CHAPTER-III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
CHAPTER-III
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

3.0 INTRODUCTION:

Rural Development has attracted the attention of academicians and researchers of national and international level since long back. So far, a wide range of research work has been done in international, national, regional and state level on rural development and on other related topics.

Here some of the relevant literatures concerning the present study are reviewed at international, national, regional and state levels.

3.1 INTERNATIONAL LEVEL STUDIES:

Recognizing the significance of organization and management structures for accelerating the pace of rural development in 1979, the United Nations Centre for Regional Development (UNCRD) initiated a research project on implementation of selected rural development projects. Six concept papers, six case studies and three country papers were commissioned by UNCRD. This research project focuses on implementation, management of small scale projects designed to improve the socio-economic position of the rural people. It discusses inter organizational relationships, programme, support and capabilities of implementing agencies. Furthermore, it examines the impact of selected rural development programmes and identifies critical factors accounting for success or failure of these (Chima, 1992).

Studies of rural development programmes and projects were undertaken by Messars, Kuldeep Mathur, Moeljarto Tjokrowinoto, Gabriel U. Mohd., Nor Abdul Ghani, Dilwar Ali Khan, Shelton Wanasinghe and Chakrit Naranitipadungkaram. These research projects initiated by UNCARD, (1979) include case studies of selected rural development programmes and projects in China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand. Each of the case studies discusses the evaluation, rational and process of implementing a particular programme. In the year 1986, the Centre on Integrated Rural Development for Asia and the Pacific (CIRDAP) completed a project entitled “State of the Art on Integrated Rural Development (IRD)” wherein the inputs, the impacts, the problems and the issues together with the perspectives of IRD programmes in eleven CIRDAP member

48
countries (CMCs) were discussed. The nine countries namely Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand under the series “State of an Art on IRD” were reviewed.

The study report has contributed a better understanding of the approaches of IRD in different CMCs. It also contained some basic information pertaining to selected socio-economic aspects like income, health, education and asset distribution.

Jagadish and Kiron (1989) have found in their study that, since the revolutionary political changes of Nepal in 1951, there had been several attempts to improve the socio-economic status of the rural people. Consequently, different models of rural development have been tried and experimented. This study reveals that IRD Programmes that were started in 1975 in Nepal could not bring any positive impact on the socio-economic status of the rural poor. Thus, the performance of the IRD programmes in Nepal could not be considered satisfactory according to the study.

A study conducted by Centre for Management Development, Thiruvananthapuram, on SGSY (2002) revealed that the progress of the SGSY was not satisfactory and the scheme had faced many problems. The study suggested that efforts should be made to motivate the bank to take active interest in the project reports and monitoring and evaluating the activity should be given on skill development and other training programme. Moreover extensive awareness campaign on SGSY scheme should be launched with the help of Gram Sabha and Block officials.

Hasan (1989) in his study observed that planners in Pakistan had conceptually treated development of Agriculture and Rural Areas as separate entities. The development of Agriculture signified better yields, higher production, and greater availability of inputs, water management and setting up of agro based industries. Rural development on the other hand, stood for reduction in unemployment, improvement in rural infrastructure and socio-political scenario. A good number of rural development programmes were undertaken in Pakistan. The major ones were Villages Aid Programme (1950), Rural Works programme (1960), Peoples Works Programme (1970) and Integrated Rural Development Programme (1972-1977).

Andres and Limcaoco (1989) in their study in Philippines observed that community development formed the key of the continuing efforts towards rural development. The strategy for rural development in the earlier years included apart from Community Development, improvements in land tenure, liberalized credit,
technology dissemination and construction of rural farm to market road. The Community Development Approach helped in meeting some of the basic needs, but failed because of some structural constrain is in raising rural income inequalities. Therefore, a number of programmes were undertaken to support the consumption of the poor. The concept of Integrated Rural Development as defined in the Philippines included a mutually reinforcing of programmes with benefits flowing to a particular area.

The aforementioned study also found three levels of positive impact. The first level benefits accrued to the direct beneficiaries of specific physical, social and institutional inventions. The second level benefits were intended to have an impact on the socio-economic condition of the entire programme area including the population sector that did not directly participate in sharing project-specific benefits. On the other hand, the third level benefits were those that affected impact indicators as applied to the whole region.

