Chapter - II

Review of Literature & Methodology
REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND METHODOLOGY

A brief review of previous work on various aspects of voluntary organizations and rural development is presented under the following heads for convenience. The government, recognizing on the one hand the positive reputation of NGOs and on the other, the problem of local vested interests and the limitations of its own bureaucracy, has called upon NGOs to help create a 'countervailing force' amongst the poor via the organization of beneficiary groups.

Studies on NGOs:

In India and abroad, several studies have been made on voluntary organizations working in urban as well as rural areas. Much of the literature on voluntary organizations in India settings as come from traditional social work.

Many of the Sociologists, Anthropologists and Political Scientists are engaged in the study of the Voluntary Organizations. Unfortunately, communication among the disciplines about their findings has been far from adequate.

Pradeep Kumar (2005) observed that last two decades have been witness to tremendous growth of NGOs, both national and international. There is an urgent need that Government Organizations and NGOs act in collaboration for rural development. He supported his statement by an empirical case study of Udaipur district of south Rajasthan including two district Voluntary initiatives to support government. Both are district of structure and function but have common objectives to strengthen local governance and people participation.

M.Ramesh Singh (2004) has made an attempt to provide better understanding of NGOs working in Manipur and their problems by talking up micro level study. He conducted a survey during 2000-2001 in two tribal villages. He concluded that NGOs are playing active role in development activities in the fields of education, health and sanitation, women and children to improve the quality of life.

Jayavantha Nayak (2004) in his book “Role of voluntary agencies in rural development and self employment training”. The study of rural development is an important Component of national development in any agrarian economy. Rural
development being the main sector in the national development aims to improve the standard of living of rural poor. It is an integrated process of series of sectoral programmes aiming at increasing the purchasing power of the rural people through better utilisation of the existing resources. To quote from the World Bank Sector Policy paper on Rural Development. "A national programme of Rural Development should include a mix of activities including projects to raise agricultural output, create new employment, improve health & education, expand Communication and improve housing". In the changing context of globalization, we can see multi-agencies involvement in rural development administration, such as Government, Industrial Bank, Cooperatives, Voluntary organisations & Self Help groups etc. In this context the study analyses the impact of voluntary organisations in rural development.

Ram Krishnan (2004)\(^4\) orgives that the "Rural Development India’s Villages – Status and Needs." India’s villages are beginning to make progress but still have a long way to go. Many islands of transformed villages where people are gainfully employed, children are going to school, water and sewage needs are properly met, exist. But they have not spread out to the remaining villages in India. The study describes what our villages look like, what are some of their problems, name a few successful model villages, describe a few village tours taken by me and some other volunteers.

Ramakrishna (2005)\(^5\) in his work “Impact of Micro Finance through SHGs on Rural Economy”. The study explains on impact of micro finance through self-help groups (SHGs) on rural economy in Chittoor District of Andhra Pradesh. The total sample for the study consisted of 20 SHGs and 40 members involved in activities like milk vending, petty business, fruit and vegetable holders. The study compared the socio-economic conditions of members in the pre- and post SHG situations (spanning an average of three years). In the selected business activities, the beneficiaries have improved the business turnover in the post SHG situation and in turn the net income.

Eswarappa Kasa (2005)\(^6\) in his study Sericulture and Community Development in the context of Globalisation: an Empirical Evidence of a Village. 'Development' has become a buzzword in the developing and under developed countries, including India.
Since Independence India has initiated number of programmes as part of its development strategy to uplift downtrodden and marginalized sections of the society. There is an urgent need today to have a relook at the concept of development due to the emergence of globalization and liberalization of economies. The primary, secondary and tertiary sectors have undergone significant changes affecting all the sections of the society either directly or indirectly. Liberalization of the economy has both pros and cons. While one section of the society has experienced positive results and has been enjoying the fruits, the other sections of the society have been experiencing its negative results. For instance, in India, markets have been opened to foreign institutional investors since 1990s and goods and services have started flowing into the economy on a large scale. This has resulted in the form of farmers' suicides all over India, more so in Andhra Pradesh. Governments, both at the Centre and States, have not taken suitable measures to control the negative results of the globalisation.

Vaswani L.K (2005) in her work Rural Marketing in the Development Paradigm. The study attempts to bring to focus the role of rural marketing in bridging the widening disparity between rural and urban economies in India. The suggested re-conceptualization of rural marketing highlights the need for a dual perspective ‘producers’ empowerment’ and ‘strategic marketing’, and broad basing its domain to cover variety of market relationships which are part of growing rural-urban linkages. This difficult and complex task can be achieved by helping rural producers to effectively compete in the marketplace based on competitive/comparative advantage through consolidation of agriculture and rural enterprises. More specifically, agriculture and rural enterprises need to be linked to rural and/or urban markets through ‘minimizing market resistance to rural products’ and ‘maximizing market orientation of rural enterprises’.

Gopinathan Pillai (2008) in his work Rural Development in India. The study India had reached a turning point in its long and arduous struggle for socio-economic development. In the 21st century India continues to live in villages. This makes it obvious that any process of planning and development in India can hardly succeed without transforming its rural society. The approach to successive five year plans
envisages 'growth, equity, social justice, self-reliance, improved efficiency and productivity as its guiding principles. As a strategy to achieve these objectives, it calls for a 'sharper focus on employment generation and poverty alleviation' through rural development programmes. It is believed that provision of productive employment will help people to stand on their own feet and work with self-confidence and self-respect which will in turn help in people's participation in developmental tasks.

SINGH, V.P (2008) in his book Rural Development in India. Rural development has always been an important issue in all discussions pertaining to economic development, especially of developing countries, throughout the world. In the developing countries and some formerly communist societies, rural mass comprises a substantial majority of the population. Over 3.5 billion people live in the Asia and Pacific region and some 63% of them in rural areas. Although millions of rural people have escaped poverty as a result of rural development in many Asian countries, a large majority of rural people still continue to suffer from persistent poverty. The socio-economic disparities between rural and urban areas are widening and creating tremendous pressure on the social and economic fabric of many developing Asian economies. These factors, among many others, tend to highlight the importance of rural development. The policy makers in most of the developing economies recognize this importance and have been implementing a host of programs and measures to achieve rural development objectives. While some of these countries have achieved impressive results, others have failed to make a significant dent in the problem of persistent rural underdevelopment.

