CHAPTER - 1

INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH DESIGN

“Poverty is the worst form of violence”

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1.1 Introduction

Poverty eradication has been one of the most important objectives since the beginning of economic planning in India. Eradication of poverty from beginning to end overall monetary and social development by ensuring equitable access in resources and skills, as well as by widening the opportunities for useful employment to the poor sections of the world. No society can surely be flourishing and happy, of which the far greater part of the members are poor and miserable (Smith, 1937). It is recognized that the barrier of Millennium Development Goals, United Nations also attach a promise to divide the proportion of the world’s population living in extreme poverty by 2015. The Planning Commission which is the nodal agency for estimating the number and proportion of people living below the poverty line at National and State levels, separately for rural and urban areas, makes poverty estimates based on a large sample survey of household consumption expenditure carried out by the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) after an interval of approximately five years. The 68th round of the NSS (2011-2012), was based on a sample of 59,070 households in 7,391 villages and 41,602 households in 5223 urban blocks. The poorest of selected households 10 percent live on `. 23.40 per day while their rural counterparts make do with even less at `.16.78 per day. The rate of growth of expenditure is lower in rural areas as the rural poor are known to depend more on non traded items. But it came to all income groups, the average
monthly consumption expenditure increased by 18 percent in rural areas against 13.2 percent in urban areas. The NSS survey has pegged this average monthly spending by rural families in 2011-2012 at `1,281.45 and by urban households at `2,401.68. The per capita expenditure level of the urban population was on the average about 87.4 percent higher than that of the rural population. There has been an improvement in the monthly per capita consumption expenditure as purchasing power has grown due to higher incomes.

The Government of India and state governments have carried out evaluations of anti-poverty programs from time to time. There are however two important limitations of these evaluations. The first is that the methodology and the output indicators used in the study are often somewhat limited. The second more important issue is that these programs tell us very little about the overall incidence and impact of these programs.

The Poverty Alleviation Programmes can be grouped into five categories-

1. Income Enhancement Programmes
   (i) Self Employment Programmes which include IRDP, DWCRA etc. and
   (ii) Wage Employment Programmes which include JRY, EAS and SGRY
2. Programmes which focus on providing Food and Nutritional Security viz., PDS and ICDS
3. Programmes which provide basic minimum services – housing, sanitation, health, and Education
4. Income Maintenance Programmes viz., Pension Schemes, Maternity Benefit Scheme and Survival Benefit Scheme and
Among this poverty alleviation programmes some of the Wage Employment Programmes sponsored by the Government of India implemented in the State:

1. District Rural Development Agencies (DRDA)
2. Employee Assurance Scheme (EAS)
3. Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY)
4. Sampoorna Gramin Rozgar Yojana (SGRY)
5. National Food For Work Programme (NFFWP)
6. National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS)
7. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA)

Moreover in the recent past there is a major changes have taken place in anti-poverty interventions in India. Firstly, there has been a rationalization and merger along with certain other changes of the wage employment programmes. Secondly, since the Seventy-third amendment has included antipoverty programmes in the Eleventh Schedule there have been a move towards decentralisation of rural development administration and an increase in the role and responsibility of local communities through the gram sabhas and the panchayats.

1.2 Meaning of Impact and Impact Assessment

Common definitions of impact used in assessment generally refer to the totality of longer-term consequences associated with an intervention on quality-of-life outcomes. In support of above definition, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development’s (OECD & DAC, 2002) defines impact as the “positive and negative, primary and secondary long-term effects produced by a development intervention, directly or indirectly, intended or unintended”. According to Collin (2006) impact as the action of one object hitting another or the force with which one object hits another.
UNICEF (2004) defines impact as “The longer term results of a program technical, economic, socio-cultural, institutional, environmental or other whether intended or unintended. The intended impact should correspond to the program goal”. Alison (2009) defines impact assessment as “an analyses that measure the net change in outcomes for a particular group of people that can be attributed to a specific program using the best methodology available, feasible and appropriate to the evaluation question that is being investigated and to the specific context”. Shylendra (2004) clarify impact assessment is a process aimed at structuring and supporting the development of policies. It identifies and assesses the problem at stake and the objectives pursued. It identifies the main options for achieving the objective and analyses their likely impacts in the economic, environmental and social fields. It outlines advantages and disadvantages of each option and examines possible synergies and trade-offs. Mahajan (2008) defined impact assessment is the process of identifying the future consequences of a current or proposed action. It is used to ensure that projects, programmes and policies are economically viable, socially equitable and environmentally sustainable. Impact assessment is about judging the effect that a policy or activity will have on people or places. It has also been defined as the prediction or estimation of the consequences of a current or proposed action (Vanclay, 2003). According to the World Bank (2008) “Impact assessment compares the outcomes of a program against a counterfactual that shows what would have happened to beneficiaries without the program. Unlike other forms of assessment they permit the attribution of observed changes in outcomes to the program being evaluated by following experimental and quasi-experimental designs”. Hulme (2001) identify impact assessment assesses the difference in the values of key variables between the outcomes on agents (individuals, households, enterprises, populations, policymakers, etc.) which have experienced an intervention against the values of those variables that would have
occurred had there been no intervention. The fact that no agent can both experience an intervention and at the same time not experience an intervention generates many methodological problems. Impact assessment refers to the assessment of how financial products and services affected the lives of the poor. Impact assessment is the measurement of income growth, assets growth and vulnerability reduction of the poor by the microfinance programme. The indicators for impact assessment are not limited to economic development but extended to development growth like health, education, empowerment, gender etc. Normally the assessment and analysis of poverty was dominated by economic indicators such as levels of income, levels and patterns of expenditure and consumption and assets. In the eighties, social indicators such as educational and health status and nutritional levels gained currency. More recently these have been extended into the socio-political arena as broader conceptualizations and definitions of poverty have been embraced. There is now for example, an increasing emphasis on the measurement of such issues as individual control over resources, involvement in and access to household and wider decision making structures, social networks and electoral participation. But while these extensions of the types of impact permit impact assessment to be more sophisticated and to shed light on the expanding goals of development this add to the complexity of impact assessment work.

