CHAPTER - 1

INTRODUCTION
The term rural development is a sub sector of the broader term "development". However it is defined that development is a universally cherished goal of individual families, communities and nations all over the world. Development is natural in the sense that all forms of life on planet earth have an inherent urge to survive and develop. Given these two attributes i.e. its universal supremacy as a goal and its natural occurrence, development deserves a scientific study and analysis. The meaning of rural development is likely to vary across societies, culture and ecologies. In the context of developed countries the focus of rural development is on preservation of ecological integrity, efficient and appropriate land use, healthy living conditions, aesthetically pleasing environment; effective social, economic and governmental institutions, improved human welfare in terms of an economic and social level of existence. Physical structure and landscape of pleasing design, comprehensiveness that is an entire range of physical, biological and human factors in rural region. But in the
context of third world countries, a more comprehensive concept of rural development has been suggested by World Bank (1975) defining rural development as a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of people in rural settlement and in particular it focus on the rural poor, comprising the small farmers, tenants and the landless.

The rural development is over all development of rural areas with a view to improve the quality of life of rural people. In this sense, it is a comprehensive and multi dimensional concept and encompasses the development of agricultural and allied activities, village and cottage industries and crafts, socio-economic infrastructural, community services and facilities and above all the human resources in rural areas.

Rural development is a strategy to enable a specific group of people, poor rural women and men, to gain for themselves and their children more of what they want and need. It involves helping the poorest among those who seek a livelihood in the rural areas to demand and control more of the benefits of rural development. The group includes small scale farmers, tenants and the landless. Thus the term rural development may be used to imply any one of the above mentioned connotations. To avoid ineffective floundering among the myriad definitions, it is defined that rural development as a process leading to sustainable improvement in the quality of life of rural people, especially the poor.

In addition to economic growth, this process typically involves charges in popular attitudes, and in many cases even in customs and beliefs. The process of rural development must represent the entire gamut of change by which a social system
moves away from a state of life perceived as "unsatisfactory" towards a materially and spiritually better condition of life.

The process of rural development may be compared with a train in which each coach pushes the one ahead of it, and is in turn pushed by the one behind, but it tabs a powerful engine to make the whole train move. The secret of success in rural development lies in identifying, and if needed developing a suitable engine to attach to the train. There are no universally valid guidelines to identify appropriate engines of rural development, if at all they exist. It is a choice that is influenced by time, space and culture. The geographic location, cultural and historical stage of development of a society there are at best three basic elements which are considered to constitute the true meaning of rural development. They are as following (Todaro 1977: 16-18).

(i) **Basic Necessities of Life**

People have certain basic needs with out which it would be impossible (or very difficult) for them to survive. The basic necessities include food, cloth, shelter, basic literacy, primary health care and security of life and property. When any one or all of them are absent or in critically short supply and condition of absolute under development exists.

(ii) **Self-Respect**

Every person and every nation seeks some sort of self-respect, dignity, or honour. Absence or denial of self-respect, indicates lack of development.

(iii) **Freedom**

In this context, freedom refers to political or ideological freedom, economic freedom and freedom from social servitude. As long as a society is bound by the servitude of man to nature,
ignorance, other men, institutions, and dogmatic beliefs, it cannot claim to have achieved the goal of "development". Servitude in any form reflects a state of under development.

In the Indian context rural development may be defined as maximizing production in agriculture and allied activities in the rural areas including development of rural industries with emphasis on village and cottage industries generating maximum possible employment opportunities in rural areas especially for the weaker section of the community so as to enable them to improve their standard of living, and providing certain basic amenities like drinking water, electricity, especially for productive purpose, like roads connecting village to market centres, and facilities for health and education.

Thus, the most important factor in rural development is the human resources. Therefore, the potential of human resources which is in abundance in developing countries must be utilized to the maximum for the rural development. The full benefit of development can only be realized with people's participation and the role of the women cannot be isolated from the total frame work of development as they constitute half of this human resources. But the programmes of rural development have so far negligible provisions for the integration of rural women into development, women programmes have formed only a very small segment of rural development, efforts in India and their concentration has been to improve the status of women as home maker, to promote women's participation in the development of women and children and to improve maternal and child care services in the rural areas.
World economic profile of women shows that women represent 50 per cent of the population, make-up 30 per cent of the official labour force, perform 60 per cent of all working hours, receive 10
per cent of world income, and own even than 1 per cent of the world’s property. In India, a review of the economic roles played by women reveals clearly distinct trends. In traditional village community the women played a different and accepted role in the process of earning a livelihood by participating in both production and marketing of agricultural and handicrafts products, agricultural is still a family endeavour, but the pattern of women’s participation vary according to regional and cultural norms.

In tribal societies of Arunachal, Tripura, Mizoram, Assam, Meghalaya and Manipal, where “Jhumoning” a form of shifting cultivation is generally practiced women workers play an important role in agricultural.

They claim the “Jhum” land, sow seeds and harvest the crops. Throughout the Himalayan region, the major role in agricultural production is played by women with traced. Cultivation men’s activities increased as they usually undertake ploughing, but women engage in all other agricultural activities. In most some part of the country, the jobs traditionally done by women are generally transplanting, sowing, weeding, harvesting, winnowing and threshing. Development is both a cause and a consequence of change. There is a two-way relationship both of them i.e. development influences and is influenced by a change. The change implies a physical, technological, economic, social, cultural, attitudinal, or political change. In the context of rural development, a “change” may be considered to be an instrument which can be sued to promote rural development.

In India, the introduction of technologies changes in the mid-sixtees led to the so called Green Revolution in agriculture. Similarly, technology innovations, such as the Anand-pattern dairy
cooperation introduced in India on a large scale in the early seventies under the operation flood programme, contributed significance to the modernization and development of the dairy industry of the country.

Over the last 60 years since independence, India has achieved impressive progress in the fields of science and technology, and it is now self-sufficient in food grains and milk production. In another side, India has not yet been able to fully develop and harness its human and natural resources for the benefit of its people, and it has yet to solve its pernicious problems of literacy, poverty unemployment and natural calamities.

India's economy is predominantly rural in character. This is evident from the fact, in 1991, nearly 74 per cent of its population lived in 5,80,000 villages, and about two thirds of its work force was engaged in agriculture and allied activities in rural areas. Agriculture and allied activities contributed about 29 per cent of India's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) at factor cost at the current prices in 1994-95.

SIZE AND STRUCTURE OF THE RURAL ECONOMY

In India economy can be thought of as comprising two main sectors, namely, the rural sector and non-rural sector. The rural sector is in turn, composed of two main sub-sectors, i.e. the agricultural sub-sector and non-agricultural sub-sector. The agricultural sub-sector comprises agriculture and allied economic activities such as crop husbandry, animal husbandry and dairying, fisheries, poultry and forestry.

The non-agricultural sub-sector consists of economic activities relating to industry, business and services.
Industry here refers to cottage and village industry, khadi, handloom, handicrafts etc. business refers to micro-enterprises trading of general goals, small shops petty traders etc., whereas services refer to transport, communications, banking, input supply marketing of form and non-farm produce etc. The main stakeholders of the rural sector include farmers, agricultural and non-agricultural labourers, artisans, traders, money lenders and those engaged in providing such services as transport, communications, processing, banking, education and extension. The size of rural sector could be assessed in terms of the rural population of livestock, the extent of land forest and other natural resources, production in-puts ward and out-put produced.

According to the 2001 population censuses, India’s rural population was 74.3 per cent of the country’s total population. Of the total population of the country, 31.71 persons were cultivators and 26.69 persons agricultural labourers. India is endowed with livestock resources of high genetic diversity, and ranks first in the world in terms of population, cattle and buffaloes. According to the 2004 livestock census, the country had 16.3 per cent cattle, 566 per cent buffaloes, 5.5 per cent sheep and 16.8 per cent goats.