Richard Mahapatra (2008) in his article The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) Opportunities and Challenges The village has used the state's Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS), the only predecessor to NREGA, for the last 14 years to increase per capita income by 16 times. It has become a water surplus village from a scarce one. The village now witnesses reverse migration from urban areas for better economic opportunities. The village has 54 millionaire households out of 216. And, now there is no demand of work under the employment guarantee scheme. It is said that a public wage programme's best indicator of success
is declining demand for it due to rise in mainstream economic opportunities. One way we can say this is a contemporary fairy tale.

Since 1950s, the Indian government and Non-Governmental Organizations have initiated several programs to alleviate poverty, including subsidizing food and other necessities, increased access to loans, improving agricultural techniques and price supports, and promoting education and family planning. These measures have helped eliminate famines, poverty levels by more than half, and reduced illiteracy and malnutrition.

This can only be ensured in an institutional manner by non-government functionaries, i.e. Voluntary Agencies and Voluntary Organizations, which are people-based and people-oriented. The actions of voluntary bodies must be simultaneous, mutually supportive and complementary. The Voluntary Agencies can play their important roles in bringing awareness of the various programmes to the rural masses, undertaking various income-generating projects, handling various training programmes under TRYSEM etc., formulating and developing projects based on the availability of local resources and local talents. Here the whole-hearted cooperation of local level bureaucracy must be extended to these voluntary agencies in the pursuit of their mission.

Plantation of trees in the entire habitat or around the individual house should be taken up simultaneously. Trees may be planted near the housing clusters so that, in due course, enough trees are available nearby, to enable the beneficiaries to get fuel/fodder/small timber. Such plantations can be taken up under the social forestry Programme.

Involvement of Voluntary Organizations. Suitable local voluntary agencies with proven good track record wherever available should be associated with the construction of IAY houses. The supervision, guidance and the monitoring of construction can be entrusted to these voluntary organisations. In particular the voluntary agencies should be made use of to popularise the use of sanitary latrine and also in the construction of smokeless chullahs.
Oboh V.U, Sani and Biam C.K (2009) in their work rural farmers' involvement in the identification and prioritization of their infrastructure needs in our local government area of venue of the state. This study analyzed rural farmers' involvement in the identification and prioritization of infrastructure needs in Our Local Government Area of Benue State. Data were obtained from 70 rural farmers who were randomly selected. The data were analyzed using frequency, percentages, ranking and chi-square. The analysis showed that farmers in the study area lacked the necessary rural infrastructures. The most needed rural infrastructures in order of priority as ranked by farmers include good road networks, storage facilities, power supply, health care facilities, irrigation, schools and telephone services. Farmers' age, education and farm size were found to be significantly related to their willingness to contribute to infrastructure development. Government and Non Governmental Organizations should be partner with farmers in the provision of rural infrastructures. This will help to improve agricultural output, increase rural income and reduce poverty.

Rituparna Sengupta (2010) in his book Community development program for underprivileged children's. An important element of community development is education of the girl child. As per the United Nations, only 2 out of 5 Indian women can read and over 40% of Indian girls few than 14 years do not go to school. Thus, community development becomes a core focus area for NGOs, looking at educating its people, more importantly, the women in the rural pockets of the country. While various initiatives have been undertaken for the empowerment of women, education is at the crux of rural community development in the country. Indian NGOs like, Bharti Foundation, understand this reality and have designed rural, innovative education initiatives like the Satya Bharti School Program promoting academic as well as holistic development of girls whilst incorporating community development as a part of its school curriculum. The program provides out-of-class learning opportunities to address societal issues & fulfill its vision of providing quality education to boys & girls from rural communities of India. Students of the Satya Bharti Schools are encouraged to undertake community development campaigns in their own villages. The community development campaigns are built into the curriculum, ensuring that it forms a regular part of their
weekly activities. Students get together and address various issues of rural development affecting their community. Various kinds of campaigns like Campaigns against Child Marriage, Campaign for Girl Child Education, Plantation Drives and Health and Hygiene Drives are undertaken by students. Published on August 16, 2010.

Lalnilawma (2010) in her book Rural Development Framework of an NGO, A Test of Viability. The study was undertaken to test the viability of the rural development framework of Gratia Plena Social Action Centre (SAC-GP) using the systems model of evaluation research. SAC-GP is an NGO working in the province of Nueva Ecija, Philippines. Income level, employment level, diversification of livelihood activities, social cohesion, Christian values, perceptions of life conditions and services were tested as viability indicators. The rural development framework components of SAC-GP (areas of concern) identified included: strengthening Christian values, people empowerment, livelihood project establishment, health and nutrition programme and environmental preservation. The overall viability tests revealed that SAC-GP rural development framework was highly viable, implying that improvements have been made on socio-economic conditions of damayan groups within the last five years. The study recommends that NGOs such as SAC-GP be provided more funds for continuous technical and or credit assistance and other human resource development activities to allow creation of self-employment opportunities and increased diversification of livelihood activities for the rural poor.

Mini Amit Arrawatia M (2010) in his study analyses the Role of NABARD in Development of Rural India. Growth with Social Justice has been the basic objective of the Development Planning in India since independence. Since the beginning of planned development, the Government through Five Years Plans made significant strides in developing rural India. The National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) was set up in July 1982. It became the apex institution to play a pivotal role in the sphere of policy planning and providing refinance facilities to rural financial institutions and for augmenting their resource base. The paper analyses the role and function of NABARD in rural development. Purpose wise disbursement of funds under Investment Credit and RIDF during the year 2007-8 is
also analysed. It also throws light on NABARD’s past and present performance and its major achievements for the year 2007-08.

