CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The related literature has been reviewed with the objective of understanding the background of the beneficiary group and the TRYSEM programme and its guidelines. Further, the studies on TRYSEM were reviewed to identify the gaps in the programme execution and the need for conducting the present study.

The literature has been presented under the following sections:

2.1. Scheduled Caste People—A Prelude
2.2. Problems of Scheduled Caste Women
2.3. Salient Features of TRYSEM
2.4. Studies on TRYSEM

2.1. SCHEDULE CASTE PEOPLE—A PRELUDE

Since the dawn of history, Indian society has been characterised by rigid class divisions based largely on the principle of caste. Hinduism, with its dictum of division of labour, stratified society into four castes. The untouchable community under Sudra caste
were ordained to serve the other three castes namely, Brahmins, Kshatriyas and Vaishyas. Casteism was practised in a form inconsistent with human dignity and decorum. The ultimate victims of the religious bigotry were the untouchables, who led a life of slavery and serfdom which reminds us of the problems of Negroes in America and apartheid in South Africa.

The untouchables were poor, illiterate and steeped in superstitions. A majority of them took to hereditary occupations and lived a nomadic life. They worked as sweepers, scavengers, shoe-makers, agricultural coolies, and village servants. They did menial jobs and subsisted on meagre income. They were condemned to live in insanitary surroundings and social segregation. They were born in poverty, lived in poverty and died in poverty, a syndrome characteristic of 34 per cent of the present-day Indian masses.

In 1901, Risley, the Census Commissioner attempted for the first time to classify the Hindu Castes, but his classification was rather broad. He divided the entire community merely into seven categories. Then in 1911, an enquiry was held to ascertain which of the
castes and tribes were discriminated against on religious and social grounds. In 1921, these castes were named the depressed class for the first time.

On enactment of the Government of India Act, 1935, some of the undefined depressed castes were singled out in 1936, and listed in a schedule in order to ensure certain concessions and privileges to them because of their disadvantaged position in the social hierarchy. Because their names had been "Scheduled" or shown in a schedule, they came to be known as Scheduled Castes (Das, 1986). Gandhiji called them "Harijans". The term Harijan is synonymous with the terms untouchables, Scheduled Castes and depressed classes. The social setting characterised by backwardness, discrimination, exploitation, illiteracy, ill health, inequalities, poverty, unemployment and serfdom called for a national effort for the uplift of those unfortunate people.

2.1.1. Welfare Measures

In 1947, the Government of India realised that the population of Scheduled Castes who constituted 15 per cent of the total population, remained socially oppressed, economically exploited and culturally
backward and that they needed special constitutional safeguards. Towards this end, the constitution of India has provided reservation of seats in the Indian Parliament, State Legislatures, other elected bodies, public services, and general as well as technical educational institutions. The Government passed the Untouchability Act in 1955 to abolish Untouchability. Five-Year Plans have given greater thrust to the programmes for the welfare of Scheduled Castes. The amount allotted for Scheduled Caste development, in various Five-Year Plans has shown a rising trend. About one half of the plan amount was earmarked for educational schemes and the rest was divided equally between (a) schemes of economic uplift and (b) health, housing and other schemes. The Government also grants concessions in maximum age limit and fees prescribed for admission to examinations and also provides free tuition, stipend, scholarships, books, stationery etc.

2.1.2. Occupational Pattern

Governmental measures of protection and promotion have produced desired but marginal impact on the living conditions of the Scheduled Caste people in the past. But their social isolation and economic backwardness
have not been tackled satisfactorily. This is mainly due to the failure of Government schemes to deliver the Scheduled Caste population from the shackles of age-old occupations in which they were engaged.

Traditionally, Scheduled Caste people were engaged in menial occupations such as sweeping, scavenging, shoe-making, tanning, cobbling, disposal of carcass, basketry and so on. It is true that due to the advent of economic development, the occupational pattern of Scheduled Caste population has changed albeit slowly. The traditional barriers to occupational mobility are rapidly breaking down and many new and more remunerative fields of employment are being thrown open to the members of these classes. Participation of Scheduled Castes in working force has been rising both in rural and urban areas. They are slowly entering into non-traditional occupations. The proportion of Scheduled Caste population in activities like construction, mining, quarrying, forestry, plantation etc. is increasing with the advent of structural transformation occurring in the economy.
2.1.3. Unremunerative Occupational Structure

All said and done, a majority of the people belonging to the Scheduled Caste community are engaged even today in occupations which are either *low productive or less remunerative. Currently one-third of the agricultural labour in the country is said to be contributed by Scheduled Caste population. But the woes of agricultural labourers are enormous. They get only seasonal employment for a period of four to five months in a year and receive low daily wages. In fact, unemployment and low wages are the major problems facing the Scheduled Caste workers which leads to their low economic status. Most of them do not possess land and even the marginal and small farmers among them are driven to the rank of landless labourers due to growing economic and social difficulties. The Green Revolution, instead of ameliorating their lot, has only pauperised them in many cases.

2.1.4. Special Component Plan

The Government formulated a Special Component Plan for the welfare of Scheduled Castes according to the guidelines issued by the Ministry of Home Affairs in
According to this scheme, all the government departments were advised to ensure a specific optimal share for the Scheduled Castes in the resultant employment, training and other such benefits of the plan schemes. The development efforts of Scheduled Castes received special emphasis from the Sixth-Five Year Plan onwards. Provision of social facilities such as schools, health centres, veterinary dispensaries, co-operatives, drinking water, link roads, street-lights, sanitation etc., in the Scheduled Caste habitations became a major plank in the Government's strategy. It has also taken up a number of socio-economic programmes for the development of Scheduled Castes. One such programme aiming at poverty alleviation through skill training and employment generation is TRYSEM.

2.2. Problems of Scheduled Caste Women

About half of the 11.5 crores Scheduled Caste and Tribe population in India, as per 1991 census, are women. Bringing all of them above the poverty line is a stupendous task. At both the national and the state level, plans and programmes exist for the economic and
human resource development of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, but women have not received any special mention in these as to their needs, their problems and the methods for relieving them of their hardships. It has been taken for granted that whatever economic or welfare measures have been formulated for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, they will automatically reach their women also (Dahiwale, 1980).

