CHAPTER II
CONCEPTS AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Concepts:

In any research work, certain concepts are repeatedly used. The scholar must be familiar with the concepts related with the area of his interest. Going through related literature gives an idea of the basic concepts used in the study area. In this chapter an attempt is used to review some of the studies already made in related area. This chapter begins with definitions of importance concepts used in the study.

Poverty:

The term poverty is defined differently by different economists:

Ahulwalia defined absolute poverty, as the below subsistence conditions reflected mainly in inadequacy of food in take and on the consequent under nourishment on a mass scale.

Kurian conceptualized poverty as a deprivation of the socio economic phenomenon whereby resources available to a society are

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utilized to satisfy the wants of a few, while the majority does not have even their basic need met.

Varadharajan & Aiyasamy viewed poverty as the condition of the families experiencing deprivation not only in nutrition but also in health, education, sanitation, clothing and purchasing power.

Hanson has defined poverty as a situation having insignificant income to provide what is now regarded as a minimum standard of living.

To Desai, the word “poverty in the absolute sense referred to a condition of acute physical want, starvation disease, want of clothing, shelter, education and almost total lack of medical care”.

According to the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) definition, approved by the Ministry of Rural Development, as revised in May 1981, a rural household with an annual income of less than Rs.11,000/- is described as a poor household. These ‘poor households’ have been further classified into four groups: the destitute (with an income of less than Rs.4,000/- per annum at 1991-92 price

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level), extremely poor (within an income between Rs.4,001/- and Rs.6,000/- per annum), very poor (with an income between Rs.6,001/- and Rs.8,500/- per annum), and poor (with an income between Rs.8,501 and Rs.11,000/- per annum). 6

"Poverty line" norms may further be broad based and aim at raising the standard of living of the people both qualitatively and quantitatively. This criterion should be further defined so as to include certain more bare necessities e.g., transport, housing, medi-care, better nutrition, primary education, sanitation, child care, adult literacy, animal health, water and electricity etc. These should also cater to the element of ever escalating inflation. Levels of poverty should be assessed annually indicating the income required and services needed in order to be called "not poor"7.

Poverty line may be defined as the "income line" below which a family will be considered poor. For the Indian rural areas poverty line, has been fixed at Rs.6,400/-. This involves raising the annual income above Rs.6,400/-. The criterion of "Poverty line being merely a cut off monitory ceiling of Rs.6,400/- is not a sound one8.

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The task force on projection of minimum needs and effective consumption demand (Planning Commission 1991) formalized the above definition of poverty and computed the incidence of poverty in rural and urban India for the year 1973-74. The calorie norms were fixed at 2435 kcal per capita per diem for rural areas and 2095 kcal for urban areas (rounded off to 2400 and 2100 kcal respectively). These norms were fixed on the basis of age-sex-occupational structure of the rural and urban population for the year 1982-83, and the corresponding energy allowances recommended by The Nutrition Expert Group (1969). 9

**Below poverty line:**

Ahluwalia estimated poverty in rural India and 14 Indian states in terms of real per capita consumption, using Head Count Ratio and Sen’s index and he found that there was a marked fluctuation in the incidence of rural poverty. Rural poverty declined till 1960-61 and then it rose sharply in the mid 1960s. Then it reached a peak in 1967-68 and again declined thereafter 10.

To Sen, “the income short fall of a person whose income is less than the poverty line income can be called as “income gap”. In the


aggregate assessment of poverty, the income gap must be taken in to account\textsuperscript{11}.

Karnal and Sahetiya of the Economic Times Bureau has calculated poverty line on the basis of round of the NSS report using the 1979-80 mid point of Rs.36 for rural and Rs.88 for the urban areas and found that as many as 42.6 per cent i.e. 307 million people were below poverty line in 1983. The percentage breakup between rural & urban areas was 41.3 and 47.3 respectively\textsuperscript{12}.

To Sen, India has a large proportion of rural population and nowhere outside India there is such a concentration of so many rural people who are so poor. In 1988 more 200 million people were below the poverty line\textsuperscript{13}.

Srinivasan estimated that in 1995 out of a total of 1645.76 lakh households in India as much as 586.48 (35.63 per cent) were living below poverty line\textsuperscript{14}.


