CHAPTER 3.1

SALIENT FEATURES OF KURNOOL DISTRICT
1. LOCATION AND COMPOSITION:

This district derives its name from its chief town Kurnool, the capital of former Nawabs, capital of Andhra Pradesh State from 1st October 1953 to 1st November, 1956 and at present the headquarters of the district. The name Kurnool is said to have been derived from “Kandanavolu”.

Kurnool District lies between the northern latitudes of 14° 54' and 16° 18' and eastern longitudes of 76° 58' and 79° 34' the altitude of the district varies from 100 ft above the mean sea level. This district is bounded on the north by the Tungabhadra and the Krishna rivers as well as Mahabubnagar district, on the south by Kadapa and Anapatpur District on the west by the Bellary district of Karnataka State and on the east by Prakasam District. The district ranks 10 in population with 35,29,494 people accounting for 4.63 % of the total population of the State as per 2010 population census, while in area it occupies the 3rd place with 17658 Sq. Kms, which account for 6.41 % of the total area of the State.

At present Kurnool District comprises 3 Revenue Divisions, 54 Revenue Mandals, 53 Mandal Parishads, One Municipal Corporation, 4 Municipalities, 898 Gram Panchayats, 928 Revenue Villages and 647 Hamlet Villages.

2. PHYSIOGRAPHY:

Nallamalas and Erramalas are the two important mountain ranges in the district running parallel from North to South. The Erramalas divide the district into two well defined tracts from East to West. Between Erramalas and Nallamalas lies the Eastern part of the district comprimg Nandikotkur, Pagidyala, Kothapalli, Pamulapadu, Atmakur, Velgodu, J.Bunglow, Midthur, Bandi Atmakur, Gadivemula, Nandyal, Mahanandi,
Panyam, Banaganapalli, Owk, Koliakuntla, Rudravaram, and Chagalamari Mandals. This tract is crossed by the crest of Krishna and Pennar, Watershed at the North part of the pagidyala mandal at about 100° above the sea level. From this height the ground slopes to the South along the river Kundu till it traverses into Pennar valley. Major part of its tract is predominantly black cotton soils.

The western tract compring Pathikonda, Tuggali, Maddikera, Devanakonda, Gonegandla, Dhone, Peapully, Veldurthy, Bethamcherla, Krishnagiri, Kurnool, Orvakal, Kallur, Kodumur, C.Belagal, Gudur, Yemmiganur, Nandavaram, Mantralayam, Adoni, Peddakadumur, Kosigi, Kowthalam, Alur, Aspari, Holagunda, Halaharvi, Chippagiri Mandals. The terrain here slopes from South to North and it is drained by the river Hundri which joins the river Tungabhadra at Kurnool. The soils in the North western transversed parts by the river Hundri are black cotton while the South Eastern parts are predominantly pure red soils.

3. CLIMATE:

The Climate of the district is normally good and healthy. January, February and March months are usually pleasant with moderate winds from South-East. April and May are hottest months of the year, during these months the wind shifts to South West with increased force and brings welcome showers by the end of May. During the succeeding four months the wind blows from western side in major parts of the district and brings fair quantum of rainfall. By the end of September the wind is light and pleasant forecasting the onset of NorthEast monsoon. In November and December the weather is fine, rainfall is rare and wind is light with an occurrence of heavy dew. District normal rainfall of the year is 670mm. During 2009-10 the rainfall received is 1081.3 mm.
4. RIVERS:

The principal rivers flowing in the district are the Tungabhadra (and its tributary is Hundri) the Krishna and the Kunderu.

The Tungabhadra rises in the western ghats and after forming part of northern boundary for some distance separates Kurnool from the Telangana area flows in an Eastern direction receives Hundri and falls into the Krishna river at Kudali sangam after winding northwards.

The Hundri, a tributary of Tungabhadra rises in the fields of Maddikera in Maddikera mandal receives a stream from Erramalas at Laddagiri in Kodumur mandal and joins the Thungabhadra at Kurnool. It drains much of Maddikera, Pathikonda Devanakonda, Gonegandla, Kodumur and Kallur mandals. This has turbid streams with sudden raise and fall. The Kunderu also called Kumudvathi rises on the western side of Erramalas winds its way into Kunderu valley and flows in southern direction collecting drainage all along its course from either side. It flows through Orvakal, Midthur, Gadivemula, Nandyal, Gosapadu, Koilakuntla, Dornipadu and Chagalamari mandals and there enters Kadapa district.