Yuwant (1989) in his study entitled “IRD, Thailand” observed that starting its IRD programme Thailand got a unique advantage. It has no colonial heritage. He concluded the study by saying that results directly tied to integrate rural development efforts in Thailand in terms of positive changes in the quality of life in the villages were difficult to access while there have been some clear success related to such programmes. Overall result had been far from encouraging and in certain cases clearly discouraging in relation to both financial and human resources committed to the efforts.

Similar studies as mentioned in the above para made for Malaysia and Bangladesh revealed some interesting findings in the implementation process of IRD programmes in the said countries. For examples, Nik and Chamhuri (1965) in their study in Malaysia revealed that earlier rural development programmes did not focus much on rural poverty. The Second Malay plan (1961-65) started to expand the commitment towards rural development by incorporating a rural development plan.

The official statistics of Malaysia indicated that overall rural poverty declined from 59 per cent in 1970 to 25 per cent in 1984. The importance of rural development in the overall development of Malaysia was reflected in the increase in the absolute allocation and size of the of bureaucracy for rural development resulting from proliferation of agencies involved in the planning, implementation and coordination of rural development programmes and strategies.
On the other hand in his study **Hansat (1989)** found that the IRD programme made in 1952 in Bangladesh, and later on known as the Commilla Approach had made a significant impact in generating self-employment avenues in the non-farm sectors.

The IRD programmes also developed physical facilities in the rural areas including offices, training and marketing centres, storage godowns, etc. The programmes had adopted social-infrastructure development projects on health, education, nutrition, family planning on a limited scale.

**Theriwal (1985)** observed that there was no separate government agency for rural development purpose in Japan. Each department of the government of Japan took care of a particular infrastructure development work. The study found that cooperative movement, an integrated approach had made a significant contribution not only in agricultural development, but also in promoting industries by offering various facilities to the private entrepreneurs. In fact, the cooperative had to some extent succeeded in accelerating the pace of rural development in Japan. **Sartaj (1978)** defined the basic objectives of rural development from Chinese experience as follows-

To organize, develop and utilize the available resources of land, water and manpower in such a manner that the entire rural population dependent on these resources have an equal opportunity to meet, as a minimum, their basic needs of food, clothing and shelter with reasonable facilities for education and health and can live together in a positive and healthy social environment. He believed that pattern of repaid industrial growth at the cost of agriculture was hardly suitable for a country like China where 80 per cent of the population live in rural areas.

### 3.2 NATIONAL LEVEL STUDIES:

A number of studies on poverty and rural development in India have been conducted by the eminent researchers of the country.

Studies on poverty in India during the seventies have realized that the benefits of growth will not automatically percolate down to the masses unless redistributive policy measures are adopted. Most of these studies advocated "growth with redistribution" or "growth plus strategy". Though these studies are not generally explicit in their policy and recommendations we may consider these as belonging to the growth school. **(Mishra, 1997)**
There are also widely divergent views about the estimates of poverty in India. Minhas (1970) taking an arbitrary absolute poverty line of Rs. 200 per capita per annum, shows a decline in the percentage of rural population below the poverty line from 52.4 (173 millions) in 1956-57 to 37.1 (154 millions) in 1967-68. To him a large bulk of the rural poor would belong to rural labourers and small cultivators operating holdings below 5 acres. Bardhan (1970-71) taking an absolute poverty line of Rs. 15 per day and using NSS consumer expenditure data and Consumer Price Index for Agricultural Labourers (CPIAL) comes to the conclusion that poverty in rural India has recorded a steep increase during the 1960s. He showed that the percentage of the rural poor has increased from 48 in 1960-61 to 63.1 in 1967-68. Bardhan has provided us another set of estimates for rural poverty based on minimum needs as recommended by the Central Pay Commission (1957-58) with slight modifications, and rural retail prices collected by NSS and adjusted for cash purchase. This set of estimates shows an increase in rural poverty from 38 per cent of the rural population in 1960-61 to about 73 per cent in 1967-68. The main reasons for such wide and divergent estimates are the differences in the consumer expenditure data and the deflator used. While the use of GDP deflator by Minhas, (1970) underestimates poverty line and thus poverty, the use of CPIAL may over-estimate poverty line and thus poverty. Thus, poverty estimates of both the studies may not be reliable. Both these studies ignore the analysis of factors of poverty. However, we can trace inequalities in the distribution of land and unemployment as the causes implicit in the Minhas analysis.

Dandekar and Rath (1971) are also not explicit about the causes of poverty. But they are explicit about the causes of income inequality which is taken implicitly as the causes of poverty. They attribute the prevailing inequalities in the distribution of income to the unequal distribution of the means of production (land and industrial capital) and employment and underemployment. Redistribution of the means of production, they consider, is not feasible or desirable. Minhas (1970) and Dantawala (1973) also do not see much scope for redistribution of the means of production.

Dantawala (1973) seems to consider underutilization of human resources to be the chief cause of poverty. This view is shared by many studies.

Dwivedi (1976) in his study considers low income, savings and capital, low production, primitive agriculture and lack of market orientation and lack of education to be only the superficial causes of poverty. To him the chief cause of poverty in the
concentration of economic power. It is this economic power through which all the major decisions are taken in favour of the rich and not-so poor classes.

A Nation-wise study of SGRY covering 12 states namely Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu and West Bengal coordinated by Rangacharyulu (2005) and others, recommended that states with high incidence of poverty and unemployment urgently need to enhance the fund allocation under the programme after making a realistic assessment of the demand for work in rural areas.

Appreciating the fact that SGSY is a process oriented programme, which seeks to prepare the swarozgaris for financial discipline and market operations slowly and steadily, the progress so far is not remarkable as per the study undertaken by Purushottam (2005) and others on National study on SGSY- a process study. Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Mizoram and Tripura are the states where the study was conducted.

A study made by Jayalakshmi (2003) and others on SGRY in four states namely Bihar, Goa, Haryana, and Uttaranchal found that the Zila Parishads role had been marginalized in view of the DRDA taking up full responsibility, whereas, the Gram Panchayats had taken advantage of the given opportunities and utilized the fund and foodgrain for benefit of the village development. The Gram Sabha has an important role in the planning, implementation and monitoring of SGRY. The perceptual analysis shows that a majority of the respondents were not aware of the programme. Therefore, there is a need for educating people about the programme. The study has also found that there was gender discrimination in wages between males and females in case of both skilled and unskilled labourers.

Hemalatha (2006) provides deep insights into the overall strengths and weaknesses of SHGs as effective vehicles for development and empowerment of women. In respect of social mobilization, intra-household status of women, the study shows striking results even in the most backward areas with respect to women empowerment. It has been found in the study that group approach is relatively more effective and sustainable to initiate and implement developmental efforts.

Chatterjee, (2003) carried out a study on SHGs in Jampur in Uttar Pradesh. The study brought out some of the important issues of implementation of SGSY in the district. Putting more emphasis on social mobilization through SHGs, this study
reveals that due to complex banking rules and regulations, the poor are suffering. There should be flexibility in banking rules. Banking should be strengthened with adequate manpower.

Rama Krishna, (2003) examines the role of SHGs in empowering rural poor in Paravda village of Visakhapatnam. The study reveals that SHG concept was successful to some extent in achieving social empowerment and economic progress through improving access to institutional credit. The study further reveals that SHGs have a positive impact on beneficiaries especially women in respect of social and economic empowerment such as improvement in participation in the development programmes, ability to meet government officials, awareness of property rights, improving decision making, improving marketing, communication skills, building self-confidence and the living standards of beneficiaries.

Prasad et al. (2004) argues that SHGs need better infrastructure support not only in the form of market complexes, work sheds, good roads, better transport but also in the form of better backward linkages and institutional support wherever possible. The study puts more emphasis on skill upgradation in non-firm sector and further reveals that the technology interventions are practically non-existent in the current working environment of SHGs and technology action plan is essential for the SHGs operating in the field.

The study made by Pradhani (1995) on poverty eradication programmes suggested the measure of measuring of the utility of rural development programmes on the basis of feedback from the beneficiaries at the field level, instead of measuring it through quantitative (targeted) achievements.

Kabeer (2001) and Hashemi et al. (1996) use the ethnographic methods in their studies on the importance of women testimonies. In evaluating the impact of any intervention, including a credit programme, it is important to pay utmost attention as to how the participants view the impact on their lives. Of course, the participants' views are only the beginning of the analysis and not the end. But they form a necessary base for an analysis of impact.

A large number of loans are still disbursed in the names of women to be used by the men of the households. This has been noticed in the studies made by Goetz and Sen Gupta (1996) and Hashemi et al. (1996). Goetz and Sen Gupta negatively characterize the increase in women's involvement in rural development programmes; Unless substitutes are found for women's reproductive work at home, women's
experience of participation can be negative, exacting a high cost in terms of intensified demands on women's labour. There is certainly an important case for public intervention to enable women to adopt labour-saving methods in domestic work through electrification, provision of cooking gas etc.

Fisher and Sriram (2002) have shown in their studies that micro-credit is necessary but is not a sufficient condition for micro-enterprise promotion. They believe that identification of livelihood opportunities, establishing market linkages for inputs and outputs, adopting technologies, organizing producers, sub-sector analysis and policy reform would be required to upscale the micro enterprises and create a strong impact in the rural areas. Prasad (2000) is of the opinion that there has been a growing realization of the important role that NGOs play in socio-economic development particularly in bringing about decentralized development with a focus on upliftment of the weaker sections of the society.

Daniel Crowell (2003) pinpoints Self-Employed Women's Associations (SEWA) rural development programmes and its remarkable success in fostering the economic and social well being of rural women in informal sector in Gujrat despite heavy odds like hostile weather conditions, marginal land, acute scarcity of water, an unforgiving environment and limited access to capital.

Shandilya's (1995) study points out that the success of any productive venture of SHGs would depend on the availability of appropriate inputs, information and markets. The linkage with banks could be extremely helpful in the case of the SHGs involved in income generating activities. The study concludes that despite constant improvement in the status of women related to the physical quality of life indices, women are still associated with traditional occupations and his situation can be overcome through training and support systems.

According to Damyanti (1997), these traditional root groops, which are based on the principles of need and collective action, provide self-reliance. The SHGs bring out the capacity of women in moulding the community in right perspective and also explore the initiative of women in taking up entrepreneurial ventures. The SHGs empower women and train them to take active part in the socio-economic progress of the nation and make them sensitized, self-made and self-disciplined. The SHGs have inculcated great confidence in the minds of rural women to succeed in their day-to-day life.
Karmakar (1998) who reviewed SHG programme in Orissa is of the opinion that the empowerment opportunities through SHG for rural women and the chance for them to take up IGPs and assist in their family incomes has been a powerful incentive. However, both banks and NGOs are yet to see this as an alternative channel for rural credit delivery in Orissa inspite of a large number of rural women who have formed the possibility of linking up more SHGs as part of their legitimate business activity. The operational problems in the SHGs-bank linkage model need to be sorted out for wider replication.

Kumar (1999) has analyzed the concept of SHGs and projected the benefits of SHGs accruing to the rural poor. Apart from meeting the credit needs for emergency or consumption purposes, SHGs are also involved in income generation programmes. Linking of SHGs with banks has further enhanced availability of micro credit financing to the groups.

According to Gurumoorthy (2000), empowering women contribution to the development, economic progress in any country whether developed or underdeveloped can be achieved through social development. The Self-Help-Group disburses micro credit to the rural women for the purpose of making them enterprising women and encouraging them to enter into entrepreneurial activities. All the credit needs of the rural women were fulfilled through the self-help-groups. SHGs enhance equality of status of women as participants, decision-makers and beneficiaries in the democratic, economic, social and cultural spheres of life. SHGs also encourage women to take active part in the socio-economic progress of our nation.

Muragan and Dharmalingan (2000) argued that empowerment of women through SHGs would lead to benefits not only to the individual women and women groups but also for the family and community as a whole through collective action for development. Empowerment is not just for meeting their economic needs but also through more holistic social development.

Puhazendi and Sai (2001) point out in their study, that the involvement of the rural poor in SHG significantly contributed to their “social empowerment” in terms of empowerment in their confidence, their treatment within the family, communication skills and other behavioural changes. More so, the empirical finding of the study revealed that the SHG as institutional arrangement could positively contribute to the economic and social empowerment of rural poor and the impact on the latter was more pronounced than in the former.
Vijayan (2001) made a study on women development and micro enterprises in Trivandrum district of Kerala. The study examined the development of poor women in terms of educational, social and economical aspects. It showed that 70 per cent of women are engaged in micro enterprises, individual as well as group enterprises such as candle making, rice/wheat flour, bakery items, curry powder, vegetables etc. The income is used to supplement the family income thereby reducing poverty levels. All of them are able to independently make bank transactions. In social development aspects, majority of the women have gained confidence in public speaking, have become more cooperative and articulate and increased their self-confidence. Their participation in Gram Sabhas and Panchayats have increased. During their weekly meetings, they discuss many social issues like alcoholism, health and hygiene, sanitation, environmental pollution and womens issues. Several awareness and training programmes on health, sanitation, education, childcare and vocational training increased the knowledge and skill. The study concludes that the development of women should start from the SHG and economic stability is the corner stone for empowerment of women.