\textsuperscript{14} Srinivasan. R “India’s Poverty Profile – An Analysis”, Southern Economist, 17(22) 1991, p.10.
Porte pointed out that at the price level of 1991-92 a family with an annual income of Rs.11,000/- or less is considered to be below the poverty line.\textsuperscript{15}

Poverty line may be defined as the "income line" below which a family will be considered poor. For the Indian rural areas poverty line, has been fixed at Rs.6,400/-. This involves raising the annual income above Rs.6,400/-. However, the criterion of "poverty line being merely a cut off monitory ceiling of Rs.6,400/- is not a sound one."\textsuperscript{16}

\textbf{Poor:}

Malhotra observed that in general for identifying the poor it is the level of personal expenditure (income) that enabled the individual to satisfy a maximum consumption level. Proportion of population not able to attain the specified level of expenditure (income) was segregated as poor. Defining this level of expenditure (income) which is called poverty line is a first step in estimating poverty, separating poor from the non-poor.\textsuperscript{17}

\textsuperscript{17} Rajeev Malhotra, "Incidence of Poverty in India" Towards a consensus on Estimating the Poor," The Indian Journal of Labour Economics 40(1); 1997, p.p.68-69.
Employment:

There are two approaches for measuring unemployment in India. Usual Status (US) has the reference period of one year. A person is considered to be employed on Usual Status basis if he/she was engaged for a relatively longer time during the past year (more than 182 days), in one of more economic activities.

The Current Weekly Status (CWS) has the reference period of one week. The person is considered employed on CWS basis if he/she was engaged for at least one hour on any day of previous week on any economic activity.18

Unemployment:

It is a situation characterized by the existence of those able bodied persons who are willing to work but have to go without a job that may yield them some regular income.19

Underemployment:

Some people do not have work throughout the year due to seasonality in work or otherwise. Such underemployment refers to

19 Dhingra I.C., Indian Economy— with Special Reference to Tamil Nadu, New Delhi: Sultan Chand and sons, 1993, p. 305.
visible unemployment and is a common feature in rural areas in India. It accounted for more than two thirds of employment in India\textsuperscript{20}.

It is a situation under which employed people are contributing to production less than they are capable of\textsuperscript{21}.

**Mandays:**

It is the common unit of measurement of human labour. It refers to eight hours of work by an adult male and female worker of average skill.

**Scheduled Caste & Scheduled Tribes:**

People belonging to Scheduled Caste & Scheduled Tribes (SC/ST) are those who have been socially neglected, oppressed and suppressed and economically exploited by other caste people. They are called the untouchables who have to render service for others and cannot move from their caste to other\textsuperscript{22}.

\textsuperscript{20} Ibid., p.344
Weaker section:

The term weaker section is caste-neutral in its reference and encompasses all sections of people who are economically disadvantaged.

Review of related literature:

A researcher has to be up to dated in her information about studies related to her own problem already made by others. For any worthwhile study the researcher needs an adequate familiarity with the library and its resources.

A survey of related literature not only forms one of the early chapters of the dissertation, but also serves other useful purposes. A brief summary of the previous research and writings of recognized experts provides evidence that the researcher is familiar with what is already known, and with what is still unknown and untested. This step helps to eliminate the duplication of what has been done, and provides useful hypothesis and helpful suggestions for significant investigation. The literature in any field forms the foundation upon which all future work will be built.

The significance of the review:

The key to the vast storehouse of published literature may open doors to sources of significant problem and explanatory hypothesis and provide helpful orientation for definition of the problem, the background for selection procedure and comparative data for interpretation of results. The review of the literature is a crucial aspect of the planning of the study. The review of some studies on the area of interest of the scholar is presented in this chapter.

Rondinelli (1979) has reviewed the problems stimulating rural investment and major obstacles faced by government agencies in rural industries. The author suggested that project management is the most effective means of formulating and implementing small scale industrial policies and that it could serve as a coherent conceptual framework for problem identification and diagnosis and for organizing government incentives, technical assistance, research consultancy and training activities.24

Bhupendra Hooja (1979) looked into the prospects of Antyodaya scheme initiated on 2nd October 1979 as an alternative model for rural development. While it has been recognized as a single exercise of

identifying persons and family below poverty line and assisting them with visible or readily available activities or programmes looking at the rate of its progress, this scheme may not be able to solve the problems at desired level. The slow rate of progress is due to several reasons particularly relating to utilization and distribution pattern of land resources, sectoral distribution of workers and their constraints.