THE ROLE OF THE NON-AGRICULTURAL SUB-SECTOR

In most developing countries (including India) the rural labour force has been growing rapidly, but employment opportunities dwindling. As the land available for expansion of agriculture becomes increasingly scarce, opportunities non-farm employment must expand, if deepening rural poverty is to be avoided. Given the expected growth and composition of large scale urban industries, they are unlikely to be able to absorb the rising tide of workers migrating from the countryside to the cities. Looking toward the twenty-first century, it must slow down the process of
the urban speed, with its high social and environmental costs, such as congestion, pollution and skyrocketing load costs. Expansion of the rural non-agricultural sector, with its emphasis on urban intensive and small scale enterprises, widens income opportunities for the poor, including small farmers, the landless and women, enabling them to even out extreme fluctuations in their incomes. The relative importance of the rural non-agricultural sub sector and the composition of the various economic activities included in the sector differ widely from region to region in India.

Broadly defined this sub sector includes economic activities outside agriculture, carried out in villages and varying in size from household to small factories. Some examples of these activities are cottage, tiny village and small scale manufacturing and processing industries, trade, transportation, construction and services over time, whereas small scale, non-household on part-time family labour are relatively less efficient than small scale full-time specialized rural industries, as the cost of labour rises, enterprises with no scope for division of labour continue to lose their cost advantage. The rural towns that serve as trading and distribution centres for both urban and agricultural goods subsequently attract manufacturing activities.

In India cottage and village industries have been an important occupation of the landless and other people in villages for ages. As a matter of fact, agriculture and rural industries are complementary to each other. The Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC) has identified 95 village industries for government support. These industries are divided into the following seven categories.

1. Mineral based industry
2. Forest based industries
3. Agro based industries
4. Polymer and chemical based industries
5. Engineering and non-conventional energy based industries
6. Textile industry other than Khadi
7. Service industry.

The main objectives of rural development in all societies irrespective of their economic, political and socio-cultural systems are: (a) to increase the availability and improve the distribution of life-sustaining goods, such as food, clothes, shelter, health and security; (b) to raise per capita purchasing power and improve its distribution by providing better education, productive and remunerative jobs and cultural amenities; (c) to expand the range of economic and social choices to individuals by facing them from suited and dependence. Therefore, a measure of rural development should provide, at the minimum, an indication of per capital availability of life-sustaining goods or per capita income in rural areas, as well as some idea of the distribution of income, assets and other means of socio-economic welfare. There is at present no single indicator of rural development which adequately captures its multi faceted nature. A variety of indicators have been used by economists to reflect the multiplicity of goals which characterize rural development. For the sake of orderly presentation into two classes, namely measures of the level of rural development and measures of distribution of income a critique of some of these indicators is presented in the following section. India is the recent past has witnessed an upgrade in research on various aspects of women's existence, with the early focus on the social facts of their status giving away of analysis of women's location within the sphere of economic production, a shift that was prompted by the alarming decline in female participation. Women's role in social
production has been the subject matter of intensive research in the recent period.

The period 1975-1985 has witnessed an upsurge in research on various aspects of women's being through the initial focus of research was primarily on the social aspects of women's status. The alarming decline in the women's participation highlighted in the report of the committee on the status of women (1974) shifted the focus of attention to women's role in economic production. In developing country like India, the profile of rural working women in discouraging one. Owing to gross discrimination both in employment and wages, lack of awareness of their rights, lack of dignified work, lack of adequate training, hail from depressed communities, landless and living below poverty line depending on wage, employment in agriculture which is seasonal and intermittent in character and hardly permit them to have hand to mouth existence. The economic role played by women cannot be isolated from the frame work of development. The constitute almost half of the population in our country and the contribution of this population in the socio-economic development, particularly in the rural areas has been vital. Around 77 per cent of the total female population of the country lives in rural areas. Most of the women in rural areas are engaged for the major part of the day in household work and many of them make time to take part in various economic activities of the family. In rural areas, women perform a major part of agricultural operations like breathing colds of earth, into clay menuring, weeding, transplanting, harvesting, threshing and winnowing. Women do most of the work of tending the dairy animals and marketing of this products. In various states of the country, paddy forming operations such as transplantation and weeding which are women's intensive operations and are better performed by them.
Similarly, there are some other fields where women have a monopoly of work given by nature. For instance, tea and rubber plantations, picking of tea leaves, coir and rosel beedi leaves in beedi industries, basket weaving etc. are such fields where women workers dominate men. Further there are some trade and business activities where women are engaged. Fishing, trade collection and selling of gross cow dung cake, firewood, sealing of dairy products, ghee milk etc are some examples of their involvement. As such women are performing economic activities besides doing unpaid household duties. According to 120 estimation, women perform one-third of the world's counted labour. Thus it is a fact that their contribution to the economic growth of the society is quite substantial. But in the rural areas the activities performed by women are generally either undervalued or not at all taken into account. A number of reasons substantiated by case studies of various third world countries indicate how the contribution made by women for economic development has been undervalued from time immemorial. The ideological assumption about women's position in the family, that women as home makers must be dependent on their husbands wages, is used to define women's social position even in cases where women who do not have husbands are the sole earners. Even in cases where many of these workers are family bread earners, they are regarded as inactive labour or "secondary workers" or "dependents" simply because they are regarded as home makers. The objective of economic equality between sexes has not yet been realized in Indian Implementation of the Equal Remuneration Act is more often is its breach than in observance. Areas where women's employments are low need to be identified and institutional support has to be given to them in observance in all respects. It is not appreciated that the contribution of rural women in far from being supplementary,
optional or dispensable women as cultivators and agricultural labourers are discriminated in wage payment throughout the country. In some areas, the female wage rates are lower than the prescribed minimum wages. In cultivation, except ploughing, leveling and irrigating fields, all other operations are either equally shared with man or even performed only by women. Being India as basically an agrarian economy and its economic development depends upon the productivity of agricultural outputs, labour being the important input. This pathetic situation called for immediate corrective measures, so the potential of the female work force should be properly tapped and utilized for rural uplift. Unless improved the effective implementation of the Minimum Wages Act in respect of women agricultural labourers, adult education, diversification of engagement of female work force, development of dignified work areas and adequate training are some of the measures, the dreams for women development as well as agricultural growth hardly remain a reality. Apart from the social handicaps, the economic problems like low earnings, low employment opportunities resulted in low efficiency and low productivity in agriculture. Rapid population growth and slow growth of non-agricultural sectors, agriculture sector is over burdened with agriculture labour population without land base. To ameliorate the conditions of the vulnerable sections, several developmental programmes have been implemented to relieve them from the clutches of poverty and indebtedness. Inspite of 44 years of planned economic development, it is still believed that their conditions have not yet improved. Hence the study is proposed to be conducted to have a comprehensive enquiry into the economic conditions of woman agriculture labourers. This micro level study of Chittoor district will be highly useful to understand the economic conditions of the major sections in depth.
Status of Rural Women

It is well-known fact that in India the population is found mainly in rural areas and engaged a primary economic activity. Even after a decade of economic reforms three fifth of India's total workers are employed in agriculture (The Economic Times, July 2002) most female workers are involved in agriculture. In all developing countries, generally unpaid domestic and farm activities of women make significant and vital contribution to the poor rural agrarian economy. It is observed that poorer the family is greater would have to be hours of work performed by women and the greater also becomes their contribution to the family. This is particularly true for poor and agricultural labour families (Sharma, 2001).