5. FLORA, FAUNA AND FOREST:

The forestic composition of the district stands in direct relation to the climatic and edaphic conditions and the biotic influence in various locations.

Broadly speaking the Eastern portion of the District bears better vegetation while the western, especially the North Western portion comprising Adoni, Peddakadumur, Alur, Aspari, Chipagiri, Halaharvi, Holagunda, Koilakuntla, Sanjamala, Owk,
Pathikonda, Devanakonda, Krishnagiri, Veldurthy, Kodumur and Kallur mandals presents a desolate appearance and the vegetation that exists is confined mostly to small pocket of reserve forests.

The total area under forests is 3,40,669 Hec. accounting for about 19 per cent of total geographical area of the district. The major part of the forest is confined mainly to the Nallamalas including its extension, the Erramalas and a part of the Velikondas. The forest covering the Erramalas and Velikondas are of interior type bamboo with timber species that occurs fairly over extensive areas in the district. Tamarind and Beedi leaves are the important minor forest produce of the district.

Wild animals are found in plenty in Nallamala and Erramala hills which afford an ideal abode for wild life tiger, panthers, bears, jackals, hyaenas, wild bears, foxes, spotted dears, samburs, black bucks, nelgais, wild sheep etc., are found in these forests. In order to preserve the wild animals, forest of the northern part of Nallamalas covering an area of about 46.815 hectares has been brought under the Nagarjuna Sagar- Srisailam wild life Sanctuary.

Partridges, peacocks, red jungle fowl, green pigeon, quails, are the chief game birds found in the forests. The great Indian Bustard (Batta Meka) an endangered bird species is found near Rollapadu village of Midthur mandal and an area of about 1,600 hectares around Rollapadu village has been declared as protected area for propagation of this species.

In the year 1983 Tiger project has been started near Srisailam covering 3,568 Sq. Km. of Nallamalas forest with 64 Tiger and 78 Panthers population as per 2003 Census.
6. **LAND AND LAND USE:**

The total Geographical area of the district is 17,658 lakh Hect. During the year 2009-10 the area covered by forest is 3.406 lakh Hects, which forms 19.2% to the total geographical area. The net area sown is 8.94 lakh Hects, forming 50% to the total geographical area. The total cropped area in the district is 10.35 lakhs Hects. The area has sown more than once during the year is 0.98 lakh Hects.

7. **IRRIGATION:**

The gross cropped irrigated area of the district is 10.35 lakh hectares. Of which 2.13 lakh Hects are irrigated through canals, tanks, wells and sources during 2009-10.

8. **POWER:**

The district receives its power supply from Tungabhadra and Hampi Hydro Electric Power Stations.

Srisailam Hydro-Electric power Project is constructed across the river Krishna at a distance of 3 kms., from famous Srisailam Temple. The total cost of the project was Rs.433 crores. There are seven Hydro generators of 110 M.W. capacity each and electricity produced during 2009-10 was 2190.182 Million KWH.

9. **MINERAL RESOURCES:**

Kurnool District possesses enormous deposits of lime-stone suitable for cement manufacture, apart from this, the important minerals of economic value in the district are barites, yellow shale, white shale, steatite etc.,
Lime Stone occurs in Kallur, Orvakal, Dhone, Peapully, Panyam, Banaganapalli, Owk, Gadivemula and Kolimigundla madals with an annual exploitation of 101.14 lakh M.Tons. The annual out turn of the other minerals in the district is 175.92 lakh M, Tons during 2009-10.\(^1\)

Kurnool district has been divided into 54 mandals for administrative facility and they are listed bellows.