Mohapatro and Patnaik (1981) has made an attempt to examine the operational limitations of SFDA in Indian agriculture. It is inferred that most of the SFDA programmes have not so far been able to bring about a significant improvement in the economic lot of the target group. This has been largely because of the large number of bottlenecks in the implementation of the schemes.

Gopal Bhargava (1983) has made an attempt to tackle the gigantic problem of poverty and unemployment in rural areas and the author said that it is not only challenging but also an impossible task. The author felt that there is a vital scope to stimulate the rural development programmes for promoting employment opportunities by strengthening social and economic infrastructural facilities and boosting small-scale industrial

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prospects in the rural areas. In this direction, the author thinks that a concrete planning, deliberate action, clear perspective and sincere attempt can bring prosperity to the rural poor. Building up of productive assets in countryside is the key to the strategy for rural development as employment generation²⁷.

Rao (1983) has made field studies to examine factors attributable to the characteristic features of the local level rural economics in India. He discussed the factors which hindered the ever spread of the development process across the typical planning area like a district or a block. The author felt that the stagnancy of the production and service activities outside agriculture is a major structural weakness of rural economy. Existence of uneven distribution in development process, rural isolation, lack of linkages and depressive market penetration are the main barriers in the process of rural development. Local level planning by itself is no answer to the problem of slow and uneven rural development. It requires the support of information cum monitoring system capable of reflecting the uneven percolation of different development components & providing due importance to the underlying factors²⁸.

Modak and Patkar (1983) have made an attempt to describe two recently developed methodologies namely Say’s Hierarchical Scaling Method and Interpretive Structure Modeling (ISM) method. The study found both these methodologies have some merits and demerits. Therefore the author suggested the coalition structure and compromised for refinement of these methods. They concluded that the social scientists and social science institutions could play an important role in preparing the list of beneficiaries and in the application of mathematical methods.29

Aziz (1983) discussed some issues and questions regarding the allocation, extension, coverage, wage rate and time horizon emerged in the planning and implementation of the Employment Guarantee Scheme adopted by some of the states in India. He has analyzed the operational problems of the schemes drawing from the experience of those states where it is in operation. This paper has suggested that for the success of the scheme the planning and the selection of the projects and areas may be done by the bureaucrats but the actual execution of the projects should be entrusted to the organization of the poor in order that the misuse of

funds by the unscrupulous politician and bureaucrats should be minimized\textsuperscript{30}.

Koholy (1984) described the salient features of various rural development programmes being carried out by the Government with an objective of growth with social justice. Among various programmes, the article has concluded that the IRD is the single largest scheme for lifting the rural poor compared to other programmes such as TRYSEM, NREP, RLEGP, DPAP; Minimum Needs Programme, Agricultural Marketing and Storage Programme. The article has concluded that the people’s participation is the main condition for the success of any rural development programme\textsuperscript{31}.

Krishnan (1984) has examined the working of the IRDP on the basis of primary data collected from the eighty beneficiaries of Edakkad village of Cannanore district of Kerala during March and April 1984. The study revealed that the majority of the beneficiaries were not eligible for the assistance under the programme. The utilization of the assistance for the intended purpose was also limited. The programme has not helped in raising the income of those families who were below the poverty line to the desired level. The targets for employment creation


under the scheme were found to be unrealistic. In the light of these constraints, the author suggested that a better yardstick for identification of household below the poverty line would be the per capita income as compared to the annual family income as the family size largely varies\textsuperscript{32}.

Angadi and Renukarya (1984) have made an attempt to assess the impact of IRDP. The authors interviewed 200 beneficiaries and collected secondary information also. The article has also discussed socio-economic status of beneficiaries, their educational status, housing conditions, employment, social facilities and the like. The study has found that the annual average income of the beneficiaries has increased after the implementation of the IRDP. 60\% of the beneficiaries were in a position to repay the debt. According to the authors the progress of the programme has not been satisfactory. They suggested that the selection of beneficiaries should be requirement oriented rather than target oriented\textsuperscript{33}.