Agricultural operations are found to be largely dominated by women in almost all states of India. Most of women work force engaged in agriculture are agricultural labourers rather than cultivators. In India nearly 35 per cent of the poor are below the poverty line of which nearly 35 per cent of the poor are below the poverty line of which nearly 70 per cent are women, and the poor in the areas in 1993-94 constitute 37.27 per cent of the rural popular (Agarwal, 2006) and rural agrarian women constitute nearly more than three fourths of rural poor.

The status of rural women in agriculture is also largely conditioned by their access to improved seeds, new varieties of crops their knowledge about improved cropping systems improved technologies. But the poverty of rural women and non-market oriented nature of their productive activities put heavy constraints in these respects. Rural women are mainly concentrated in unorganized agricultural sector. Their family responsibilities and obligations, the attitudes and reactions of their family members
towards them and the prevalent socio-cultural atmosphere, negatively affect the organized effort of women, workers and hence they face wage discrimination. Some others argue that wage differentials are largely dependent on the power of bargaining exercised by family members which is largely conditioned by land and other productive aspects (Agarwal, 2000).

Women are essentially home makers, so let us start with the domestic field. Nature has allotted the job of child bearing to women and since time immemorial, in every society women performed the role of home makers and men of breadwinners. In ancient times both role were equally important and division of labour was not rigid as men displaced women in modern industry since they were unskilled, so the women got marginalized, gradually more and more last employment and were confined to home. Feminists say this rigid sex based division of labour is the most obvious form of expressing women’s inequality. The domestic work is not given due recognition in a capitalist society since it does not bring in money. Hence women’s role and status is looked down upon.

Women have always made a great contributions to the economy both by production of goods and of services. In olden days when the family was the unit of production women’s contribution was recognized but ever since the family has become a consumption unit the contribution of women has been overloaded and under estimated. Women working outside homes are also not numerated properly in the census data. Secondly women are paid less than men for doing the same work inspite of the “Equal Remuneration Act”. Many feminist writers argue that the modern development paradigm is anti-women. It has marginalized women in industry and men have taken up all the lucrative jobs.
Feminism was the driving force behind women's studies aim to understand women, their conditions, and their problems and find solution to them. Women's studies try to bring to light the role and contribution of women in fields like politics, economy, agriculture and industry besides their role in the household since one of the main reasons for the imperial position of women is that their roles and contributions to society are not given due recognition, while their role of home maker is taken for granted and not even considered it as work. Hence women's study highlight women's contribution both at home and outside, so that women are given importance, status is directly connected with the role played by a person. If the role is recognized as important the status will improve automatically. Women have fluctuating position in society since ancient times due to the existing conditions and exigencies. While in the medieval period women in most societies accepted the restrictions placed on them without protest, after renaissance, with a radical change in values and thinking, women started protesting against subordination and demanding equality.

After independence there was a period of compliance when the elite women felt equality had been achieved. In real conditions were unsatisfactory and women at grassroots level were facing exploitation and discrimination and were starting the fight it in an organized way. Women's studies were encouraged and centers for women's studies were opened at many universities. Women are making progress in various fields and some gains are noticeable but much remains yet to be done to achieve gender equality and gender justice for all women. On the positive side, women are getting empowered both through education and political participation at the grass root level, while on the negative side violence against women is on the increase, whether in the form of bride burning or female feticide. Women are neglected lot in every
aspect of life be it health, nutrition, education employment or political and administration. What socio-cultural factors are responsible for this state of affairs and how can they be rectified? These are the important questions before the feminists and they are trying to figure them out through women's studies. Women need to get equal opportunities to achieve equality.

**Women and Development**

The concepts of social progress and development took shape in the Age of Enlightenment in 18th Century Europe. For the first time it was thought that men can manipulate his future and bring about social changes with his efforts. This was a sharp break with the social thought that had prevailed throughout the middle ages i.e. change takes place not because of deliberate effort on the part of man but as a consequence of a cosmic design over which man has no control. The new theory of progress saw changes as desirable and encouraged man to use his faculties to make life better and not remain fatalistic. This theory was centered on the sacredness of two categories, modern scientific knowledge and economic development. Some where along the way, the unbridled pursuit of progress, guided by science and development, began to destroy life without any assessment of how fast and how much of the diversity of life on this planet in disappearing. A new awareness is growing that is questioning the sanctity of science and development and revealing that there are not universal categories of progress but the special projects of modern western patriarchy. Development is a multi-faceted concept which has been variously defined as a planned change in a desirable direction, or an all round improvement in the lives of people. Earlier economic growth was considered the main objective of development but recently the emphasis has shifted from non-economic objectives, like providing basic needs and new opportunities to millions. While Indian
planning has been successful to some extent specially in areas such as public health, science and technology, industrial growth and agricultural production, there is much to be alone yet. Secondly there was an alarming degradation and depletion of natural resources, due to their indiscriminate and unrestrained use in the name of development. All this lead our planners to realize that economic growth alone cannot solve all human programmes and destruction of nature for short term economic benefits in dangerous to very existence of mankind. Thus, the concepts of sustainable development and development without destruction were coined and social development took precedence over economic development, social development is a macro-strategy of planned intervention to improve the capacity of existing social system to cope with the demands of change and growth. The human factor is most obvious and crucial in social planning and development.

Women and development Immanuel gives a detailed account of the progress made (or not made) by women in various fields in the contact of developmental efforts made world over. Since its concepts United Nations has been making efforts for economic and social liberation of women. In 1972 the United Nations Commission on the status of women observed that in all its efforts to promote the advancement of women, it had uncounted a serious of obstacles in the deep-rooted attitudes of man and women which tended perpetuate the statuesque. These attitudes were due to cultural patterns. Which to a great extent determined thoughts and feelings about woman and man. In 1974 the CSWI report also commental on wide diversities in gender roles and the dulzious contribution of “development” to women’s welfare in India. The United Nations sought information on the progress made in the member countries through a questionnaire. 129 countries
responded and United Nations specialists analysed the responses. It was noted that progress was most substantial in the field of legal equality. Most governments have granted equal status, loyally. 72 nations have ratified Convention on Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). Many governments pointed out that attitudes and traditions regarding women have not significantly changed and have not kept pace legislative provisions hence, equality in family and household responsibilities have not been achieved. Regarding development has agents and beneficiaries have been recognized and women have been included in national planning. However it was observed that "development" has not always benefited women, instead it could lead to further marginalization of women. Regarding peace, it was noted that it does not just mean absence of war but also absence of conditions that produce violence and destruction of the family at various levels. Peace could refer to a state where resources are equitably allocated resulting in social justice. With regard to the sub themes, the progress made in unemployment was both in 1975 and 1985 women comprised 35 per cent of the world’s labour force, occupies positions at the bottom of job hierarchies and earned less than men. In the field of education substantial improvement was noticed in the enrollment of girls and in the opportunities for their education. Regarding health, standards have risen for women during the decade in terms of life expectancy, average life expectancy for women in developing countries is 57 while in developed countries it is 73. It was found that women are the sole supporters in one fourth to one third families in the world.

Sixty per cent of the world’s illiterates are women. It was found that the obstacles to women's developments at the international level are threats to global peace and securities, the exalation of the arms race foreign aggression and domination,
exploitation and economic relations among nations. At the national level, the main obstacle was the attitude which perceives women as inferior to man. The subordinate position accorded to women is the main cause of under valuation of their contribution to society and this leads to their invisibility even women accept themselves to be subordinate and passive.

Vandana Shiva has to be commented on the progress made during the United Nations decade for women. She writes that the United Nations decade was based on the assumption that the improvement of women's economic position would automatically flow from an expansion and diffusing of the development process. A collective document by women activists, organizers and researchers, stated at the end of the United Nations Decade for women. The almost uniform conclusion of the Decade's research is that with a few exceptions, women's relative access to economic resources income and employment has worsened and their relative and even absolute health, nutrition and educational status has declined.