Csaba Csaki (2010) in the book reaching the Rural Poor: A Renewed Strategy for Rural Development. The world confronts major challenges in rural development as it enters the 21st century. Most of the world’s poverty is in rural areas, and will remain so, yet there is a pro-urban bias in most countries’ development strategies, and in their allocation of public investment funds. Rural people, and ethnic minorities, in particular, have little political clout to influence public policy to attract more public investment in rural areas. This document outlines a holistic and spatial approach that tackles some tough and long-ignored issues and also addresses old issues in new ways. The revised action-oriented strategy provides guidelines and focal points for enhancing the effectiveness of the World Bank’s rural development efforts.

Om Raj Singh (2003) conducted a study on NGO by name Myrada which consistently forested Self Groups (SHGs) concept and strategy as the Indian model of banking with the poor. Myrada has over 1006 groups of women with the focus on women’s rights and an access to and control of resources, which they require to ensure a sustainable livelihood. Myrada can be a financial intermediary between the bank and a number of SHGs with the NGO accepting the contractual responsibility for loan repayment to the bank and the linkage between the bank and the SHG is indirect.

Gina Porter (2003) in his work “NGOS and poverty reduction in a globalizing world: perspectives from Ghana”, this study concerned with the factors that influence and constrain NGO contributions to poverty reduction in a globalizing world, focusing on their role as transmitters of grounded knowledge about poverty in very poor countries. Interviews with staff in 33 NGOs in Ghana, a country where the NGO sector is heavily dependent on overseas funding, indicate that local understandings about poverty are being overridden by so-called programmes of partnership support that erode local confidence in home-grown ideas about poverty and how to combat it. This is illustrated by reference to the common donor preference for working with groups and for ‘Asian’ development approaches.
M. Gurulingaiah (2002) observed that an NGO by name ‘Abhivrudhi’ empowered women in rural areas of Gubbi Taluk of Tumkur district in Karnataka state. For almost their decade the NGO has been organizing the women to form SHGs to meet their felt needs and enable them to participate in planning and implementation of their own developmental programmes. Besides, it has been conducting social and health awareness complains to eliminate superstition customs, attitude and thinking related to poverty and child birth which are blocking the progress of tribal women. He conducted that the work and deduction among the women from Kadu Golla community and effort of the Abhivrudhi have brought about changes in the customs, attitude, thinking and approach. Along with the NGO, the Government too has played a vital role in empowering Kadu Golla women socially and bringing them into the mainstream of society.

Pankaj Naithani (2001) attempted to study the role of NGOs in rural development. The author observed that there are many NGOs have not only grown in size but have also developed infrastructures for research, training and demonstration and alternative methods suitable for rural usage, development and life. Further, few NGOs have also achieved quality skills in the specialized field of primary education, micro financing, health related issues, marketing of rural produce etc. Presence of such NGOs in the field has given dimension to rural development administration and management.

D.K. Gosh (2001) opines that attacking poverty and its reduction to an appreciable extent seems to be not manageable only by the Government sector. He considers Government Organizations need collaboration and cooperation from other than Government institutions for creating opportunities, facilitating empowerment and providing security for the poor. The author argues that, there is need for the Non-Governmental Organizations to fight against poverty. He prefers NGOs because they have greater accountability to the poor, as they work among the poor, while the official system is yet to be totally pro-poor.

Hegde N.G (2000) in his work an “Interview Community Development in India: An Overview”, as India has the largest population of poor people; community development has assumed high priority. The initial programme aimed at uplift of the
rural poor, covered agriculture, animal husbandry, roads, health, education, housing, and employment, social and cultural activities. However, food security being the main cause of concern, agriculture received significant attention. In 1957, a three-tier-system of rural local Government, called Panchayati Raj (Rule by Local Councils) was established. These were Gram Panchayat (Village level), Panchayat Samiti (Block level) and Zilla Parishad (District level). The aim was to decentralise the process of decision making and encourage people's participation. As the programme could not fulfill the expectations of the rural poor, the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) was introduced in 1979, with specific focus on the weaker sections of the society. By mid eighties, the Government was able to meet the minimum needs of the poor, which included elementary education, health, water supply, roads, electrification, housing and nutrition.

Y.V. Rao (2000)22 conducted a study among the NGOs involved in training rural youth under TRYSEM in Rae Bareilly District of Uttar Pradesh. He observed that the trainees who received training under TRYSEM were better employed than the ones trained in Government and public institutions. He says that, NGOs took interest in arranging employment for their trainees have to try for employment on their own. It was also found that the facilities for training in some NGOs were much better than government and public institutions (ibid22).

D. Rajasekhar (2000)23 discussed the micro-finance programmes implemented by two NGOs, RASTA and Shreya. The author found that RASTA's programmes resulted in saving and credit operations more conducive to women needs, there by contributing to poverty alleviation and empowerment of women than Shreya. It is important to note that the latter NGO is a bigger organization and adopted the credit union approach to deliver micro-finance services and, while RASTA is a small organization and adopted self-help promotion approach. RASTA is found to be more successful than shreya in poverty alleviation and women empowerment.

A.K. Kapoor (2000)24 has made an attempt to study NGO Ruchi which is carrying out overall development of the people in Himachal Pradesh in the spheres of economic and social as well as through technology by making accessible the
programmes/facilities to various group of people and aerating an environment conductive to health and integrated growth of the individual and community with the help and advice from Anthropologists (ibid; 140). The author observed that, at the Government level, there is deficiency in selection, training and motivation of personal invested with responsibility of introducing the programme into the area. Although various programmes have been running in different regions for the last two decades, their success has touched only fringe of the people. He found that the records of the village level workers to the higher officials show total success, but in practice its effectiveness has been greatly limited due to the lack of personal funds, inadequate roads and lack of investment of NGOs in the planning and implementation process of the development programme.