1.3 Definition of Poverty

Collin (2006) define poverty is the state of being extremely poor. Ross (1994) and Sarlo (1996) identify poverty as “deprivation of economic resources that are required to meet the food, shelter and clothing needs necessary for physical well-being”. Similarly, the states that people are considered as poor if their standard of living falls below the poverty line, that is, the amount of income associated with a minimum acceptable level of nutrition and other necessities of everyday life. These definitions are
primarily concerned with income and consumption and generally, presume that poor people only suffer from limited incomes to meet their daily needs. On the other hand, Robb (2000) evidence that poverty has scope that go beyond these simplistic and narrow definitions. If well-being and quality of life are to be considered then weakness, physical and social separation, insecurity, lack of self-respect, lack of access to information, distrust of state institutions and powerlessness can be as important to the poor as low income. Therefore, economic removal cannot be the only kind of poverty that impoverishes human lives as maintains. A new important area that continues to generate argument is whether poverty should be defined in absolute or relative terms. According to Mabughi and Selim (2006) absolute poverty refers to subsistence below a minimum socially acceptable living condition. The World Bank (2000) considers a person to be in absolute poverty if his or her consumption or income level falls below some minimum level necessary to meet basic needs. Saunders and Tsumori (2002) substantial evidence prove that absolute poverty is peculiar to most developing countries where a significant amount of the population lacks access to health care, education, safe water and sanitation, including opportunities and choices. On the other hand, relative poverty occurs when a household’s standard of living falls short of what is generally considered normal or decent or acceptable in that culture. In view of the characteristics of absolute and relative poverty, there are fundamental distinctions to be drawn between the two concepts. While absolute poverty refers to the life below a minimum socially acceptable living condition, relative poverty is measured by decision of a particular society as to what is considered a reasonable and acceptable standard of living. However, the type of definition adopted by governments and stakeholders ultimately dictates the parameter for measurement. When poverty is defined as low income, a monetary measurement move toward is adopted to
only ascertain income levels. A multidimensional definition on the other hand, focuses not only on low income but also on quality of life as parameters for measurement.

1.4 Measurement of Poverty

The definition of poverty may be given as income focuses on the flow of material goods and services. An option is to examine the stock of resources a household controls. This may be measured in terms of physical or monetary assets (land, jewellery, cash) or in terms of social capital (social contacts, networks, reciprocal relationships, community membership). Yet these income-based measures appear to be the most common types because they statistically rather than qualitatively establish the extent of poverty. However, poverty, according to Ragui (1997) is universally into a single representative statistic known as the poverty line which separates the poor from the non-poor. For that reason, people are counted poor when their measured standard of living, in terms of income or consumption, is below that poverty line. The persons whose incomes are slightly above the poverty line, however, are not considered poor. This creates a further uncertainty over the true condition of poverty. Sen (1986) recognized the importance of World Bank’s poverty line in terms of providing useful statistical estimates of poverty. It is equally critical to recognize the inadequacy associated with simply counting the number of the poor. Firstly, it takes no account of the size of the shortfall of incomes of the poor from the poverty line and secondly, it is insensitive to the distribution of income among the poor. The wrong impression generated by policy makers and the general public over the extent of global poverty and the scale of socio-economic change needed to be checked in order to eradicate poverty. According to Edward (2006), poverty lines are not derived from any more complicated consideration of well-being outcomes or bundles of goods for basic needs satisfaction. Poor health, illiteracy, social exclusion and powerlessness are important dimensions of poverty. Sen (1999) argues that lack of access
to critical services such as those earlier highlighted amounts to lack of capabilities that enable a person to live a valuable life. UNDP (2000) states that human poverty is more than just lack of sufficient income, it is the refusal of choices and opportunities for living a sufferable life. The World Bank (2000) presents poverty as multidimensional, around not only material deprivation, but also low achievements in education and health. Improvement in human well-being and quality of life shows that poor people have a role to play in the development process and it is a quick distinction to the top-down non-participatory approach which tends to control the theory and practice of poverty alleviation. According to Griffin (2002) a person is said to belong under poverty line as if he or she has not enough income to buy the things even the basis things needed in life. This is a determined of standard of living, which separates the poor from the rich. Measures, which include, income, expenditure status as well as intangible criteria such as freedom, the right to vote, gender equality etc.

1.5 Shapes and Dimension of Poverty

Poverty is related to location, urban or rural and the level of household. Poverty reflects regional and structural variations across rural and urban areas, gender differentiations and geographical settings. Khan (2005) expresses as that the impact of poverty is uniform and varies only indirect and direct effects on people. A direct effect can be seen in the essential collapse of basic infrastructure like, access to water and sanitation, nutrition, health and education and other services. Poverty destroys ambition, hope and happiness. Indirectly, it affects positive relations with subordinates, self-esteem and sense of personal competence. It also destroys ones dispositions to participating in community affairs, inter-personal trust and self-satisfaction. Employment programmes in particular would be given a greater importance. Employment expansion appears to have a greater impact on absolute poverty reduction through its impact on income distribution
than through its impact on growth. The identification of the importance of income distribution in poverty reduction may not be neglected. Otherwise it may come from accepting the argument that poverty itself is at least partly defined in terms of income distribution or the identification may emerge from both of these sources. In any case, once the importance of income distribution is recognized a different nature of approach to policy becomes necessary.

According to Diaz (2003), Poverty has multiple dimensions and many of them are inter-related making for a various phase. Poor health, disease and disability can prevent people from working full time, limiting their income and their ability to work to move out of poverty. Health problems for the breadwinner mean income problems, but an illness in the family can ruin an entire household. Not only is income lost, but expenses go up due to the need for medicines and health care and the need for family members to care for the sick person. Those with less formal education have a tendency to be excessively represented in the ranks of the poor, perhaps as they are more likely to hold poorly paid jobs or to be unemployed. Poor families often face enormous difficulties in keeping their children in school due to the costs. Women with children constitute the majority of the poor in many countries. Where women can move out of poverty their children appear to face a brighter future, but where their chances are limited, poverty is transmitted inter generationally. In many cases, girls have higher dropout rates as they are the first to be pulled out of school to help with household work and childcare. Yet, experience have shown that investment in girls’ and women’s education not only makes for greater equity but also tends to translate directly into better nutrition for the family, better health care, declining productiveness and potentially greater economic empowerment.
1.6 Poverty as a Problem for Socio Economic Condition

Nowadays, poverty, especially experienced in the low-income parts of the world, has become central to a great deal of discussion among economists and policy makers, and various campaigns are organised to eliminate poverty as the slogan would have it “to make poverty history”. Poverty is common in India the meaning of poverty is not new. Wagle (2002) also tries to clarify the problem of figuring out what makes people “well off” or “poorly off”. It has long been examined by economists and philosophers, from Adam Smith through Karl Marx, Amartya Sen and a lot of others. The concept of poverty has been mostly identified with economic deduction. People are considered as poor when they lack sufficient purchasing power. Economic well-being relates to the ability of individuals to acquire a basic level of consumption or human welfare.