Harikumar (1984) has evaluated the implementation of the IRDP in Vijilla block in Ernakulam District. The author conducted interviews of randomly selected 75 beneficiaries. He discussed socio-economic characteristics of sample beneficiaries. The study found that 74.5 per


20.6 per cent came above the poverty line. An additional employment of 3650 man hours has been created in different sectors. Most of the beneficiaries has repaid loan regularly. Certain leakages have been found in sanctioning and advancing loans by authorities and banks. The author suggested proper identification of beneficiary, insurance of all assets, increase in criteria of annual income and creation of awareness among people.

Barnabas (1984) has tried to produce a broad picture of the process of evaluation of rural development programs. He discussed about various approaches, indicators, methods, and uses of evaluation. The main objective of evaluation is an assessment of the results achieved and sketching the design for future improvement in a systematic manner. Both tangible and intangible results have been included. The author came to the conclusion that valuation is a continuous scientific process for making decision and bringing necessary changes.

Gupta (1984) has made an attempt to review the following schemes a) IRDP including TRYSEM, b) NREP, RLEGP c) the cottage and village industries programme of the KVIC.

In the light of the experience gained from the above schemes and on the basis of the findings of National Committee for the Development of Backward areas, the author recommended that apart from focus on agricultural and allied sectors development, greater efforts are needed for the development of rural industries and the tertiary sector in the rural areas to eradicate poverty in the countryside. For rural industrialization, he called for development of institutional network, upgradation of technology and training and provision of energy (including non-conventional). For tertiary sector development, he asked for an apex body at state level to identify the potential avenues to exploit them properly. Lastly he recommended concentration of these efforts at a ‘focal point’ or ‘growth centre’ in a planned manner which may lead to gradual urbanization of the rural area36.

Sadan and Lakshmi (1984) in their evaluation study on IRDP found that there was an under reporting of income and also concealment of income at the time of household survey by the beneficiaries. The study further highlighted that the banking institution has not been substantially

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complying with instructions of Reserve Bank of India and other agencies in the matter of providing credit to the IRDP beneficiaries\textsuperscript{37}.

Tripathy (1985) has studied the impact of rural development and relief programmes in terms of employment and income generation in some blocks of Orissa. This study has an exhaustive exercise covering various socio-economic characteristics of 125 selected beneficiaries, an illustration of their assets, the function of financial institution, the relevance and feasibility of the scheme and finally the impact of each programme separately and in conjunction with the alternative programme as well. Under the IRDP, Milch Cattle Programme was not popular but tailoring yielded the highest income followed by weaving. Loopholes in monitoring and evaluation of IRDP were reported which could be plugged through streamlining the organizational set up. Further, it also suggested that progress based on training and skill should be brought under NREP\textsuperscript{38}.

Ray (1985) has examined the merits and demerits of various rural development programmes adopted in the country both before and after independence. The important programmes discussed are: Firka Scheme, Sadan M.L., and Swarna Lakshmi M., IRDP in Delhi Union Territory – An Evaluation, Indian Institute of Public Management, New Delhi, May 1984.

Community Development Programmes, Generalised Integrated Programme, Intensive Area Development Programme and Twenty point programme. The author also discussed as how to overcome the poverty of the rural poor through the transformation of the Indian rural structure\(^9\).

Malyodri (1985) has focused on the impact of TRYSEM on self-employment. A review of the achievements of this programme suggested that it has helped in solving the unemployment problem to a considerable extent but unfortunately, there are certain gaps and defects in the implementation process\(^{40}\).

Some of the measures for removing the maladies are the proper selection of trainees, recruitment of qualified and skilled trainees, increment of monthly stipend to trainees, sanctioning of loan amount to all trained youth of TRYSEM, proper supply of raw materials, suitable marketing, opening of new bank branches in the interior, speedy development of proper technology for rural area and last but not least, taking up effective evaluation studies to monitor and study the impact of TRYSEM on rural youth.

Radhaiah, Vijayaraghavan and Prahalad Rao (1985) conducted a study (i) to examine certain operational aspects such as type of


work, mode of execution and wage payments under the programme (ii) to assess the awareness, the perception of the programme by the people in general and the beneficiaries in particular and (iii) to measure the impact of the programme on diet and nutritional status of the beneficiaries. The study was based on the survey of 786 households which included 376 NREP participants and 392 non-participants selected from 19 villages in two blocks of Karnool District in Andra Pradesh.