S. Mohanan (2000)25 points out that NGOs have been playing a very important role in the country over the last quarter of the century in the sphere of social development. He opines that NGOs are a powerful tool in poverty alleviation and development. He considers that "The role of NGOs is more significant and pronounced in the sphere of micro credit. The rich experience of NGOs in the sphere of credit union and their grass root level involvement with the poor and their problems a potential factor that affirms their elevated role in the sphere of micro credit". He believes that "NGOs will have a more elevated role in micro credit and through it the empowerment of women in days to come" (ibid: 28).

John Kerr, et al. 200026 A detailed survey of Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh States covered 86 villages under several watershed projects as well as villages with no project. The projects covered operated under the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Rural development, various Non Government Organizations (NGOs), and in collaboration between NGOs and the Government of Maharashtra. The governmental projects were more technocratic in focus, whereas the NGO projects focused more on social organization, the governmental- Non- Governmental collaborative projects tried to draw on the strengths of both approaches.
Gopal Krishna Sahu's (2000) study reveals "that developmental programmes undertaken with active involvement of people have a greater chance of success when compared to the developmental programmes undertaken by the Government where people become passive observers. It is here the role of Voluntary Organizations is crucial in creating awareness about such programmes among the rural people and in motivating them for activity participating in such programmes" (2000:19). He aptly argues that, "majority of the schemes did not take into account the local needs and initiatives as well as feasibility of projects. In addition, there were political, social, bureaucratic and economic constraints which are hurdles in the path. Owing to these lacunae the best planned efforts could not bring about the process of development to the doorsteps of the poor. In the respect voluntary organizations play very crucial role in creating awareness, educating, motivating and enlightening the people for social transformation. A developing society rapidly moving from trading to modernity would experience a variety of social and economic tensions. A sensible voluntary organization working at the village level could help reduce these tensions. Because of close association with the local tradition, culture, custom and environment, these voluntary agencies play an effective role in the modernization and transformation of rural societies. The voluntary organizations put more emphasis on people's involvement in decision-making and implementation of any development programme. They try to reduce hierarchical distance between leaders and the people at village level. Planning from the bottom (grass root) is the strength of these organizations in the development process."

Salamon (1994) argues that pressures to expand the voluntary sector seem to be coming from at least three different sources: from "below" in the form of spontaneous grassroots energies; from the "outside" through the actions of various public and private institutions; and from "above" in the form of governmental policies.

Michael Benton's (1957) orgives the Sociological aspects of Voluntary Associations notes that "Voluntary Associations become more common and significant as societies advance in technology, complexity and scale". According to Banton, the associations function as a means of "organizing people in order to achieve new ends, such as the raising of capital, the regulation of prices and the provision of extra labour."
David sills, a sociologist emphasizes the latent functions as opposed to the manifest functions of voluntary associations and distinguishes is between the functions of associations for individuals and those for society. David Smith has also reviewed the contributions of formal voluntary organizations for society, attempting to fit his analysis into a Parsons Iam framework. He asserts that the organizations perform a role in each to Talcott Parsons four structural functional categories of analysis, thus contributing to societal goal attainment, integration, pattern maintenance and adaption.

The civic culture study which is based on over 5,000 interviews conducted in the United States, Great Britain, Germany, Italy and Mexico carried out by political scientists, Gabriel Almond and Sidney Verba (1963) suggest that differences in the political culture and socialization experience of the citizens account for differences in the amount, kind and efforts of the voluntary participation in nations which are equally urban in character. For example, fewer Germans than Americans belong to organizations and of those who belong to a significantly smaller percentage of the Germans are active participating members (46 percent of the Americans compared with 16 percent of the Germans are active).

Smith and Freedman (1972) have made an extensive review and critique of the literature on voluntary associations. They find that researchers are primarily interested in just a few topics. Theories if the origin, orientations and functions of voluntary associations, the number and types of such associations in various communities, nations or populations and the number and characteristics of participation in such associations.

Shaughn McArthur "The federal government shares domestic policy with state and local governments and with NGOs - and state and local governments do the same. These changes are not the result of an explicit policy decision; rather, they grew gradually and imperceptibly from hundreds of tactics decisions over two generations of public policy. They have cumulated, however, into a fundamental transformation of governance - a transformation that poses substantial challenges for public institutions and how we manage them".

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Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are generally considered to be "non-state, non-profit orientated groups who pursue purposes of public interest", excluding the private sector (Schmidt and Take 1997).

One of the most widely used definitions is given by Operational Directive 14.70 of the World Bank: "private organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services, or undertake community development" (World Bank 2001)\textsuperscript{11}.

According to the World Bank, NGOs are "Value-Based Organizations which depend, in whole or in part, on charitable donations and voluntary service," and in which "principles of altruism and voluntarism remain key defining characteristics". More broadly, the term is applicable to any non-profit organization (NPO) that is not established by or controlled by a governmental entity, or even more broadly a nonprofit that is not affiliated with government.

The concept of NGOs and Social welfare are not new. India has a glorious tradition of Voluntary organisations. In the pre-Independence days, Rabindranath Tagore in his Santiniketan experiments showed how rural development could be brought about by integration of education and culture. Gandhiji in his Wardha experiment showed how village industries could bring about the development of the poorest sections of the people in this country. (Malik-1995)

After Independence, India was declared as a welfare state and relevant Provisions were included in the Constitution of India. Social welfare was included as part of the Five Year Plans. The major responsibility of organizing social welfare services continued with the voluntary organizations. Hence, even today it is the voluntary organizations that are taking care of welfare activities (Basanta Kumar - 1995)\textsuperscript{14}.

The VII plan documents had anticipated that voluntary efforts would be forthcoming in a massive way for better implementation of anti-poverty and minimum needs programmes.
Also in the VII plan (1992-97), a greater emphasis has been laid on the role of voluntary organizations in rural development. The plan document states: "A nationwide network of NGOs will be created. In order to facilitate the working of this network, three schemes relating to the creation/replication/multiplication and consultancy development have been worked out by the planning commission.

Social mobilization is methodologies for making the poor contribute to economic growth. Rana (2001) is of the opinion that "social mobilization provides a non-violent way of the morass of deprivation, alienation, insecurity, political graft, and corruption experienced relentlessly over the past fifty years of development and democracy.