5. Gudur 23. B.Atmakur 41. Kosigi
6. C.Belgal 24. Panyam 42. Yemminanur
11. Peapally 29. Chagalamarri 47. Aspari
14. Pagidyala 32. Domipadu 50. Pattikonda
15. J. Bunglow 33. Uyyalawada 51. Devanakonda
16. Atmakur 34. Sanjamala 52. Tuggali

**KURNOOL DISTRICT**

Irrigation is a harbinger of prosperity in many countries like India. The impact of irrigation is pervading as it leads to changes in cropping pattern increase in yield rates, labour utilisation and ultimately brings prosperity to the area under irrigation. Hence, it is regarded as a catalyst for Socio-economic change that sets in motion of productive forces in the agricultural sector.
The area under irrigation in most of the developing countries forms a lesser percentage of the total cultivated area and the provision of irrigation facilities had to be accorded a priority in the strategy of agricultural development. Agriculture is the primary sector of the economy which provides the basic ingredients necessary for the existence of mankind. It also provides most of the raw materials of which, when transformed into finished products serve as basic necessities of mankind. The impetus to agricultural development that could be witnessed in the seventies as mainly due to Green revolution which depended more on use of water-seed-fertilizer technology. In this new package programme water became a crucial factor. Early theoretical literature on the role of agriculture in economic development could be traced to the writings of physiocrats. According to the physiocrats it was agriculture which produced an economic surplus over costs of production and thereby plays a most strategic role in the economic development.

The different types of irrigation sources like canals, tanks, wells and under ground water sources had been tapped for increasing the agricultural productivity. Canal irrigation is perennial in nature and plans were drawn up in independent India to increase acreage under canal irrigation. Thus a majority of irrigation projects had been initiated in the second five year plan as a part of the heavy strategy, adopted for rapid development of the country. But serious snags had developed in the implementation process that resulted in either not realizing the full potential of the project or not utilizing property even though the potential is created. In developing countries like India irrigation often leads to modernization of agriculture as highlighted by Colin Clark and others and it also contributes to multiplier effects in the generation of income and employment as stressed by Ishikawa and others. As irrigation projects used as a scarce resources,
economic considerations like removal of rural poverty, settling of landless farmers and creating more employment opportunities, agriculture plays an important role in the choice of projects. Investment in irrigation in the public sector encourages overall private investment on land. Irrigation also helps for agricultural development in three stages, where initially double cropping leads to investment in bullocks, tractors and later investment in fertilizer gains. Finally labour supply plays a crucial role when it becomes scarce resource. However, substituting capital for labour leads to agrarian tensions as reported in some of the areas undergoing green revolution. Thus in the period of green revolution, irrigation is supposed to ensure the degree of control that Government can exercise over farmers cropping decisions through extention services and the possibility of the government to resort to agricultural taxation.

Irrigation further, leads to balanced regional development often one of the aims of government for a proper redistribution of income among different areas of a country. Therefore, the goals emphasized in public policy can be realized by executing irrigation projects and as such economic considerations like the cost-benefit ratio in bringing about the changes that would lead to transformation of the production possibilities and income redistribution.

The creation of irrigation potential and its utilization thus have crucial role to play in changing the relative shares of different farming groups in the country though major and medium irrigation projects had either remained un-utilized or under utilized and a number of studies had highlighted snags at different levels in the executing of irrigation projects. Further more, the inefficiency of the current projects partly stems from engineering technical inefficiency in terms of unreliability of canal system and partly
from poor use of water on farm. Thus actual experience had shown that normally the last-
one third portion of each canal had inadequate, unreliable or no water supplies and total area as planned would not get adequate water for the crops which is aggravated by indiscipline over irrigation and wastage in early stages. Operation of irrigation main system for equitable water distribution and productive management and reduction of top enders supplies require a high level political support, legal backing, prompt and impartial prosecution.

Modernization of agriculture due to the impetus given by irrigation facilities is usually hypothesis to evoke response from big farmers alone. But contrary to the above view the response to modernization is almost uniform by all farmers. The study by B.Sen⁴ buttresses the view that small farmers also performed well as the proportion of the area under HYV seeds and its performances were highest due to the availability of irrigated facilities. Even the cropping intensity is positively associated with irrigation and it was found that cropping intensity for the small, medium and large farmers in irrigation areas was uniformly higher than the cropping intensity of the respective groups in dry land area. Further, it was also observed that intensification of irrigation facilities in Asian agriculture would lead to higher labour input per crop per hectare even in the cases where the water for irrigation is supplied from canals.