The benefits of this programme, the study has found are more perceptible in arid and agriculturally under-developed areas. Majority of the people considered the programme as beneficial though in a limited way in providing gainful employment locally and preventing migration. The programme also intended to ease food situation. The ‘cash and kind’ payment provided for was liked by people. The people were of the opinion that the programme should be spread all over the year and not concentrated in lean seasons only. The food and consumption pattern showed prevalence of nutritional deficiency signs and weight profiles of the children did not show any beneficial effects due to the programme. The author however felt that it is too early to see the effects of the programme on health standards for it would take time to show up41.

George, Ramachandriah, Srivastava, and Jena (1985) conducted a study in Robertsganj block of Mirzapur district in Uttar Pradesh. Under IRDP items like Milch animals, rickshaws, sewing machines and cycle repairing shops were provided. The major NREP schemes in the block were building works, road reconstruction works, drinking water and minor irrigation work. The largest single group of respondents was non-agricultural labour followed by marginal farmers and agricultural labourers in that order. Almost all the beneficiaries realized some additional income. For those who were already above poverty line, the schemes further improved their income level and a few of those who were below the poverty line were enabled to cross it as a result of the combined effect of IRDP and other schemes.

Alexander, Verma, Jayakumar and Vadappanavar (1985) have examined the impact of IRDP, NREP, DRM in Jarrora, Saitana and Bajna blocks of Ratlam District in Madhya Pradesh. The impact of JRDP was examined in terms of assets, employment and unemployment, economics of crop production and scheme wise income and expenses. As far as NREP and DRM schemes are concerned, the benefits of these schemes were measured in terms of employment. The main finding of the study is

that there are positive results in terms of mitigation of unemployment and poverty of the poorer section of the society.\(^4\)

Sinha (1985) in his evaluation study pointed out the structural weakness in the administrative set up at the district level and block level. The study also found that only about 26 per cent of the total sample households were selected in the open gram sabha meetings. About 74 per cent of the beneficiaries were selected by the block development officers and the village level workers. There were almost delays in the implementation of the programme due to bureaucratic machinery bifurcating the essentially urgent administrative execution and financial sanction.\(^4\)

Ramachandriah (1986) has attempted a study to assess the employment generated and income derived, from the programmes like IRDP and NREP & DRM and to assess the net benefit by way of income derived by the beneficiaries from assets required or transformed to this under the different supportive measures. The paper was based upon a field study conducted in Robertsganj block of Mirzapur district in Uttar Pradesh. The author has found that self-employment generation by IRDP in most of the cases was very much limited and reflected on inadequate

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source provided by IRDP. It was suggested that planning for NREP and DRM must be effectively dovetailed with general economic activity in the region or village and both the programmes of IRDP and NREP should be focused to a particular group of poor people so that they would effectively generate supplementary income and push the people above the poverty line more easily by a single programme.

The State Bank of India (1986) has conducted an evaluation study in 1985-86 to identify the weaknesses and to record the achievements of the IRDP. The study covered 13 districts in the country located in different states. The results indicated that the inadequacy of investment per beneficiary is one of the major defects in the implementation of the programme which affect its efficacy in poverty alleviation. The study also pointed out that under some activities, income generation is different from district to district being higher in those districts where linkages-based back-up support facilities are lacking.

Sandeep Bargence (1987) has made four evaluation studies on the IRDP with an all India coverage done under the programme evaluation organization of the Planning Commission. The finding of the study is that there was wrong identification of the beneficiaries to the extent of

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15 to 20 per cent at an All India level though this may range from 47 per cent to 70 per cent in some states.

The selection of applications was wrongly done without any consideration being given to the abilities of the beneficiaries, difference in the infrastructural support, backward and forward linkages etc. As a result of all these, they did not prove to be viable thereby affecting the impact of the programme.

Guneste (1987) has made a study on IRDP to find out the effectiveness of Integrated Rural Development Programme with respect to economic position of rural force. The survey was carried out in the districts of Satara, Amaravathi & Parbhani in Maharashtra and in the districts of Madurai and North Arcot in Tamil Nadu. The investigation covered 2866 samples including 1859 beneficiaries and 10107 non beneficiaries. The authors observed that the rate of repayment was good in the district of Satara in Maharashtra. Less than 10 per cent of the non beneficiaries were surveyed in Madurai and North Arcot and it is found that non beneficiaries are also aware of the Integrated Rural Development Programme Scheme.