Human Development Report (1990) stated that the United Nation Development Program (UNDP) introduced the Human Development Index (HDI) along with the rationale behind the index.

“... people often value achievements that do not show up at all, or not immediately, in higher measured income or growth figures: better nutrition and health services, greater access to knowledge, more secure livelihoods, better working conditions, security against crime and physical violence, satisfying leisure hours, and a sense of participating in the economic, cultural and political life of their communities. Of course people also want higher incomes as one of their options. But income is not the sum of human life.”

Sen (1999) highlighted that income only represents a means to a more basic ending, which he interprets as the expansion of human capabilities. What this implies is that focusing on income alone in poverty reduction will not overcome all the problems associated with poverty. Rather, it will continue to distract attention away from these important problems with serious implications for poverty reduction.
The Human Development Report (1997) suggests that economic growth can be a powerful means of reducing poverty but its benefits are not repeated. Essentially, people must be educated and enjoy relatively good health to contribute and benefit from growth. In this context, accesses to individuals need the capabilities to access gainful employment and participate fully in the society to which they belong will help in the reduction of poverty. Chamber (1995) argued that his views of the realities of the poor and of what should be done are constructed mainly from a distance and can be seen to be constructed mainly for the convenience. Chambers suggest that the world should take as a point of departure analyse poor people themselves should take up actions and strategies to benefit themselves. At the bottom of this suggestion is the necessitated to involve poor people in the process of identifying their own problems rather than relying on the experiences of people who are far removed from the realities of poverty.

Duclo’s (2006) view is that, other forms of shortage such as lack of access to safe water, sanitation, health care and education, which have the potential to damage long life, knowledge and basic income for enlightened living standard, need to be accorded equal attention as low income. In spite of the many other important dimensions of poverty, the bulk of empirical work still uses the one-dimensional average to judge a person’s well-being. This approach is basically contradictory because Webster and Pedersen, (2002) argue that poverty covers a wide and diverse range of experiences and processes of marginalization, which are excluded if only low income and consumption are taken into consideration. Moreover, individuals may have enough income, but may at the same time remain poor in other aspects of life. while, one of the arguments in favours of require income definitions is that they provide a simple method for measurement and comparison, various now see statistical estimates of poverty as reflecting mainly the judgments and thought of those who measure it or those who exert political pressure on
behalf of the poor. When poverty is defined as low income, it is easy to measure and understand since it only indicates the number of people that are falling below a specified poverty entry.

1.7 Review of Literature

The purpose of this section focuses on the explanation and descriptions of the literature of related authors that are relevant to the research work. It also examines the Impact Assessment of Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Manipur: A Case Study of Wage Employment Programmes. The problem of impact assessment of poverty alleviation programme in Manipur is one that has over the years engaged the attention of the community, governmental and non-governmental organizations including scholars indeed. The issues of impact assessment of poverty alleviation programme have been a focus of numerous researchers’ discussion, its debates and implementations of the various programmes. In discussing the issue with the purpose of relates to impact assessment of poverty alleviation programme that contributed enormously on the topic (Impact Assessment of Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Manipur: A Case Study of Wage Employment Programmes).

Agrawal (1999) disclosed that accountability in governance implies a set of relationship on the exercise of counter powers to balance arbitrary actions. While comparing decentralisation in South Asia and West Africa, a useful distinction between upward and downward accountability was drawn, in which, the ability to hold decision depends upon the type relationship between the officials or the superiors (upwards) and the local citizens (downwards). It was found that dependence on downward accountability was the most effective form of governance, where the power to make rules, decide access to the benefits provided by local bodies, and to enforce and
adjudicate these arrangements relied upon the consent or the support of the local citizens. This, in circle, implies that local people have the power to hold officials in check.

On evaluation of four earlier Rural Development Programmes by Ahmed (1988) in relation to economic empowerment of the rural poor by comparing between members of programme households and other non member households revealed that there was significant increase in income and other household conditions of members over those of 19 percent higher than those of the control households. The study showed that per capita income and employment creation of member households were 26 percent and 19 percent higher than those of the control households. It further observed that ownership of household goods and assets were also assessed to be higher for programme households.

According to Anikpo (1995), poverty is the history process of individuals or groups being forcefully eliminated from the control of decision-making machinery that determines the production and distribution of resources in a society. He forthwith explains that poverty manifests in various forms such as hunger, lack of food, good drinking water, clothes, shelter, good health, poor education and distribution of resources coupled with monopoly of the machinery of decision-making through coercive state apparatus. Men must engage in production if they must endure in the production process, individuals and groups assume complementary tasks in order to get common objectives. And explains that during production, (however, different people occupy different positions in the organizational structure that emerges) the differences that emerged tends to imitate at the initial stages, objectively, physiological realities such as age, sex, and size. They also create at this step differences of non-antagonistic nature not only on the industrial input in the production process, but also in the respective shares acquired from whatever is created. However, in the course of time due to increasing differences in the
accumulation and appropriation of resources, the positional differences begin to reflect a new set of material reality predicted on who has acquired and controlling more of the dominant instruments and objects used in the production process. The significant aspect of these material or economic differences is that they certainly get social and political dimension, interlining first of all their material holding conferred on their high status which in terms confers power expressed in making decisions that affects the society on economic development.

Association for Social Advancement (ASA, 1997) conducted a study on constraints of reaching the hard-core poor. Besides programme participants, different programme personnel were also interviewed. The study identified socio-economic, physical and mental status of the hard-core poor, their slight employment opportunity, seasonal migration, neighbourhoods’ relationships and the influence of the local best on their livelihood as the major constraints of reaching the hard-core poor. Moreover, infrastructural conditions such as inadequate marketing, banking facilities and backward communication and transportation systems were also known as constraints.

There seems to be a general agreement that poverty is a difficult concept to handle and that it is easily recognized than defined (Ayodele, 1997). Even attempts made to categorize some specific areas at which poverty could be viewed are fought with lack of agreement. For instance, guidelines of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2002) on poverty eradication anxious that an adequate concept of poverty should include all the most important areas in which people of either gender are deprived as harmed in different societies and local context. It should encompass the casual links between the care size of poverty as the central importance of the gender and environmentally sustainable development. It failed to define poverty but
listed its core size and should endeavour to include economic, human, political, socio-cultural and protective capabilities.

In applying RCTs to development interventions Bamberger (2007) had mentioned some of the limitations and pointed out that, in practice, analysis of RCTs falls back on the regression-based approaches which they seek to avoid and so are subject to the same potential biases. Some other major problems included the often various and changing contexts of interventions, logistical and practical challenges, difficulties with monitoring service delivery, access to the intervention by the comparison group and changes in selection criteria and intervention over time.