The role of irrigation in raising agricultural production, absorption of labour force, and showing unemployment and under employment in rural India is, though widely recognized, the share of wages have declined and the agricultural labourers are worse off in the new dispensation. Therefore the impact of irrigation need not be uniform in the
localized areas and even within localized area where certain homogeneity exists as regards availability of canal water.
CHAPTER 3.2

EVALUATION OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT
DURING PLAN PERIODS

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Rural development as a concept cannotes overall development of rural areas with a view to improve quality life of rural people. As a phenomenon, it is the result of interactions between various physical, technical, economic, socio-cultural and institutional factors. As a strategy, it is designed to improve the economic and social well-being of a specific group of the rural poor.

The World Bank emphasizes on increasing production, raising productivity, increasing employment and mobilizing land, labour and capital. On the whole, we can say that rural development is an organized effort to improve the well-being of rural people, more importantly the rural poor.

As a matter of fact in the context of India, national development, mostly, ought to mean rural development when the production through agriculture-based and other rural industries is considered. Rural scene contributes nearly 40 per cent of the national income. Hence, rural development serves as the level of progress for the nation. The Planning Commission has directed the major rural development programmes implemented so far by the government of India. The State governments have, however, initiated some programmes of their own. After Independence, India launched massive programmes of development with a view to liberating the teeming millions from squalor, disease, illiteracy, ignorance, unemployment, poverty and other scourges of mankind. With the adoption of planning for development, the country embarked upon a long, silent, arduous and non-violent socio-economic justice to every citizen of the country. Despite four decades of planned economic development, the poor have remained poor. For the majority of the people who are poor and belong to the socially and economically weaker
sections in society, social and economic justice is still a far cry and an empty slogan. The country executed over 40 programmes of rural development since Independence, beginning with the community development programme in 1952. Rural development has been important foci of government policy. The constant effort of the government has begun to develop the rural areas where the majority of the population lives, but pace of development has been very slow. Still many people are below the poverty line and out of these 300 millions are in the rural areas.

The first major programme was the Rural Work Programme (RWP) that was introduced in 1961. Its major objective was to provide employment to underemployed mainly in the lean season. The Crash Scheme of Rural Employment Programme (CSRE) was introduced in April 1971 to remove unemployment in rural areas by generating additional employment through additional rural works.

The Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS) was initiated by the Government of Maharashtra in 1972-73 to provide employment to all able-bodied unskilled adults aged 18 year and above in rural area. On an average a worker gets work for 160 days at the rate of Rs.3/- per day. This was most adequate to raise the workers above the poverty line. As Kumudine Dandekar and Manju Sathe (1980) have observed that the EGS has covered 90 per cent of the households of workers who lived below the poverty line. The scheme was found to be beneficial to the weaker sections particularly those who had virtually no means of subsistence. The main drawback of the scheme was meagre allocation of resources due to rampant corruption so that benefits have not reached the target group.
The Food for Work Programme (FFWP) was initiated in April 1977. Its objectives were generation of employment, the creation of durable community assets and strengthening of the rural infrastructure. Under this scheme, food grains were to be used as part of payment for employment offered to persons below the poverty line. This programme was expected to take care of a large chunk of rural unemployment and under-employment. According to an estimate, the scheme was to generate additional employment to 40 crore mandays in single year.

The Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) was started on 15th August 1983, with the objective of expanding opportunities for the rural landless. The programme aimed at (a) providing guarantee of employment to at least one member of the landless household for about 100 days in a year (b) creating durable assets for strengthening the infrastructure so as to meet the growing requirements of the rural economy.

The objective of Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM) is to provide technical skills to rural youth from families below the poverty line and enable them to take up self-employment in the broad fields of agriculture and allied activities and business activities. The target group comprised rural youth between the ages of 18-35 from families living below the poverty line. Under the national scheme of TRYSEM, 2 lakh rural youth were to be trained annually for self-employment.