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Guneste et.al (1987) conducted an investigation on “IRDP-A Case Study”. The investigation was made in Halagani village in Bijapur district of Karnataka state. Only 17 households were taken as samples for the study. This study came to the conclusion that the implementing authorities did not give importance to the poorest people of the village. Further the banking officials also did not take any positive steps to recover the loans given to the beneficiaries.

Rana (1988) in his study on IRDP arrived at the conclusion that personal bottle-necks, pressure of private money lenders, unproductive but unavoidable credit needs, illiteracy and ignorance are the factors responsible for misutilization of loans in the case of 50 per cent of the sample population. These bottlenecks have cropped up mainly due to the fact that the nationalized banks are not acting as a desired alternative to money lenders. The study has also found that 94.32 per cent sample population favoured the direct cash payment of loans.

Rajarathinam (1988) has selected the Andanallur, Block Tiruchirapalli District for the “on-the spot” study as he felt that it would be more effective for giving an exact picture of “what happens” under the programme in that region through personal observation and enquiry. He

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49 Ibid., pp. 231, 255, 267.
has taken a sample of 10 villages comprising of 100 households keeping the time and other resource constraints. In the next stage revenue villages were listed in the alphabetical order of their names in English and ten villages were selected randomly. The main findings are (i) the employment depends also on the different seasons of the year and during the lean season, IRDP and NREP engaged casual labourers. (ii) Regarding the source of income to the beneficiaries, agricultural, non-agricultural and livestocks contributed income. (iii) NREP has also done much for the upliftment of the poor and it has created an additional employment on an average of 37 man days and an additional income on an average of Rs.303/-. The study has revealed that there were many bottlenecks both in the formulation and execution of the programme. Another main problem is that the villagers were not quite aware of the implications of NREP51.

Subramanian (1988) has made a study on “A micro level of the impact of IRDP in selected block area in Madurai district”. Two villages namely Ayyampalayam & Devarappan patti in Madurai District of Tamil Nadu are taken for study. Out of total 65 respondents 38 samples have been taken from scheduled caste family and 27 has been backward class.

It was noticed that the program has made significant impact on the working days of scheduled caste in the study region\textsuperscript{52}.

Datar (1990) has made an attempt to assess the performance of Maharashtra Employment Guarantee Scheme in 1978 in three districts namely the Ahmednagar District, Dhulia district and Bhandara. The study was sponsored by ISST and was completed in 1987. It included a review of 43 families in the three districts. It observed that families in Ahmednagar district continued to work in the scheme, in Dhulia, because of lack of MEGS work in the vicinity their income has deteriorated in Bhandara. The beedi workers who had non-participant status in 1978 have joined the EGS newly since 1984. Some of the reasons for failure were that it was the political leaders in the area who influenced the choice of construction sites and earned popularity. The criterion that the most needed people should be given employment was not followed. The time-table for the construction of sites was strictly controlled by the local rich farmers who required supply of cheap labourer during agricultural operations. Small and medium size land

holders competed with landless labourers in seeking the employment, at the MEGS work sites.

Gopalakrishnaiah (1990) has made an appraisal of the working of Gramodaya Scheme in Chittoor district in Andra Predesh. The scheme was in force since 1983-84. The data pertained to the period of three years commencing from 1983-84 and ending with 1985-86 financial year. Out of the total 2,210 beneficiaries for the three years of survey, 263 were women. The analysis revealed that the targets fixed for the district were achieved. But in the selection of the beneficiaries, proper representation was not provided for the youth belonging to weaker sections of society. It is evident that the participation of fair sex in the scheme was not significant. Further, the agencies responsible for implementation of the scheme had put in concerted and committed efforts to make the educated women to take up the units under Gramodaya.