Based on data collected from 2,400 rural households drawn from 85 villages in West Bengal a study by Bardhan (2009) commented on the nature of democracy and Clientelism behind such amazing political stability and revealed that there was a strong existence of client elastic relations between beneficiaries and the left ruled village panchayats when government’s benefits are of a recurring nature. The NREGS act as a recurring type of programme and access to this program can be partial by the existing client stretch patterns in the state.

Blair (2000) conducted a study on periodic elections and found that it provide an important means of ensuring government responsiveness and accountability on broad social issues. It was also observed that elections are simple instruments of popular control, as they arise at widely spaced intervals and address only the broadest issues. Elections therefore constitute an imperfect yet vital component of any democratic system. However, their ability to encourage effective responsive governance has been found to be highly dependent upon three important variables, such as:
1. The degree to which parties and politicians campaign on substantive policy issues as opposed to populism or worse, clienteles and vote buying.

2. Equality of information voters have at their disposal and

3. The strength of civil society organisations.

A research (Brett, 1993) was initiated on a more formalized set of expectations and responsibilities, on which the performance of public officials can be judged. At this, it was pointed out that the existence of clear and explicit rules, governing the duties, jurisdictions and standards of public officials are an essential part of accountability. As himself expressed that “accountability works best when rewards (for good performance) depend directly on the quality of service provided – failures occur when there is no direct relationship between the two.” Henceforth, also believed that if Central government took too much assessment about governance and accountability then it expressed the notion that effective and responsive governments requires strong and vibrant civil societies to keep them in check.

Brustinow (1995) highlighted the impact assessment study of the BRAC’s Rural Development Programme which was conducted during 1993-94 using four broad indicators, viz., (a) material well-being, (b) vulnerability to seasonality, (c) changes in women’s lives and (d) development of Village Organisations as institutions. Both ‘before-after’ and ‘with-without’ analyses were made in the study. An integrated methodology was used comprising household survey, village profiles and qualitative and case studies. Fifteen AOs were selected from which a total of 2,250 samples were selected for survey, taking 1,500 BRAC households and 750 comparison households. The study showed positive impact of RDP on material wellbeing of its member households though impact on women’s empowerment and institution building were less well marked.
Integrating both the quantitative and qualitative approaches to poverty measurement a study (Carvalho, 1997) of problems faced by women headed households was made among World Bank members and non-members and found out that poverty and lack of access to employment were their key problems. Such households even prefer employment over credit programmes. World Bank members however were found to be relatively better off than non-members.

Dreeze and Sen (1991) attempted to identify policies that could be useful for rapid elimination of deprivations in India. Economic development has been seen as an expansion of opportunities that the individual enjoys in a society. However, the expansion of human capabilities also depends upon many other influencing factors besides the economic growth. Therefore, the success of development could not be judged merely in terms of effect on income and outputs but it should at the basic level be also fixed on the lives that the people lead. Besides basic education, they also identify gender relations and health care to be equally important factors for development. They had advocated for the removal of counterproductive government controls that may finally lead for expansion of social opportunities. According to them, the neglect of basic education, health care, social security, land reforms and the likes had been harmful to economic and social development. The nation had paid a heavy price for it’s over regulated and dysfunctional rules of economic governance. Therefore, a broader view of economic development had to be seen in terms of expanding social opportunities. The removal of barriers to using market device can significantly enhance such opportunities. The practical usability of these opportunities requires sharing of certain basic capabilities including those related with literacy and education, basic health, social security, gender, equality, land rights, local democracy, and so forth.
The performance of India had been considered by low social development and high inter-regional and inter-state disparities in the society, as was published by the *Economist (2001)*. Social development was largely determined by three groups of factors, namely, the demographic factors, literacy and educational attainment level factors and economic indicator factors. The study observed that there cannot be a tangible reduction in the birth rates without substantial improvement in the literacy rates. Another considerable finding of the study revealed that initial push to literacy and demographic achievements are necessary conditions for economic growth, but it was not a sufficient condition and states like Kerala and Tamil Nadu shape into those categories. Similarly, significant improvement in economic conditions does not necessarily ensures better social indicators and the best examples were the Punjab and Haryana. The study also pointed out towards the current gap between urban and rural areas in terms of their socioeconomic level. It also expressed concern over distinct decline in per capita expenditure crosswise the states on education, medical and public health from the second half of the eighties.

*Galab (1997)* in his study “District Poverty Initiatives Project: Anantapur” expressed that under rural employment programmes, NREP and RLEG and presently JRY and EAS, the works undertaken had contributed for the creation of community assets as well as assets to down-trodden sections, besides providing wage employment to the poor. The watershed programme undertaken with EAS and Desert Development Programme (DDP) in recent times were contributing for the renovation of ecological balance, ensuring sustainable agriculture. The benefits flown to the poor are relatively high from these programmes compared to the self-employment programmes. Nevertheless, these programmes had not significantly contributed for the increase in wages.
An attempt to in detail evaluate the progress made by SC and ST vis-a-vis others in different states based primarily on secondary data covering a period from 1971 to 1991 census years was carried out by Ghose (2008). More specifically, it examined the inter and intra-state literacy scenario in rural India, estimated the disparity between male and female, scheduled and non scheduled groups of population. The study pointed out the role of education as an important social resource and means of reducing inequality in society. It elucidated that the gap in literacy rate between male and female was very high in rural India and there exists a negative correlation between the levels of gap across the states with the level of literacy. It further recognized adult literacy, female work participation rate, child work participation rate and work in non-agricultural activities as most significant socio economic determinants of literacy. The study also suggested suitable regional planning for education to remove inter and intra district variations in educational development.

A study (Iraudy, 2007), of different emergency employment programmes between the years 1993 to 2002 in Argentina claimed that politicians are able to access funds from the federal governments which are then used to buy political loyalties from voters and legislators. More interestingly this study had shown that not all political parties are equally fitting to deliver public goods in a clientelistic way because not all parties have equal access to the fiscal resources that permit politicians to deliver the employment programme clientelistically. Iraudy further maintained that there was wide agreement among scholars studying Argentine politics that poor and low-skilled voters are more subject to being turned into political clients than higher income or skilled voters.
Several studies (Ahmed & Hassan, 1990; Huda & Hossain, 1994 and Khan, 1995 as cited in Goetz, 1996) had been conducted on Research and Evaluation Division (RED) on the impact of Rural Development Programme on women’s lives and their empowerment and found that there was positive impact of RDP on women’s status within the household, their mobility, their reduced economic dependence and increased control over income and participation in decision making.