In recent times, many grassroots micro movements also known as new social movements have been taking place centering on contemporary issues of importance such as ecology, environment, women empowerment, human rights, sharing of natural resources and the like. The NGOs in India have contributed handsomely towards social activism through intense campaigns, people's mobilization programmes and effective networks. The NGOs, as a social force facilitates collective action and people's mobilization. The NGOs play in making the people environmentally aware and sensitive to take part in the social activism through social mobilization process (Biswambhar Panda et.al - 2003).

Empowerment of poor, particularly approach and social mobilization are the possible process for eradicating poverty. Poverty can be effectively eradicated only when the poor start contributing to the growth process through their active involvement. Voluntary organization, community based self-help groups and local governmental organizations have a substantial role to play says Sivashubramanian (1999).

The experiences across the country have shown that group formation and development are not a spontaneous process. A facilitator working closely with the communities at grassroots level can play a critical role in the group formation and development. The quality of the groups can be influenced by the capacity of the facilitator. The facilitator may or may not be an official. In some cases, NGOs can not
only work as the facilitator but also help in Social Mobilization, Training, and capacity building of facilitators being used by DRDAs. DRDAs may support such sensitive support mechanisms in the shape of NGOs or Community Based Organizations (CBOs) or Network of Community Institutions (SGSY Guidelines).

Robinson, 1993 In recent years, and especially since the end of the Cold War in 1989, bilateral and multilateral donor agencies have pursued a "New Policy Agenda" which gives renewed prominence to the roles of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and grassroots organizations (GROs) in poverty alleviation, social welfare, and the development of "civil society" NGOs are viewed by many official agencies and members of the public as more efficient and cost-effective service providers than governments, giving better value-for-money, especially in reaching the poor.

In Pakistan, the Society for the Conservation and Protection of the Environment (SCOPE), established in 1988, is particularly successful at national environmental campaigns, whilst giving priority to developing linkages with local NGOs, research institutes, universities and government departments. In addition SCOPE motivates grassroots groups and undertakes public interest litigation and advocacy work (Non Governmental Liaison Service 1997).

In terms of monitoring the urban environment, a number of NGO initiatives have been launched through the United Nations Development Programme regional offices. These include Asia-Pacific 2000, an initiative to help NGOs address the urban environment challenge, and the Urban Governance Initiative. Both these programmes have worked closely with regional and national NGOs in organizing activities to promote knowledge and awareness of urban environmental issues. NGO Asia-Pacific People's Environmental Network (APPEN) 18.

At the World Economic Forum in Davos in January 1999, the UN Secretary-General, Kofi Annan, explicitly called upon companies to widen their social responsibilities by entering into a Global Compact with the UN. Companies that do so agree to endorse nine principles, covering promotion of a set of core values in the areas of human rights, labor standards and protection of the environment. Soon afterwards, global business organizations, several hundred companies and the
International Confederation of Free Trade Unions responded positively, but only a handful of human rights, environment and development NGOs did so. There remains a deep suspicion among many such NGOs about the possibility of companies implementing commitments to social responsibility.

However, it is important to recognize that, according to the liberal worldview, civil society can also have a detrimental impact on democratic consolidation. Where civil society is considered to be weak, underdeveloped or fragmented, or where there is severe socio-economic strain, corruption, an ineffective legal system, a tendency towards civil disruption and conflict and a lack of 'democratic culture', democratic consolidation is thought to be threatened. Ethnic or regional differences, particularly when accompanied by socio-economic inequalities, are often considered to be a potential problem for the consolidation of democracy" (Diamond et al., 1995, 1997).

Three central arguments are made in favor of NGOs' role in strengthening civil society and democratic development within the literature on NGOs and democratization.

First and foremost, by virtue of their existence as autonomous actors, NGOs are said to pluralize (and therefore to strengthen) the institutional arena. More civic actors means more opportunities for a wider range of interest groups to have a 'voice', more autonomous organizations to act in a 'watchdog' role vis-à-vis the state, and more opportunities for networking and creating alliances of civic actors to place pressure on the state. For example, Garrison argues that Brazilian NGOs have become the most important interlocutors in civil society, having 'mushroomed' since the re-installation of democracy, a point also made by one of Brazil's leading NGO activist-intellectuals, Herbert 'Betinho' de Souza, who declared NGOs to be 'microorganisms of the democratic process' (1992, in Garrison, 2000: 10). In Southeast Asia, Clarke (1998b) argues that the rapid growth and important political roles played by NGOs has amounted to an 'associational revolution' in Cambodia, Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand. Remarking on the phenomenal growth and particularly prominent political role of NGOs in the Philippines, Stiliman and Noble suggest that 'NGOs
enhance democracy by expanding the number and range of voices addressing government" (Silliman and Noble, 1998: 306).

Secondly, NGOs are said to work with grassroots organizations that are often comprised of poor and marginalized groups. In this respect they both widen (in social and geographical terms) and deepen (in terms of personal and organizational capacity) possibilities for citizen participation. At the same time, NGOs represent the interests of marginalized groups within the wider public arena, campaign on their behalf and seek to influence public policy. For example, several commentators have pointed to successful NGO efforts to support indigenous people and environmental movements across Latin America and Asia (Clark, 1991; Bebbington et al., 1993; Fisher, 1998). Fisher in particular argues that this type of 'bottom-up democracy' has been so successful in many instances that it might eventually lead to 'top-down political change'.

Thirdly, NGOs are said to check state power by challenging its autonomy at both national and local scales, pressing for change and developing an alternative set of perspectives and policies. A recurring theme in the literature is the important role played by the NGO sector in democratic transitions and democratic consolidation in a number of countries, particularly across Latin America, and specifically in Chile and Brazil. In Chile, NGOs played a vital role in opposing the Pinochet regime throughout the late 1970s and 1980s, and, while their role has undergone some degree of change since the early 1990s several authors have nevertheless heralded them as among the key political actors before, during and after the democratic transition. Similarly, in Brazil, commentators have suggested that from the late 1970s Brazilian NGOs were 'important players in the groundswell of civil society forces pressing for political amnesty and opening' (Garrison, 2000: 10; also Landim, 1993; Fisher, 1998). In the context of Southeast Asia, Clarke (1998b) argues that in Cambodia, Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand, NGOs have contributed to the fight for and transition to democracy, and have remained a significant political force since. In India and the Philippines NGOs are considered to have emerged to fill the institutional vacuum caused by the weakness of political parties and trade unions (Clarke, 1998a). C.