Although women's representation in employment has increased somewhat, quantitatively, in qualitative terms, there is a greater shift towards low paid, low status and unskilled jobs in agriculture where the wages are very low. (Pimpley et al., 1989), The literacy rates among women are disappointingly poor in comparison with women of other social groups.

Rahate (1985) observed that some Scheduled Caste women in the rural areas had left their traditional occupation totally, whereas some were not willing to leave their traditional job. Doshi (1980) revealed that 72.4 per cent of the Harijans were engaged in non-conventional jobs. Lapoint (1985) suggested that due to the industrial growth in the urban areas, a number of
them got employed in various jobs but mostly the lowest paid ones.

Heggade (1985) reported that the Scheduled Caste women remain till today the least benefitted section of our society. They are often not provided with proper share in work opportunities and continually remain being exploited. The economic problems of women labour range from growing unemployment, low wages, long duration of work hours, stagnant and deteriorating working conditions, discrimination of wages between male and female workers, absence of job security, and irregularly implemented protective legislations like social security, minimum wages, social insurance etc.

The study done by Murli et al. (1981), among women labourers in construction industry reveals that 46 per cent were Scheduled Castes and 21 per cent tribals. Their wage rates were lower than those of men and hardly any contractor adhered to the labour laws.

Seventy-three per cent of the Harijan women in the study group of Prasad (1985) belonged to the category of landless workers. They remained unemployed for an average of 3.8 months during the year. The average
daily wage rate of each adult woman was Rs.10/- . Their average land holdings was 1.03 acres of dry land and most of them were illiterate,

Lalitha and Krishna (1987) in their study of, 42 Harijan families, report that a majority of the women worked as agricultural labourers, including those whose family had a small piece of land. Also, most of the girls between 10 and 14 (before marriage) worked as coolies. Among the 55 Harijan families in Raigur, all the 68 adult women were agricultural labourers, including members of those 36 families who had a bit of land.

The National Commission on Self-Employed Women and Women in the Informal Sector laid considerable emphasis on the provision of training for promotion of skills, credit, raw materials, marketing and work space for home-based workers in its recommendations to the Government (Government of India, 1988). As a result, the Eighth Five-year Plan incorporated provision of these inputs for informal sector workers in its broad policy perspectives (Government of India, 1992).
The major work-related constraints faced by women, according to Pathak and Patnaik (1994), include lack of adequate demand for their labour, and work places for women working within their one-room dwelling units which are also poorly lit and ventilated, which has negative effect on the health of home-based workers. The women who depend on middlemen often face harassment in the form of availability of less work, high rate of rejection as well as large cuts from their wages. Some women also experience sexual harassment.

Manohar (1983) reports that women workers enter the unorganised sector at an early age due to economic pressures. They belong mainly to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The wages in this sector are generally below the subsistence level and lead to indebtedness, lack of assets, illiteracy and lack of skills.

Ghosh (1993) reports that women of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are mainly involved in beedi-rolling scheme. Mandays available in this activity, around 275 days in a year, do not provide full 8 hours work in a day. Women had to work 5 hours a day on an average.
According to Gopalan (1987), the unequal status of women is owing to a vicious circle in which they have got caught. Their low levels or absence of literacy, coupled with low levels of skills, lead to low levels of employment and low wages, confining them very often to marginal categories of work or unpaid work. Consequently, their economic status gets depressed, in turn affecting their general status. Women continue to toil in labour-intensive jobs like rice plantation, cleaning and storing grains, picking leaves and fruits, handshelling groundnut, picking cotton seed, etc. The kind of work they do is often monotonous and full of drudgery, rarely with any intervention of an appropriate technology. These factors are brought out in Figure 1.

Conclusion

Women from Scheduled Castes suffer from twin problems-born out of their social status and gender group. They struggle much more than other women in a multitude of spheres. Every one of their problems is not only complicated but also compounds other problems. The Government has been paying less attention than they deserve, but it now appears to be slowly awakening.
2.3. SALIENT FEATURES OF TRYSEM

2.3.1. Genesis

TRYSEM is an acronym which stands for Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment. The scheme was announced in July 1979. The first training course was inaugurated by the then Prime Minister, Chaudhury Charan Singh at the training centre of the Khadi and Village Industries Commission at Gandhi Darshan, New Delhi, on 15th August 1979 (Vidulatha, 1990).

2.3.2. Objectives

The principal objective of the scheme is removal of unemployment among rural youth by equipping them with necessary skills and techniques to take up self employment in agriculture and allied activities, industries, services and business activities (The Hindu, 1994). The training is imparted with the ultimate objective that rural youths, after completing the different courses, would either be provided with wage employment or set up their own trade, so as to start self employment.
2.3.3. Target group

Only youth belonging to the target groups of small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers, rural artisans and others below the poverty line are eligible to benefit by the scheme (Santhanam and Singh, 1991).

2.3.4. Special Provisions for Weaker Sections

From the year 1990-91, it has been made mandatory that a minimum of 50 per cent youths trained should belong to Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes and the coverage of women in reality, has gone up to 40 per cent. Three per cent of the benefits had been earmarked for physically handicapped persons capable of taking up self/wage employment. The revisions were made to keep parity with the reservations in the Integrated Rural Development Programme (Ghosh, 1993). It was envisaged to train the rural youth at the rate of 40 per block in a year.

2.3.5. Training Programmes

Under the scheme, there are training programmes for the illiterates, semi-literates and the literates. For many trades, the educational qualification, as
prescribed in Table 2.01, is required to help the trainees understand the theory classes and comprehend the lessons.

TABLE 2.01

MINIMUM EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION PRESCRIBED FOR DIFFERENT TRADES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trade</th>
<th>Minimum qualification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>Pass in +2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typewriting and Shorthand</td>
<td>Pass in 10th standard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tailoring and Dress making</td>
<td>Pass in 8th standard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All engineering trades</td>
<td>Pass in 8th standard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand skill-based trades</td>
<td>No specific educational qualification is fixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like mat-weaving, basket, nylon and fibre bag making, embroidery and lace work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts and crafts training</td>
<td>No specific educational qualification; only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>given by Master craftsmen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3.6.Selection of Training Institutions

The District level TRYSEM Committee, headed by the District Collector, finalises the list of training institutions in each block for conducting the training programmes in different trades. This selection is based on the inspection made by the Project Officers and
Assistant Project Officers, of their past performance. Institutions showing poor performance during previous years are dropped from the list. Likewise, the applications of those institutions who come forward to give TRYSEM training during the current year are considered.