According to Hanumantha (1987), differences existed in the generation of income by various IRDP schemes across different occupations and caste groups. The beneficiaries crossing poverty line due to IRDP varied significantly according to different studies which ranges from 49.5 percent as per PEO study to 17 percent by the RBI study. The studies of Government of India (1986, 87, 89) showed that 50 percent of the old beneficiaries had crossed poverty line of ` 3500 and 12-13 percent of new beneficiaries had crossed poverty line of ` 6400. The study by ICM revealed that the beneficiaries crossing poverty line varied between 6-11 percent. The main contributions were primary sector and ISB sector schemes.

In a study conducted on poverty reduction through quantitative and qualitative indicators, Hashemi (1996) tried to predict that involvement in poverty reduction and credit programmes empowers women by providing them with the impetus to make economic contributions to their households, gain a voice in familial decision-making, make large and small purchases, increase their interactions with the outside world, as well as protest political and legal injustices. The study findings supported that participation in poverty reduction had significant positive effects on the above mentioned areas of women’s lives. The length of time a woman spends in either programme was also seen to be a contributing factor to empowering women. The result showed that
women who participated in poverty reduction programme make greater contributions to household income at aggregate level than to non-members, own greater number of assets and had significantly more savings than to non-members.

A synthesis of available literature on poverty, its measurement, the strategies for poverty alleviation and the government and NGO programmes was presented by Hye (1996) and he finally developed a theoretical framework to explain the poverty situation in Bangladesh. In measuring poverty he advocated uniformity in the use of concepts, methodology and assumptions. The poverty alleviation strategies followed in Bangladesh during the last 25 years were critically reviewed and the various programmes are analyzed on the basis of which he developed his theoretical framework to explain the mass poverty situation in the country. Finally he made some key policy prescriptions for poverty alleviation in Bangladesh.

The Government of Andhra Pradesh introduced the subsidized rice scheme in early 80s to improve the consumption levels of the weaker sections of the society (Indrakant, 1996). Since August 1996, a poor household was entitled to 5 kgs of rice per person per month subject to a ceiling of 20 kgs at \$ 3.50 per kg. Besides rice, they are entitled to sugar and kerosene. A micro-level study conducted at village level revealed that, in the developed villages, the scheme had provided access to food to most of the poor, but large percentage of beneficiaries are non-poor households. In the backward villages, a large percentage of poor households are excluded from the scheme while a sizeable percentage of the beneficiaries belong to the non-poor category.

Jalal (2007) revealed that Maharastra Rural Employment Guarantee Programmes have not faced a financial crisis however operational sustainability and the institutional capacity to run the programme along with reaching the targeted population are issues that
arise. While, theoretically jobs are guaranteed on demand, the speed with which these are made available varied usually. EGP operations face major challenge with the cyclical fluctuation of participation in the programme with the maintenance of shield stock of jobs for the lean season. In most of the cases such institutional arrangements are highly inadequate. In terms of the outreach of the programmes there are two types of mistakes: ‘E’ mistake, that is, extreme coverage of the non-poor which occurs when the intervention reached a non-targeted population. Another type is ‘F’ mistake, that is, failure to reach the underlying targeted population, precisely the poor people in this context. Empirical studies had also shown that in one of the oldest EGP Programme in Maharashtra, the share of the poor among EGP decreased over the years and involved many non-poor over time. Among many reasons, organizational rigidity, rigid nature of bureaucracy, excessive burden of utilization of federal allotment of funds was the main reasons for these errors. Identity based social exclusion and inclusion sometimes played critical roles in respect of ‘E’ & ‘F’ mistakes. Beside those factors discussed above one of the major determinants or influential factor for accessing such kind of employment programme are the political liking and the patron-clientelistic relation between the scheme participant and the local politicians.

A survey (Jha, 2009) pointed out that in spite of performing quite well in terms of administrative performance indicators (that is, providing larger number of days of work to the job seekers) there was considerable participation of the non-poor (defined in terms of land holding and PDS less participation).

Findings a study by Jiali (1997) suggested that at the macro-level, there was a need to co-ordinate a numerous of poverty alleviation programmes of the central government and the state governments. The transfer of central funds to the States for
different programmes should be capable. Currently, such funds and goods like food grains are not fully utilized by the States. There was a need to reinforce the financial management capacity of certain States to use the funds efficiently.

It was found from an investigation (Kareemulla, 2009) that in Andhra Pradesh, 18% of household earnings from MGNREGA were spent on education. Similarly, the Samarthan Centre for Development Support (SCDS, 2007) found that households used MGNREGA wages to increase access to improve quality of children’s education by paying admission fees, purchasing books, providing tuition and buying school uniforms. In Uttar Pradesh, better road connectivity had enabled children to attend school more regularly by bicycle or on foot.

Although determined efforts had been initiated by the Government of India through several plans and measures to alleviate poverty in rural India, there still remained much more to be done to bring prosperity in the lives of the people in rural areas (Kaushik, 2007).

An assessment study on rural development programme on the poverty alleviation impact of three programmes namely, Grameen Bank (GB) and Bangladesh Rural Development Board’s RD-12 project by comparing participants with non-participants in each case was carried out (Khandaker, 1995). The participants considered consumption as a better indicator of poverty than income since the former was more stable. In determining the poverty line the consumption approach was used to estimate the cost of a bundle of goods that assures basic consumption needs. To examine the sustainability of well-being of the households three economic indicators, specifically, savings, assets and net-worth were studied. These measures were evaluated against programme coverage and
loans outstanding. Social indicators such as health environment were also considered as a dimension of poverty.

**Killick (1995)** in her book stressed that per capita improvement in the health status of female largely depend on various development plan and policies of the government. A number of issues concerning the female and their health status had been recognized and they are nutrition, sanitation, infection, over work, work hazards, stress, mental tension, pregnancy, child birth and sexual harassment. It further classified education as a key player in raising the health status of female population and opined that there was a need to change the perspectives of the society and planners to look at the lives of women from birth to old age as a holistic process.

A conceptual framework prepared by **Kumar (1995)** sets out five matrices to categorize the variables and a sequence to assess women’s status and to measure the impact of development interventions on their lives. The framework includes an input matrix, a classification of women matrix, a trail matrix, an indicator matrix and a status ranking matrix.

Decentralisation was often founded upon a wider evaluation of central state planning, which holds that large and centrally-administered bureaucracies represented an inefficient and potentially destructive means of allocating resources and generating wealth within society, **Lal (2000)** reviewed. Three assertions were used to confirm this claim. One argued that central state agencies lack the time and place knowledge.