Mercer NGOs, civil society and democratization.
An active civil society that encourages greater participation across all sectors of society will also aid decentralization, particularly in those countries with "marked ethnic divisions and deeply rooted local identities" (World Bank, 2000), encouraging development to be carried forward by consensus, and calling attention to the need for policies to address 'social dislocations'. As we see below, such a position is problematic not simply for its ideological underpinnings, but more importantly because the complex realities of NGOs and their relationships to their wider social, economic, political and cultural contexts make it very difficult to generalize about the political role of NGOs. Before we explore these complexities, the following section highlights three ideological assumptions that make such a position possible: the conflation of NGOs with civil society, the normative rhetoric associated with NGOs and democratization and the lingering influence of modernization theories.

World politics has undergone a radical and often-overlooked transformation in the last fifteen years, resulting in neither from the collapse of the Soviet Union nor the rising tide of fundamentalism, but from the unprecedented growth of non-governmental organizations around the globe. NGOs or Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) have moved from backstage to center stage in world politics, and are exerting their power and influence in every aspect of international relations and policymaking. NGOs have been a positive force in domestic and international affairs, working to alleviate poverty, protect human rights, preserve the environment, and provide relief worldwide. Few, therefore, have felt the need to take a critical look at the effectiveness and accountability of these organizations. (The Power Shift and the NGO Credibility Crisis by James McGann and Mary Johnstone)11.

After 9/11, however, the specter of terrorists using NGOs as a front for their operations and some highly publicized cases of abuse have made this a critical issue that needs to be addressed by the NGO community. 2 In addition, the increasing power of NGOs has prompted scholars, governments, and the media to raise questions about the roles and responsibilities of these new global, non-state actors. Fundamental questions include: how many NGOs actually exist, and what are their agendas? Who runs these groups? Who funds them? And, perhaps most significantly, to whom are NGOs accountable, and how and what influence do they actually have on world
politics? This article will attempt to address these questions and suggest some ways in which NGOs can become more transparent and accountable as a means of protecting the credibility and independence of these vital organizations.

The current body of literature, however, has not examined the problems created by what can be called a crisis of transparency and accountability, an issue that looms on the horizon for the entire NGO sector. As we see, NGOs as an international community lack the transparency and accountability in terms of finances, agenda, and governance necessary to effectively perform their crucial role in democratic civil society.

According to the 2002 UNDP Human Development Report, nearly one-fifth of the world's thirty-seven thousand INGOs (international non-governmental organizations) were formed in the 1990s. The Independent Sector, a non-profit organization that serves and tracks developments in the third sector of society, estimates that there are currently 1.5 million non-profit organizations in the United States. Similarly, India was estimated to house more than one million NGOs. NGOs have not only increased in numbers but also in membership, with many organizations more than doubling their member base at a steady rate.

Recent figures from the United States Institute of Peace (USIP) emphasize the growth of NGO budgets, many of which have reached millions of U.S. dollars. USIP states that the 160 INGOs associated with Interaction have combined annual revenue of $2.3 billion, almost all of which comes from private donors. USIP also echoes the point that "sheer growth in the number of INGOs in recent years has been dramatic," noting that more than 1,500 INGOs are registered observers of the United Nations.

The real story is not the proliferation of NGOs, but how these organizations have effectively networked and mobilized their members to reshape world politics. This point was graphically illustrated by the significant NGO presence at the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio, where 17,000 NGO representatives staged an alternative forum to the UN-sponsored meeting, while 1,400 were involved in the official proceedings. Emboldened by their success, an even larger group converged in Beijing for the
Fourth World Conference on Women in September 1995. There, an astonishing 35,000 NGOs organized an alternative forum and 2,600 NGOs participated in the official multilateral negotiations. (By James McGann and Mary Johnstone The Power Shift and the NGO Credibility Crisis).

Collingwood, Vivien and Louis Logister (2005)* State of the Art: Addressing the INGO ‘Legitimacy Deficit’. Political Studies Review 3: 175-192. The article points out that, while the numbers and competencies of international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) have increased dramatically in the past few decades, questions have been raised about the legitimacy of their new activities. A number of scholars have identified significant tensions between INGOs' legitimacy claims and the realities of their working practices. The authors provide a comprehensive examination of the current state of the debate on INGO legitimacy in two contrasting literatures: normative work on global governance and its implications for the role of INGOs, and policy-oriented work on INGOs' legitimacy. The first shows how INGO involvement in global governance opens the door to a range of alternative conceptions of world order, rooted in notions of universal human rights, democracy, and theories of redistributive justice. The latter set of voices is concerned less with locating INGOs' roles as agents in global normative structures than with analyzing concrete problems arising from increased INGO participation in the development process. Future research might take into account key questions concerning the sources and the scope and nature of INGO legitimacy.

Edwards, M. and Hulme, D. (Eds) (1995)* Beyond the Magic Bullet: NGO Accountability and Performance. London: Earthscan. This book is divided into three parts with a total of nineteen essays grouped into the following themes: Conceptual Frameworks, Case Studies, Ways Forward. The last section contains a number of essays by the editors where they draw conclusions and outline the lessons learnt from the preceding analysis.