2.3.7. Identification of Training Facilities

Once vocations have been shortlisted, the DRDA prepares a resource inventory of training institutions. This list is made available at all Block headquarters. The facilities may include institutions such as ITIs, Polytechnics, Krishi Vigyan Kendras, Nehru Yuvak Kendras, Khadi and Village Industries Boards, State Institutes of Rural Development, Rural Extension Training Centres, reputed Voluntary Organisations and any departmental facilities available in the area. In addition to this, the services of reputed master craftsmen may also be utilised for training on a limited scale after adequately ascertaining the quality of instruction they are capable of imparting. While selecting training institutions/master craftsmen, it is ensured that they have adequate facilities in terms of
faculty, buildings, etc, for conducting the training programme.

2.3.8. Selection of Trainees

The candidates are selected by a Committee headed by the District Collector with the following members:

1. Project Officer, DRDA (Member Secretary)
2. Divisional Development Officer (Member/Convenor)
2a. Assistant Project Officer-Industries (Member/ Coordinator)
3. Principal, Rural Extension Training Centre (Member)
4. Additional Block Development Officer (Member)
5. Branch Managers of the Banks in the local area (Members), and
6. Representatives of the Training Institutions (Member)

Selection is done on the basis of the following criteria:

- members of the poorest families need be given first preference;
- at least 40 per cent of the candidates need be women;
at least 50 per cent of the candidates be members of Scheduled Caste/Tribe; at least 3 per cent of the benefits be earmarked for physically handicapped persons; and preference be given to persons who have been made literate under the National Literacy-Mission.

The call letter is sent to all the applicants to appear for an interview. The Committee selects fully qualified and deserving candidates who have aptitude for a trade.

No one should be given training for a second spell in the same trade or in some other trade, and if any such cases are found out, the stipend paid is to be recovered and the candidate dropped from the training programme.

2.3.9. Identification of Vocations

The District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) identifies the vocations, in consultation with the district level officers of different departments, keeping in mind their sectoral plans. To give TRYSEM a market orientation, the DRDAs have been directed to get
area skill surveys initiated in their districts to establish demand for various skills. The demand for skills in the nearby urban areas, industrial estates, growth centres and major project areas are also to be kept in view while choosing the trades. The final selection of vocations is to be done keeping in mind the demand for skills, and goods and services required. More than 102 trades have been identified all over the country, but each district has scope only for certain trades.

The list of trades in which training is being given to rural youth under TRYSEM programme as approved by the Government of India is given in the appendix IV.

The list of trades selected is communicated to all the DRDAs before the commencement of the financial year. If any new and innovative trades are selected for training during that year, the training in these trades can be started only after getting clearance from the Commissioner of Rural Development. Any course of six months' duration can be started by the DRDA, with the approval of the District level TRYSEM Committee and reported to the Director of Rural Development/Commissioner of Rural Development subsequently.
Training courses with less than 3 months' duration are limited to 20 per cent of the total number. The aim of training should be to enable the individual to start self employment after the training.

2.3.10. Training Programme

The syllabus prescribed for the programme includes training in job skills as well as managerial and entrepreneurial skills. The latter may include: elements of book keeping; simple knowledge of marketing; acquaintance with product costing; and, familiarisation with project financing by banks.

Training module for each physical skill is to be formulated and maximum emphasis is recommended on learning by doing. It is desired to have contact with successful trainees who have set up self employment ventures after completion of TRYSEM training with the new batch of trainees.(National Bank News Review, 1992).

2.3.11. Stipend

During 1990-93, the stipend sanctioned for a TRYSEM trainee ranged from Rs. 150/- to Rs.250 and Rs.300/- per month for a period of six months. In case
the period of training is less than one month, a daily stipend of Rs.10/- is given, subject to a maximum of Rs.125/- per month and when revised, Rs.12/- is given subject to a maximum of Rs.150/- per month.

In order to facilitate access to effective training facilities for TRYSEM trainees residing in hill areas, it has been decided to allow trainees one-time to and fro travel costs between their place of residence to the place of training, provided the place of training is located outside the trainee's district. Revised scheme from 1994; The Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India revised the stipend of trainees as Rs.350/- per month for those candidates coming from outside the village or town in which the training centre is located.

The norms of stipend followed by the Government since 1979 along with the revisions made during 1983, 1987 and 1991 is given in the appendix III.

The stipend bill is submitted to the DRDAs by all the training institutions with a xerox copy of the attendance register on the 1st working day of every month. The stipend bill is then reviewed, passed and
paid in the form of Demand Draft by the DRDAs and credited to the Savings Bank Account of each trainee in the Bank before 7th of every month. As per the rules laid down, there should be no delay in the payment of stipend, as the regular attendance in TRYSEM training depends on the regular payment of stipend.

2.3.12 Payment to Institutions

A sum of Rs. 100/- per trainee per month is paid to the training institution for the entire duration of the training. An amount of Rs. 75/- per month per trainee is payable to master craftsman as honorarium up to 10 trainees at a time per master craftsman. A sum of Rs.60/- per month is paid to the institution for the purchase of raw materials during the training period.

As per the revised norms for the scheme in 1994, the cost of raw materials is Rs.75/ per trainee per month. It is advanced for one month and on submission of payment vouchers,, the amount is released for next month. The master craftsman is paid Rs.200/- per trainee.
2.3.13. Inspection of Training Centres

The TRYSEM training institutions are periodically inspected once in three months, by the project officer, DRDA once in two months, by the assistant project officers and by the Block Development Officer and Deputy Block Development Officer every month and by surprise. Defects noticed such as false attendance, non-adherence to syllabus, and ineffective teaching by instructors is recorded in the inspection register and reported to the DRDA at once. Stipend is cut for unauthorised absence beyond the leave allowable for each candidate. If any training institution is found to be poor in performance the DRDA stops deputing candidates for training and the name of the institution is removed from the approved list of TRYSEM training institutions.