The National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) was envisaged as part of the sixth plan and has been continued under the seventh plan. Its main objective was to provide income through employment to the poorest of the poor in the rural areas who
subsist by unskilled manual work and to generate purchasing power for them. Various State governments have been entrusted with the task of implementing this programme. The planning commission expert group recommended a minimum of one Kg of grain should be made available per day for every worker under this programme. If adequate grains are not available, at least the women working in NREP should be provided with grains so that food for children is ensured. Sharing 50 per cent each both by central and State governments operates NREP. The centre allocates resources to the States on the basis of a formula, which gives 75 per cent weightage to the number of agricultural workers and the marginal farmers and 25 per cent weightage to the incidence of poverty in each State. Thus, the NREP has been conceived to tackle the two basic problems of the rural poor viz., underemployment and poverty. It has been visualised that the target of additional employment generation is considerably achieved.

The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) was introduced in March 1976 and is mainly an asset creating programme. The purpose of this programme has been to broaden the production base of those who already had some asset base like land, cattle, etc., as well as to supply a new asset to those who are completely resourceless like the landless families. It is felt that the animals, dairy/sheep/bullock carts in alleviating rural poverty have tremendous potential both to sustain and yield profitable income, not only to raise the people above the poverty line, but also to turn into profitable economic enterprise over time. However, the pre-requisite for such performance is that these units ought to be feasible in order to be retained by the beneficiaries. It would be possible for the poor to make use of the asset to earn income. Therefore, this scheme enables the poor to get employment as well as income. The assistance to beneficiaries under IRDP
comprises two components viz., loan and subsidy. The major part of the cost of project comprising the loan portion has to come through institutional credit. A subsidy of 25 to 33 per cent of the total cost of the project is given to marginal and small farmers. According to the sixth plan, each of the development block will be provided with an outlay of Rs 5 lakhs in the first year, Rs 6 lakhs in the second year and Rs 8 lakhs in each of the remaining three years of the plan. Total of Rs 35 lakhs will be the total outlay for each block in six plans. This outlay is shared equally between the center and the States. The main drawback of this programme was wrong identification of the beneficiaries. For example identification of the beneficiaries of the rural poor was not on the basis of help from general body of the village but it was through school teachers and influential persons. An important feature of IRDP is 'the poorest of the poor' are given priority in this programme. The programme under IRDP has been evaluated by the Government from time to time. The seventh plan strategy fixed the poverty line at Rs 6400 annual income, but families with income less than Rs 4800 are assisted. Thus assistance was provided first to the families having income less than Rs 3500 and only after such families have been covered the families with income from Rs 3501 to Rs 4800 are taken up. Rural poverty has come down from 51.2 per cent in 1977-78 (NSSO 32nd round) to 40.4 per cent in 1983-84 (NSSO 38th round).

Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) was introduced in April 28, 1989, and supposed to be implemented and administered by village panchayats all over the country. JRY is a step in the direction of tackling the problems of poverty and unemployment among the rural poor. About 440 lakh families, which are below poverty line, shall be benefited from this scheme. Existing wage employment programmes viz., NREP and RLEGP have been
merged into this programme. This scheme is expected to give employment to at least one member of each poor rural family for 50 to 100 days in a year, in the vicinity of places of their residences. Generally, the population of Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribes and Nomadic Tribes constitute the poorest. Again, the incidence of unemployment among these sections of the rural society is very high. 15 per cent of total resource transferred to village panchayats will be exclusively used for the benefit of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. 30 per cent of the beneficiaries will be women. Regarding finance and its allocations, 80 per cent of total finances for the Yojana will be borne by the central government and the rest 20 per cent will be borne by the States. The devolution of these funds to districts will be determined on the basis of criteria like backwardness such as the share of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in total population of the district, the share of agricultural labour to total labour and the level of agricultural productivity. The criterion for the distribution of resources to village panchayats from the districts will be on the basis of population of each village panchayat. If the population of the village panchayat is less than 1000, then, it will be taken as 1000 persons for the purpose of allocation of funds. It is expected that the village panchayat with a population of 3000 to 4000 will receive the money between Rs. 80,000/- to Rs. 1,00,000/-. The diversion of funds from one district to another as well as from one village panchayat to another will not be permitted. If the common interest of two districts or villages exist in particular programme, then, the pooling of the resources may be allowed. An interesting aspect of this scheme is that the village panchayats will be the pivot around which the scheme will revolve. The panchayat will hold the balance to select and implement the programmes, which will be beneficial to rural community. The types of works to be undertaken include construction of roads, houses for
individual members of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, rural banks, water conservation, flood and drought control and irrigation facilities etc.,

On 2nd October 1993, The Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS) was launched in 1758 blocks of the country. This scheme is aimed at providing assured employment to all persons in rural areas who are below poverty line and are seeking employment but are unable to find it.

