Linkage (SBL) model. The Indian model offers greater promise and potential to address poverty as it is focused on building social capital through providing access to financial services through linking with the mainstream.

The Self Help Group is considered as a viable organization of the rural poor particularly women, who are the marginalized groups of our society due socio-economic constraints in the rural areas, for delivering micro credit in order to undertake entrepreneurial activities. If adequate self-employment can be generated for women in compatible with their roles in home-keeping, it will help increasing their economic, social and physical well-beings and ultimately free them from the clutches of subjugation. Undoubtedly
necessary vehicle for the purpose is supplied by institution of women SHGs which help improving economic status of women, protecting their relevance to and significance in the society and above all, effectively implementing the employment support practices of the government for women.

1.2 Definitions

1.2.1 Microfinance

The concept of microfinance is not new. Savings and credit groups that have operated for centuries include the "susus" of Ghana, "chit funds" in India, "tandas" in Mexico, "arisan" in Indonesia, "cheetu" in Sri Lanka, "tontines" in West Africa, and "pasanaku" in Bolivia, as well as numerous savings clubs and burial societies found all over the world. Formal credit and savings institutions for the poor have also been around for decades, providing customers who were traditionally neglected by commercial banks a way to obtain financial services through cooperatives and development finance institutions.

Microfinance is the provision of financial services to the economically active poor. Microfinance is a term for the practice of providing financial services, such as micro credit, micro savings or micro insurance to poor people. By helping them to accumulate large sums of money, this expands their choices and reduces the risks they face. Of the three categories of micro finance, namely, micro credit, micro savings and micro insurance, micro insurance is still in experimental stage.

According to Joanna Ledgerwood (1999), microfinance has evolved as an economic development approach intended to benefit low-income women
and men. The term refers to the provision of financial services to low-income clients, including the self-employed. Financial services generally include savings and credit; however, some microfinance organizations also provide insurance and payment services. In addition to financial intermediation, many micro financial institutions provide social intermediation services such as group formation, development of self-confidence and training in financial literacy and management capabilities among members of a group. Thus the definition of microfinance often includes both financial intermediation and social intermediation. Microfinance is not simply banking, it is a development tool. Microfinance activities usually involve small loans, typically for working capital; informal appraisal of borrowers and investments; collateral substitutes, such as group guarantees or compulsory savings; access to repeat and larger loans based on repayment performance; streamlined loan disbursement and monitoring; and secure savings products.

A summit held in Washington in February 1997 to review and issue direction for financing to the poorest people in the underdeveloped countries defined micro-finance as programmes that provide credit for self-employment and other financial and business services to very poor persons. The then World Bank President James Wolfenson mentioned that micro level financial schemes help people to help themselves by starting small income generation projects and business. They are particularly effective way of reaching woman, thereby helping incomes and well-being of their children and families.
Schreiner and Colombet define microfinance as “the attempt to improve access to small deposits and small loans for poor households neglected by banks”. Therefore, microfinance involves the provision of financial services such as savings, loans and insurance to poor people living in both urban and rural settings who are unable to obtain such services from the formal financial sector.

The aim of microfinance according to Otero (1999) is not just about providing capital to the poor to combat poverty on an individual level, it also has a role at an institutional level. It seeks to create institutions that deliver financial services to the poor, who are continuously ignored by the formal banking sector. Poor are generally excluded from the financial services sector of the economy so Micro Financial Institutions (MFIs) have emerged to address this market failure. By addressing this gap in the market in a financially sustainable manner, an MFI can become part of the formal financial system of a country and so can access capital markets to fund their lending portfolios, allowing them to dramatically increase the number of poor people they can reach.

1.2.2 Self Help Groups (SHGs)

NABARD being the principal agent in rural development in India has defined the concept of SHGs as “small, economically homogeneous affinity groups of rural poor, voluntarily formed to save and mutually contribute to a common fund to be lent to its members as per the group members’ decision”. This definition is narrow in the sense that it emphasizes only one
aspect of the functioning of SHGs. Of course, when it was initially given, its objective was to carry on saving and lending activities among its members with a view to promoting and enhancing their economic and social standards.

1.3 Evolution of Micro Finance

The seeds for microfinance in its current form were planted during the period 1950-1980, when small loans were extended to poor borrowers who could not post meaningful collateral. Many organizations, which pioneering this initiative, were ACCION International in Latin America, SEWA Bank in India and the Grameen Bank founded by Muhammad Yunus in Bangladesh. These initiatives demonstrated for the first time that poor borrowers, especially women, were not only willing to take on small scale projects funded by loans, but were also capable of chalking up excellent payment records.

Thus, the roots of microfinance can be found in many places, but the best known story is that of Muhammad Yunus and the founding of Bangladesh’s Grameen Bank. In the middle of the 1970s, Bangladesh was starting down the long road to build a new nation. The challenges were great, say, independence from Pakistan had been won in December 1971 after a fierce war, and two years later widespread flooding brought on a famine that killed tens of thousands. Government surveys found over 80 per cent of the population living in poverty in 1973-1974.

Mohammad Yunus, an economist trained at Vanderbilt University was teaching at Chittagong University in southeast Bangladesh. The famine,
thought, brought him disillusionment with his career as an economics professor. In 1976, Yunus started a series of experiments lending to poor households in the nearby village of Jobra. Even the little money he could lend from his own pocket was enough for villagers to run simple business activities like rice husking and bamboo weaving. Yunus found that borrowers were not only profiting greatly by access to the loans but that they were also repaying reliably, even though the villagers could offer no collateral. Realizing that he could only go so far with his own resources, in 1976 Yunus convinced the Bangladesh Bank, the Central bank of Bangladesh, to help him set up a special branch that catered to the poor of Jobra. The soon spawned another trail project, this time in Tangail in North-Central Bangladesh. Assured that the successes were not flukes or region-specific, Grameen went nation-wide.

One innovation that allowed Grameen to grow explosively was group lending, a mechanism that essentially allows the poor borrowers to act as guarantors for each other. With group lending in place, the bank could quickly growth village by village as funding permitted. And funding – supplied in the early years by the International Fund for Agriculture and Development, the Ford Foundation, and the governments of Bangladesh, Sweden, Norway and the Netherlands – permitted rapid growth indeed. The bank grew by 40 per cent per year at its peak. Today, replications exist in thirty countries, from East Timor to Bosnia. Group lending programmes also operate in thirty of the fifty states in the United States.
Over the period 1980-90s many microfinance institutions began to develop and found sustaining models of lending to the poor; non-governmental organizations (NGOs), non-banking financial institutions (NBFI), rural banks of nationalized banks, and village banks began to develop. In the early stages of evolution, microfinance was largely restricted to loans and was funded by either governments or aid agencies and was thus based on ‘soft capital’. Since the 1990s, microfinance has branched out both in terms of the range of financial and economic services extended, as well as in terms of how capital is raised.

Banks began to access this market in a more significant way that ever before. Financial services ranging from savings deposits, loans, insurance to cover life, health, crop, and properties are currently offered. Many microfinance institutions access capital markets either by issuing equity or debt capital in order to raise capital. There are others who have been able to scrutinize their loans and thus attract capital by issuing micro-credit backed securities. Technological innovations have also placed the evolution of microfinance. The year 2005 was declared as the “Year of Microfinance” and a number of private sector enterprises and foundations have now dedicated pools of capital for exclusive investments in the area of microfinance.

1.4 Micro Finance in India

In the Indian context, the search for supplementary delivery mechanism to provide micro finance started with internal introspection regarding the innovations, which the poor had been traditionally making to
meet their financial service needs. Poor tended to come together in a variety of informal ways for pooling their savings and dispensing small and unsecured loans at varying costs.

Microfinance in India can trace its origins back to the early 1970s when the Self Employed Women’s Association (SEWA) of the state of Gujarat formed an urban cooperative bank, called the Shri Mahila SEWA Sahakari Bank, with the objective of providing banking services to poor women employed in the unorganised sector in Ahmedabad City, Gujarat. The microfinance sector went on to evolve in the 1980s around the concept of SHGs, informal bodies that would provide their clients with much-needed savings and credit services. From humble beginnings, the sector has grown significantly over the years to become a multi-billion dollar industry, with bodies such as the Small Industries Development Bank of India and the National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development devoting significant financial resources to microfinance.

In India, institutional credit agencies (banks) made an entry in rural areas initially to provide an alternative to the rural money lenders who provided credit support, but not without exploiting the rural poor. There are three main factors that count to the bringing up of Microfinance as a Policy in India. The first of these pivotal events was Indira Gandhi’s bank nationalization drive launched in 1969 which required commercial banks to open rural branches resulting in a 15.2 per cent increase in rural bank branches in India between 1973 and 1985. The second national policy that has had a significant impact on the evolution of India’s banking and
financial system is the Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP) introduced in 1978 and designed to be ‘a direct instrument for attacking India’s rural poverty.’ The last major event which impacted the financial and banking system in India was the liberalization of India’s financial system in the 1990s characterized by a series of structural adjustments and financial policy reforms initiated by the Reserve Bank of India (RBI).

The systems and procedures of banking institutions was emphasizing on complicated qualifying requirements, tangible collateral, margin, etc., that resulted in a large section of the rural poor shying away from the formal banking sector. The banks too experienced that the rapid expansion of branch network was not contributing to an increasing volume of business to meet high transaction costs and risk provisioning, which even threatened the viability of banking institutions and sustainability of their operations. At the same time, it was not possible for them to allow a population of close to 300 million - even if poor - to remain outside the fold of its business. The search for an alternative mechanism for catering to the financial service needs of the poor was thus becoming imperative.

The pioneering efforts at this were made by National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD), which was given the tasks of framing appropriate policy for rural credit, provision of technical assistance backed liquidity support to banks, supervision of rural credit institutions and other development initiatives. In the early 1980s, the Government of India launched the Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP), a large poverty alleviation credit program, which provided government subsidized
credit through banks to the poor. It was aimed that the poor would be able to use the inexpensive credit to finance themselves over the poverty line. Also during this time, NABARD conducted a series of research studies independently and in association with MYRADA, a leading non-governmental organization (NGO) from Southern India, which showed that despite having a wide network of rural bank branches servicing the rural poor, a very large number of the poorest of the poor continued to remain outside the fold of the formal banking system.

In 1999, the Government of India merged various credit programs together, refined them and launched a new programme called Swaranjayanti Gram Swarazagar Yojana (SGSY). The mandate of SGSY is to continue to provide subsidized credit to the poor through the banking sector to generate self-employment through a self-help group approach and the program has grown to an enormous size. Today, Self-Help Groups and MFIs are the two dominant form of microfinance in India. Microfinance in India is currently being provided by three sectors: the government, the private sector and charities. These three sectors, as large as they are, have only a small fraction of the capital and geographic scale required to meet the overwhelming need for finance amongst India’s rural poor. The major form of microfinance in India is that based on women’s Self Help Groups (SHGs). The present study focuses on the microfinancing through SHGs.
1.5 Emergence of the SHG Movement

While no definitive date has been determined for the actual conception and propagation of SHGs, the practice of small groups of rural and urban people banding together to form a savings and credit organization is well established in India. In the early stages, NGOs played a pivotal role in innovating the SHG model and in implementing the model to develop the process fully. In the 1980s, policy makers took notice and worked with development organizations and bankers to discuss the possibility of promoting these savings and credit groups. Their efforts and the simplicity of SHGs helped to spread the movement across the country. State governments established revolving loan funds which were used to fund SHGs. By the 1990s, SHGs were viewed by state governments and NGOs to be more than just a financial intermediation but as a common interest group, working on other concerns as well.

People below poverty line mostly women voluntarily join SHGs as members. In recent time, both the number of SHGs and their membership is constantly increasing in India. They not only engage themselves in saving and credit (investment) activities which are commonly believed to be the functions of SHGs but also in some other more socially and economically desirable activities like income generation, environmental conservation, literacy, child care and nutrition. The SHG system is designed so as to be effective in empowering the rural women below poverty line.
The Indian society itself is another factor at work to promote the formation of WSHGs. In India poor and less educated women are, on an average, less mobile than men. Under the pressing needs, a man can shift himself to another place in search of jobs which is unlikely/very difficult to happen for women even though it is equally required for the latter. It is not that the women have ability and willingness to do so. Since in India, all the responsibilities of childcare and household managements are entrusted with women and a lot of stigma is attached to women’s migration, it becomes impossible on their parts to shift to another place in search of jobs. WSHGs provide opportunities to women in poverty to work and earn in compatible with their role in childcare, home-keeping and meeting several other social obligations, thereby act as the agents of poverty alleviation without having compromised with the roles of women in a conservative Indian rural society. Any action programme designed for the upliftment of women particularly rural women if pays no attention to their belief tradition and religious feelings, will have to be futile. To this extent, WSHGs are novel and unique invention of recent time.

1.6 Organization and Function of Self Help Group

Generally, SHGs are promoted by banks, NGOs, government departments, other institutions and these are called the Self Help Promoting Institutions (SHPIs). These SHPIs get the members together, explain and advise about formation and functioning of the groups, help them to form rules and regulations and in the training of group leaders, teach them simple accounting procedures and generally see to it that after a time the
members would be able to manage the SHGs themselves. The Self Help Group generally has members not exceeding 20 and each group selects among its members one leader. The group members save a regular amount. The group rotates the money to the needy members for various purposes at a specified interest rate. As the repayment is cent per cent and the recycling is very fast the savings amount increases faster owing to the accumulation of income from interest. Saving habit helps the members to escape from the clutches of moneylenders. Saving habit paves the way for the empowerment of women and builds confidence in them that they can stand on their own feet. After the group stabilizes over a period of six months or more in the management of its own funds, it conducts regular meetings/maintain savings and give loans to members on interest. The SHGs are being linked with the banks for the external credit under the projects of rural development.

The borrowers repay the banks loan properly. They remit the loan dues to the animator at group meetings and animator repays the same to the bank. The SHGs repay more than 90 per cent loans of the banks in time in contrast to less than 35 per cent of repayment under IRDP. Besides focusing on entrepreneurial development and empowering women, SHGs concentrate on all round development of the beneficiaries and their village as a whole. The group undertakes the responsibility of delivering non credit services such as literacy, health and environmental issues.
1.7 SHG-Bank Linkage Programme

SHG-Bank Linkage Model (SHG-BLM) is developed in India to provide microfinance with the help of vast rural network of the formal financial sector. In this model, the informal SHGs are credit linked with the formal financial institutions. The SHG-BLM has emerged as a dominant model in terms of number of borrowers and loans outstanding. This model is flexible, independence creating, and imparts freedom of saving and borrowing according to the requirements of group members. SHG-Bank Linkage programme, developed and managed by NABARD, allows SHGs to obtain loans from banks – commercial, rural, and cooperative banks. The banks lend to the SHGs and are eligible for NABARD refinance for these loans at a subsidized interest rate. The program, started in 1992 as a pilot project and upgraded to a regular banking program in 1996, has expanded rapidly since then. NABARD’s refinance has however been falling in proportion – possibly because of the prevailing low interest rates, high level of liquidity in banks, and not the least, because of the banks starting to see the program as a profitable proposition.

On the basis of the modes of formation and nurturing, SHGs are basically categorized into three models, mentioned as follows:

**Model I: SHGs formed and financed by banks**

In this model, the bank itself acts as a Self-Help Group Promoting Institution (SHPI). Banks themselves take up the work of forming the groups, nurturing them over a period time, opening their saving accounts
and providing loans to them after satisfying itself about their maturity to absorb credit.

**Model II: SHGs formed by formal agencies other than banks, but directly financed by banks**

In this model, groups are formed by facilitating agencies like NGOs, government agencies, or other community-based organizations. They facilitate organizing, forming and nurturing of groups and train them in thrift and credit management. Banks give loans directly to these SHGs. A large number of NGOs are actively participating under this model and also the State governments through their development agencies like the DRDA, DWDA and some of the centrally sponsored social sector missions are involving. Among the three models, this model is popular.
Model III: SHGs financed by banks through NGOs and other agencies as financial intermediaries

In some parts of the county, banks are not in a position to even finance SHGs promoted and nurtured by other agencies due to various reasons. In order to overcome the constraints of formal banking system, the NGOs are encouraged to approach a suitable bank for bulk loan assistance. This, in turn, is used by the NGO for lending to the SHGs. Thus, the NGOs act as both facilitators and Micro Finance Intermediaries (MFIs) in such cases. Banks finance these federations who in turn finance their member SHGs. Other agencies like NBFCs are also coming up to take up this role.

1.8 Income generating activities of the Self Help Groups

There are three types of situations in which the poor members of SHGs may take up economic activity - (i) They may take up individual activities like farming, animal husbandry, artisan work, petty trade, wage labour, etc.; (ii) They may also come together to own common investments like a common well, agro-service centre, etc.; and (iii) They may also take up joint activities like social forestry with joint responsibility and involvement to generate employment to earn livelihood.
1.9 Operational inconsistencies in the functioning of the SHGs

There are some operational inconsistencies in the functioning of the Self-Help Groups in India. The concept of 'self-help group' is not a generic term. It refers only to the groups formed by people particularly 'women below poverty line'. The policies in respect of the formation of WSHGs emphasize the inclusion of the poorest of the poor in WSHGs. The inconsistency arises on account of their failure to draw members from the poorest section of the rural society in spite of the specific guidelines of the government. For most of the WSHGs/ some members are seen to have come from financially well-to-do influential families and in fact, they control the mode of operation and finance of these WSHGs. Certain factors contribute to the exclusion/omission of the poorest of the poor from the constitution of WSHGs.

Rural sector of the Indian economy is exposed to a lot of prejudices and blind belief. Of these prejudices, the one resulting from casteism is more extreme in its repercussions. In some cases, the poor and marginalized women belonging to the so-called lower strata (castes) are not taken in WSHGs for the reason that others may resent to work with them. Since the success of WSHGs depends on collective actions of the members, in the event of their inclusion, a lot of chasms may develop among them leading to ultimate break down of the Group.

Among the economic factors which compel the omission or exclusion of the poorest of the poor from the formation of WSHGs is their poverty. Persons, particularly rural women in poverty are worst disadvantageously
situated. Since they have no means of their own or of their families, it becomes impossible on their parts to pay their usual shares to the formation of WSHGs at the initial stage. This not only hurts the sentiment and feelings of the concerned members but causes embarrassment to other members leading to the former's omission.

Sometimes the facilitators and promoters like GOs and NGOs deliberately keep away women below poverty line from the formation of WSHGs. They feel that these women are difficult to be convinced and brought into mainstream activities. The bias also results from the other side. These women also feel that in the event of their joining the Group, they may not be allowed status at par with others for their poverty and therefore, they keep themselves away from such collective venture to alleviate poverty and underdevelopment.

The continuation of such operational inconsistencies in the formation of WSHGs will not only be unable to alleviate poverty from the rural segment of the economy but also prohibit the attainment of women empowerment through SHGs—the latter being the all-cherished objective of the scheme. It should be noted though that the sustainability of SHGs to effect such change is directly linked to their financial sustainability. While this latter issue was not the intended focus on the report, any external intervention to SHGs should bear this issue in mind.

1.10 Need for the study

Rural women’s contribution to the economy is quite significant. Over 80 per cent of the working women in rural areas are engaged in agriculture
and allied activities. They usually perform drudgery prone activities and do not get equal wages with male workers. Given a chance women agricultural workers prefer to take up alternate economic activities. The government is also laying stress on empowering rural women by identifying alternate economic activities. SHGs are playing an important role in optimization of natural and human resources through people’s participation.

Over a period of time, SHG-Bank linkage has become the dominant mode of microfinance in India and has been successful in encouraging significant savings and high repayment rates. However, the point of concern is about the continued stability and integrity of the movement. The success of the SHG-Bank Linkage model depends critically on the tasks of promoting, nurturing, strengthening and monitoring SHGs. SHGs require a large amount of pre and post lending monitoring. Most critical is the issue of sustainability of the SHGs; many are dependent on the promoter organizations for even routine tasks such as maintenance of account books and conducting of meetings where transactions take place. Others operate at a low equilibrium of low savings and low credit that is unlikely to contribute significantly to improving the lives of SHG members.

It is however a point of concern that the success lies in the regularity in the flow of finance on the one hand and availability of ready markets for their products on the other. Proper monitoring and supervision of the income generating activities and utilization of credit is necessary. Further, the success of the scheme lies in the choice of viable income-generating activities by women SHGs. Women SHGs do not find ready takers for their
products. Market accessibility is not the only problem. All members in the group may not have entrepreneurial ability and potentially to run income generating activities. Furthermore, an important aspect of successful functioning of SHGs is appropriate maintenance of records, the membership register, cash book, loan ledger, the members pass book, etc. These records ensure proper understanding amongst members about their savings, repayments, dues, etc.

SHGs should adhere to organizational practices such as proper maintenance of accounts, regular group meetings and good loan-repayment performance on internal lending for their sustainability in the long run. So many studies have been conducted so far to evaluate the impact of the Self-help Groups on the empowerment of women. Further, there is a need to take a critical look at the general as well as financial management practices of the Self Help Groups besides various income generating activities taken up by them.

Furthermore, although the word *finance* is in the term microfinance and the core elements of microfinance are those of the finance discipline, microfinance has yet to break into the mainstream or entrepreneurial finance literature. There are indeed various issues like management practices, management of income generating activities, marketing of products and impact assessment, which needs to be addressed. No comprehensive study is conducted in this direction so far. Hence, the present study is taken up in this direction to fill the gap in the existing literature.
1.11 Objectives of the Study

Keeping in view of the importance of the study, the objectives of the present study are as follows:

1. To analyze the progress of SHG-Bank Linkage Programme in India and Andhra Pradesh
2. To examine the socio-economic characteristics of the sample respondents.
3. To examine the profile of the sample Self-Help Groups.
4. To analyze general as well financial management practices of the sample SHGs
5. To portrait the management of economic activity by the sample women.
6. To find the perceptions of the sample respondents on the impact of the SHGs
7. To study strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the sample respondents in microfinance management.
8. To offer suggestions to improve the working of the Self-Help Groups.

1.12 Methodology

The study uses both primary data and secondary data. Multi-stage random sampling method is used for the present study to collect primary data. Krishna district being the native district of the scholar was purposively chosen for the present study. At the next level, six mandals are selected randomly. In the later stage, five villages from each of the selected Mandal are purposively selected. From each village, 10 SHG members, who are engaged in income generating activities, are selected randomly. Thus, the total sample size is 300. Primary data was collected from the 300 sample respondents using pre-tested questionnaire. It is found from the pre-survey
that only a very limited number of SHGs are running income generating activities in practice in each of the villages.

Secondary data was collected from books, journals, articles, internet and from various reports such as reports of NABARD, National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD), BASIX, CARE, Andhra Pradesh Mahila Abhivruddhi Society (APMAS), Society for Elimination of Rural Poverty (SERP), Andhra Pradesh Rural Livelihoods Project (APRLP), Andhra Pradesh Academy of Rural Development (APARD), Centre for Economics and Social Sciences (CESS), Council for Social Development (CSD), Department of Women Empowerment & Self Employment (WE & SE), District Rural Development Authorities (DRDAs), NSSO data, various Census reports, Statistical Abstract of Andhra Pradesh, etc.

The important variables were formulated and the relevant data collected from the field were coded and analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) software. Cross tables were drawn for analyzing the data. Substantial part of the thesis is based on tabular analysis. Suitable and appropriate statistical tools such as percentages were used. Graphical presentation is also made wherever necessary. Test of significance of the data was carried out using Chi-square test. Chi-square test results are analyzed as detailed below.

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<td>&lt; 0.001</td>
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DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE RESPONDENTS

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<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>300</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.13 Organization of the Study

The study is organized into ten chapters. Chapter I gives introduction. Review of literature is presented in Chapter II. A profile of the study area is provided in Chapter III. Chapter IV analyzes the progress of SHG-Bank linkage programme in India and Andhra Pradesh. Chapter V deals with the socio-economic conditions of the sample respondents.
Management practices of the sample SHGs is explained in Chapter VI. Chapter VII portraits the management of income generating activities by the sample respondents. Perceptions of the sample respondents on the impact of SHGs is analyzed in Chapter VIII. SWOT analysis of sample respondents is presented in Chapter IX. Chapter X provides appraisal of strengths and weakness of the sample Last Chapter gives summary, conclusion and suggestions.
References


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