Chowdhry (1990) has made a survey of the various programmes like Community Development and Integrated Rural development undertaken during the various Five Year plans which aimed at securing social justice for the deprived and the disadvantaged sections of our population. The author felt that we have to redesign our development

policy, delivery system, organizations, procedures and re orientation of public services so that the poor are rapidly brought into the main stream of development. The poor should be motivated to form organizations by themselves and other technical assistance and support should be given to replace purely bureaucratic support system. He felt that under the present structure all our efforts to give benefits to the rural poor remain ineffective. The author hoped that with the introduction of the Eighth Plan strategy, there would be greater opportunities for the weaker sections of the rural population for getting a fair play in accordance with national aspirations contained in the Indian constitution.

Lalwania (1992) made an attempt on his study “Rural Development of India” to assess the process of implementation and to find out the reasons for the failure of IRDP in Jansi district of Uttar Pradesh. The 100 samples were selected on the basis of random technique. The findings of the study are 1. the beneficiaries did not get a suitable guidance regarding the loan procedure and 2. the local politicians and local dominant man interfere in the functioning of the scheme.

Nearly three-fourth of the beneficiaries did not repay the loan properly. The reasons stated are (1) lengthy process (2) long duration for

loan sanction (3) location of bank at a for distance and (4) inadequate loan amount\textsuperscript{56}.

Asha Garg (1992) has undertaken a study on, “Working and Impact of IRDP”. The objective of the study is to know the growth of IRDP in physical and financial terms and its impact in terms of various economic indicators. 240 samples were contacted from Kurukshetra and Bhiwani districts of Haryana. The awareness of beneficiaries were high in Kurukshetra than in Bhiwani. Total net revenue and average net revenue increased in Kurukshetra than in the other research area. Consumption had improved (35.86 per cent) after obtaining the loans. The author found that the beneficiaries had the feeling of fear of repayment\textsuperscript{57}.

Ambedkar (1994) has undertaken a study on IRDP (implementation process) in the Jabera block of Damoh district of Madya Pradesh. The main findings of the study are (1) the implementing authorities did not give proper advice and verify the conditions of assets purchased because of inadequate man power which was the main set back in this area. This study showed that 80 per cent of the beneficiaries felt that the income has improved after obtaining the IRDP loan. The author

\textsuperscript{56} Vinod Kumar Lalwani (1992), Rural Development in India, New Delhi : Ashish Publishing House, pp. 113-115 and 131-137.

has recommended that the procedures should be made easy so as to reduce the delayed repayment of the loans\textsuperscript{58}.

Shyam (1996) has conducted a study, "The Role of special employment programme". He has exclusive faith that the market may generate higher growth rates of output without any or little growth of employment. Further the seasonal and disguised unemployment, which emerges out of the very nature of agriculture itself need some deliberate action. Realizing their responsibility, the state has also been implementing various special employment programs since the nineties. The findings of the recent study on PMRY beneficiaries is that it is specially welcome from the viewpoint of rural unemployment as this programme has gone to rural areas and a sizeable portion of the beneficiaries is advanced by the rural branches of commercial banks\textsuperscript{59}.

Lingarajamma (1998) has undertaken a study to assess the performance of Jawagar Rozgar Yojana in Mysore district of Karnataka. According to this study the actual achievement reached the target except for the year 1989-90 and 1994-95. During the last six years, 303.985 lakh mandays of work was created as against the target of 288.511 lakh of mandays in Mysore District. This showed good performance of Jawahar


Rozgar Yojana in Mysore District. Though the performance appeared to be a hot mixed trend, yet the achievement was satisfactory as it was 68 per cent. The author had found out that the ineffective implementation of Jawahar Rozgar Yojana was on account of lack of technical staff, excessive political interference and lack of knowledge among the sections of beneficiary.

Ghosh (1998) has evaluated the performance of JRY, with the help of country wide Concurrent Evaluation Study during the period January-December 1992, taking 1991-92 as reference year. The study was very comprehensive in nature as it covered 448 districts of the country and 4406 Panchayats within the jurisdiction of these districts. This study was based on a very small sample of panchayats (only 40 from 20 districts). Considering the wide coverage of the Concurrent Evaluation Study (published in July, 1994), the results were very meaningful and worth considering for analyzing with a view to presenting the performance of different states. The author has taken the study to visualize the performance of JRY in the eastern and north eastern states. From the study it was clear that JRY was yet to fulfill the desired goals. Many operational black spots were also there jeopardizing the effective implementation of the programme. The researcher has found that JRY

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alone cannot generate sufficient income for a family to cross the poverty line. He suggested that JRY can be a supplementary employment generation programme and needed convergence with other employment-oriented programmes for example IRDP\textsuperscript{61}.