**Women and Development in India**

Soon after independence there was a sense of achievement and complacency among the political elite. It was presumed that the masses, including women, must be quite content due to granting of equal rights and other legislative measures. The Five Year Plans were also accepted to bring about balanced development and provide social justice to all. The women were facing many problems and the condition of women was worsening. The CSWI, report (1974) shocked everyone. It pointed out that the dynamics of social change and development had effected the majority of women adversely and had created new imbalances and disparities. The Government framed a National Plan of Action for Women based
on the recommendations of United Nation's World Plan of Action. A women's welfare and development bureau was established in the Ministry of Social Welfare.

Education is very important in increasing awareness and widening mental horizon. These optimum conditions are not available in our society. Rajiv Gandhi had rightly noted that inspite of the place of honour given to women in our society, they are discriminated against at every stage.

The Sixth Five Year Plan is considered a milestone in planning for women's development because it engineered the shift in regarding women as mere beneficiaries of welfare programmes to active partners in development. In the Sixth Five Year Plan, a chapter on women and development was included at the instigation of women's organization. From 1980 onwards different scientific organizations started encouraging women's access to science and technology. In 1985 Government of India set up a department in the Ministry of HRD for the development of women and children to co-ordinate and review the efforts of Government and non-government organization working for women's welfare and development. A major achievement of women's movement was that earlier women were seen as appropriate targets of welfare policies but in the 1980s the government saw them as active agents participating in guiding their own development. This shift recognition was noted by the Government of India in its report to United Nation in 1985. Today the State talks of women's empowerment. This is a positive step.

In the country paper India, for the Beijing conference some important policy initiatives were mentioned of which some have been already implemented. On the recommendations of Sarama
Skathi Report (1988) the Government set up a Rashtriya Mahila Kosh in 1993. Another long standing demand of women’s organizations was met with the National Commission for women were established in 1992. Yet another important policy initiative has been the formulation of the National Plan of Action for SAARC Decade of the Girl Child (1990-2000). The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendment Act of 1993 have reserved 33 per cent seats for women in local bodies in urban and rural areas. This is a landmark ever in women’s empowerment and gives political power to about one million women at gross root level. Various programmes for women’s education, employment awareness generation including legal awareness are a foot, with the purpose of empowering women. The eighth Five Year Plan adopted the strategy of employment and income generation for main streaming women into national development. Important schemes introduced in Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWACRA) and Mahila Samriddhi Yojana (MSY).

The declining sex ratio, the declining work participation rate of women, neglect of female child, female feticide and infanticide, women’s limited access to education and health facilities are all causes for concern and show that inspite of all development schemes, women in India still remain underdeveloped, socio-cultural factors are responsible for unequal treatment of women.

Secondly, there are some inherent anti-women elements in the modern development. Parading which is being followed, like restriction on women’s use of natural resources and no recognition of women’s position. Although urban middle class women are joining new professionals, the number of woman in decision making bodies is still very small. However women’s representation
in Lok Sabha has not increased beyond 7.9 per cent. On the other hand sadly violence and crime against women are on the rise.

**World Conference on Woman**

The first world conference on women was held in Mexico City in 1975. The conference accepted Convention for Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). The conference resulted in formulation of World Plan of Action for the implementation of objectives of International women's year. The UK General Assembly adopted CEDAW, and stated discrimination against women, denying or limiting, as it does, their equality or rights with man, is fundamentally unjust and constitutes an offence against human dignity.

The second conference on woman was held in Copenhagen in 1980. It's aim was to assess the progress made since 1975 and to outline actions to be taken during the second half of the women's decade. The three sub-themes education, employment and health were added to the theme, UN Decade of Women Equality, development and peace, at their world conference. Delegates from 145 nations participated and the document adopted was, programme of Action which emphasized the importance of equality of rights, responsibilities and opportunities. It too emphasized that women's development should be essential component of total development of a society.

The third World conference on women was held in Nairobi in 1985. It's aim was to review and appraise the achievements of the UN Decade for women. The forward looking strategies for the advancement of women to the year 2000 were adopted by the conference. The report on appraisal showed that UN Decade had
played a major role as a catalyst in implementing legal reforms and achieving equality in day to day life.

The fourth world conference on women was held in Beijing in 1995. The theme of the conference was action for equality development and peace. Global facts collected by the UN committee for this conference revealed that violence against women is a truly burning universal issue women hence limited job opportunities, usually at the bottom of job hierarchies and are paid less than men. Sadly, more than 10 million women are engaged in prostitution in the world today of which at least two million children above women and girls do not have equal access to education and training the world over. The most singular achievement of this conference was accepted by the world community that discrimination begins at birth. For the first time there was a global official recognition of the rights of the girl child. The UN has also started two international organizations to assists in women’s development. There is International Institute for Training and Research for the Advancement of Women’s (INSTRAW) and Asia Women’s Research and Action Net Work (AWRANW).

**Women’s Empowerment**

Empowerment of women is one of the latest concepts that has developed in connection with improving the status of women. It is thought that political empowerment or economic empowerment will improve conditions of women and they will be closer to getting gender justice and equality. What is empowerment? It is not a commodity that can be handed over to women. Power is an analytical category which denotes strength or control. It is something that has to be developed from within. One cannot empower women if they are unwilling or if they are not equipped for it. Empowerment comes to women when they strive
hard for it. In the words of Roseanne Barr, "The thing women have yet to learn is no body gives you power, you just take it". Indian women seem to know this, since we have many instance of truly empowered women not only in the present but also in the past, and most of them are little educated, simple housewives. They did not know the meaning of the empowerment, but they faced the challenges in front of them successfully. If Indian women have the strength then why was the need for empowerment measures felt now? There are many reasons for this the foremost being the abundant evidence of gender discrimination at all levels and demands of women's organizations to rectify it. As mentioned earlier, ever since the CSWI report, towards equality was published in 1975, efforts have been intensified to improve the condition of women in India. The government has taken various initiatives, many of feminist activists, like the setting up of National Commission for women in 1992 and the Rashtriya Mahila Kosh in 1993 and so on. An important measure for political empowerment of women was the reservation of 33 per cent seats for women in elections for urban and rural local bodies, through the 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act in 1994.

Economic independence of women was launched. Rural development projects like NREP and RLEGP did not deliver the expected results and did not benefit the poorest of the poor as much as they should have. The DWCRA programme, meant specially for rural women did benefit them for a decade, but once UNICEF phased out its involvement, government funding became erratic. The Mahila Samruddhi Yojana, meant to make rural woman self sufficient, is at core or welfare oriented intervention and at best can results in one dimensional empowerment, which is not enough to really empower a woman. Money is not the main problem in the context of women's empowerment but apathy; fear,
ignorance and vulnerability as women within patriarchal pattern of social behaviour are the main problems. Awareness generation and psychological motivation are important means by which women can overcome their fears and inhibitions and forward empowering themselves. Unless women take initiative and have a strong will to achieve and succeed, no outside agency strategy employed by the NGO, Action for Welfare and Awakening in Rural Environment (AWARE) working in 6000 villages spread over seven states in India.