2.3.14. Test and Certificate

A proficiency test is conducted in the training institutions, after the training period. For those who have completed the training, a certificate of proficiency is issued by the DRDA signed both by the Project Officer and the head of the training
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A proficiency test is conducted in the training institutions, after the training period. For those who have completed the training, a certificate of proficiency is issued by the DRDA signed both by the Project Officer and the head of the training
institutions with the passport size photograph of the candidate. This will help the candidate to get bank credit and start self employment venture.

2.3.15. Supply of Free Tool Kits

As per the revised norms of 1994 issued by the Government of India free tool kits worth Rs.800/- have to be supplied to all the candidates during the course of their training. The tool kits are to be given in the 3rd or 4th month of the training. The Commissioner, of Rural Development Training gives instruction to all the DRDAs about the nature of tools to be supplied to them, and the mode of procuring the quality tool kits at reasonable rates. The project officer has to await instructions from the commissioner of Rural Development training with a view to avoid uneven prices from district to district and ensure uniform good quality.

2.3.16. Sale Proceeds

Fifty per cent of the sale proceeds of articles produced by the trainees during the training period is to be given to the trainees and the remaining 50 per cent may be given to trainer/training institution.
2.3.17. Financing of Projects

Loan applications of TRYSEM trainees for assistance under IRDP has to be completed and processed while training is still in progress, so that loan is disbursed immediately upon completion of the course. Delay in processing can lead to trainee losing interest in the proposition and the benefit of training being lost, or at least reduced.

2.3.18. Support to training infrastructure

The Government of India has a scheme for providing Central assistance to training institutions belonging to Central and State Governments and voluntary organisations which provide training under TRYSEM. Central institutions get a 100 per cent grant, while all other institutions require matching assistance from the Central and State Governments.

Items for which Central assistance is admissible are:

- Building, particularly class rooms and dormitories including minimum essential furnishing
- Workshops,
- Equipment and training aids
Before sanctioning such items, State Level Coordination Committee (SLCC) examines the possibility of hiring buildings, equipment, etc. Rental charges for the duration of training on this account will be capitalised and charged to TRYSEM infrastructure.

**Norms for assistance**

Living space per trainee – upto 50 sq.ft. (including dormitory, kitchen, dining room, toilets, verandha, stores etc.).

Workshed/class room per trainee upto 70 sq.ft.

The cost of construction is decided by the State Government/Union Territories in their respective State/Union Territory level committees taking into account the cost of construction in different regions or districts of the State or for the State as a whole.

**Approval of Proposals**

The Government of India allocate funds to the State. Proposals for assistance for training infrastructure will be sanctioned by State Level Coordination Committee (SLCC). It is first processed by DRDA and by the Governing body.
2.3.19. PROGRAMME COVERAGE

**TABLE 2.2**

COVERAGE OF SC/ST AND WOMEN IN TRYSEM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plan period</th>
<th>SC/STs</th>
<th>Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sixth plan</td>
<td>3,33,928 (32.9%)</td>
<td>3,42,744 (33.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventh plan</td>
<td>4,22,145 (42.3%)</td>
<td>4,59,505 (46.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Plan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91</td>
<td>1,05,441 (44.0%)</td>
<td>1,16,623 (50.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991-92</td>
<td>1,38,697 (45.0%)</td>
<td>1,59,849 (52.0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Annual Report of the Department of Rural Development,

The proportion of women enrolled under the scheme slowly rose from 33.8 per cent during sixth plan period to 46.0 per cent during the seventh plan period and 50 and 52 per cent, respectively during the annual plan period that followed. The proportion of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe in the beneficiary group also went up in almost the same trend from 32.9 per cent during the sixth plan period to 45 per cent by 1991-92. Thus indicating a programme trend in Scheduled Caste and Scheduled tribe women's enrolment in the scheme.

Conclusion:

TRYSEM is one of the major poverty alleviation programmes aimed at skill development among the
unskilled and underskilled youth living at subsistence level. It is aimed at equipping them for self or wage employment. The scheme has been very clearly conceived to help the poorest of the poor in underprivileged and underdeveloped groups. The scheme has special reservation for women and Scheduled Caste/Scheduled Tribe groups and this has enabled a fair level of representation of women among the beneficiary group.

2.4. Studies on TRYSEM

2.4.1. Employment Generation through TRYSEM

A study conducted in Kerala (1985) by the National Institute of Rural Development, states that the scheme enabled a few of the trainees to get only wage employment. For generating self employment, the scheme had not been a success.

The study conducted by the Ministry of Rural Reconstruction (1981) on TRYSEM has revealed that, out of 140 youth trained, 61 were unemployed, 13 self employed, and 43 wage employed. The remaining 24.5 percent of the trainees could not be benefitted from this programme, although the training was reported to be useful.
According to Singh (1989), out of the 760 Scheduled Caste candidates trained between 1983-84, 572 candidates (75.25%) got self employment. In the case of women candidates, only 57.6 per cent were self employed.

Reddy (1987), in his study on "TRYSEM in a Drought prone Area", in Anantapur District, reveals that, during the year 1980-81, 538 rural youth, including 95 women were given training in various vocations. Only 14.74 per cent of them were able to become self employed.

*Soundarapandian (1991) in his study in Kamarajar District of Tamil Nadu, shows that, after completion of the training programme, 74.66 per cent (1,414) of the beneficiaries got wage employment and 11.51 per cent (218) got self employment. The remaining 13.83 per cent (262) of the beneficiaries were still unemployed.

Reddy (1990) observed that the average annual income of the youth trained in tailoring was Rs.1,120 per year before the training and assistance and after training and provision of a sewing machine to each trainee, their annual income increased substantially to
Rs.10,700, the difference being Rs.9,580. In the case of the youth trained in poultry, there was considerable rise in their annual income from Rs.940 to Rs. 9,100 between the pre-training and post-assistance period. Increase in the annual income of carpenters, potters, electricians and others from pre-training assistance period to post-training assistance period was Rs.8,400, Rs.6,840, Rs.10,250 and Rs.6,940 respectively. The study thus confirmed that, with the training under TRYSEM, there was substantial increase in their earnings.