In this report, Edwards firstly looks at the reasons behind the inexorable rise of transnational NGOs since the end of the Cold War. He outlines three major causes for this development: a changing consensus about the broad prerequisites needed for
successful development; the material benefits for international institutions in involving NGOs; as well as a growing acceptance of the fact that non-state actors have a crucial role to play in global governance. He shows that NGOs have over the recent years been increasingly effective in using these opportunities to insert the voices of under-represented groups into the global arena. However, Edwards also highlights the problems encountered by NGOs, pointing in particular to mounting criticisms coming from both the mainstream press and a range of policy-makers in international institutions and national governments. He distinguishes between "problems of legitimacy", "problems of disconnection" and "problems of short-termism" facing NGOs. As a way of overcoming these challenges, the author proposes a "new deal for global governance", based on three main principles: "a voice not a vote" for NGOs, minimum standards for NGO integrity and performance, and a "level playing field" for NGO involvement.

Hudson, Alan (2001) NGOs that operate as part of transnational advocacy networks face a number of 'legitimacy challenges' concerning their rights to participate in the shaping of global governance. Outlining the legitimacy claims that development NGOs make, the article argues that 'legitimacy' is a socially constructed quality that may be ascribed to an NGO by actors and stakeholders with different viewpoints. NGOs operating transnational link disparate communities and conceptions of legitimacy, and undermine the discourse and practice of sovereignty. Therefore such NGOs will find it difficult to be universally regarded as legitimate, especially by states that hold a sovereignty-based conception of legitimacy. However, relationships are the building blocks of networks, and efforts to improve them should not be abandoned simply because 'legitimacy' is too closely connected with sovereignty. In particular, NGOs ought to improve their relationships with the poor and marginalized communities whose interests they claim to promote. To this end, the concept of 'political responsibility' is suggested as a pragmatic approach to understanding power relations as they arise in transnational advocacy networks and campaigns. (NGOs' transnational advocacy networks: from 'legitimacy' to 'political responsibility' Global Networks: A Journal of Transnational Affairs 1(4): 331-333).
Jordan, Liss and Peter Van Tuijl (2000) Political Responsibility in Transnational NGO Advocacy. World Development 28 (12): 2051-2065. The paper argues that the relationships that emerge among transnational NGO networks are highly problematic. The dynamics in these relationships determine the quality of NGO advocacy, both in terms of its function as a channel to articulate different developmental aspirations and in terms of effectively embracing their responsibilities to other actors in the network. The authors introduce the concept of "political responsibility" as a normative concept, differing slightly from accountability in that accountability has formal obligations embedded in its definition. Since transnational advocacy networks however, do not have formal mechanisms to enforce obligations, discussing accountability within these networks would - according to the authors - be to suggest something that is not yet existent. The concept of "political responsibility" can thus be used to "respond to the problem that 'representation' does not provide a sufficiently viable conceptual or practical approach to come to terms with power relations and responsibilities as they emerge in the context of transnational NGO advocacy campaigns." Based upon different case studies of NGO advocacy campaigns, the paper also introduces four typologies of relationships which may develop among networks, leading to a varying degree of political responsibility.

Kaldor, Mary (2003) Civil Society and Accountability. Journal of Human Development 4(1): 5-27. This paper addresses the question of whether trust in civil society groups is justified when it comes to giving voice to the poor. It addresses the issue of accountability as it relates to civil society, defining 'moral' accountability as an organization's accountability towards the people it was established to help, and procedural accountability as internal management. It draws a distinction between civil society and non-governmental organizations, and argues that the contradiction between 'moral' and 'procedural' accountability applies primarily to non-governmental organizations, a subset of civil society. Beginning with an overview of the concept of civil society and the relevance of voice, it develops a typology of civil society actors to clarify different forms of accountability, and concludes with policy recommendations.
Mallaby, Sebastian (2004) NGOs: Fighting Poverty, Hurting the Poor. Foreign Policy, September/October 2004. Mallaby takes a very critical stance regarding the relationship between the World Bank and many international NGOs. He argues that in spite of NGO claims to be fighting on behalf of the poor, many of their campaigns end up stifling potentially beneficial development initiatives and therefore hurting the very groups they are seeking to represent. According to his analysis, NGOs seize on the flaws of otherwise reasonable World Bank projects to conduct inflammatory campaigns. Consequently, the World Bank may pull out but the project goes ahead anyway without the Bank’s social and environmental safeguards. Alternatively, the World Bank may pursue a project but follow excessively demanding safeguard policies to placate NGOs, which then end up inflating the project costs and bringing delays in terms of project implementation. In either scenario, the main costs are borne by the affected communities who are the intended beneficiaries of the development project. Mallaby also points to the growing awareness of these problems among the World Bank staff and a resultant unwillingness to engage NGOs to the same degree as previously.

Naidoo, Kumi (2004) The End of Blind Faith? Civil Society and the Challenge of Accountability, Legitimacy and Transparency. Accountability Forum 2: Special Issue on NGO Accountability and Performance. In this statement, the Secretary-General and CEO of CIVICUS, Kumi Naidoo, set out the background to the current debate over the accountability of Civil Society Groups (CSOs). He lists 10 factors driving this debate within civil society organisations that have prompted initiatives by civil society to tackle the challenges of accountability, legitimacy and transparency. The author also outlines what he calls the “definitional challenges”, referring to three levels of accountability (upward, downward, and horizontal) and the notion of transparency, and the ambiguity of the term “legitimacy”. Finally, he sketches a number of “CSO accountability mechanisms”, including self-regulation, governing boards, disclosure and public reporting standards, and consultative and participatory mechanisms.
Scholte, J.A. (2004) Civil Society and Democratically Accountable Global Governance. Government and Opposition 39(2): 211-233. This article explores the ways in which an extent to which civil society associations can bring greater public accountability to global governance. The analysis first reviews the growth of civil society engagement of global governance. Second, the article elaborates four general ways in which civil society associations have promoted increased accountability in global governance: by increasing the public transparency of global governance operations; by monitoring and reviewing global policies; by seeking redress for mistakes and harms attributable to global regulatory bodies; and by advancing the creation of formal accountability mechanisms for global governance. Third, the article identifies six broad circumstances that have affected (and often limited) the extent of civil society achievements with respect to accountability in global governance.