In 1996-97 the united front government introduced a programme for basic minimum services (BMS). It consisted of seven basic services (Safe drinking water, primary education, primary health, housing, midday meals of primary school children, rural road and strengthening public distribution system.

Components of Rural Development:

Development has many dimensions and includes qualitative changes in social, economic, political, cultural, environmental aspects. It is a continuous and unending process attempting to improve all aspects of society. Development ultimately means development of man and therefore it is to be judged by what it does to him. In rural areas, a good number of people for over several years live a life of dependency or almost complete slavery. Because of abject poverty and consequent underdevelopment or social stagnation, people lose faith in themselves and in their potentialities for development and remain without active participation in social, economic and political life.

According to World Bank (1975) Rural development is a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people, the rural poor. It
involves extending the benefits of development to the poorest among those who seek a livelihood in the rural area. The group includes small farmers, tenants and the landless.

Rural development should be viewed as a process of raising the capacity of the rural people to control their environment. Environment does not mean only agricultural or economic development. It includes all aspects of rural life - social, economic, cultural, and political. Rural development as a process should continuously raise the capacity of the rural people to influence their total environment, enabling them to become initiators and controllers of change in their environment rather than merely the passive objects of eternal manipulation and control and, rural development must result in a wider distribution of benefits accruing from technical developments and the participation of weaker sections of the rural population in the process of development.

The critical element in the rural development is improvement of living standards of the poor through opportunities for better utilization of their physical and human resources in absence of this, utilisation of rural resources has no functional significance. Making the process of rural development self-sustaining not only implies the mobilization of capital and use of technology for the benefit of the poor but their active involvement in the building up institutions as well as in functioning these

Rural development encompasses (i) improvement in levels of living, including employment, education, health and nutrition, housing and variety of social services (ii) decreasing inequality in the distribution of rural incomes and in rural-urban balances in incomes and economic opportunities and (iii) the capacity of the rural sector to sustain and accelerate the pace of these improvements.
Link Between Agriculture Growth And Rural Development:

Indian agriculture contributes about 27 per cent of the nation's growth domestic product, but engages almost 67 per cent of the labour force. In persisting inability of the rest of the economy to absorb labour from agriculture at a faster pace is a challenge that India must meet in the near future. Meeting this challenge means also ensuring food security and a better standard of living for the rural poor. Rural poverty alleviation has traditionally depended on policies that promote agricultural growth and employment. To that extent India’s performance in agriculture affects the scenario of rural development and reduction in rural poverty. Equally important is the role of agricultural growth in the macro economy as one of the factors affecting industrial growth.

Agriculture, the main occupation of the rural people has never been a remunerative proposition in our country. The farmer or the agricultural labour cannot hope to develop (improve his standard of living) unless agriculture becomes a remunerative occupation. In these days of new developments in all fields, agriculture has continued to remain backward. Agriculture entails a lot of investment on land, implements, pesticides, insecticides. etc., Logically speaking, one should make a careful cost-benefit analysis before venturing into agriculture. However, it can be observed that most of the farmers are depending on agriculture without analysing as to whether the occupation is paying them adequately or not. Another problem, which is affecting the development of villages, is population explosion. Population has severely affected the profitability of the main occupation (agriculture) of the rural areas. The total land available for cultivation is not increasing. However, the dependence on agriculture in the rural areas is continuously increasing. This has led to the subdivision and fragmentation of land holdings over a period of time. The
smaller the land holding, the lesser are the chances of agriculture being profitable on that holding because modern technology cannot be effectively implemented on smallholdings. Unless the dependence on agriculture is reduced either by training people in other occupations or by starting industries in rural areas to supplement agriculture, rural development will not be complete and will remain a hollow statement. Rural development will receive an impetus if these measures are implemented in all villages. One of the main aspects of rural development is improving the economic well being of the people. Rural development also includes the creation of favourable atmosphere in the villages, so that the people can lead a peaceful life.