Mishra (1985) states a mixed reaction from the trainees with respect to post training facilities, Those who had settled in self ventures with the help of Government subsidy and bank loans were very much happy and had all praise for the Scheme.

The trained unemployed, according to Krishnan (1991), outnumbered the self employed persons. Before training, in the view of Reddy (1990), the TRYSEM beneficiaries in general were employed on an average only for a few hours in a day ranging from 1.0 to 3.5 manhours. After the training, they gained additional
employment to the tune of 4.5 manhours per day, on an average, in case of tailoring. In case of poultry, it increased from 1.0 hour to 7.5 hours a day, carpentry 3 hours per day to 9 hours, and pottery 2 to 6 hours a day. Thus a considerable increase in the average number of hours of work per day was reported for all the beneficiaries trained and assisted under TRYSEM programme. However, the additional employment generated was not up to the desired level.

An evaluation study of the implementation of TRYSEM in four districts of Tamil Nadu viz., Kanyakumari, Chenglepet, Tirunelveli and Tanjore by the Small Industry, Extension Training Institute (1985), Hyderabad shows that, out of 413 beneficiaries, only 175 were self-employed. The trades covered were 30, and half of the persons (83) were engaged in tailoring. The only other exemption was the match industry where all the persons trained could become self-employed. In trades like coir, rope and mats, the results were negligible in generating self employment. It revealed that 67 out of 70 who received assistance for self employment belonged to tailoring and no other
trade worth the name offered scope for self employment or financial assistance.

Ramaiah and Rao (1991) report that out of 150 Scheduled Caste persons trained, nearly 80 (53.34%) established their own firms or business. In another study done in Hissar district of Haryana, Soundarapandian (1991) reports self employment of 41 persons among the 79 trained in handloom. Out of 85 trained in carpentry, 43 were self employed or working on wages with other carpenters.

According to Ghosh (1993), because of low wage rate, women trained under TRYSEM in spinning, and beedi-making could earn, on an average only Rs.15 per day, by working for 5 to 6 hours a day. As the jobs were not available throughout the year, her average annual income dwindled further to Rs.3150/-. For rolling one thousand beedis, the remuneration was only Rs.13/-. In these cases, improvement can be effected only through rise in their wage rates. The study points to the fact that wage employment cannot liberate poor families from the clutches of poverty. Yet TRYSEM helps women earn something for their families.
Conclusion

The studies reveal an employment generation ranging from 33 to 90 per cent among TRYSEM trainees in general, while for women trainees it varied from 14.7 per cent (Reddy, 1987) to 57.6 per cent (Singh, 1989). The income earned in trades like tailoring and carpentry became ten-fold though in some trades, it increased only four times. The average earnings in the case of women trainee was however reported low. The highest amount, reported was Rs.15 per day (Ghosh, 1993).

2.4.2. Weaknesses of the Programme

According to Subabarao (1985), there is very little coordination among the block level administration, the banks, the DIC and the DRDA. The scheme did not have much impact in the State/Districts with the highest poverty ratios as they suffer from low per capita income and also low potential demand.

An evaluation study conducted in Goa, Daman, Diu (1985) by the Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad, reports that publicity of TRYSEM scheme has been on a low key since the introduction of the scheme in the State. Most of the current trainees and also the
past trainees were not clear about the objectives of the scheme.

Chachadi (1989) is of the view that, this programme is inadequate and ineffective in fulfilling the set objective of self employment. The evaluation study of TRYSEM conducted by the Indian Institute of Management (1985) reports that, in a number of cases, the objective of self employment could not be achieved due to insistence of banks on customary security which the trainees were not able to offer as they belonged to a target group that had no financial resources. Certain trades like khadi weaving and carpet weaving could provide only wage employment. The study concludes that, with the existing facilities, it is not possible for the rural youth below the poverty line to start self employment units.

Yadav (1993) points out that the planning exercise by DRDA established for the implementation of the programme was limited to financial allocations given for the programme and the corresponding physical targets under different sectors. There was hardly any integration with the ongoing programmes due to lack of
inter-departmental coordination, and backward linkages relating to input supply. Supply of good quality assets and forward linkages in respect of processing and marketing could not be taken care of in the absence of integrated planning.

Ghosh (1993) points out that, at the implementation level, little adherence is being given to instructions designed at the top level. For making the rural youth self employed, much needs to be done at the field level. The supportive actions are very much lacking in the present delivery mechanism of rural development programmes. Every effort ended just with the training of the rural youth. Nobody wanted to go beyond this as to ensure employment and make it viable which is essential for making TRYSEM an effective instrument to combat rural unemployment primarily and poverty secondarily.

According to Taj (1984), the selection process was lenient in most of the blocks and the members in the selection board did not seem to be seriously considering the career of the candidates.
The Indian Institute of Public Administration (1982) reports that the trainees were of the opinion that the procedure followed was quite scientific, yet there were loopholes in it.

Sinha (1993) observed that 56.3 per cent of the total respondents were selected by the selection committee which had scrutinised their application and interviewed them. The rest were selected either through interview or on the basis of application only. Thus, in case of 43.7 per cent of women, no strict procedure of selection was followed.

Gebert (1989) has made an intensive study on Poverty alleviation and village development policies in Tamil Nadu. The study reports that local politicians and panchayat presidents decide and select the beneficiaries for training under TRYSEM. They were not dispassionate and were influenced by the ruling party people.

Basant (1988) points out the shortcomings on TRYSEM as the wrong selection of trainees, choice of only traditional trades and ignoring the aptitude of trainees. The concurrent evaluation study conducted in
Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu in 1985 by the Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad and Bangalore, Centre for Research Planning and Action, New Delhi, and Small Industry Extension Training Institute, Hyderabad (1981) has stated that the guiding principle in the selection of trainees was the age of trainee and his/her family income rather than the aptitude for the training.