As **Manor (1999)** had stated, only multi-party democracies can help to organise ‘opposing forces’ into clearly recognisable groups, excite public criticism and debate.
That having been said, the ability to clear interests and stimulate debate depends in no small way on the internal dynamics and debates that existed within political parties.

Self-employment programmes like microcredit is successful because of people’s participation in the form of SHGs. The government has taken a major step in this direction in the form of 73rd and 74th amendment to the constitution to give more powers to Panchayati Raj Institute (Misra, 2008).

Ostrom (1993) studied details of the implemented policies and programmes that reflected people’s ‘real’ needs and ‘references’. Decentralisation was thought to create the conditions for a more pluralist political arrangement, in which competing groups can voice and institutionalised their interests in local democratic forums. A second thought holds that states based on principles of command and controls are qualitatively different from markets and voluntary organizations.

In the rooted study based on the Maharashtra EGS, Patel (2006) investigated the variety of ways in which the political mobilisation of the demoralized had taken place and simultaneously examined the manipulations by the ruling Maratha (the people of Maharashtra), the landed caste to the disempowered and eventually choose such struggles in order to maintain its own political control in Maratha politics. In the context of the study area, that is, West Bengal, where for the last 32 years a left ruling government had been in operation.

Parthasarathy (1995) in an article a number of rural development schemes and programmes had been formulated and implemented as measures to attack rural poverty. But it was realized that these programmes could not deliver the desired results and suffered from a number of defects. There was also evidence to the fact that poverty had
declined due to the target oriented Poverty Alleviation Programmes (PAPs) in the late 1980s, despite deceleration in agriculture growth.

A survey was conducted during 1994-95 incorporating a cross sectional two stage cluster random sampling approach to assess the impact of Proshika development programme (Proshika, 1995). Proshika households with at least three years of membership were compared with a control group of non-participant households. The survey findings showed that among the eight social empowerment indicators, better results of Proshika were found in cases of literacy, infant mortality and participation in local institutions. And among the five economic indicators used, results of Proshika households were better off in possession of assets, gratitude, income and savings.

An article (Radhakrishna, 1997) on labour market in the context of qualitative and quantitative changes that are taking place had pointed out that when higher wage rates existed, self employment through asset creation will be a more effective intervention in the labour market than wage employment programmes.

Ragui (1997) studied the historical backdrop of rural development programmes in India since their inception. Tracing the profile of poverty, she asserted that the implementation of Five Year Plans had succeeded to some extent in addressing the problem of rural poverty where the impact of growth had been significantly lower than the urban areas. The study focused on overall policy of poverty alleviation in India, examines the performance of major poverty alleviation programmes. According to performance results the programme was affected on account of inadequate generation of income from assets acquired under poverty alleviation programme; unaccounted intervention from authorities, levels of leakages, lack of coordination between programmes, inadequate institutional support at district and block levels. She also felt
that it was high time to restructured the development set up both at block and district levels. Poverty could not be separate until the poor themselves became aware, better their educational level and organized and asserted themselves. As majority of the rural community imitative its sustenance from an unorganised sector, it became difficult to assess the dynamics of rural poverty and its impact on living conditions without reasonably pragmatic and measurable criteria of poverty. Only then, an effective anti poverty action programme can be drawn.

Methodological issues of poverty where a concrete and clear guideline for empirical study on poverty assessment in different situations was presented by Ravallion (1992). On the other hand, Sen (1991), drawing examples from different literature on poverty in Bangladesh context, showed how results differed radically if different methodologies are employed.

Certain impact evaluation designs were identified by Ravallion (2008) and were broadly classified into three categories namely experimental, quasi-experimental and non-experimental designs that vary in viability, cost and involvement during design or after implementation phase of the intervention, and degree of selection bias. The experimental approach was often held up as the ‘gold standard’ of evaluation and it was considered as the only evaluation design which can finally account for selection bias in demonstrating a causal relationship between intervention and outcomes. Randomization and separation from interventions were not practicable in the area of social policy, considered as ethically difficult to protect and although there may be opportunities to utilized natural experiments.
Sankari (2009) observed that in every social category women forms a subset that was often disadvantaged, discriminated against and marginalised in most spheres of life as compared to men. Such marginalization and subordination was reflected in wide male-female disparities in virtually all aspects of social well beings at every stage ranging from national and international level. Some of the factors contributing to the female subordination and lower status in the society were their derivative role in economic development, their reproductive role, unequal division of domestic labour and females’ fixation with their family and so forth. The study identified health, nutrition, employment, education and empowerment as different aspect of social well beings.

Although the provision of some local employment was potentially important, the easy availability of work under MGNREGA may discourage rural workers from seeking work in rapidly growing areas of the economy, which may, in turn, reduced the potential pace of economic transformation and lower the prospects of workers gaining new skills. In this way, MGNREGA, as a means of social protection, may ultimately work against economic growth Scriven (2008).

Shovan (2005) examined the issues concerning the linkages between economic growth and social sector development in the context of developing countries. India, according to this study, had been identified as a country with low levels of human development where the linkages between growth and social opportunities had been weak. The study classified Indian states into four distinct categories. In the first category, states like Kerala and Tamil Nadu figured in a place which had attained a high level of social development despite modest level of income. In the second category, states like Punjab and Haryana were placed in high per capita income category but comparatively poor levels of social development. In the third category, states like Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh were placed where neither the economic nor the social opportunities had
been realized and the fourth category consisted of those states where the difference between social and economic opportunities were not large. It further pointed out towards the paradox related to mass illiteracy, high mortality and morbidity levels prevailed along with social infrastructural facilities which remained underutilized and attributes it towards the poor quality of services rendered by these institutions.

Sudhakar (1997) had exposed that village level institutions could not come into their own because of insufficient transference of responsibilities and resources in the absence of a well up to planning mechanism at decentralized level capable of formulating a single integrated rural development plan with professional competence enlisting peoples participation and safeguarding the interests of weaker sections.

A report (Verma, 2010) figured India as a haven to 22 percent of the world’s poor. Such a high incidence of poverty was a matter of anxiety, in view of the fact that poverty eradication had been one of the major objectives of the improvement process. Poverty being a global concern, eradication of such was considered integral to humanity’s mission for sustainable development. Thus, reduction of poverty in India was vital for the attainment of international goals. The philosophy underlying poverty alleviation programs was to attempt rural poverty by endowing the poor with productive assets and training for raising their skills so that they were assured of a regular stream of employment and income in raising themselves above poverty line.