In another study by Basu, Purabi and Bera, Nabendu (2002) the authors examined the impact of development programmes on women in terms of their access to and control over resources along with their standard of living and also the necessity for empowerment in the context of development and group awareness both at the individual as well as group/community level. Promotion of sustainable eco-friendly livelihood systems through animal husbandry, encouraging small entrepreneurship, promotion of savings habit and provision of credits for SHG members through different financial institutions created good effect on village women. Inspite of this no member women showed interest in savings. DWCRA project had made a significant contribution by providing financial assistance for self- employment this had been considered a tool for community development, which helps the women accept a particular model of empowerment through income and awareness generation programmes.

Yelue and Sahoo (2002) conducted a study on SHG and tribal women empowerment in Nanded district of Maharashtra. The study was carried out on five SHGs comprising 20 members each belonging to Dhanger, Wangani and Golla tribal community in Nanded, Loha and Kandhar blocks. Most of the SHG members were involved in economic activities like goat keeping, small poultry farm, collecting forest
product, maintaining livestock etc. The study found an increased awareness among
the SHG women in literacy and continuing education, sanitation and health care, more
freedom in mobility inside and outside the village; financial and service support for
self employment, adoption of small family norm etc. Some of them have started
working as Sanghatika and Saha Sanghatika, which sows their leadership qualities,
alongwith improvement in communication skill and building up of self-confidence.

Boraian (2003) attempts to assess the process of empowerment of women
through SHGs. promoted by eight NGO's which received funds from a donor agency
in Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. The study observed that cash flow in the group
and their family has increased, members with greater access to credit and their
families has increased, members have greater access to credit and their emergency as
well as other needs have been met with ease. The gatherings of women in SHG
meeting are not merely meant for collection of savings, distribution of credit, and
recovery of loan, it is much beyond all these. Self Help Groups serve as a forum for
human resource and social relations development too. These enhance their exposure,
awareness and knowledge about the external world. SHGs contribute to their overall
personality development too. Alcoholism among the husbands is treated as their
archrival by the SHGs. The groups take active part in the proceedings of the Gram
Sabha. An impact study of an NGO in Andhra Pradesh observes, in the control village
resources and services are mainly male dominated whereas Awaka village show a
curtailment of male monopoly and a shift towards joint decisions, joint ownership and
control. It is concluded that there is a steady reversal from subservience to self-
dependence, and secondary citizenship to partnership resulting in greater equality and
gender balance.

Sarangi (2003) states that women-led SHGs in many parts of the country have
achieved success in bringing the women to the mainstream of decision-making. SHG
is also a viable set up to disburse micro credit to the rural women and encourage them
to enter into entrepreneurial activities. The women-led SHGs successfully
demonstrated how to mobilize and manage thrift, appraise credit in the block and are
extending a helping hand to the district administration in different rural development
projects ranging from construction of roads to sanitation programmes.

Puyalvannam (2003) attempted to examine the status of SHGs in Trichy and
Pudukkotai districts of Tamil Nadu. The study mainly focuses on micro-credit
innovations and the role played by NGOs and the century cooperative organization in
the state of Tamil Nadu in forming and linking SHGs with them. The study reveals that women are credit-worthy and responsible users of credit. Repayment is as high as 98 per cent in both the districts. The author recommended that cooperatives should involve in promoting SHGs directly as done by NGOs with commercial banks in a short span of time, should be followed by cooperatives loans have to be granted simultaneously, and a network of peer groups can act as a positive influence.

Singh (2003) examined the experience of Mysore Resettlement Development Agency (MYRDA) in fostering self-groups. The rural poor with the intermediation of voluntary organizations join together for self-help to secure better economic growth. This has resulted in the formation of a large number of SHGs in the country, which mobilize savings and recycle the resources generated among members. Most SHGs have come up due to the dynamic leadership of certain individuals within a group or through the catalytic role played by the NGOs in developing such groups. One such NGO is MYRDA whose mission is building of peoples institution to ensure access and control over resources for sustainable development and self-reliance. MYRDA has over 1006 groups of women, which focus on women’s rights and access to, and control of resources, which they require to ensure a sustainable livelihood.

Rao (2004) studied the all-round development achieved by the SHG/DWCRA women groups in Andhra Pradesh. The study observed that the increase in the level of awareness after joining the groups about sending the girl child to school, for a period of five years is evident. Data indicate that more women are sending their girl child to school than in the past. After joining the groups there is an increase in the number of women adopting small family norm. The increased role of women in decision-making process of their daughters’ marriage reflects their enhanced articulation. Increasingly more women are playing important roles in the domestic activities. Though proper guidance, women are now able to solve their own problems like drinking water, privacy through low cost sanitation, horticulture, school for the girl child, road to their village etc. Varying levels of participation by women in the study reflected the degree of social development coupled with economic independence. The study recommended that more of economically and socially disadvantaged women should be encouraged to form groups.

The state institute of Planning and Rural Development (SIPRD) survey, 2003 revealed that formation and expansion of activities of SHGs can play revolutionary role in accelerating the process of women’s empowerment. The study stressed on
persuading women to join SHGs through different awareness programmes conducted by different government agencies of development and the NGOs. The survey was carried out in seven blocks of Bankura districts of West Bengal. (HDR, Bankura 2007).

3.3 REGIONAL LEVEL STUDIES:

In the regional level, a few impact assessment studies on rural development and poverty alleviation programmes have been reviewed briefly here.

Haloi (2000) in an impact assessment study of centrally sponsored rural development programmes in West Garo Hill district of Meghalaya stated that the various programmes of rural development in the study area, individually as well as collectively created some impact both on poverty reduction and improvement in village life, but compared to the investment and also the depth of the problems related to the quality of life of the villagers, the achievements were far below the expectations. The study reveals that the success of rural development programmes is limited due to lack of peoples participations and political interference in the selection of beneficiaries and multiplicity of the administrative control.

A study made by Subramaniam (2001) critically analyzed that rural poverty in the North East India was below the national average in the early seventies but has gone above it in the early nineties. The poverty alleviation programmes did not show significant contribution to the rural poor. According to him the important causes of the failure of the programmes were geographical isolation, poor infrastructure, insurgency, absence of approaches and directions in development policy. While carrying out the study of self-employment programmes in the region during nineties he made some interesting comments. The study was based on field level discussions with bankers, government officials, local lenders, beneficiaries, non-governmental organizations etc. The study identified certain main issues. It was found that extensive areas of Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur, Nagaland, Mizoram and Tripura have very poor banking networks due to poor road facilities. Owing to poor marketing facilities, traditional barter system exists in some places. On the other hand, credit could not be extended due to the problems related to repayment. In some areas, the rural banks remained closed owing to threat of extremists. Besides, the local elites and people demanded full subsidy in the poverty alleviation and self-employment programmes. The local leadership was not serious in encouraging the rural poor to develop credit
habit. Recovery of loans was poor and the people were interested in waiving the
credits by the government. It is also to be noted that regarding peoples’ perception on
DRDAs the study found official apathy towards beneficiaries. They were not selected
as per the below poverty line lists. At the same time, monitoring of the project was
hardly done and much of the assistance was diverted to consumption expenditure. In
the tribal areas of Nagaland, Mizoram and Tripura, members of Village Councils
selected the beneficiaries and those close to them received financial support. It was
observed that IRDP lost much of its importance after the introduction of the EAS.
Whereas, the routine work under EAS was to achieve targets only, the target
achievement under IRDP had declined sharply in the region and selection of schemes
was ritualistic. The low cost assets and schemes were given to the beneficiaries,
which were not successful in generating income. From the mid-seventies, the target
achievements and assisted number of beneficiaries have declined in Arunachal
Pradesh, Assam and Manipur from 30 to 50 per cent. In the tribal states of the region,
80 to 100 per cent of the beneficiaries in the villages have been covered under IRDP.
On account of this, the banks did not mind in advancing loan to the families who were
not below poverty line. Besides, poor staffing in rural branches, single member
branches were having some problems as observed in the study. The bank personnel
had no understanding of the basic objectives of the poverty alleviation programmes
due to lack of training. They blamed bureaucrats for non cooperation in recovery of
loans for which they have to take sole responsibilities in this regard.