Shal (1990), in his study, revealed that, most of the TRYSEM beneficiaries were in the age group of above 35 years, and belonged to the poorer sections. After care was missing. The result was that after the training the youth belonged to a group of either harassed entrepreneur struggling to raise loan from the bank to set up his enterprise or misled entrepreneur not properly identified.

Giridhar and Sonita (1988) were of the view that the identification and selection of the beneficiaries was made without any baseline survey. Rao (1988) stated that the bankers were not fully associated with the identification of beneficiaries and the schemes.
The study conducted by the Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad and Bangalore (1985) concludes that for self employment the training must be of certain nature and level so that the trained persons would feel self assured and capable and the curriculum for such training may be designed to meet the needs of self employment. To promote self employment, it has also been reported necessary to identify those individuals who have potential and drive for establishing ventures.

The choice of vocations according to Giridhar and Sonita (1988) seemed to suffer from lack of proper survey of local resources, marketability, training facilities, local needs and the like.

Mishra and Verma (1982) hold that while selecting trades for training, no definite criteria were followed, with the result that some trades having employment generating potential were not included in the list of trades for training.

Although the guidelines emphasises survey to determine the potential trades for self employment Singh and Nair (1988) states that no efforts were made
to identify suitable and available trades depending on local resources. The institutional training was limited to a few traditional trades. Ghosh (1993) is of the view that continuation of the same type of trades for a number of years makes the employment availability limited. Lal (1988) points out that in trade selection the emphasis was laid on productive activities.

Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi and Small Industry Extension Training Institute, Hyderabad conducted a study in Gujarat, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra (1981). The study states that, the selection of trade did not precede any base-line survey. No evaluation or study was made to determine the suitability of any particular area from the angle of self employment. In some cases, the trades were finalised out of a list maintained at the state level while in others, these were determined by the officers implementing the programme by mutual discussions.

Santhanam and Singh (1991) found out that the personal interest of the trainee was the main reason for choosing a particular trade under TRYSEM programme.
Self employment was only indicated by the officials while advising them to undergo training in a particular trade. The self employment scope of the trade was not well analysed.

A study conducted in Himachal Pradesh and Tamil Nadu by the Centre for Research, Planning and Action, New Delhi, Small Industry Extension Training Institute, Hyderabad, and Rao (1986) points out that the trades generally selected by trainees were traditional in nature such as tailoring, carpentry, poultry, dairy etc. Other trades like auto-mechanic, rural electrician, welding and fitting etc., were also taken up but the number of trainees in these trades were generally less.

According to Seetharam (1991) only a few trades and service activities are selected for training and are repeated every year. This will have an adverse effect on the programme, and most units will become sick in the long run.

According to Ramu et al., (1985), about 26 per cent of the 91 trainees and 41 per cent of the graduates interviewed did not know the aim of the Government in
starting the training programmes. More surprisingly, about 62 per cent or the 13 instructors and 50 per cent of the eight Block Development Officers interviewed were unaware of the Government's objective.

According to Mishra and Verma (1982), lack of publicity, spatially situated poverty-stricken rural masses, indifferent attitude of community leaders and apathy of officials were mainly responsible for the lack of people's awareness about TRYSEM scheme.

Ghosh (1993) maintains that scheduled Caste/Scheduled Tribe people were not aware of this training facility and are reluctant to come out of their traditional activities.

Anuradha and Sinha (1985) state that no outside experts other than the master trainer were involved in training. As a result, no input for developing entrepreneurial qualities and managerial abilities was provided in the training programmes.

Hirway (1993) reports that this innovative programme did not provide adequate time, finance, and training to the staff implementing the programme. The training process did not include training in co-
operation, management or entrepreneurship which did not prepare the group well to take up the identified tasks successfully. And lastly, the programme did not allow enough flexibility of operation.

According to the guidelines, the trainee has to prepare the project during the training with the help of trainers. But it was seen that there was no project preparation in any of the districts during or after the course. Involvement of the beneficiaries in their project preparation was completely neglected (Subbarao, 1985).

Singh (1993) points out, in his study, the lack of attending and care by the trainers and master craftsmen. The location of the training centres was a problem for the majority of women. It was found that the trainees did not have accommodation facility at the training centres. As many as 98 per cent of the total beneficiaries who had to go to the block office or the district headquarters for training had to commute a long distance daily because of the lack of accommodation facility at the training centres.
The Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad conducted a study in Goa, Daman and Diu (1988). The study reports that the Project Director had to repeatedly request trainers to spare some time for TRYSEM trainees. A trainer is given a salary ranging from Rs. 300/- to Rs.500/- per month for taking up a team of 20 trainees.

Examination of the training provided by master craftsmen revealed that there is no schedule of planned training activity for the trainees due to lack of guidance to the master craftsmen from the concerned officials in formulating a systematic plan of training the youth. Therefore, the nature, curriculum and quality of training of TRYSEM beneficiaries varied vastly from one trainer to another within the same trade/craft.

Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad conducted a study in Maharashtra (1981). It points out some of the limitations of imparting training through master craftsmen.

a) The foremost problem is the availability of good master craftsmen willing to impart training with the
existing rates of honorarium along with the restrictions on the duration of training and the number of trainees to be taken up at a time.

b) The facilities for conducting training classes is a problem, and,

c) The exposure to practical training that a trainer can offer is limited by how well he himself is doing and his tolerance level to put up with the initial mistakes that the trainees may make, particularly when faced with the risk of losing his own customers.

The Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi conducted a study in Rajasthan (1985) and Taj (1984) state that the master craftsmen exploited the trainees for their own ends. In some cases, the workers already employed by the master craftsmen were shown as trainees with view to obtain stipend amount. The training given by the master craftsman in these cases was found to be of poor quality.

Loganathan (1988) in his evaluation study on TRYSEM indicates that training was rather weak in improving employment potential of the trainees. The selection of training institution should be such that
they create an awareness among the trainees, develop their managerial and entrepreneurial skills to earn good living and contribute to the local economy.

As per the study conducted by the Council for Social Development, New Delhi in Haryana (1985) state., the master craftsmen are engaged in production process for surplus production and profit-making regardless of the technology employed and the scale of operation. Sometimes the technology employed by individual artisans is obsolete and the same is imparted to TRYSEM trainees.