A more widespread application of a theory-based approach to impact evaluation was disclosed by White (2006) as a means to improve policy application of impact assessment, outlining six key principles of the theory-based approaches:

1. Map out the causal chain (program theory) which explained how the intervention had accepted to lead to the intended outcomes and collect data to test the underlying assumptions of the causal links.
2. Identify with context, including the social, political and economic settings of the involvement.

3. Anticipate heterogeneity to help in identifying sub-groups and adjusting the sample size to account for the levels of disaggregation to be used in the analysis.

4. Exact evaluation of impact using a probable counterfactual.

5. Exact factual analysis of links in the causal chain.

6. Use mixed methods (a combination of quantitative and qualitative).

Wood and Sharif (1997) edited a book on poverty and finance in Bangladesh which examined micro-credit programmes and models in the context of borrower sustainability, reaching the poorest and removal of poverty. Three credit models, specifically, credit-only, credit-plus and credit with social development were considered. Some empirical evidences were provided and the current achievements and constraints of various micro-credit models were also analyzed. Arguments were placed in favour of a credit with social development model and suggestions were made to improve the competence of the micro-credit system.

A survey (Zaman, 1997) was initiated in Matlabthana among 14 villages to explore the impact of rural development programme on consumption based poverty by using household food expenditure. The socio-economic statuses of the members were compared with that of the non members by constructing poverty lines. The statuses of the members were also analyzed by membership length, types of inputs received and loan size. Evidences of positive contributions of rural development programme were revealed on poverty reduction but the benefits were not found to be equally distributed among different socio economic groups. The study further suggested that the poorest members were not benefited much from such programme.
It can be understood from the above literatures that not much studies have been regarding the impact of Wage Employment Programmes in other parts of the country and particularly in the state of Manipur. Against the background of the various studies, the present study will examine the performance of poverty alleviation programmes, specially, wage employment programmes - SGRY, JGSY, NFFWP, NREGS & MGNREGS in Manipur and to suggest suitable policy measures.

1.8 Research Design

1.8 (i) Objectives of the Study

The present study was striving to achieve various ends so that a clear picture about the implementation and performance of Poverty Alleviation Programmes in the state can be perceived. In brief, the objectives of the study can be summarized as below:

1. to evaluate critically the existing theories and concept of Impact Assessment
2. to analyse the socio-economic conditions of wages employment programmes.
3. to access whether Wage Employment Programme has achieved its objectives of poverty eradication in India.
4. to measure the impact of the programmes on beneficiaries in terms of change in satisfaction level, income level and employment status.
5. to examine the impact of poverty alleviation programmes including employment generation, beneficiaries’ asset creation and beneficiaries’ perception.
6. to analyse and interprets the sampled data.

1.8 (ii) Research Methodology

In order to have a holistic understanding of the impact of anti-poverty programmes, it was necessary to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. Measurement of Impact: The aim of the study was to assess the impact of wage employment programmes in Manipur. Hence, the standard of living was developed 6
(six) indicators for the impact assessment study. The following are the indicators of standard of living:

1. Expenditure Pattern  2. Employment Status
3. Possession of Assets  4. Education of Children
5. Housing Conditions and  6. Health Status

The methodology adopted in the present study differs from those of the earlier evaluation studies. Earlier studies adopted the ‘before and after’ approach, coupled with ‘with and without’ principle. It should be emphasized that it would be difficult to obtain the reliable statistical information when the gap between the years in which the programmes were launched and the year of evaluation is wide. Hence, we had to adopt an alternative approach, in which, income and employment derived by the beneficiary from each economic activity are estimated and income and employment due to the schemes are arrived at by calculating the incremental activities generated by each scheme. This method gives the estimates of income (employment) generated by the scheme. But one difficulty in this approach is that after the participation in the programmes, the beneficiaries may reduce hiring out its labour and use it for the programme. However, adjustments are made by considering employment and wage data from the beneficiaries.

1.8 (ii).a. Sample of the Study: Stratified random sampling method was used to select the respondents for the survey. The Poverty alleviation programmes was implemented in 9 (nine) district of Manipur, namely Bishnupur, Chandel, Churachandpur, Imphal East, Imphal West, Senapati, Tamenglong, Thoubal and Ukhrul. From every districts 1 (one) block were randomly selected for the study namely Imphal East C.D., Imphal West C.D., Kakching C.D., Bishnupur T.D, Chakpikarong T.D, Chingai T.D., Kangpokpi T.D., Lamka T.D. and Khupum T.D. from each block 2 (two) villages were selected from each
villages, 10 (ten) beneficiaries were selected randomly. Therefore, the total sample size of the study was 180 respondents.

1.8 (ii).b. The Sample Design: The study adopted four stages- stratified random sampling design. In the First stage, districts were selected. The selection of the districts was done on the basis of the poverty is taken as an understudy for the level of development. In the Second Stage, blocks were selected. They were selected on the basis of ascending name of the block from each sample district. This is due to the fact that level of development determines the performance of the programmes. Thus in all 9 (nine) block were selected for this study. In the Third Stage, villages were selected. 2 (two) villages from each block were selected. The villages are selected basing on coverage of programmes. Thus, in all 18 villages were selected from three sample districts. In the Fourth stage, the selection of beneficiaries was made on the basis of their occupation category and coverage of programmes of the selected villages. Besides this, 180 (one hundred eighty) beneficiaries from each 10 (ten) beneficiaries of the selected villages from among the eligible poor are selected to identify reasons for their participation in the poverty alleviation programmes. The summary of the sample design of the study is presented below.