Agricultural development, however, is not synonymous with rural development. While the development of agriculture is critical for self-sufficiency in food and for the economic development of India, it is equally necessary to develop simultaneously other sectors in rural areas, so as to reduce pressure on land. This step is most likely to contribute to the improvement of living conditions of many. Moreover, rural population consists of a large number of landless people, who form the hard core of poverty. In the schemes of agricultural development, the rural poor without any assets like landless labour, village artisans, etc., are not likely to be benefited substantially. Therefore, some radical institutional changes aiming at a redistribution of rural wealth in favour of rural poor become necessary as a part of rural development programmes. Land reforms in India, no doubt, help, to some extent, the neglected section of rural population like landless labour, etc., at the same time, it should be noted that in spite of the land reforms, a large number of people remain without lands in rural areas. Therefore, alternative programmes like rural industrialisation, provision of institutional credit with supporting
services to rural poor for asset-building schemes, fixation of minimum wages to agricultural labour, social security measures benefiting rural poor, etc., should receive greater attention of the government.

The characteristic features of the rural socio-economic scene as outlined above have continued to co-exist with monuments of high technology in the urban sector and thus widened the dichotomy and contradictions built into the development of human society. In the vast hinterland of the countryside, people have continued to stay in traditional occupations and social values, largely untouched or marginally affected by the influence of high technology. Wide disparities of socio-economic conditions and quality of life have grown over the years. It has been difficult to understand the problems of rural sector and even more difficult to the development of rural sector with overall objectives of national development that are normally identified with the growth of the industrial sector.

The dominance of economists in rural development is hardly surprising, considering the fact that rural developmental is seen as very much part of the broad subject of developmental economics, and the process of planning for development has been viewed broadly as an economic process. The result portrays that important sociological, anthropological and psychological factors have been given a back seat. This liner and uni-dimensional approach of the economists has been lamented by experts belonging to other social disciplines working in the fields of rural development.

In economics, the most developed of the social science in the country, fieldwork is regarded as an activity, which is unworthy of most sophisticated minds, this is because of the lack of village studies in economics, and the tendency to rely on data collected
through specialized agencies. On the other hand, the participant-observation method employed by the social anthropologist is recommended in order to get a correct and sympathetic view of the rural scene, which ultimately will help in evolving correct strategies of rural development.

Rural development is a comprehensive programme of activities, which include agricultural growth, development of village industries, development of housing for the poor, planning for public health, (education) provision of adult education, including functional literacy, development of rural transport and communication, family planning and childcare, healthcare for livestock etc., In each one of these different aspects of rural development, urban support in terms of goods and services is required.

The Government of India, at present is emphasizing on many more rural developmental activities, schemes etc., Their approach is towards ‘Integrated Rural Development’.

Integrated Rural Development aims at total development of the area and the people by bringing about the necessary institutional and attitudinal changes by delivering a package of services through extention methods to encompass not only the economic field, e.g. development of agriculture and rural industries, etc., but also the establishment of the required social infrastructure and services in the area of health and nutrition, education and literacy, basic civic, amenities, family planning etc., with the ultimate objective of improving the quality of life in the rural areas. In this process, the self-help and community participation has a paramount role. It is also to be emphasized that the present situation in the developing countries demands that in this process of development the focus of attention
has to be on the rural poor, and the rural weak etc., Thus for developing countries IRD should be a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of the rural poor and the rural weak in the overall spectrum of development and growth.

In the words of Kotter, “The situation of the rural poor can only be improved if they are integrated into the overall system.” Integrated Rural Development means a ‘package programme’. It must take account of the interrelationship of socio-political, economic and technical factors in a systematic approach.

It is in this context that population education has to be interwoven into the ‘Rural Extention Package’.

Finally, we see that population pressure is also one of the serious and major problems in our nation and hence along with the specialist family planning personnel, the other rural development functionaries also should play a vital role in promoting population education among the rural people, who are ultimately the target group of development of our nation.

The rural development departments collectively have large number of field personnel and well established infrastructure for the training of their personnel and the people they serve and are thus able to reach a sizeable rural population through the rapport that have been established with them.

Therefore, the time is now ripe for introducing population education as an integral part of the work of these institutions and functionaries. Hence this study attempts to find out the role these rural development functionaries can play in population education.
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