In respect of NGOs, the study found that officials were not interested to
cooperate with the NGOs, and when NGOs were allowed to implement government
programmes, there was much bureaucratic meddling. The long list of do’s and don’ts
of governmental procedures confused the thinking and approach of the NGOs as the
study reveals.

3.4 STATE LEVEL STUDIES:

Studies on rural development programmes in the state of Assam are
discouraging. A few studies on rural development issues in the state of Assam have
been reviewed and summarized in the following paragraphs.

Maithani (2003) observed that approach to poverty alleviation anywhere
required to analyze., (i) identifying the main factors which determine the extent of
income and therefore poverty and (ii) identifying the key elements in the process of
development which affect the degree of poverty and consideration of how development policy can influence the operation of these mechanisms to ensure a favourable impact on the poor. He also observed that employment generation in the era of liberalization has to be based on the model of capitalist private sector development. In the context of Assam, a key question therefore is how the development process can facilitate the emergence of a class of entrepreneurs capable of initiating and sustaining a viable process of capital accumulation. In Assam, though the conditions are conducive, it is the absence of a group of entrepreneurs that has been the key constrain in the development of home grown capitalism in the state. The lack of an enabling environment has clearly been a major factor. The emphasis of the employment-promoting programme should be to create this enabling environment, specially the provision of appropriate infrastructure and training services for the informal sector, tiny and small enterprises.

Sharma (1988) observed that the levels of living of the state of Assam have not made any significant improvement over the twenty-five year period (1955-1980) under study. Her estimates suggested that the levels of living of the state have deteriorated over 25 years of the period of the study. Her study also revealed that between the period of 1975-1980 the nutritional level and leisure aspects had a fall in the state.

Dutta (1993) highlights that the performance of IRDP in Majuli sub division is discouraging in terms of the number of beneficiary families crossing the poverty line but it is impressive in terms of increase in the income of the beneficiary families.

Bora (1992) found that IRDP significantly increased income and employment of the landless and marginal farm beneficiaries. He was of the view that IRDP had a positive impact on income and employment generation. However, the study reveals that the performance of IRDP in Dibrugarh district is not encouraging in terms of number of beneficiary families crossing the poverty line. In Assam, IRDP is being implemented 100 per cent by the government agency without involving the grass root level institutions.

Adhyapok (1999) in his study on “Rural Employment Programmes in Assam” observed that poverty alleviation, employment and income generation of the rural people through rural development programmes might be regarded as strategic policy for the development of the rural economy. This study suggested that selection of beneficiaries under self-employment and wage employment schemes were to be
done in a planned way by the rural development programmes implementing agencies at the grass root level. It must be noted that, those who assisted under one or all of these programmes did manage to cross the poverty line. Implementation of these programmes should be within the broader framework of a growing economy with special thrust for poverty alleviation and income and employment generation to the disadvantaged class.

In another study, Rajkhowa (1996) observed that due to faulty selection procedure of beneficiaries and political interference, the impact of IRDP in Assam could not be said to be satisfactory. The large scale decrease and vanishing of IRDP assets indicated the poor performance of the programme. In the repayment side of the IRDP loans, it seemed that the percentage of repayment is very low and sometimes nil. The state government officials were trying to hit the target rather than meeting the objectives of the programme as the study revealed. This study had been carried out in fifteen districts of Assam to evaluate the IRDP implemented in the respective districts.

In his doctoral work, Goswami (2003) explained that the various rural development programmes implemented in Jorhat District of Assam had not shown satisfactory results. Certain socio-economic, political and technical problems were responsible for poor performance of the programmes. Among these problems, malpractices by the DRDA functionaries were one of the root causes of poor performance of the programmes.

A few more studies on rural development issues of other states have been reviewed below:

A study undertaken by D. Rajasekhar, K.G. Gayathri Devi and Sachidananda Satapathy (2007) on Good Governance and poverty Alleviation revealed that although the programme is good it has suffered due to many problems. Inadequate functional assignment, lack of infrastructure in the rural areas and non-cooperation of government agencies are the major causes for slow progress of the SGSY scheme. The study suggests that the people should follow the good governance principles and decentralization for income earning through employment generation.

In the study made on ‘Micro-Finance - A magic word for poverty Alleviation’ a case study of SGSY programme conducted by D.C. Pathak and S.K. Pant, (2009) it was explained that the contribution of SGSY in respect of changing the income level of swarozgaries was not significant. They found the main reason to be the
inadequate infrastructure facilities in the rural areas to start a new micro-enterprise. Moreover improper selection of beneficiaries and corruption of concerned officers were the other reasons for insignificant performance of SGSY.

**Poverty Eradication in India by 2015 - A strategy paper on Rural Household (2008)** submitted by Department of Rural Department, Ministry of Rural Development, Govt. of India, 15th November 2008, revealed that if self employment and skill development was expanded and universalized under the restructured SGSY and at least one member from about 1.4 crore households and one member from about 1.7 crore households, especially youth, was provided self employment and skill development respectively then it would be possible to lift the 4.5 crore BPL households above the poverty line by 2015.

Dynamics of Rural Development a compiled study edited by Debendra Kr. Das (2007) points out that effective implementation of rural development programme depends on the proper identification of the poor for whom the scheme are chalked out.

A study on “Globalization and Rural Development”-conducted by S. Dharmaraj (2007) found that the demographic changes may influence the level of social and economic development. He reveals that where net immigration is much, there economic development is also better and where rate of out immigration is higher, there economic development is lower.

‘Micro credit and Rural Development’- A study report of A. Kumari and N. Melathi (2009) expressed that micro credit was the new concept which may raise the living standard of the rural poor by fulfilling their minimum needs.

Dhruv Singh (2007) in his study on ‘Rural Development- Issue on the Horizon’ revealed that the rural development mainly depended on what extent various schemes and programmes had the ability to fulfill the needs of those for whom these schemes and programmes were introduced.

Sandeep Kumar and Smita Angad (2007) in their study on ‘Changing Face of Rural India- Journey of rural credit in India over the past sixty years’ stated that a persistance of Government and Non-Government organization is necessary to realize the dream of financial inclusion for all sections of the society in the remotest areas.

M.S.Kular (2009) in his study on ‘Micro credit through SHGs’ has focussed how micro finance provided through SHGs could combat the poverty and thereby increase the pace of rural development.
Anita Gogna and Satish Verma (2009) in their study made on ‘Micro credit and poverty Alleviation’ expressed that poverty can be alleviated by introducing various schemes and programmes.

Mysore Resettlement Development Agency (MYRADA) of 2000 made a study on women empowerment in the state of Andhra Pradesh and found that empowerment of women was possible only by the micro finance programme through self help groups. Micro credit scheme could only provide better employment avenues for women and make them economically independent and self-reliant.

Shylendra (2004) has analysed the progress and performance of the self-help groups bank linkage programme in the state of Gujrat and examined the role played by different bodies like NABARD, NGO and SHGs. The study revealed that if the poor were properly motivated and given proper education and training then they could generate some funds for setting-up micro enterprise which can improve the condition of the poor.

National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD-2005) carried out a study on Micro credit for micro enterprises in Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Tamilnadu and Maharashtra. It was revealed that self help groups led micro credit movement and micro enterprise development could alleviate poverty from the rural areas.

Kumaran, K.P. (1999) had analyzed the concept of SHGs and revealed that SHGs were not only helpful for meeting the credit needs of their members but these were also helpful in generating income for its members.

Narayansamy (2005) defined that women are the main key by engaging with micro enterprise they can close the poverty.

John, E. Akoten (2006) indicated in his study on “Micro credit and small enterprises” play an important role in improving the standard of living of rural and urban people in developing countries. He stated for eradicating poverty, active participation of women in income generating and saving motivating activities is more important.

Although several studies relating to the evaluation and assessment of various rural development programmes including SGSY have been conducted in different parts of our country, a thorough and extensive investigation is still required to make the rural development programmes self sustained and result oriented.

After reviewing some of the well-known studies made by earlier researchers we are of the opinion that our study made on ‘An Evaluative study of
Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) in Kamrup District (Rural) of Assam will contribute something new to the existing literature on rural development.
REFERENCES


29. **Maithani, B.P.(2003):** *Rural Employment Opportunities in Assam*, NIRD, Guwahat
41. **Sandilya,:** ‘Changing Status of Indian Women- A Myth or Reality’, Contemporary Indian Women, Polities, Awareness and Women’s Movements, Vol. 4, New Delhi