As mentioned earlier, Indian women have the potential and inner strength to build their own duties but many are not aware of it. They alone are not to be blamed for this but our patriarchal social order which prevents women from thinking or working independently is more to be blamed. The devaluation of women has in fact increased in modern times because traditionally women have been looked upon as both shakti and prakriti in the Hindu philosophy. Susan Wadlay described this is the following way: The concept of the female in Hinduism present an important duality on the one hand a woman is fertile, benevolent the bestowed on the other she is aggressive malevolent the destroyer. According to Hindu cosmology, if a female controls her own sexuality, she is changeable she represents both death and fertility. She is both malevolent and benevolent. If however she loses control of her sexuality (power/nature) transferring it to a man she is portrayed as consistently benevolent. Understanding the dual character of the Hindu women essential nature provides a backdrop for understanding the rules and role models for women in Hindu society. Hindu female emerges out definitely in literature and folklore, and is seen most clearly in the roles of wife (good, benevolent, dutiful, controlled and mother fertile, but dangerous uncontrolled.
Philosophy in our mythology in our history and in our contemporary society. The list of powerful mythological Indian women is long, which includes famous norms like Sita, Savithri, Chandbibi, Jijiya Bai, Lakshmm Bai, Indira Gandhi and a horde of unknown strong women from the Indian masses. Half of the female population of India is illiterate, the female literacy rate for 2000 census being 54.16. Concerted efforts are required to achieve total literacy. Even so, it will be a long term goal.

Many NGO working for women’s causes have been able to make a positive difference in many aspects of the lives of women. Self Employed Women’s Association (SEWA) is a very good example of the success of organized efforts. This organization has empowered illiterate, poor women working in the unorganized sector, today they are able to challenge people in power and successfully obtain their due rights or share. Bumiller, who studied the progress of SEWA, says it was SEWA that proved to be what potential there was among the women of India. Similarly AWARE, mentioned earlier, has been able to empower illiterate, scheduled caste rural women, to the extent that to day they have become self confident and self reliant and are able to argue with officials at district level to get their demands met. The power of numbers is an important means of empowering women. United efforts bear fruit, whether the right is against liquor, dowry or sexual harassment.

Since 1994, 33 per cent seats have been reserved for women in the elections to urban and rural local bodies and village panchayats. As a result of this, about one million women at grass root level have received political power. At first, it was noticed that those women who were elected were not able to act on their own were mere puppets in the hands of their man. Secondly male members of Panchayats did not accept these women as equals,
leave alone work under them if they happened to be the sarpanch. But slowly have learnt to assert themselves, use their power for the good of the community and show achievements remarkably.

**Five Year Plans**


Five Year Plans have helped in the process of development of women. The question of the development of women was given importance in the Five Year Plans by our first Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru. The First Five Year Plan in 1953 with Durgabai Deshmukh as its Chairman, number of Mahila Mandalas were drawn from village level to name the various welfare programmes with the government assistance.

The Second Five Year Plan brought maternity benefit equal pay for women and also provided crèches as supportive services for working women with their young children.

The Third Five Year Plan pinpointed women education. Fourth Five Year Plan put special emphasis on family planning immunization and supplementary feeding. The Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85) is considered a milestone in planning of women’s development because this brought shift from regarding women as more beneficiaries of welfare programmes to recognizing them as partners in development. The Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90) the participatory approach demanded integration of women in nation building as equal partners. It was attempted to implement to twin concerns of equality and empowerment. The plan emphasized the
need for encouraging non-governmental or grass roots organization to ensure participation of women in the development process.

Eighth Five Year Plan pinpointed women’s empowerment and subsequent developments (1992-97) which covers the era of economic liberalization and market-friendly economy has enabled women to function to a certain extent as equal partners and participants in the development process of the nation.

The Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002) peretionalised the concern of equity and empowerment (1997-2002). An approach paper has been developed by the Planning Commission and accepted by the National Development Council. At the first time every department and State Government is asked to earmark funds for “women’s improvement”.

The Tenth Five Year Plan changing social attitudes and community practices by active participation and involvement of both men and women.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
A theoretical framework is essential for any sociological study as it forms the basis for the classification and interpretation of empirical facts without a frame of reference it would not be possible to study the functioning of a society or group to observe, record and integrate its reactions to environmental, demographic, cultural and sociological forces. The literature on rural development has been extensively surveyed in recent years. The purpose of this chapter is not to review the literature, but to provide a general theoretical background on the determinants of agriculture and its implications for rural development. In this context, a number of issues are raised and these need an empirical verification. In a predominantly agrarian country total population
live in villages, and when more than 80 per cent of the rural population depended on agriculture and allied activities for their livelihood, rural development is a sine quonon of national development and agricultural development a pre-requisite for rural development. Therefore in such a country, agricultural development should form the foundation for national development.

By agricultural development it is meant process which enhances the capacities of farm people to produce more goods and services and thereby to increase their standard of living and general well-being. This process may take either or both of two forms it may be an increase in agricultural production, or it may be the production of a given output at a lower cost. To understand and appreciate the role of agriculture in national development, it would be helpful by delineating the scope of agriculture at the outset. Traditionally the word agriculture had been associated with the occupation of basic food production, known as farming. It means the manipulation of biological growth on farms, to produce products useful to man. Agriculture and farming were synonymous before farmers began selling their products and purchasing form inputs in commercial markets. Modern agriculture also includes the farm supply industries like seeds, fertilizers pesticides, machinery cattle and poultry feed etc as well as product processing and distributing industries which convert raw goods and other raw materials into what the form consumers want and none the processed products to them. Modern agriculture is the largest industry in the country.

In this section, it is attempted to develop conceptual framework to show how agricultural development can contribute to the process of overall national development. To do this, first brief a review of the major schools of thought on the subject may be taller
up to synthesis into a conceptual model. The role of agriculture in economic development has been recognized and discussed since the time of the physiocrats. According to the physiocrats it was only the agricultural sector which produced an economic surplus our costs of production and therefore it played the most strategic role in economic development.

The agricultural sector formed the core element of Adam Smith's basic growth model. He thought that the production of an agricultural surplus to support non-farm production was very essential for economic development.

W. Arthur Lewis (1959) presents two sectors: a capitalist sector and a subsistence sector model and investigates the expansion of the capitalistic or industrial sector as it is nourished by supplies of cheap labour from the subsistence or agricultural sector. The Lewis model does not present a satisfactory analysis of the agricultural sector in the sense that it fails to consider the possibility of a change of productivity in agriculture.

Willard Wschrane (1969) and of Renis and Fei conclude that the creation of investment capital needed to employ the surplus workers released from agriculture is the critical missing element in these models. He suggests that the resources to finance the expensive process of agricultural modernization can be obtained in any one or in a combination of these basic ways (1) by squeezing more agricultural surplus. (2) by slowing down the rate of investment in the non farm sector and in basic infrastructure, and (3) by obtaining foreign loans and grants of these three sources foreign loans and grants are the asserts the most advantageous least expensive.
Gustav Ranis and John C.H. Fei (1975) construct a theory of economic growth by first analyzing the role of the "neglected" agricultural sector in a static sense and then generalizing the state analysis by introducing the possibility of an increase in agricultural productivity.

Cochrane’s (1969) model is a good exposition of the process of agricultural development and of the possibilities and limitations of agricultural development as a catalyst for over all national development Cochrane’s model any two more elements may be mentioned these are: (1) population control measures, and (2) international economic and political environment. No strategy of agricultural and national development would ever succeed in the absence of appropriate population control measures and a congenial international economic and political environment whereas developing countries can always do something to control its exploding population, the creation of a suitable environment is the responsibility of the world community and its organizations.

John Mellor Thwrins (1976) the shortage of food and agricultural raw materials, the expansion of irrigation facilities and cropped area, agricultural growth as a means to industrialization, special programmes for areas lagging behind in growth, integrated programmes for deprived and depressed social sectors, each of these has provided impetus at one time or another, for rethinking about rural development.