Gopal et al.,(1986) point out that the trainers lacked interest in teaching. Supportive inputs like project management, entrepreneurship and literacy were absent in the training of the youth. These inputs decisively enhance the effectiveness of skill development and should form part of syllabus for TRYSEM.

According to Kumpatla (1987), Pandian (1991) and Sinha (1993) TRYSEM was not successful at the expected level due to poor planning of the programme, inadequate training duration, non-availability of training centres and poor infrastructural facilities. The trainers did
not like to share their skills and secrets of the trades as the trainees would become their potential competitors.

A study conducted by the State Bank of India (1989) indicates that the organisers faced difficulties in getting the raw materials, appropriate plan for training, adequate teachers in the village and cooperation from the beneficiaries.

Seetharam (1987) observed the absence of facilities for upgradation of master craftsmen, lack of grassroot level research and development agencies, lack of organised effort in adoption, transfer and dissemination of appropriate technology for higher productivity and weak linkages between rural development agencies and technical training bodies. The training contents were heavily laden with the hardware information and no attempt was made to psychologically equip the trainees to take up self-employment.

Some of the important shortcomings identified in the training programme by Reddy (1985) were (a) content of the training programme was not based on the analysis of women's needs (b) the training programmes
were more theory based rather than practical and skill oriented as they were not linked with field activities (c) the coverage of the farm women was very meagre and (d) the training was mostly oriented to fulfil the targets in terms of numbers rather than quality and development of compliance among the trainees to perform their work roles effectively.

Singh (1985) points out that the trainees under the scheme develop skills but they do not get confidence to undertake self employment. The experience of Pandit (1981) shows that, in many cases where finance, place, market, etc., were not a problem, this was attributed to lack of management skill.

A concurrent evaluation study conducted in Andhra Pradesh (1985) by the National Institute of Rural Development, Hyderabad, reports that the trainees were not educationally equipped to understand all the aspects of the work. The training did not equip them with adequate skills as well as confidence to start their independent units.

Council for Social Development (1985), reveals that setting up of Village Industries Marketing
organisation as suggested in the guidelines of TRYSEM has not been done by the State Government. Lack of cheap and regular source of raw materials and encouraging outlet for marketing the products were the major constraints, apart from credit, that had weakened the sustaining ability of the young entrepreneurs.

Santhanam and Singh (1991), in their study, revealed that 31 per cent reported non-availability of the bank loans to initiate business; 14.8 per cent reported inadequate training leading to hesitancy to initiate a business; and 27.3 percent reported non-availability of jobs in the trade of training. About 30 percent of the respondents have joined as apprentice with some renowned persons of the area to equip themselves.

Mishra (1985) states that those who are already trained but could not settle in self venture due to lack of Government subsidy and bank loans, were not satisfied at all. They expressed they were happy for four to six months as they got a stipend of Rs.125/-

According to Programme Evaluation Organisation (PEO, 1985) inadequacy of administrative and banking
infrastructure and supporting services to provide benefit to the selected beneficiaries was noticed in most of the districts.

The study conducted by the Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad, (1985) reports that there is no functionary at block or district level to undertake regular visits to the centres where TRYSEM youth are being trained so as to supervise and guide the trainers with regard to training curriculum, methods, instructional goals, entrepreneurship, project formulation etc.

An evaluation study conducted in Kerala (1985) by the National Institute of Rural Development, Hyderabad reports that the monitoring system continued to lack effectiveness due to lack of requisite staff and time. This had constrained the BDO, the DRDA and the banks in comprehending the post training performance of the target beneficiaries.

Devi (1992) observed a few glaring snags at the field situation as far as post training activities were concerned. A sizeable number of candidates have
indicated that they would like to have jobs rather than establishing their own units.

According to Ministry of Rural Reconstruction (1991) banks felt hesitant, to help those trainees, who could not provide proper security and it proved to be a great barrier to the self employment ventures. Khanna (1991) holds that adequate and timely assistance under IRDP is not given at several times to them to start their own productive activities.

Conclusion

Improper selection of the trainees (Singh, 1993; Gopal et al., 1986), substandard training (Kurupatla, 1987; Pandian, 1991; Sinha, 1993; Lal, 1988; Anuratha and Sinha, 1985; Hiraway, 1993; Subbarao, 1985; Singh, 1985) lack of clarity and awareness among the trainees on the programme (Ramu et al., 1985; Ghosh, 1993) improper training schedule and overloading of the trainee with hardware component (Seetharam, 1987) were the major problems highlighted by the researchers. Wrong selection of trades by the trainees (Ghosh, 1993; Santhanam and Singh, 1991) and repetition of the trades
offered (Seetharam, 1991) were the other weaknesses pointed out.

Apathy on the part of the officials, (Mishra and Verma, 1992) wrong selection of training Institutions (Loganathan, 1988), and use of obsolete technology (Council for Social Development, 1985) were making the programme ineffective in many cases. Non-availability of highly motivated trainers, lack of trained staff to monitor and guide the Training Institutions in the conduct of the programme (NIRD, 1985) and lack of Coordination among implementing agencies (Pandey, 1990) were the other problems reported.

Exploitation of the programme by the master craftsmen (Taj, 1994; IPA, 1985) and wrong selection of the trainers contributed partly to the poor performance of the trainees. Lack of after care (Shal, 1990; Seetharam and Singh, 1991; Devi, 1992), poor management of the programme and lack of publicity (Ramu et al., 1985; Ghosh, 1993) were some of the bottlenecks in the programme implementation cycle. Because of all these defects, the scheme has not revealed the expected level of impact in different study locations.
2.4.3. Suggestions for Improvement

Nair et al., (1989) suggest efforts to ensure the timely communication of important instructions to field agencies for avoiding administrative delays in programme execution.

Pandey (1990) is of the opinion that improvement with regard to coordination among the different ranks of officials on the one hand and between officials and community leaders on the other is absolutely essential for the proper and effective implementation of the TRYSEM scheme.

Rao (1988) suggests the banker's involvement at all stages from identification to the grounding of the unit to give them a sense of oneness and reduce the time for verification of applications for loan and also help in better understanding between the officials, beneficiaries and the banks.

Mishra and Sharma (1983) report that the implementation of the TRYSEM scheme requires a clear cut delegation of powers to district and block level officials and formation of a separate administrative cell consisting of Project Officer, Assistant Project
officer, Extension Officer and field level workers to look into the work.

Reddy (1990) suggests that the authorities concerned should take necessary precautions to identify and select educated youth who are sincere, committed and motivated to make the trade they take up a success. They must be provided with all infrastructural facilities so that they flourish in their selected trades.

Seetharam (1991) suggests that the identification of trade should be based on either local resources or markets and not on the nature of the training facilities which are available. The trades selected under TRYSEM therefore, should be such that atleast a few cater to the needs of the region without much of competitions.

Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad conducted a study in Maharashtra (1985). The study suggests establishment of, 3 to 4 training centres in each district which can provide required training under TRYSEM in a few trades. These centres can have
subsidiary centres catering to the training needs of the villages.

Malik and Punia (1986) point out that the needs of consumers always change over a period of time. There is therefore an urgent need to identify specific trades for training specific caste groups and occupational groups.

Chaudary and Datta (1980) view that in the selection of youth their age, general fitness, aptitude, knowledge of the rural area and desire to stay in rural area should be taken into consideration, while selecting them for the training. An evaluation study conducted in Karnataka and Gujarat (1985) by the Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad, states that, to promote self employment, it is necessary to identify those individuals who have potential and drive for establishing ventures, and, for these the training must be of specific nature and level so that a trained person feels self-assured and capable and the curriculum for such training may be designed to meet the needs of self employment.
National Institute of Plural Development (1983) states that, as an incentive, the master trainer could be allowed to keep 75 per cent of the proceeds raised from the sale of products turned out by the trainees. In the case of private institutions, 50 percent of the sale proceeds should go to the trainer, the balance 25 per cent accruing to the trainee and the remaining 25 per cent to the institution.

A study conducted in Maharashtra by the Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad (1985), states that the strategy of training trainers is to be adopted so that a fairly permanent intake capacity can be built up. It can be more efficient to train a trainer in more than one trade. TRYSEM funds can be pooled with those of DIG for establishing such centres, thereby providing permanent institutional training on a long-term basis.

Panandiker (1992) reports that training and skill training is basic for self employment. Many institutions are imparting training under various schemes but again social attitude keeps women away from them both in urban and rural areas. Mobile training centers will attract more women as sending women away from family
for training is not liked by family members, nor do women like to neglect their family. Secondly, part-time training facilities, especially during afternoons will attract more women to acquire skills. To enable women to undertake skill-training, certain facilities like stipend and good hygienic creches for their children, transport, facilities need to be given.

Rathnam (1982) states that a majority of them rated their trainers as competent. It was observed that the conditions of training varied from place to place in the absence of specific norms for selection of agencies or master craftsmen, curriculum and standards expected. Imparting skills was limited by existing knowledge of the craftsmen. It underlined the need for training of trainers in upgradation of skills. Periodic refresher programmes for institutional and master trainers should form part of the strategies for skill development.

Reddy (1987), in his study, reveals that the banks should be associated with the scheme right from the stage of selection of trainees to identifying suitable
trades and preparation of project reports and bankable schemes.

According to the Sivaraman Committee Report (1988), the introduction of improved technology and the best equipment, available should be made known to artisans in the country to spread the latest technological innovations. For this purpose, it would be necessary that the equipment and technology for training of artisans, by peripatetic handling.

Rao (1990) states that inclusion of simple syllabus to inculcate business traits and also tests to assess the skills required by the trainees is necessary. The training programme should be monitored. The monitoring will give a sense of confidence.

The Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad (1985), states that the DRDA should arrange special camps wherever there is a concentration of TRYSEM training centres for assisting the trainees in preparation of project report with technical assistance from DIC. In other words, loan liability and credit worthiness can be looked into at the time of selection itself. It would be useful, if the bank manager has
rural orientation and understanding of the problems which the schemes are addressing. Potential for self employment and financial viability are not properly assessed at the time of trade selection.

A concurrent, evaluation study conducted in Haryana by the Council for Social Development, New Delhi. (1985), reports that the State Government needs to start more quality control test centres for different trades to assure that the quality of products of TRYSEM youth is good.

Mukherjee (1990) reported that many trainees felt the need for extending the training period under TRYSEM for imparting intensive training and for including marketing skills and marketing network in the training package. Further, it was pointed out that not all the trainees were tied up with IRDP assistance after completion of training although provisions were there.

Conclusion

Suggestions given by various experts for effecting improvement in the scheme were timely communication of important decisions (Nair et al., 1989) improving co-ordination at different levels (IIM, 1985; Yadav, 1990;
Rao, 1980), proper selection of trainees (Reddy, 1990) and right choice of vocations (Giridhar and Sonita, 1988) for the target group.

Quality control for the products produced by the trainees, extension of training period (Mukherjee, 1990), special campaign for IRDP trainees on project proposal preparation, starting of 3 to 4 training institutions with subsidiary centres in each district (IIM, Ahemedabad, 1985), establishing of TRYSEM training centres on permanent basis and clear cut delegation of powers and formation of separate administrative cell at district level (Mishra and Sharma, 1983) were the novel ideas suggested by researchers for improving the programme set up.

Identification of more viable trades (Malik and Punia, 1986), capability assessment of the trainees, holistic training focussing on potential development for self employment (NIRD, 1983) disbursement of production linked incentives to trainers, upgradation of the skills of the trainers (Sivaraman Committee, 1988) training of trainers in more than one trade were some of the other suggestions put forth. Offering of
mobile training and part time training facilities was suggested (Panandikar, 1992) by one of the researchers.

Specific norms for selection of agencies, master craftsmen, and curriculum and the standards expected (Rathnam, 1982) and refresher programme for master craftsmen were suggested for improving the trainer's capability to deal with TRYSEM trainees.

**General Conclusion**

Studies on women trainees were scanty and no study focussed on the performance appraisal of Scheduled Caste women trainees. Further, the group being the most deserving section, requiring help through such poverty alleviation programmes, the present study becomes timely and socially relevant.
METHODOLOGY