Sharma (1998) has made a study on the impact of TRYSEM on Employment and Income generation in Agra. The TRYSEM beneficiaries were contacted for this study. A complete enumeration of beneficiaries in the selected block who had completed their training during 1992-95 in any trade was done. For the study, all the male and female beneficiaries have been contacted for the necessary information. The total sample size of all the three selected development block was 394. The number of sample beneficiaries varied from 12 to 145. It was observed that out of 394 sample beneficiaries, only 94 (23.86 per cent) established in self-employment trades in which they got training and 45 (11.42 per cent) got employment on salary basis. Out of them 10 percent beneficiaries got employment but had no job satisfaction for which they had no training. Therefore, they did not feel that TRYSEM scheme has been helpful to them in any way. It was shocking to know that about 65 per cent remaining beneficiaries did not establish themselves either as self employed or as wage earners. The study concluded that the TRYSEM

scheme helped only one-fourth of selected beneficiaries in establishing themselves in self-employment\textsuperscript{62}.

Dev (2000) has presented a paper where he puts together various indicators on poverty, income distribution and employment in the pre and post-reform periods (before 1991 and after 1991). He has identified the components of reforms having impact on these indicators. Given the newly emerging disparities with regard to urban and rural poverty interstate inequalities in the agricultural sector, the paper argues for a more emphasis on agricultural growth and rural infrastructure, increasing social sector expenditure in the first generation and local level institutions during the phase of second generation of reforms.

This paper has examined the economic reforms on poverty, income distribution and employment and concluded that the trends in poverty can be examined directly through poverty ratios and indirectly through employment, unemployment and wages. It has concluded that in the post-reform period, rural poverty has been arrested and on the other hand, urban poverty met with a significant decline in the 1990’s. The inequalities in consumption and distribution are higher in the post reform

period as compared to pre-reform period and the quality of employment has declined in the post-reform period\textsuperscript{63}.

Kunal Sen (2001) in his article surveyed the debate on poverty and the key issues rose in the debate, discussing the construction of the original poverty lines. The author presented new evidence on the divergence between calorie-based poverty measure and the official poverty line, and explore alternative explanations for this divergence. The greater availability of the NSS data has prompted a flurry of studies of poverty in India. The NSS data have played crucial roles in these debates and ‘lessons learnt’ from them are widely transferred to other locations and to other issues. The NSS data attract a lot of attention. It prompted sharp interactions, and that some of the controversies come down to issues to do with the quality of the data. It would seem essential, in view of the pre- eminent importance of poverty, to produce data on poverty that we can rely on. Certainly, one’s confidence in the statistics of poverty would be enhanced by combinations of representative samples producing information triangulated with more qualitative and in-depth methods, but the resource implications would be considerable. But

\textsuperscript{63}Mahendra Dev S., "Economic reforms, poverty and Income Distribution & Employment", Economic and political weekly, (March 4, 2000.)
perhaps these could be mitigated by imaginative, competent, open, professional innovation and execution\textsuperscript{64}.

Somasekhar (2002) undertook a study on, "Poverty Alleviation through IRDP: A Study in Guntur district". The fundamental objective of the study was to evaluate the impact of IRDP in providing employment to the rural poor and thereby generating additional income to the beneficiaries in the selected villages of Guntur district. Out of three-revenue divisions, one mandal from each revenue divisions was selected for an in-depth study of IRDP. These mandals were Bapatla Mandal (Tenali revenue division), Krosuru mandal (Guntur revenue division) and Chilakaluripet mandal (Narasaraopeta revenue division). Totally 220 IRDP beneficiaries were covered for this primary survey. From each mandal 25 per cent of the total IRDP beneficiaries were selected on random basis for the purpose of this study.

In this district during 1998-99, under Integrated Rural Development Programme 11314 schemes have been sanctioned by earmarking Rs.11 crores. About 71 per cent of respondents felt that their annual working days were improved after obtaining this loan. Little more than 50 per cent of respondents stated that they have crossed Rs.11,000 per annum and they had crossed the poverty line65.