1.8 (ii).c. Data Collection: The study is both empirical and descriptive in nature. Data for the purpose of present study analysis and establishment of objectives and hypothesis has been collected from both primary sources and secondary sources. The primary data were collected from beneficiaries through structured questionnaires along with Accredited Social Health Activies (ASHA) were done. Case studies of beneficiaries were constructed to examine the process of poverty alleviation. The secondary data which was collected from beneficiaries, PRIs, local bodies, Govt. publications and reports, (published as well as unpublished) of all the agencies functioning at the district, State and Central levels.
### 1.8 (ii). A Sample Design of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No</th>
<th>Description of the Stage of Sampling</th>
<th>Description of the Sampling Unit</th>
<th>Criteria Adopted for the Selection of Sample Units</th>
<th>Description of the Sample Method adopted</th>
<th>Description of the Sample Units</th>
<th>Number of Sample Units Selected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I Stage</td>
<td>District</td>
<td>Level of Poverty as understudy for Development</td>
<td>Stratified Random Sampling</td>
<td>Bishnupur, Chandel, Churachandpur, Imphal East, Imphal West, Senapati, Tamenglong, Thoubal and Ukhrul</td>
<td>9 (nine) districts from each covering the programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>III Stage</td>
<td>Villages</td>
<td>Coverage of Programmes</td>
<td>Stratified Random Sampling</td>
<td>Hararou, Tangkham, Awangkhunou, Bijoygovinda, Arong Nongmaikhong, Sekmaijing, Irengbam, Ishok, Chakpikarong, Chakpikarong Bazar, Chingai, Challou Kangpokpi Ward No.1, Kangpokpi Ward No.10, Henglep Hengkom Chingmei Kabui Authority, Dollang Authority</td>
<td>18 villages from each sample block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>IV stage</td>
<td>Beneficiaries</td>
<td>Beneficiaries on the basis of their occupation and Caste affiliation and coverage of programmes</td>
<td>Stratified Random Sampling</td>
<td></td>
<td>10 beneficiaries from each 18 selected villages.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 1.8 (ii).B Sample Design of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Name of the District</th>
<th>No. of Block in the District</th>
<th>No. of Selected Block</th>
<th>No. of Village in the Block</th>
<th>No. of Selected Village</th>
<th>No. of Beneficiaries Selected in the Village</th>
<th>Total No. of Beneficiaries Selected in the Village</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bishnupur</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Chandel</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Churachandpur</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Imphal East</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Imphal West</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Senapati</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Tamenglong</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Thoubal</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Ukhrul</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>41</strong></td>
<td><strong>9</strong></td>
<td><strong>497</strong></td>
<td><strong>18</strong></td>
<td><strong>90</strong></td>
<td><strong>180</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.8 (iii) Hypotheses of the Study

Keeping in mind the objectives of the study, the following Null Hypotheses have been framed for testing.

**Ho**<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant correlation between the independent variables.

**Ho**<sub>2</sub>: There is no significant correlation between employment numbers of days and change in economic conditions of the beneficiaries.

**Ho**<sub>3</sub>: There is no significant difference between before and after MGNREGP income of the respondents in the selected villages.

**Ho**<sub>4</sub>: There is no significant association between various income of wages employment programme and average number of working days.

**Ho**<sub>5</sub>: There is no significant relationship between gender and the level of satisfaction of the respondents.

**Ho**<sub>6</sub>: There is no significant relationship between age and the level of satisfaction of the respondents.

**Ho**<sub>7</sub>: There is no significant relationship between family size and the level of satisfaction of the respondents.

**Ho**<sub>8</sub>: There is no significant relationship between educational status and the level of satisfaction of the respondents.

**Ho**<sub>9</sub>: There is no significant relationship between occupational status and the level of satisfaction of the respondents.

**Ho**<sub>10</sub>: There is no significant relationship between agricultural income and the level of satisfaction of the respondents.

**Ho**<sub>11</sub>: There is no significant relationship between income before MGNREGP and the level of satisfaction of the respondents.
Ho_{12}: There is no significant relationship between income after MGNREGP and the level of satisfaction of the respondents.

Ho_{13}: There is no significant relationship between functionaries’ monitors and the quality of assets created under MGNREGP.

Ho_{14}: There is no significant relationship between impact on water conservation and level of satisfaction of the respondents.

Ho_{15}: There is no significant relationship between impact on agriculture productivity and the level of satisfaction of the respondents.

Ho_{16}: There is no significant impact on cropping pattern and level of satisfaction of the respondents.

Ho_{17}: There is no significant relationship between impact on agricultural productivity, water conservation, cropping pattern and change in economic condition of the respondents.

1.8 (iv) Tools for Analysis

The collected data were analysed to measure the impact assessment of wage employment beneficiaries’ status in Manipur with the help of appropriate descriptive and test statistics tools like mean, standard deviation, bar diagram, percentage bar diagram, multiple bar diagram, analysis of variance (ANOVA), co-relation and chi – square test. It was analysed by dividing the variations observe which were in experimented data into different parts and its art is assigned to known sources. The data was processed with the help of SPSS – 16 for analysis.

1.8 (v) Scope of the Study

At present the study was analysed the poverty alleviation programmes - wage employment programmes - since its implementation in the state of Manipur. In this study
the researcher make a critical analyse and interprets on various socio-economic factors in the 9 (nine) district viz Imphal East, Imphal West, Bishnupur, Thoubal, Chandel, Senapati, Ukhrul, Tamenglong, Churachandpur. The data referred in this study are from a period of ten years i.e., 2001 to 2010 (Before and After MGNREG Programme).

1.8 (vi) Significance of the Study

Social Development has now been accepted not only as a strong component of economic development but even some thinkers, academician and planners have started accepting it as the critical development. The involvement of our societies is to sustain the pace of economic development. The anomalies and disparities that have cropped up during all these years of planning have been largely, on account of low level of social development. The study would enable us to importantly examine and evaluate the working of social sector schemes in the sample districts. To identify their strong as well as weak points and suggest appropriate policy interventions, both in the short-term as well as in long term so that essential modifications and rectifications are introduced during the period of operation of schemes and also at the start of new programmes. Therefore, it is intended to look in details into the aspect of participation in work and nature of economic.

1.8 (vii) Limitation of the Study

The primary data which was collected through questionnaires and personal interviews method may not be cent percent correct and there may be chances of faulty, though the work was be very attentive and careful while collecting data.

The level of literacy of the beneficiaries and the barrier of language, as the study was cover the whole state where diverse languages are spoken, will be a difficult thing to collect primary data. There may be need for an interpreter in each area in order to
communicate with the targeted respondents. So, there may be chances of misinterpretation of the information.

Lack of proper cooperation from the side of PRIs and other implementing officials while seeking the required data and information for the study may also be a hurdle in this study.

1.8 (viii) Organisation of the Thesis

The conspectus of the thesis is to find and reach the exact end. This is explored through six chapters. The first chapter introduces the topic and critically evaluates the existing theories and distribution of various assessment of impact on poverty alleviation programmes. An introduction is given on the present study in which the objective of the study, methodology are focused, hypothesis, scope, significance and the organization of the chapters have been discussed.

The second chapter highlighted the impact assessment of poverty alleviation programmes in India.

The third chapter examined the performance of wage employment programmes in India.

The fourth chapter discussed on the impact assessment of wage employment programmes in Manipur and schemes implemented in the district during the last ten years and the beneficiaries’ experiences regarding their schemes, the fund allocated for the wage employment programmes and details of work executed by the villagers.

The fifth chapter analysed and data interprets on various Socio- economic factors before and after the MGNREGP of sampled beneficiaries.

Finally the conclusion delves into suggestions and an overall view of the socio-economic status of the selected beneficiaries of the district of Manipur. Thus, the purport of the thesis reaches the exact end.
References