As is well known given the goal of growth with justice the model of growth chosen to spend up the realization of this goal was as not clear. India opted for technologically induced and sustained economic growth and hoped for modernization, meaning the transformation of the social order from tradition to modernity. The
strategy chosen was centralized planning which emphasized increase in national income at a reasonable high rate of growth. This was, in turn, to lead to a perceptive increase in per capita income even after allowing for the growth in population. It was assumed that raising national and per capita incomes would progressively increase employment opportunities and raise the levels of living and then by benefits of economic growth would percolate to the unemployed and poorer classes so as to improve their conditions progressively as the per capital income went up.

Tarlok Singh (1975) there is no place to enter into a lengthy discussion either about these distortions or about the peace of agriculture in planning. What ever it may be, it must be noted that the fact that until quite recently agricultural growth even when agricultural growth is considered important in its own right. The basic problem of agriculture as a whole could be finally resolved and still being approached only at the fringes and quite inadequately.

Standley Kochanek (1975) Theory has tended to encourage the rural lobby to influence decision making in respect of the place of rural development in economic planning. These members of parliament have come to the act as a commodity lobby to reinforce the substantial voice already enjoyed by the Chief Ministers of the state spoken person of agrarian interests.

Rudolfo Stavenhagen (1977) Theory discusses planning in agriculture is limited only to the creation of infrastructure provision of inputs price incentives and other form of support for the adoption and spread of new technologies, the central assumption behind plan allocation for agriculture is that the farmer, if given the right incentives, facilities and resources would
with his own self interest manage his farm efficiently and increase productivity. Given this central assumption, three other factors have been added to increase employment opportunities and attention in the rural areas. First a great attention has been paid to create, strengthen and expand small and cottage industries in the rural areas. Secondly a particular attention has been paid to areas either with growth potentials or afflicted with particular problems. Special programmes have been devised to help farmers in such areas Intensivé agricultural District Programme (IADP), Intensive Agriculture Area (IAA), Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP) etc are some of the examples and lastly, there are programmes for weaker sections of society such as the swell and marginal farmers the landless labourers etc.

Marcus Franda (1979) says the realization of the importance of rural development has been slow. Two factors have helped in this realization, first as Marcus Frenda suggests, the composition of the Indian parliament has changed over the years in favour of rural socio-economic interest 'as he points out'. The production of agriculturists in parliament has raised from 14.7 per cent in 1951 to 33.8 per cent in 1971 and to over 40 per cent during the 1977 elections.

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH WORK

India is an agricultural country. Progress and health of the country mainly depends on the agricultural production where the rural women play a pivotal role. There is an urge for better social and economic conditions, on the other, the government is making enhancement for payment of reasonable women wages to them.

The present study: A sociological study of women in rural development and also to study how far the demands of the women
are fulfilled and how far the enactments are implemented, so far no one has organized this kind of study among the women participation in agriculture in this area.

OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The major objectives of the present study are as follows:

(i) to study the role of women in rural development;
(ii) to examine the social conditions of rural women;
(iii) to examine the economic conditions of rural women; and
(iv) to study the women welfare programmes for their development in rural areas.

HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses have been drafted for this work:

(i) Participation of women workers in agriculture activities is one of the main sources of development.
(ii) Socio-economic conditions of women working in agriculture are not satisfactory.
(iii) Low wage payments and wage discrimination is observed for the women working in agriculture, and also more women force is working in agriculture.
(iv) Women welfare programmes ment for the women development are partially implemented in the study area.

METHODOLOGY

The present study is based on both primary and secondary data collected through different sources. The principal sources of secondary data are: publications of Government of India and various reports published by Andhra Pradesh District Statistical Reports and District Gazetteers. Besides these periodicals and
various published and unpublished research works by individual researchers as well made use of for this work. However, the study is mainly based on primary data collected through a well prepared interview schedule by a survey of selected respondents from the selected mandal and villages in the district.

**Sample Size**

The data for the present study has been collected from a sample of 360 respondents selected from the Vadamalpet mandal of Chittoor district as shown in Table 1.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the selected Mandal</th>
<th>Name of the selected village</th>
<th>Sample collected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vadamalpet</td>
<td>Kayam</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pudi</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tirumanyam</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the respondents are women and agricultural labour selected by using multistage and simple random sample technique. The age of the respondents ranges from 22 to 60 years.

**Interview Schedule**

An interview schedule was prepared to collect the information from the respondents. The schedule was prepared in English and they were asked and interviewed in the local language, Telugu. The interview schedule which was tentatively prepared was used for pilot study to finalize the schedule. Each question was analysed, the ambiguous questions were deleted and the questions which could elicit the relevant information without any ambiguity were retained, other necessary modifications were made.
based on the experience of the pilot study. The final form of the scheduled consists of 78 questions. It was later cyclostyled and administered personally by the researcher in a face to face, relationship with respondent contains questions were asked and noted on the other side of the schedule. In addition to schedule, quite a lot of information was obtained through observation and informal group discussion with the villages such as the wage payments, living conditions, economic participation, outlook and behavioural pattern, employment opportunities their participation in village development etc.

**RAPPORT ESTABLISHMENT**

The researcher has an intimate relationship with the women in rural development as the researcher herself having rural background. As an outcome of this intimacy with them, the respondents in turn responded to the researcher with affection and provided full cooperation and gave the information without any hesitation and delay. They also co-operated the researcher well in furnishing the information required.

**LIMITATIONS**

This is a micro level study confined to the mandal and as such conclusions drawn are specific to the area concerned. The primary data obtained from women are as approximation of actual facts since the women in study have not maintained any official record for any purpose.

Covering all the female participants in agriculture in the selected villages is an unwieldy task and hence the present research is restricted to study the case of only a limited number of women working in agriculture. Since the research is based on the field survey data, made in some specific areas, overall
generalizations and conclusions drawn from it may not be applicable to other mandals of the district concerned due to varied social, economic, institutional, and cultural factors. Inspite of these limitations the study throws much light on certain broad features of women working in agriculture in Vadamalpet mandal of Chittoor District which may not be replicated elsewhere.

ABOUT THE STUDY AREA

This chapter in brief analyses the general features of the study area, the Vadamalpet mandal is located in Chittoor district. Chittoor district is one of the most backward districts in Andhra Pradesh. No doubt, this is a micro level study made at a mandal level taking various constraints into consideration. However, in this context it can be said that the other areas of the same type may have the similar characteristic features of the problem. Even though the general conclusions of this study may not be strictly applicable to the macro level study, still some of the findings may certainly reflect the economic system as a whole.

Chittoor district is a part of Rayalaseema and lies in the extreme South of the state approximately between 12°-37” and 14°-8” of North latitude and 78°-33” and 79°-55” East longitudes. It is bounded on the north by Anantapur and Cuddapah districts, on the east by Nellore and Chennai and Anna district of Tamil Nadu, on the South by North Arcot Ambedkar and Dharmapuri district of Tamilnadu and the west by Kolar district of Karnataka state.

The district occupies an area of 15,152.0 sq.kms with density of population of 247 per sq.km. The total population of the district according to 1991 census is 32,61,118 of which 26,14,186 is in rural and 6,55,000 is in urban areas. The percentage of rural
population in the district is 82.00 per cent while that of urban population is 20.00 per cent. The schedule caste population in the district forms 18.00 per cent of the total population while scheduled tribe accounts for 3, 4, 5 per cent. Of the 264 towns in the state thirteen are located in this district.

**Historical Background**

Chittoor district forms part of the country originally known as Dravide. For long time it was under the rule of Pallavas, Cholas and Vijayanagar Kings. The political history of Chittoor district remained uneventful till the beginning of the national struggle for independence, when this district along with the rest of the nation plunged into the freedom movement. This district has contributed some of the notable personalities to the political history of the country.

Panakam Anantha Charyulu, Panuganti Ramayanam, popularly known as the Rajah of Panagal, Bollini Munaswamy Naidu and Kattamanchi Ramalinga Reddy are some of the important personalities of the past generation. Among the important personalities of the present generation, mention may be made of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, P. Thimma Reddy, Ananthsayanan Ayyangar and R.B. Rama Krishna Raju. Quite a few renowned personalities like Dr. Annie Besant, Dr. James cousins and C.S. Trilokakar were closely associated with the time-honoured Theosophical Institutions at Madanapalle in the district. The world renowned philosophers Jiddu Krishnamurthy was the brain behind the famous Rishivalley School in the district as well.

**Population**

According to 1981 census the total population in the district was 27.37 lakhs consisting of males accounting for 50.87 per cent
and females 49.13 per cent. The percentage of literates of total population was 31.85 per cent according to 1981 census. Scheduled castes and scheduled tribes accounted for 17.46 per cent and 2.89 per cent of the total population respectively. The density of the population per sq.km was 181. The population in Chittoor district according to 1991 census is 32.16 lakhs of which males constituted 50.85 per cent and females constituted 49.15 per cent in urban areas the density of population in the district is estimated at 215 sq.km. The percentage of literates to total population in 29.75 per cent.

The population in Chittoor district according to 2001 census is 37,45,875 persons of which males constituted 18,89,690 and females constituted 1,85,61,85. The density of population in the district is estimated at 247 sq.km. The percentage of literates to 66.77 per sq.km with males where in 77.62 per cent and females literacy 55.78 per cent.

Table 1.2
THE WORKING STATUS OF THE POPULATION IN THE
DISTRICT ACCORDING TO 2001 CENSUS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl.No.</th>
<th>Working Status</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>% to total population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Main workers</td>
<td>89.58</td>
<td>73.19</td>
<td>83.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Marginal workers</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>26.81</td>
<td>16.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Other workers</td>
<td>38.00</td>
<td>16.63</td>
<td>30.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census of India 2001, A.P. Profile of the Chittoor District

Table 1.2 shows that the main workers constitute 83.44 percentage of the total population in the district, while marginal workers constitute 16.56 per cent other workers 30.00 per cent of the total population. The total further reveals that 89.58 per cent
male population and 73.19 per cent of female population constitute main workers.

**Occupational Distribution**

Agriculture continues to be the main occupation in the district providing employment to the majority of the working population. The work force structure in Chittoor district is shown in Table 1.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Category of workers</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>% to total population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Work participation rate</td>
<td>58.03</td>
<td>35.57</td>
<td>46.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Main workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a) Cultivators</td>
<td>30.30</td>
<td>29.89</td>
<td>30.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) Agricultural Labourers</td>
<td>28.31</td>
<td>48.61</td>
<td>35.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Household industry workers</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>3.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Marginal workers</td>
<td>58.03</td>
<td>37.37</td>
<td>16.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Other workers</td>
<td>38.00</td>
<td>16.63</td>
<td>30.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census of India 2001, A.P. Profile of the Chittoor District

It is observed that from the table 1.3 that the main workers constitute 83.44 per cent while marginal workers 16.56 per cent to the total population in the district.

Among the main workers 73.19 per cent, females are cultivators 30.14 per cent are agricultural labourers and 4.12 per cent are working in household industries. Other workers account for 30.0 per cent of the main workers, cultivators and agricultural labourers.
Climate and Rainfall

The district receives rainfall both from the south-west and north-east monsoon. The average annual rainfall of the district received by the south-west monsoon is 438.00 mms and north-east monsoons is 398.00 mms. The rainfall received during the winter and summer period is negligible. The average annual rainfall in the district is 943.0 mms.

Table 1.4
THE DISTRICT AVERAGE RAINFALL
FROM 2000-01 TO 2006-07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>South-west monsoon</th>
<th>North-east monsoon</th>
<th>Winter period</th>
<th>Hot whether period</th>
<th>Grant total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000-01</td>
<td>447.2</td>
<td>228.1</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>124.6</td>
<td>865.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-02</td>
<td>400.2</td>
<td>484.6</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>965.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002-03</td>
<td>301.1</td>
<td>274.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>63.4</td>
<td>620.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-04</td>
<td>540.1</td>
<td>190.6</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>235.3</td>
<td>971.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-05</td>
<td>379.2</td>
<td>183.5</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>131.5</td>
<td>706.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-06</td>
<td>450.3</td>
<td>753.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>115.6</td>
<td>1319.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-07</td>
<td>341.5</td>
<td>281.4</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>92.3</td>
<td>718.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census Hand Book, Chittoor district, 2006-07.

The data in the table 1.4 shows that there are wide variations in the average rainfall from the normal rainfall. But it is important to note that the incidence duration and distribution of the rainfall is very often erratic, uneven and scanty resulting in frequent recurrence of drought and crop failure. In the district only 33.45 per cent of net area sown is irrigated. Tanks and wells constitute the major sources of irrigation. Most of the tanks in the district have become highly indebtable are unable to supply water even for a single crop in a year. Most of the tanks in the district are encroached and their storage capacity has declined. Thus, the districts agricultural economy significantly depends on the quantum and distribution of rainfall.
Rivers

The rivers flowing in the district are non-perennial in nature and for major part of the year they remain dry. The important rivers in the district are Ponnai which is a tributary of river Palar and Swarnamukhi which rises in the Eastern Ghats and finally enters Nellore district. Other noteworthy rivers of the district are the Kusesthali, the Beema, the Bahuda, the Pincha, the Kalyani, the Ariniyar and the Pedderu which flow in different mandals of the district. Besides the above rivers, there are a number of small hilly steams flowing in the district.

Flora

The climate, topography and soil have played remarkable role imposing the flora of the district. The district has hills and plateau and elevation ranges upto 1,318 meters. The floristic compositions in the forest vary from dry mixed deciduous to thorny shrub with occasional patches of dry, ever green growth. The forests of this region can be broadly classified into the following three principal types:

1. Tropical dry evergreen forests
2. Dry topical South Indian dry mixed deciduous forests.
3. Southern catch thorn forest groups

Fauna

In the forest of this district at present wild animals like tiger and panther (Panther Pardus) are present in small numbers. Sloth bear (Melursus-ursinus) is found still in good number in a class-I reserve of the district, wild dog (euonalpinus), wild pig (suseristaus) porcupine (Hysti Indea), Hyena (Hyena satgria) etc. are the other carnivores present in the district. The commonly found perbivore present in the district are sambar (Rusa Unicolor) black buk (Antalopa Cervicospes), chital (Axis) wild sheep (civil cyclocer) mouse
deer (Mermina Indica), hare (Lapium findus), rabbit etc. A number of species among birds exist in this district. Among the birds, large grey babbler (Tuidaides malcolm) the large grey shriller (Lanicus excubites) the king partridge, green pigeons, pigeons, peacock etc. are found in this district.

Forestry

The total forest area in the Chittoor district is about 30 per cent comprising of 4,514.02 sq.km. The forests of Bhakrapet and Tirupati range mainly confined to the imposing Seshachalam hills and believed to be the part of ancient Dhondekarenlya as expounded in the famous epic Ramayana.

Among the forest products, red sandal is a rich and valuable forest product and its revenue per hectare is Rs.1696, the revenue of the forest division-wise for 2001-02 to 2006-07 is shown in Table 1.5.

Table 1.5

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<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Timber</td>
<td>12.64</td>
<td>478</td>
<td>9.56</td>
<td>37.84</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.34</td>
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<tr>
<td>Firewood</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>35.65</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>8.03</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>33.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bamboo</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beedleaves</td>
<td>20.01</td>
<td>1083.5</td>
<td>67.08</td>
<td>271.09</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>1080.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: District Forest Officer (East/West/SE) Chittoor.

Minerals and Mining

The mineral importance of the district is very little. Steatite is the only mineral available in earth while Puttur and Gangadhara Nellore blocks of the district, which is being exported to other states mainly to Tamilnadu for utilizing in fertilizers as a fill. The
occurrences of gold, iron and red moulding sand are also noticed in certain parts of the district.

**Agriculture**

The major food crops grown in the district are paddy, jowar, bajra and ragi. Under commercial crops groundnut takes the first place followed by sugarcane. Mango is one of the important orchard crop in the district covering an area of 21,634.95 lakhs.

**Irrigation**

There are 8 medium irrigation projects in the district. They are Swarnakuhi ayacut, Araniyar, Mallimadugu, Kalengi, Bahuda, Siuddelagandi project, Krishnapuram reservoir and Pedderu project. The total registered ayacut under the eight projects are 15310 hectares.

**Dairy Development**

Since the beginning, the district is considered as a surplus district so far as milk production in concerned. Between the years 1940-45 co-operative milk supply units were established at Chittoor/Sri Kalahasti, Kalikiri/Puttur. The area of participation of milk producers began with a dairy at Chittoor under intensive milk supply scheme in 1969, in order to eliminate the middlemen. Dairy farming became permanent rural income generation activity with the thrust DAAP/IRDP programmes in the district from 1975-76 onwards.

**Industry**

A number of large and medium scale industries were only 14 as on 31-3-1981, with a capital investment of Rs.3,000 lakhs providing employment to 5,110 persons. Forty large and medium scale industries have been established from 1981 to 1991, with a capital investment of Rs.16,3000 lakhs providing employment to
11,414 persons from 1981 to March 1991, 3,905 small scale industries and tiny units were established with a total capital investment of Rs.5,885 lakhs providing employment to 52,300 persons. The important lines of activity are manufacture of granite polish, road metal, extraction of essential oils were shoe uppers, hatcheries, PVC pipes, hardware, GI buckets, pure boiled rice units were coated safety matches, poultry feed, mixing plants and finished leather products etc.

There are 10 industrial Estates and two industrial development areas in Chittoor district under A.P. Industrial Infrastructure Corporation (APIIC) and one electric Industrial estate at Karakambadi, under P Electric Development Corporation.

PLACES OF TOURIST INTEREST

Arogyavaram (Madanapalle)

This is not the tourist place, but semi-urban of Madanapalle town where the famous T.B. Sanitarium is located, run by Christian Missionaries. The Salubrious climate is very congenial for effective treatment of TB and other thoracic ailments and attracts a number of patients from all parts of India.

Horseely Hills (Madanapalle)

These hills situated at a distance of 20 kms, from Madanapalle, Anantapur road, serve as a summer resort for A.P. These hills are one of the highest peaks with a height of 4,327 feet above the sea level. The climate on the hills even during mid summer is cool because of the rich flora and fauna of the reserve forest of all amrtha hills. There are well furnished rest houses run by the State Development of Information and Public Relations. The hills therefore attract a number of tourists every year.
Chandragiri

Chandragiri, the head-quarters of the mandal of the same name are at a distance of 1½ km from Tirupati. It has a railway station on the Katpadi-Renigunta line. The river Swarnamukhi flows to the south of the village. The fort and the mahals (Palaces) at the place is the heritage attraction of tourists. The Raja Mahal is believed to have been built by Immedi Narasimha Yadavaraya Kings. The fort stands on a huge granite rock which is about 185 metres high. The southern side of the hill is enclosed by strong walls, now in ruins, surrounded by a ditch, once fed by a natural spring, but now remain almost dry through out year. The remains at lower fort contain the two mahals, the lower portion of which is built in stone and the upper area in brick. The Raja Mahal is majestic in its appearance.

Archaeological remains consisting of desolate temples and finally carved mantapans are found in the countryside. The Chandragiri mandal is now maintained by the Archaeological Department.

Renigunta Town (Renigunta MPP)

Renigunta is situated at a distance of about 11 kms from Tirupati city and is an important and busy railway junction on the Bombay-Raichur-Chennai line. From this junction lines branch off to important junctions such as Gudur and Pakala which in turn lead on to important cities like Chennai and Bangalore in the south. The place contains a fairly big railway workshop and a railway training institute.

Pakala (Pakala MPP)

Pakala is a railway junction on Renigunta-Katpadi line and is a well known centre for trade in jaggery and mangoes. The most
important Hindu festival is celebrated here in honour of Muruga (Subramanyaswamy), more than 10,000 devotees attend the festival.

**Sri Kalahasti Town (Sri Kalahasthi MPP)**

The people are very famous for the temple of Lord Siva, Sri Kalahasteeswara and is known as “Dakshinakasi”. The Siva temple here is one of the most ancient and sacred in south India. The presiding Goddess is Gnana Prasunambika, the power of divine knowledge. The place is only 35 kms away further Tirupati and its proximity attracts all most all the pilgrims who visit Tirupati through out the year. At the top of the two hills over looking the town, there are two temples dedicated to Goddess Durga and Lord Subramanya. Most of the people celebrate the Rahu, Kethu Puja and Naga Puja. Most important temple in south India.

**Mogili (Bangarupalyam MPP)**

Mogili a short cut of mogaliswa a famous Siva temple situated at a distance of about 30 kms from Chittoor on the Chennai-Bangalore road. Siva is a worshipped deity of Appreswara, the Sanskrit from of Mogiliswa is Iswara of the shrine. There is a perennial flow of water from the mouth of the Nandi (the sacred bull) located within the temple compound which is a good source of drinking water as well for the villages. Annually as many as 16000 pilgrims all over the country visit the place and worship Lord Siva/Mogiliswa.

**Kuppam Town (Kuppam MPP)**

Kuppam, the head quarters of the mandal of the same name, lies in the south-west corner of Chittoor district and has a busy railway station in the Bangalore-Chennai railway line. A bone-meal fertilizer factory and a few sandalwood oil mills are located
here stone cutting and polishing is an important industry at the place. The temples of Someswara, Anjaneya, Tirupati Gangamma and Subramanya are the well-known places of worship.

**Tiruchanoor (Tirupati (R) MPP)**

The famous temple of Padmavathi known as Alimelumangamma, the consort of Lord Venkateswara, is an important pilgrim centre, which is situated at a distance of about 5 kms away from Tirupati on the northern bank of the Swarnamukhi river. A dip in the holy tank in the heart of Tiruchanour is considered to be very sacred. Fridays are sacred and believed to be particularly auspicious for the worship of the deity.

**Tirupati Town/Tirumala (Tirupati Urban Mandal)**

This is a scared place of Pilgrimage containing several temple complexes like the Govindraja Swamy temple, the Kodanda Ramaswamy temple and the Kapileswara Swamy. This town being the gateway to the sacred hills at Tirumala where Lord Sri Venkateswara took his abode, has acquired all India fame and hum with activities of the perennial stream of pilgrim to Tirumala. Besides being a famous pilgrim centre, it has become a seat of learning with the establishment of Sri Venkateswara University and of constitute colleges with Engineering, Medical, Veterinary and Agricultural courses. There are colleges for oriental languages, music and dance. The Padmavathi Mahila University was established in the year 1984. And also the Music College, Dum & Duff schools Ashara schools, so many colleges were established in the Tirupati Town.

**ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY**

The organization of the work is divided into SIX chapters.
The first chapter comprises introduction. It deals with major objectives and hypotheses of the study along with methodology followed for the collection of data and theoretical framework.

The second chapter presents the review of literature.

The third chapter deals with the socio-economic conditions of rural women.

The fourth chapter discusses the role of women in rural development.

The fifth chapter presents the women welfare programmes implemented in the study area.

The last chapter deals with the summary and conclusions.
References


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