Slim, Hugo (2002) argues that the legitimacy and accountability of non-governmental organisations. The Journal of Humanitarian Assistance. The author focuses on international NGOs active in the fields of humanitarian assistance, development and human rights. He looks at various mechanisms of ensuring ‘performance accountability’ in INGOs, such as codes of conduct, NGO charters and other initiatives. Slim points to the opportunity costs for NGOs associated with implemented such mechanism. He then argues that NGOs are particularly vulnerable to attacks on their ‘voice accountability’, resting on veracity and authority. Accountability as process means that it can be applied only through designing and operating practical mechanisms to make it a reality. These mechanisms involve recognising a variety of stakeholders, prioritising stakeholders, conceptualising accountability and ensuring the transparency of the organisation.

Tilt, Carol Ann (2005) NGOs: Issues of Accountability. School of Commerce Research Paper Series 05-7. This paper outlines the need for a different conceptualization of accountability for NGOs, than the one used when calling for greater accountability of corporations, and demonstrates there already exists effective accountability mechanisms. The author argues that a major flaw in the argument for greater NGO accountability is that it is usually presented from a perspective that ignores the conflict between control and the role that NGOs play in civil society - a
role that provides a voice for those unable to speak for themselves, and counters the views of more powerful groups. NGOs play an important role in society and in the absence of motives for existence such as profit or power it is necessary to apply different criteria when judging their effectiveness.

Wapner, Paul (2002).54 Defending Accountability in NGOs. Chicago Journal of International Law 3(1): 197-205. According to Wapner, critics of NGO accountability most often compare NGOs to states and then criticize NGOs for being unable to mimic state accountability in a democratic context. Wapner argues, however, that using state accountability as a ‘benchmark’ against which to assess NGOs may be misleading for a number of reasons. Firstly, with respect to the notion of state’s internal accountability (accountability to the state’s citizens), Wapner points to the large number of undemocratic states lacking this form of accountability. He also shows that - even within democracies - there are reasons to question the depth and effectiveness of the state’s accountability to all its citizens. Similarly, important shortcomings exist with respect to the external accountability of states (to the international community, international law, and international institutions). Moving on to NGOs, Wapner argues that NGOs are already subject to effective accountability constraints. Internally, they are accountable to their members, donors, board of directors or advising councils. Externally, NGOs operate in a networked system of activity in which other NGOs, INGOs and states themselves serve as checks on power and constituencies that need to be addressed.
METHODOLOGY

Methodology deals with the description of procedures adopted for collection of data for the study and the treatment of data. It also deals with the tools and techniques in the proposed study. The specific set of objectives enumerated an in-depth study of NGOs and Rural Development in Chittoor district of Andhra Pradesh has been selected. In this regard, methodology needs special emphasis. The study was based on collection of data from both primary and secondary sources in the district of Chittoor in Andhra Pradesh. The contents of this chapter were described under the following headings.

- Title of the Topic
- Aims and Objectives of the study
- Hypotheses of the Study
- Sample Design
- Methods of data collection
- Tools of analysis
- Limitations of the Study and
- Analysis and interpretation of data

Title of the Topic: NGOs and Rural Development - A Case study

Aims and Objectives of the study:

The overall aim of the present study is to assess the impact of Non-Governmental Organization in Rural development as an inclusive policy on the economic and social life of people. The above being the general objective, following specific objectives were set for the present study:

The present study chiefly aims at the following objectives:

1. To examine the growth and performance of NGOs in India and their role in rural development.
2. To study the concept of SHGs and participation of NGOs in rural development through SHGs.
3. To study the organization and performance of RISE in the implementation of different programmes and their impact on the development of rural areas.
4. To assess the growth, coverage and funding of self help groups of RISE and their role in the empowerment of women in terms of savings, income and employment
generation, asset creation etc., to improve the socio-economic conditions for overall development of the rural areas.

5. To suggest and evolve an appropriate strategy by which the RISE can be more effective in organizing the SHGs in future for the overall development of the rural areas.

6. To understand the approach of the NGOs this claimed success Rural Development programmes initiated and the end results.

Hypotheses of the Study

The present research study examines the following hypotheses:

- Impact of Non Governmental Organizations in promoting leadership qualities among the beneficiaries.
- Nongovernmental organizations and Self Help Groups are which is part of women life, is a good means for empowerment.
- The model schemes are well structured after considering the prevalent socio-economic factors that have reduced to destitution the study area.
- The programme functionaries have aptly stimulated the process of implementation of the poverty eradication programmes in the study area.
- Assets created under the schemes have provided both backward and forward linkages in uplifting the rural economy.
- The effective relationship between Economic empowerment of beneficiaries leads to social empowerment in the form of better nutrition, health and general awareness.

Sample Design

Study Area

The field work was conducted in fifteen villages spread over Five Mandalas (Blocks) of Chittoor district in Andhra Pradesh by using purposive random sampling method.

Chittoor district has 66 Mandalas, out of these mandals five rural mandal were selected purposively. They are Narayanavanam, Nindra, Puttur, Vadmalapet and Vedurukuppam Mandalas. Three villages were selected from each mandals and from each village selected 20 respondents. In the present study 300 sample size were selected randomly. Data were collected from respondents belonged to NGO beneficiaries and self help group members.
Selection of study area

CHITTOOR DISTRICT

Selected Five Mandals

PUTTUR
NINDRA
NARAYANAVANAM
VADAMALAPETA
VEDURUKUPPAM

1. Iruguvai
2. Parvatharajapuram
3. Cherlo Aruru S.T.Clony

1. Narayanadasu Thota
2. Abbi Kandriga
3. Batti Kandriga

1. Mitta Pallur
2. Cherlo Palli
3. Battalavari Kandriga

1. Ganesh Yanadi Centre
2. Singaraiah S.T.Colony
3. Bandakinda Palli

1. Pachikappalam
2. Mekabanda Palli
3. Nallavenga Palli

Sample Selection

Chittoor District was purposively selected for conduct of the present study. The number of using NGO activities at work places, their members, and the number of Scheduled Castes members and the other data available with the Department of Rural Development. