REVIEW OF LITERATURE
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The Review of Literature pertaining to the study on "Motivating Rural Poor for Better Family Living", is discussed under the following headings:

A. Perspectives of rural development in India
B. Poverty alleviation efforts in rural India
C. Motivating the rural poor for Better Family Living (BFL)
and D. Research studies related to BFL.

A. Perspectives of Rural Development in India:

The literature relevant to 'Perspectives of rural development in India", is discussed under the following headings:

1. Poverty and causes of poverty
2. Strategies for removing poverty
3. Indicators of development
4. Rural development

1. Poverty and causes of poverty

Poverty and causes of poverty is discussed as follows:

a) The rural poor and
b) The causes of poverty
a) The rural poor

Poverty in India is a stark reality. The diabolic consequences of poverty manifest themselves in many forms - malnutrition, disease and death (Mohsin, 1988).

The poor, by definition, are those who have no risk taking capacity while any technology or innovation has inherently some element of risk. This is the first hurdle. Secondly, any step up operation requires some viable infrastructure to support it. The more sophisticated the technique, the qualitatively greater support it requires (Kumar, 1989).

A large majority of the poor are mostly confined to the rural areas. The Planning Commission's Report (1988) estimates that 254.9 million people in the rural areas were below the poverty line in 1980-81, and that the number came down to 222.5 million in 1983-84. The villages in Tamil Nadu account for eight per cent of this number, that is, 18 million, not a negligible proportion.

Poverty can be defined as a social phenomenon in which a section of the society is unable to fulfil even its basic necessities of life. When a substantial segment of a society is deprived of the minimum level of living the societies can be said to be plagued with mass poverty (Reddy, 1988).

Poverty is conventionally defined as inadequacy of income to sustain a minimum nutritional standard such as a
daily intake of 2,400 calories and 50 grams of protein per head per day at the lowest cost. Poverty can be defined as a condition of families that reflects deprivation not only in nutrition but also in health, education, clothing and opportunities for women to acquire independent status (Ganesan, 1985). Dhingra (1982) defines poverty as the situation in which an individual fails to earn that much income which may be sufficient to buy the means of subsistence.

'Poverty line' has been defined as per capita consumption of less than Rs.20 per month at 1960-61 prices. According to the present day prices, as Mohsin (1988) has pointed out the figure will have to be multiplied by a factor of about 1.8. This comes to Rs. 37 per head per month. In 1977-78, two fifths to one half of the country's population were living below the poverty line. This indeed is a huge number, making India a land of vast poverty with a few patches of prosperity here and there (Rao, 1985).

The Planning Commission (1975) has defined poverty line on the basis of the recommended nutritional intake of 2400 calories per person per day for urban areas. On this basis, in rupee terms, the poverty line works out at Rs. 76 per head per month for the rural areas and Rs. 88 in the urban areas.

The classes of people who fall below the poverty line, include disabled or physically handicapped or unemployed,
and the tribals, who have not yet been drawn into the main streams of development. Numerically the largest proportion of the rural poor are the agricultural labourers and the marginal farmers owning less than five acres of land. Nearly half of the rural poor are no small and marginal farmers (Ghosh, 1974).

b) Causes of poverty

The causes of poverty are many:

i) under development, because of which, the levels of the national and per capita incomes are low in the Indian economy.

ii) Rapid growth of population: When the income has to be divided among too many people, the per capita income is bound to be low, and hence the total national income is thinly spread over a large number of people.

iii) Low agricultural productivity appears to be the main cause of poverty. A vast majority of the Indian population draw their sustenance from agriculture.

iv) Oppressive land system has been responsible for poverty in India. Even after the abolition of the Zamindari system, tenancy system prevails over an extensive area.

v) Unemployment and underemployment are important causes of poverty. Most of the small, marginal farmers and landless agricultural labourers suffer from disguised unemployment.

vi) Inequality in the distribution of national income has also been a major cause of mass poverty (Dhingra, 1982).
2. **Strategies for removing poverty:**

Since Independence, several strategies have been tried to remove poverty. They are:

a) The expansion in employment opportunities through labour-intensive agriculture and village and small-scale industries.

b) Extending or building up capital assets and infrastructure facilities for agriculture to help in raising agricultural productivity.

c) Higher priority to irrigation and multiple cropping to generate substantial employment opportunities.

d) Helping the landless labour to obtain land to be able to employ themselves and produce subsistence for themselves.

e) Rural industries, with their small scale and simple technology offer much larger opportunities for employment.

f) Tax concessions and subsidies to industries which employ more labour.

g) Intensifying its family planning campaigns to ensure that measures suggested/launched for the removal of poverty, succeed (Dewett and Varma, 1988).

3. **Indicators of development:**

Indicators of development are discussed under the following heads:

a) Meaning of development indicators

b) Types of indicators and

c) Indicators at different levels
a) Meaning of development indicators

Misra and Bhooshan (1981) view that, development is a matter concerning the transformation of man and his environment in the direction of a more secure future. The approach to development should not only promote rapid socio-economic changes in the rural settings, but also be in conformity with, and promote this emerging style of development.

Singh (1975) states that, development is as much a process of building a nation as raising the levels of living of all segments of the society. Viewed in this manner, development is not an end itself but a means and which calls for a reconstruction of existing relationship for all round development of the society.

Miles (1985) puts forth that an indicator is a guide of human concern. The definition of the indicators for development issues are multidimensional. An indicator can only indicate how a particular issue is structured or changing, but not capture or represent its totality. In this context, Venugopalan (1985) is of the view that the quality of life in an organised community or society, comprises the quality of lives of the individuals who compose it. Changes sought by, and given policy direction for transforming the society into a more desirable society, are generally resisted by religious, political and social factors which thus act as barriers to change.
b) Types of indicators

While studying the overall socio-economic condition of people Mukherji and Varma (1987) have developed the following four broad categories of indicators:

i) Social indicators
   ii) Economic indicators
   iii) Agricultural development indicators and
   iv) Rural development indicators

i) Social indicators:

Goodstein et al. (1982) explain that, social indicators are the aggregate measures of the well-being of a society and its citizens. Two types of measures are distinguished: objective indicators which were defined as aggregate measures of community characteristics typically taken from official documents and data. Subjective indicators defined as personal assessments of condition of life, usually gathered by means of direct interviews.

According to Mukherji and Varma (1987), social indicators include a number of factors which may overlap such as caste and class, rural and urban background, marital status, family size and occupation.

In the views of Mario (1981) and Mukherji (1988), the uses of social indicators are: to indicate something beyond its constituent properties, to eliminate inequalities and
to present a "good statistic", to monitor a planned programme.

ii) Economic indicators

Economic indicators include:

- Income
- Nature and type of expenditure
- Service orientation and
- Government aid

Sharma (1976) claims that, the principal indicators of economic growth are the rates of increase of GNP and per capita, GNP, together with separate estimates of the rates of growth of the two major goods producing sectors namely, agriculture and industry.

Rao (1984) had listed some socio-economic indicators and their major goals as controlling the population growth through faster reduction of birth rates. The reduction is to be achieved by both rates in improving the health and nutritional status of children in terms of prolongation of life through controlling mortality and prevention and cure of diseases. This must be along with improving housing and environmental conditions through provision of homes to the homeless, safe drinking water, sanitary facilities and electricity. Improvement of the efficiency of the educational system and eradication of illiteracy, and maximisation of employment, minimising unemployment and under employment and provision of equal opportunities are the other goals.
iii) **Agricultural development indicators**

Bhadouria and Dua (1986) have categorised the agricultural development indicators in terms of value of agricultural produce per hectare of area sown, per hectare consumption of fertilizers, percentage of area under high yielding varieties and net irrigated area as percentage of net area sown.

iv) **Rural development indicators**

Muthiayya (1977) and Parida (1988) point out that, social participation, occupation and caste, health status, nutritional status, family size and number of children attending school, access to medical care, mobility rate, material possession, landholding, income, total value of assets and mass media contact are the indicators of rural levels of living.

c) **Indicators at different levels**

Indicators are for three levels: social, community and individual. The indicators of development identified at the social level by Sharma (1986) are economic growth, industrialisation, urbanization, literacy rate, employment status, agricultural development, health status, improved means of communication, technological advancement, development of art and culture, scientific and rational outlook of people, stable political institutions and legitimization of social action appropriate to the need structure of the people.
At the community level, development could be visualised in terms of the mobility of the groups in the social hierarchy, their standard of living, their involvement and participation in community activities, increase in employment opportunities, provision of infrastructural amenities and development of basic industries.

Charles (1988) points out that, development at the individual level is reflected by a more rational or scientific outlook, attitudes, values and norms conducive to modernization of groups or communities, promotion of a healthier and longer life and assurance of people's right and ability to have the number of children they desire. These are important elements also in economic and social development. Mahatma Gandhi called for improvements in nutrition, public sanitation and sewage facilities as well as adequate drinking water supplies.

4. Rural development:

Rural development involves, developing the rural economy so as to raise the standard of living of the rural people who are poor and require upliftment (Mohsin, 1985). Singh (1985) expresses that the fundamental aim of rural development is to evoke local interest and initiative to make the people "Development minded", through the efforts of the people themselves. Thus, people's participation and involvement as citizens in initiating, planning and executing rural development schemes is the core of the programme.
Sahaya (1985) holds that, the objective of rural development is to raise the standard of living of the people living in the rural areas particularly of the vast multitudes of people who by force of circumstances are living below the poverty line. The main features of rural development would therefore, be improving the living standards, mobilising mass participation and utilising the existing resources effectively (Chaturvedi, 1980). Chowdhry (1978) has pointed out that, rural development has considerable importance in India, because of the following reasons:

Three-fourth of India's population live in the rural areas with agriculture as the main occupation and half of the country's national income is derived from agriculture.

Seventy per cent of India's rural population get employment through agriculture.

Bulk of the raw materials for industries come from agriculture and rural sector.

Increase in industrial production can be justified only if rural population's motivation and purchasing power to buy goods can be increased and

Stable agriculture economy alone can help in stability of prices of industrial goods.

Singh and Surajpal (1987) point out two approaches to rural development: growth centre approach and cluster approach. Growth centre approach, centres around the selection of central villages as nodal points in regional space. Provision of a package of functions to central villages along with the development programmes are expected to generate the nodal points, which, in turn, will generate development impulses.
in their hinterland. The cluster approach advocates that, single village cannot be made units for integrated rural development, and hence a group of villages are to be developed with infrastructural inputs.

In an integrated rural area development framework, consideration is made of land type, land use, settlement structure (urban and rural), social and economic infrastructure and services analysing their relationship, both existing and projected, with a view to evolving a planning process and strategy which could improve upon socio-economic life of people (Sharma, 1977). According to Misra (1976), Khan (1976) and Henedero (1978) the approach to development means change, and one individual alone cannot effect changes in the villages. Change to be meaningful, must be understood and adopted to the demands of the situation and by all. Therefore people's participation is a necessary precondition for the successful implementation of the rural development programme. The process of people's development is not likely to take deep roots unless the target group is part of the process. People's participation is a means of reducing power differences by contributing to equalisation and social justice (Gangrade, 1984 and Dal, 1987).

The success of any rural development programme depends upon the involvement of the people in its implementation. People accept changes only when they help to improve their quality of life. If the change reduces expenses and the amount
of labour, people welcome it. Changing the attitude of the 
villages is difficult, but once they realise the usefulness 
of the new ways of doing things, they will voluntarily adopt 
them in their day to day life (Markaband, 1987).

People's contribution has to be brought about by pervasive influences and not by any other means since voluntary effort is the basis of the programme. People show enthusiasm for participation when an understanding, that the programme is ultimately meant for their benefit, is created and demonstrated (Pinto, 1979, and Prasad, 1980).

B. Poverty Alleviation Efforts in Rural India:

The literature pertaining to poverty alleviation efforts is reviewed and discussed under the following headings:

1. Early experiments in rural India (1920-1951).
2. Community Development Programme (1952).
1. Early Experiments in rural India (1920-1961):

Poverty with reference to a country may be defined as a social phenomenon in which a section of the society is unable to fulfill even its basic necessities. It is the worst curse of an individual or a nation. It suppresses all human virtues. Life loses all its charm and dignity when poverty sets in (Kulandaivel, 1975 and Madan, 1983).

India cannot boast of any development unless she develops her villages where 80 per cent of her population live. The decade 1921-30 was very fertile from the viewpoint of early pioneering efforts on rural reconstruction. Sriniketan (1921) and Marthandam (1921) emerged as centres of rural reconstruction, as also Brayne's Gurgaon experiment. Mahamta Gandhi started the constructive programme of rural reconstruction first at Sevagram in 1920 and at Wardha in 1928. The rural reconstruction project in Baroda (1932), the Pirka Development Scheme introduced in Madras State in 1946, the Etawah Pilot Project in Uttar Pradesh (1948), Nilokheri Experiment (1948) and Bhooman Movement (1951) were the other experiments in the field.

The Gandhian philosophy of the village, being the nerve
centre of the people's universe, gave shape and commitment to a new programme called Community Development with the village as the nodal point. This programme in India began in 1952 with intensive work in 55 projects each consisting of around 300 villages. This was followed by the National Extension Service phase. Based on the experience of Community Projects and the National Extension Service, the entire country was covered with around 5,000 Community Development Blocks by the year 1958.

Based on the recommendation of the Balwanthrai Mehta Committee the programme took a new turn and Panchayati Raj was born in 1959 with the three tier structure of local self government which has come to stay.

During the Fifth Plan (1974-79), the Minimum Needs Programme was introduced with focus not only on agriculture but also on elementary education, drinking water, roads, rural housing and rural electrification. The National Commission on Agriculture recommended the adoption of a holistic approach to development to increase the growth potential of the villages, through a package of practices such as consolidation of holdings, maximising water use and irrigation support and a suitable cropping programme. The programme was called 'Whole Village Development Programme'. Agricultural Universities and Krishi Vigyan Kendras have been set up to speed up research and integrate the same with teaching and extension.
Special programmes for women and children have also been initiated from time to time, the chief among them being the Applied Nutrition Programme (ANP) to alleviate malnutrition among the vulnerable groups, the Integrated Child Development Services Programme (ICDS) and several socio-economic and welfare programmes of the Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB) (Sharma and Malhotra, 1977 and Shah, 1977).

Since 1950-51 to 1984-85, the country has passed through Six Five Year Plans and three Annual Plans from 1966-67 to 1968-69. Besides, the Government of India has already introduced two sets of Twenty Point Programmes in order to bring about socio-economic development (Sharma, 1985).

The major goal of all these efforts is to remove poverty and create fuller employment. The new Twenty Point Programme of 1983 is the cutting edge of the plan for the poor. The programme has been restructured in the light of the achievements and experiences and the objectives of the Seventh Plan, namely, eradicating poverty, raising productivity, reducing income inequalities and improving the quality of life (Chowdhry, 1986).

2. Community Development Programme (1952):

The Community Development Programme was launched in the year 1952 by the central government with 55 projects. At that time, a project was chosen as the administrative unit
and covered three hundred villages and a population of about 2,00,000. The philosophy behind the Community Development Programme was that of developing a culture of initiative, drive and entrepreneurship among the rural population. Self help and self-reliance were the touchstones for its success. People's participation was sought for implementing the Community Development Programme in many ways (Bhatt, 1988). Initially the Community Development Programme was taken up on a pilot basis in a few selected areas and later extended in stages covering the entire country by 1963. Today, the Community Development programme is administered and implemented through the set up of Community Development Block, each with a specific number of various categories of extension functionaries. This development team at the Block level is headed by a Block Development Officer (Bhatt, 1988).

Shriram (1985), Chowdhry (1978) and Tones and Wiggle (1987) enumerate the objectives of the Community Development Programme as:

- Achievement of increased production by the application of scientific knowledge to agriculture, animal husbandry and cottage industries which are the main rural occupations.

- Provision of more living amenities through the efforts of the concerned communities by making them devote their unutilized energies and sparetime

- Provision of opportunities for full employment to the under and unemployed population and

- Development of self-reliant and harmonious village communities.
Bhatt (1988) expresses the functions of Community Development Programme as to:

- educate the villagers regarding the technological and social changes taking place in the country and the rural scenario,
- mobilise local support for the various projects,
- identify opinion leaders and utilise them as 'change agents',
- provide extension services at grass root level,
- create a culture of 'independence', 'selfhelp' and 'self reliance' amongst the rural population and securing 'their' participation in rural development programme,
- motivate them to take to 'new idea' both at the technical and social level,
- develop local leadership and self governing agencies.

3. Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP) 1970:

The DPAP formerly known as Rural Works Programme was initiated in 1970-71 as a non-central sector scheme with the objectives of reducing the severity of the impact of drought; stabilising the income of people, particularly the weaker sections of the society and restoration of the ecological balance. Quick growing species of trees are being planted. New plantations have been raised on 0.16 million hectares. Another 50,000 hectares have been covered by forests recently. The forests are meant to provide fuel and fodder.

The DPAP has the following components:

- Development and management of water resources.
Soil and moisture conservation measures.
Development of pasture lands and range management in conjunction with development of cheap industry.
Live stock development and dairy development.
Use of improved seeds and fertilisers.
Cultivation of drought resistant plants and Development of subsidiary occupations (India, 1986).

4. Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) 1976:

The literature available in IRDP is reviewed under the following heads:

a) Concept and objectives of the IRDP,
b) Operational details,
c) Achievements of IRDP,
d) IRDP in Seventh Plan.

a) Concept and objectives of the IRDP

The concept of IRDP differs from the development approaches adopted so far, in that it is an all pervasive, multi-dimensional, multi-disciplinary, integrated and comprehensive approach to development. It means achieving the goal of enrichment of the overall quality of life covering all aspects - economic, social and cultural through planning for the integrated development of the human resources, development of infrastructure facilities, development of agriculture and rural industries and provision of minimum social needs. It is based on micro level planning with focus on the target
groups of small farmers, marginal farmers, agricultural labourers and artisans. The underlying idea of integrated development is that the package of development process should contain co-ordinated programmes in different sectors which are appropriately linked and spaced out (Krishnaswamy, 1985).

The main objective of the IRDP is to increase production and productivity in agriculture and allied sectors based on better use of land, water and sunlight. It specifically aims at:

- creating new productive assets for improving the economy of the country,
- developing the resources and income of the vulnerable sections of the population in all the blocks of the country,
- improving the productivity of land by providing access to inputs like water, improved seeds and fertilisers to those categories of the rural poor who have some land assets,
- diversifying agriculture through animal husbandry, dairying, forestry, fishery and sericulture development,
- processing and manufacturing activities based on local resources and
- improving post harvest technology so that, both producers and consumers benefit from the balanced production (Rao and Rao, 1985).

b) Operational details

The IRDP is a programme which calls for detailed micro level planning. This covers the family to be assisted, the type of assistance to be given and the nature of supportive
services to be provided; These decisions are taken at the grass root level. The starting point is the household survey for identifying families with an annual income of less than Rs. 4,800. The list of families to be assisted is to be placed before and approved by the Gram Sabha. Out of these families, those with annual income up to Rs. 3,500 are to be taken first so as to keep the focus on the poorest of the poor. Selection of activities for the family, forwarding applications to banks, consideration and approval of the same by banks, procurement of the assets and continuous after care are the crucial inputs in the process of the programme administration.

For successful programme implementation it is necessary to have the maximum involvement of the beneficiaries. This is sought to be brought about through Beneficiaries Advisory Committees at the Block level and Sub-Committees at the Panchayat level. Such Committees are required to meet every quarter to provide feedback, identify gaps in backward and forward linkages and to bring about greater co-ordination among the various departments (Annual Report, 1986-87).

c) Achievements of IRPD:

There has been substantial progress in implementation of IRDP in the Sixth Plan (1980-85). The number of poor families assisted during the plan was 165.6 lakhs which exceeded the target of 150 lakhs families recording 110.4 per cent achievement. Financial allocation of Rs.1,500 crores,
shared equally by the central and state government was provided for subsidy. Besides, credit to the extent of Rs.3,000.00 crores was provided by the financial institutions like co-operative and commercial banks. Thus, the total investment for the plan was of the order of Rs.4,500 crores (Tripathi, 1986).

The Sixth Plan had stipulated that 30 per cent of the assisted beneficiaries should belong to S.C./S.T.families. As regards the qualitative aspect also there has been a distinct improvement in the IRDP during the Sixth Plan (India, 1985). The IRDP scheme had envisaged that during the Sixth Plan period, assistance would be provided to 15 million families on an average, 3,000 families per block. Thus 600 families were covered in each block every year - 400 families through agricultural development projects, 100 families through village and cottage industries and remaining 100 families through service sector activities.

The most important impact of the Sixth Plan had been the unprecedented drop in poverty ratio both in rural and urban areas. Rural poverty ratio came down from 51.2 per cent in 1977-78 to 40.4 per cent in 1983-84 (Gramin Vikas, 1985).

d) IRDP in the Seventh Plan:

One of the primary objectives of the Seventh Five Year Plan is the alleviation of poverty and reduction in inter-class, inter-regional and rural-urban disparities (Rao, 1985). The approach to Seventh Plan reiterates the goal of bringing down the percentage of population below the poverty line to less than ten by 1994-95. Therefore, the programmes for income generation for the poor through assets, endowment and wage employment for them will be continued at an accelerated pace during the seventh five year plan. The gaps that have been revealed and the weakness that have been
experienced in the process are being remedied in the Seventh Plan so as to make the IRDP an effective instrument of poverty alleviation (Seventh Five Year Plan, 1985).

The strategy for IRDP during the Seventh Plan is two-fold: Firstly, the gains made during the Sixth Plan are to be consolidated and those beneficiaries who are not able to cross the poverty line for no fault of theirs are to be provided supplementary dose of assistance. The second part of the strategy is to provide a package of assistance to the new beneficiaries in such a way that they cross the poverty line with one dose of assistance.

The financial allocation for IRDP in the Seventh Plan is Rs.2,358.1 crores of which the central share is Rs.1,186.79 crores. Besides, Rs.4,000 crores have been provided under credit. The physical targets to be covered during the plan period is 20 million families including old families for supplementary assistance (Department of Rural Development, 1987).

The programme will continue to aim at the poorest among the poor who will be identified by annual household income of Rs.4,800.00, which is substantially lower than the cut-off income of around Rs.6,400.00 at the poverty line level. Towards achieving this end, much greater care will be exercised in the process of selection of beneficiaries. Apart from the emphasis on the group approach, adoption of the total household approach will be emphasised as a major plank of the programme. Concrete steps will be taken to step up the activity in the Industries, Services and Business (ISB) sectors. The absence of infrastructural support and backward and forward linkages will be given special attention. The process of skill endowment to members of the target families would be considered as an integral part of the IRDP.
Due emphasis would continue to be given under the IRDP to direct the maximum quantum of benefits towards women who admittedly constitute a substantially deprived section of the community. Keeping in view, the objective of bringing down the poverty ratio to less than ten per cent by 1994-95, IRDP would aim to provide assistance to around 20 million households under the IRDP in the Seventh Plan (Seventh Five Year Plan, 1985).

During the year 1987, it was proposed to assist 3.5 million families of whom 2.04 million would be old beneficiaries of the Sixth Plan, and 1.46 million would be new.

4. **Desert Development Programme (DDP) 1977:**

The Desert Development Programme launched in 1977-78 aims at checking the further desertification of the desert areas and raising the productivity of the local resources to achieve higher income and employment levels for the local inhabitants. The programme continued both in the hot and cold arid zones of the country during the Sixth Plan.

The strategy of the programme is to assess desertification and the following activities are being taken up under the programme:

- Afforestation, (with special emphasis on shelter belts) grass land development and sand dune stabilisation.
- Ground water development utilisation.
- Construction of water harvesting structures.
Rural electrification and
Development of agriculture, animal husbandry, dairy and sericulture.

The programme has been administered by the state governments through the DPAP/SFDA agencies. Significant success has been achieved under the scheme in sand dune stabilization, draining development of steep cooperatives and pastures.

6. Training Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM) 1979:

The TRYSEM stands for Training Rural Youth for Self Employment. It is a part of the Integrated Rural Development Programme of the Government of India with the special objective to provide self employment opportunities to rural youth-boys and girls in the age range of 18-35 years, who are below the poverty line, through relevant training for the improvement of their skills. The training is being imparted to various categories of beneficiaries. Once the youth and self employment activities for them are identified, training is imparted through various institutions. Training is imparted intensively also by mobile teams in selected areas.

Before the completion of the training, the trainee is expected to know about setting up his or her production unit independently. All those who undergo training under TRYSEM are entitled for financial subsidy and loans (Mathew, 1981).
7. The Industries, Services and Business Components (ISB) 1980:

The Industries, Services and Business component was introduced in 1980 with the objective of exploiting the employment opportunities in the secondary and tertiary sectors as the absorption capacity of the agriculture sector for self-employment had reached a saturation point.

All families selected under ISB, out of the eligible families for assistance, are entitled to subsidies and institutional finance. The subsidy per family for non-scheduled tribes is at the rate of 33-1/3 per cent of the cost of the scheme, subject to a ceiling of Rs. 3,000 in non DPAP areas and Rs. 4,000 in DPAP areas. The rate of subsidy is 50 per cent of the cost of the scheme, subject to a ceiling of Rs. 5,000 in respect of Scheduled families. In respect of these families, the balance of the cost of the scheme to the extent of Rs. 6,000, Rs. 8,000, Rs. 5,000 is met through institutional finance respectively. During the Sixth Plan, 44.5 lakh families were covered under this sector against the target of 50 lakh families; 14.69 lakh families were benefitted during 1985-86 and 20.20 lakh families in 1986-87 (India, 1987).

8. National Rural Employment Programme (NREP), 1980:

The erstwhile 'Food for Work Programme' has been replaced by the "National Rural Employment Programme" from
the year 1980. This programme was started in April 1977 with the objectives of generation of additional employment, creation of durable community assets and improvement in the living standard of rural folk. In addition food grains and cash funds are now being provided to the states; afforestation and social forestry have been given priority under the programme. With this objective, this programme is helpful to provide job opportunities to the people (Varma, 1981).

9. Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) 1982:

Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) has been introduced in the month of September, 1982. The objectives are to:

Assist individual woman to take advantage the facilities already available under IRDP.

Organise women in homogeneous groups to take up economically viable activities on a group basis.

Provide necessary supportive services to women in terms of provision for caring of children while the mothers are at work.

Organise child care facilities to the beneficiary women.

The scheme is being implemented in 80 districts in the country. The programme will be implemented by the District Rural Development Agency. It is also envisaged to impart a suitable training to non-officials to be involved in the scheme. Training is imparted right from the grass
root level to the members of the group, group organisers and the officials at different levels responsible for planning and implementation of the programme (Mohinudin, 1987).

The programme achieved considerable progress during 1986-87 with the formation of 5,364 groups, the amount utilised during 1986-87 was Rs. 786.33 lakhs. The target for 1987-88 is to form 75,000 groups. A sum of Rs. 100.8 million has been provided in budget estimates for 1987-88. The outlay for the Seventh Plan is Rs. 480 million.

During 1985-86 construction of multi-purpose community centres was taken up as a part of the scheme. These centres were intended to provide a central place where rural women can meet for group activities as well as for training and demonstration of new technology. During 1986-87, 61 such centres were approved. Two hundred multi-purpose community centres in DWCRA districts are targetted to be constructed by UNICEF during 1987-88 (India, 1985) with the assistance of Rs.50,000 for Community Centre and Rs.5,000 as revolving fund per year.

10. Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEG) 1983:

Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEG) was launched on 1983-84 with the objective to:

improve the employment opportunities for rural landless with a view to providing guarantee of employment to at least one member of every landless labour household up to 100 days in a year and
create durable assets for strengthening of the rural infrastructure which will lead to rapid growth of rural economy.

Improve the overall quality of life in the rural areas.

The Sixth Plan allocation for this programme was Rs. 6,000 million. An amount of Rs. 1,000 million was released to various State Governments and Union Territory Administration for implementation of RLEGP during 1983-84.

Work projects relevant to the 20 Point Programme and Minimum Needs Programme are taken up for implementation in rural areas under RLEGP. The wage component in a project is not to be less than 50 per cent of the total cost of the project. The scheme has been renamed as "Indira Awass Yojana" (1987).

During 1986-87, Rs. 1,250 million was provided for the purpose. Twenty per cent of the allocated funds were earmarked for social forestry in 1985-86. Ten per cent of the allocated funds would continue to be earmarked for works directly benefitting members of Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes as in the case of National Rural Development Programme (India, 1985).

The programme is fully sanctioned and financed by the central government. The state governments are required to prepare specific work projects and get them implemented.
During the Seventh Plan, an outlay of Rs. 17,347.3 million has been provided and the employment generation target is fixed at 1,013 million man days. During 1985-86 Rs. 6,064.5 million were released as against Rs. 8,930 million during 1984-85. During 1986-87, Rs. 7,321 million were released and 303.2 million man days generated as against, thus the allocation of Rs. 7,250 million was made for 1987-88 (India, 1986).

12. **Rural Water Supply Programme (ARWSP):**

Supply of drinking water is primarily the responsibility of the state governments and constitutes an important part of the minimum needs programme in the state plan. The central government supports the programme with fully centrally sponsored Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme (ARWSP). Besides, a Technology Mission on Drinking Water in the villages was launched in 1988. All the three programmes aim at achieving the goal of the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade of 100 per cent coverage of rural water supply by 1990.

The Seventh Plan outlay is Rs. 1,201.22 crore under the centrally sponsored ARWSP; Rs. 150 crores under Technology Mission and Rs. 2,253.25 crore under State Sector MNP. Priority has been given to the provision of safe drinking water to SC/ST habitations. The states have been directed to earmark funds from ARWSP in the same proportion as have
been directed to earmark funds from ARWSP in the same proportion as have been earmarked under special component plan and in Tribal Sub-Plan. A separate evaluation is being made of the benefits being received by the ST/SC under the Scheme.

13. Jawahar Rozkar Yojana (JRY) 1989:

This latest programme started in 1989, aims at placing in the hands of village Panchayats adequate funds to run their own rural employment schemes in the interests of the vast masses of the rural poor, who constitute the bulk of rural India. It has been estimated that in the last seven years, rural employment programmes have reached only 55 per cent of the village Panchayats around the country. The Jawahar Rozkar Yojana aims at reaching every single Panchayat.

The central assistance will finance 80 per cent of the programme. In its very first year of operation, that is, the current financial year central assistance for this programme amounted to Rs. 21,000 million. The financing is so structured the funds are allocated to states in proportion to the size of their population which falls below the poverty line. Further devolution of these funds to districts will be determined in terms of the criteria of backwardness such as the share of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the total population of the district, the proportion of agricultural labour to total labour, and the level of agricultural productivity. Special consideration will be given to meeting the requirements of geographically distinctive areas such as hills, deserts and islands.
It is expected that, on an average, a village Panchayat with a population of 3,000-4,000 people will receive between Rs. 80,000 and Rs. 1 lakh a year to implement the Jawahar Rozkar Yojana. Each Panchayat must be able to provide employment to at least one member of each poor rural family for 50-100 days a year at a work place near his residence. This programme will be incorporated into the programme of integrated schemes to provide employment to nomadic tribes. A very special feature of the scheme is that 30 per cent of the employment generated will be reserved for women.

All existing rural wage employment programme stand merged into the Jawahar Rozkar Yojana. The Yojana will reach out all over the country to the 44 million families in rural India living below the poverty line. The aim is to touch each one of these families.

In the name of Jawaharlal Nehru, the great freedom fighter and builder of modern India, the nation rededicates itself to ending the curse of unemployment, eliminating the plight of poverty, dismantling discrimination against women, and assuring for all our people opportunity and assistance in leading a full and fulfilling life (Gandhi, 1989).

14. Efforts taken by voluntary agencies to uplift the rural poor:

Voluntary agencies reflect the needs as well as the aspirations of the people who are poor and exploited, and
they are destined to play a vital role in the reconstruction and transformation of India, more particularly in the rural areas where they are needed most. The rural backwardness is aptly said to be in the rural minds which have to be trained and educated to improve the people's skills, technologies and resourcefulness and cultivate consciousness and fight for their rightful opportunities (Singh and Singh, 1984).

Voluntary action has been an important facet of Indian social scene. In the pre-independence era voluntary organisations were mainly for provision of services for the needy and destitutes, particularly, women, children and the disabled. After independence, planners and administrators gave considerable thought to the role that voluntary organisations can play in the realisation of the goals of a welfare State (Kohli, 1987 and Gupta, 1987).

In keeping with the heritage and culture of the India, many national and state level voluntary organisations like Women's Voluntary Service, Central Social Welfare Board, All India Women's Conference, Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust, Young Women's Christian Association, SEWA and Bharathiya Grameen Mahila Sangh are doing creditable service towards education, vocational training and economic rehabilitation of the disabled (Rohatgi, 1981 and Dey, 1985).
C. **Motivating Rural Poor for Better Family Living:**

It is discussed under the following headings:

1. Concept of motivation
2. Techniques of motivation
3. Entrepreneurship development and income generation and
4. Better Family Living

1. **Concept of motivation:**

The word 'motivation' has been derived from the Latin term, "Motive" from which the words "Motor", "Motion" and 'Move' have been derived. It means to motivate, that is, exercise or stimulate a person to do a thing is called 'motivation'.

Motivation is providing clientele with a motive, incentive or instigator. A motive is some inner drive, impulse and intention that causes or moves a person to do something or act in a certain way. It may be defined as goal seeking or goal directed behaviour/activity (Reddy, 1987).

Motivation has to be internal or external - internal through appreciating each individual participant in the programme and external or social through which the people find themselves in the company of others who are similarly striving and a society providing support and encouragement for such participation (Singh, 1977). Lovell (1964) defines
motivation as a psychophysiological or internal process, initiated by some need, which leads to activity which will satisfy that need.

Morse and Wingo (1964) and English and English (1964) clarified that, motivation is the non—stimulus variable controlling behaviour, the general name for the fact that an organism's acts are partly determined in direction and strength by its own nature (or enduring structure) and/or internal state. Munn (1964), Sorenson (1964) and Trow (1964) are of the view that motivation is the inner control of behaviour as represented by physiological conditions, interests, attitudes and aspirations.

Young (1961) states that, motivation is the process of arousing, sustaining and regulating behaviour through energy transformations within the tissues of an organism. From the point of view of psychology, motivation is a drive that initiates an activity. This activity is continued till the object is fulfilled. In other words, the psychologion term "motivation" has three functions of initiating activity in the man, letting it continue till the object has been fulfilled and creating an internal drive present in the activity.

2. Techniques of motivation:

All societies have built up many elaborate techniques for influencing the actions of their members. Education,
advertising, fashions, dress, speech and habits are ways of influencing the others. Rewarding and punishment of various kinds are the usual technique for coercing people into definite lines of action. Praise, flattery, persuasion threats, commands, gossip, rumour, propaganda and use of language are few of the methods designed as ways of influencing the behaviour of others. Influencing involves (a) suggestion (b) conditioning (c) techniques of influencing others and (d) effective speaking.

According to Reddy (1975), extension educationists could motivate people to satisfy the various categories of need by knowing the level of motivational patterns among them. The desire for response can be satisfied by encouraging people to work in groups. Similarly, the desire for recognition can be met by working with village leaders by awarding prizes and certificates and training them to set a realistic level of aspirations. The involvement of villagers in the programmes of social change acts as a booster of motivation not only for the immediate participants but also for others and also by the proper selection, combination and use of the various audio-visuals for the appropriate purpose to act as lubricants for motivation.

3. **Entrepreneurship development and income generation:**

Entrepreneurship development and income generation
is discussed as follows:-

a) Dynamics of entrepreneurial development and

b) Types of income generating activities in rural areas.

a) **Dynamics of entrepreneurial development**:

Pareek and Rao (1978) express the dynamics of entrepreneurial development with an illustration (Figure 1) as setting up new enterprises in a society. Operationally, entrepreneurship is generated in a society by individuals who initiate, establish, maintain and expand new enterprises. It is observed that, entrepreneurs grow in the traditions of their families and the society and internalise certain values and norms from these sources.

The second factor, constitutes the socio-cultural traditions. The contribution from this socio-cultural factor in the process of transmission, gets filtered through the individual whom it seeks to influence. The socio-political and economic policies of the government and other financial institutions and the opportunities available in a society play a crucial role in exerting direct influence on entrepreneurship. The third directly influencing factor is the effective functioning of the support systems which work for the development of entrepreneurship.

Men and women, boys and girls, as contributors to the economics and social development of a nation and as
DYNAMICS OF ENTREPRENEURIAL DEVELOPMENT

Figure 1
parents in promoting Better Family Living need training and education that will ensure more efficient production in the farm and home enterprises and wiser consumption of goods and services available to the family (Jenelid, 1972 and Human Resource Development Division, 1972).

b) Types of income generating activities:

According to Nayak (1982), the two types of income generating activities are, those related to agriculture, horticulture and animal husbandry for those who have own land or can lease land, others for those who have no land. For land owners vegetable growing and fisheries could be encouraged. For the landless, sale of forest products, sericulture and home industries like brooms, mats, pappads, masala powder, dried chutneys, snacks and sweets could be stressed.

4. Home Science for Better Family Living:

Devadas (1975) exhorts that in its simplest form the concept of BFL deals with four major aspects, namely, economic well being, education, abundant health and social development with its ultimate thrust on the nation. The human built environment, physical and the personal attitudes of the members and the social institutional frame work are the factors influencing BFL(Figure 2).

Bivens et al (1975) and Paolucci (1976) state that
Social Development 
Values and Goals 
Good Citizenship 
Community Participation 
Leadership Development 

Eradication of Poverty 
Capital Formation 
Conservation of Resource 
More Purchasing Power 

Greater Worm Output 
Fertility Management 

Eradication of Communicable Diseases 
Eradication of Malnutrition 
Reduced Mortality and Morbidity Rates 

Human-built Environment 
Physical Environment 

Abundant Health Freedom from Hunger and Diseases Good Nutrition 
Home and Environment Sanitation 
Limited Family Size 

Knowledge and Education 
Scientific Attitude 
Technical Skills 
Personal Development 

Economic Well Being 
Employment 
Higher Income 
Resource Management 
Thrifty Habits 

Conceptual Model on "Better Home and Family Living"
the core of Home Economics is the family ecosystem. It is the study of the reciprocal relations of the family to its natural and man-made environments. The environment shaped the family and its members and the family contributes to development.

Home Science with its concern and contribution for better living plays a significant role in furthering national development. Home Science is most appropriate for promoting nation building. The major objective of Home Science education is fostering optimum development, and fulfilment in family life in its physiological, physical, economic, social, cultural and spiritual setting (Devadas, 1975).

D. Research Studies Related to "Better Family Living":

Research studies related to BFL is reviewed under the following heads:

1. Impact of rural development programmes.
2. Impact of health programmes.

1. Impact of rural development programmes:

The State Planning Board of Kerala had conducted a study in the state in 1981. The survey found that nearly 70 per cent of the beneficiaries of IRDP received an
additional income ranging from Rs. 3,436.00 to Rs. 5,530.00 per annum. In all 18.6 per cent of the beneficiaries had gone above the poverty line.

Patel (1981) conducted a study on Rural Development Projects for the rural poor in Rajpura area in Baroda District. A group of 24 villages have been selected for the study. The pre-investment survey revealed that, 77.2 per cent of the population were below the poverty line. During the post investment period, 5.8 per cent had crossed the poverty line. The project had assisted 2,119 beneficiaries through bank loans to create durable assets and increase their economic strength.

According to the study conducted by the Government of Gujarat in 1982, on 1892 families in 94 Blocks assisted during 1980-81, 8.25 per cent of the families have increased their income by more than Rs. 3,500 per year while more than 50 per cent had improved their income to the extent of Rs. 2,000 to 3,000 per year and 33 1/3 per cent of the families had increased their income between Rs. 1,000 to 2,000 per year.

A socio-economic study was conducted by Hota (1984) in Saggi Village, selecting 111 households. The results of the study showed that out of the 111 households, 55 households had been identified by IRDP as having an income of less than Rs. 3,600.00 per annum and hence below the poverty line. The IRDP scheme was being implemented in Saggi Village
Panchayat with effect from 1980. The rural artisans had received Rs. 2,500.00 as loan and Rs. 500.00 as subsidy for umbrella assembling. These families had still not been able to repay an amount of Rs. 1,134.00 out of the loan, since the business was not running, due to the dull market conditions. The survey revealed that, the fruits of development flow more towards richer sections and non-agricultural sections.

Nanjangud Taluk of Mysore district, Karnataka, was taken for the study by Angadi and Ramakrishna (1984). The results showed that, the annual average income of the beneficiaries had increased after the implementation of IRDP. It was found that generally the beneficiaries had positive attitudes towards the officials and non-officials and hoped to improve their standard of living in the near future.

A study conducted by Harikumar (1984, in the Ernakulam village in Vyttile Block in Ernakulam District showed that, the IRDP had made a desirable impact on the income generation and income distribution of its beneficiaries, bringing 20.6 per cent of the families above the poverty line.

Studies taken up for a thorough verification of assets distributed to the beneficiaries and their impact have established that the programme is moving in the right direction in spite of several organisational and administrative inadequacies. Efforts are being made to remove these
constraints and impediments and to accelerate the pace of implementation (India, 1984).

In a comparative study of the families under IRDP in Karnataka and Rajasthan, the analysis of social demographic and economic indicators of development showed that the IRDP families of Karnataka were socially advanced than their counterparts in Rajasthan, while the families of Rajasthan were demographically and economically better placed than those in Karnataka (Evaluation Report, 1984).

A study conducted by the Department of Rural Development (1985) in 36 districts shows that the assets created under IRDP had generated incremental income of more than Rs. 2,000 per annum in about 26 per cent cases. The incremental income was between Rs. 1,001 to Rs. 2,000 in 24 per cent cases and between Rs. 501 to Rs. 1,000 in 15 per cent cases. It was upto Rs. 500 in 11 per cent cases (Report, 1986).

Chandakavata (1985) showed that, two per cent of the families studied were able to cross the poverty line and 36 per cent have been marginally benefitted as their family income between pre-benefit and post-benefit period had slightly increased. They were moving up from the lower decile group to higher decile group even below poverty line.

A study conducted in Niali block Cuttack district in Orissa indicated that, the IRDP was showing its impact
on the population served by it. Those who could take advantage of the facilities were in a better position to improve their socio-economic life than those who did not avail of such facilities (Pande, 1985).

Singh (1985) studied IRDP in two randomly selected blocks in Nalanda District of Bihar. Hundred beneficiaries from 110 villages were selected. The study showed that, the implementation of IRDP suffered from the indifferent attitudes of the personnel and their improper behaviour. None of the programme functionaries had enquired about the problems, the beneficiaries faced in managing or starting schemes; The beneficiaries (23%) had an annual income of more than Rs. 3,500/= and the problems faced by the beneficiaries were lack of personal contact of the personnel before and after the introduction of the programme.

A study conducted by Lull (1985) on Drought Prone Area Programme in the Panchmahal District of Gujarat indicates that under the programme the intensity of cropping was increased by 50 per cent. The income of farmers had also gone up by 50 to 70 per cent.

The IRDP aimed at assisting the rural poor by way of creating productive assets and employment opportunities, so that their economic conditions could be improved and the number of people living below poverty line could be reduced. The programme had laid down the target of lifting 15 million
families by all the 5,011 blocks of the country, above the poverty line having annual average income of Rs. 3,500 per family by the end of the Sixth Plan (Chaudhary, 1985).

Tripathy (1986) conducted a study in Sahar Block, Itawah (UP) and found that, on the whole as against the target of 3,000 families, only 1,731 families were covered under IRDP. Similarly, a sum of 17.57 lakhs had been provided as subsidy as against the target of about Rs. 28 lakhs. The amount of loans provided was only Rs. 46.51 lakhs as against the expected amount of Rs. 100 lakhs.

From the study conducted by Ballisher (1986) in Bichpuri block of Agra District, it was found that only 21 per cent of eligible beneficiary families were able to cross the poverty line. More families of landless labourers and Schedule Caste crossed the poverty line than those of marginal and small farmers and non-scheduled caste families.

An evaluation study on Integrated Rural Development Programmes conducted by the Programme Evaluation Organisation of the Planning Commission during 1983-84 was confined to 16 states, including Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala and Tamil Nadu and the households covered numbered 1,170 from 132 villages. The study revealed that, the household covered had increased their income (88%), increased family assets (37%), increased consumption level and improved economic status (67%) in the village society. The main reason
assigned for the overdues were returns from schemes were not adequate and income realised was spent for unforeseen purposes like marriages, illness and deaths.

Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College for Women, Coimbatore had conducted an evaluation study in IRDP in the Nilgiris district of Tamil Nadu in 1984 at the request of Government of Tamil Nadu. The results of the study showed that about 20.6 per cent in Udhagamandal, 25.3 per cent in Kotagiri, 12.6 per cent in Coonoor and four in Gudalur Blocks had crossed the poverty line and the officials contacted were of the opinion that the scheme had brought about remarkable changes in the standard of living of the people through increased self-employment opportunities. The scheme had definitely bridged the gap between officials, leaders and the people at the grass root level (Report, 1984).

Rani and Leelavathy (1985) of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College for women, Coimbatore conducted an evaluation study on IRDP in selected villages of Karamadai Block in 1985. The results of the study indicated that, among the beneficiaries, 68 per cent were having an annual income below Rs. 3,600/= and after the operation of the scheme 29 per cent had crossed the poverty line. A large majority of 78 per cent of the beneficiaries received assistance for live stock followed by artisan and TRYSEM, and among the 100 samples studied seven members had benefitted by more than one scheme. About 88 per cent of the beneficiaries expressed their satisfaction about the scheme, while
the rest complained of insufficiency and delay in getting loans.

A study was attempted by Malyadri (1985) to evaluate the impact of IRDP on beneficiaries in North-Rajupalem village of Kovur Taluk in Nellore district of Andhra Pradesh. The study revealed that after financing the IRDP schemes 55 per cent of the beneficiaries crossed the poverty line. After receiving the financial assistance under IRDP, income distribution had changed favourably and now only 45 per cent received annual income between Rs. 2,500 and Rs. 3,500. But 55 per cent of sample beneficiaries were getting income between Rs. 3,500 and Rs. 6,000. So it could be easily concluded that IRDP has a strong impact on income distribution of sample beneficiaries. The study also revealed the employment position that in the case of most of the beneficiaries, their employment creation also increased after the financial assistance received from IRDP.

Concurrent evaluation of IRDP (1985-'86) conducted by Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College sponsored by Department of Rural Development, Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi revealed that during the period of the study 11 out of the 140 first dose assistance beneficiaries had no income at all from their assets. On the other hand, 17 beneficiaries had no other source of income and were completely dependent upon their assets for their livelihood.
Gandhi and Raval (1986) studied the impact of rural development on the economic status of women in Kathor village of Surat district membering themselves in Mahila Milk Producers Co-operative Society. They concluded that the income generated through this activity had certainly raised their standard of living. The quality of food, clothing and overall living had a marked change. They were quite enthusiastic about their activity.

2. Impact of health programme:

In their study on "Health Practices in Two States of India" attempted to assess the knowledge of people of Andhra Pradesh and Bihar about various infectious diseases and their practices pertinent to child and mother care. The information was gathered by interviewing 797 currently married people-randomly selected from the two states. Out of these 797 respondents, 397 were from Andhra Pradesh and 400 from Bihar. The study demonstrated that a considerably large number of people, particularly in the rural area of Bihar and Andhra Pradesh were not getting the benefit of government hospitals mainly because they were located at far off places from their homes and hence were inaccessible to them. It indicated a very poor knowledge among the people about the various infectious diseases and the protection against their knowledge of child and maternity care was also considerably low among the people. These findings underlined the urgency of taking immediate measures to impart health education.
Singh (1983) studied the "Health education in India". He found that the health status of India had been described in relation to various indicators of health such as infant and child mortality, birth weight, malnutrition, fertility rate and mental retardation. Health education of women in the reproductive age group was necessary for health of the children and the family. Health education to women in the reproductive age group was necessary for health of the children and the family. Health education should be aimed to increase scientific knowledge, attitudes and understanding of health and diseases, diet and nutrition, child care, breast feeding, family planning and respect for women.

Health education project conducted by Singh (1987) viewed that health education as a means of improving the health status, particularly in the illiterate and poor population. The sample had been taken from Kanke and Numkum Blocks of Ranchi district. The sample consisting of 991 cases, with 498 males and 493 females had shown that unhygienic living conditions, over crowding, inadequate and imbalance in food habits, pervasive malnutrition, early marriage, high fertility, non-adoption of contraception, high prevalence of illness and wide-spread misconception and ignorance of physical and mental health caused deterioration of health conditions. In this context proper diet, nutrition, family planning and child care occupy important role in alleviating health problems.
3. **Impact of adult education programme**

Venkaiah (1977) conducted a study on the impact of Farmers Functional Literacy Programme in Andhra Pradesh. He revealed that the age of the participants was inversely related to literacy skills and size of land holdings and socio-economic status were positively related to literacy achievement.

In a study of adult education centres of West Bengal (Nandi, 1981) found more cases of dropouts among learners from families of labourers earning daily wages and lower income groups. Natarajan (1982) studied NAEP in 30 centres in eight blocks in Bihar state. He found that in 70 per cent of families, learners had a monthly income of Rs. 150/- less and the size of medium family was six. Sixty per cent of learners wanted to get skilled in 3 Rs. whereas 26 per cent of learners desired to be functionally literate in skills.

A study conducted by Shah and Gupta (1986) in New Delhi on the efficacy of using different aids revealed that, those exposed to combination of aids performed better than 'not exposed' groups. A study conducted by Venkaiah and Reddy (1983) revealed that the learning of learners varied conspicuously. The women were more interested in functional skills, pregnancy care, and health and men interested in agriculture, animal husband and skilled works.

Pillai (1986) conducted a study in Kerala to identify the internal factors motivating the learners to join adult
education classes which revealed that, they wanted to learn to teach children, get away from exploiters and know more about occupation and keep accounts. Madras Institute of Development Studies (1989) conducted a study on the expectation of adult educators revealed that they wanted to read books and newspapers and earn a permanent income through the literacy skills.

The investigator had utilised the rural development programmes, health inputs and adult education centres as instruments of Better Family Living. Hence these studies enabled possibilities of understanding the prospects and problems inherent in these programmes and utilising them to the fullest extent possible.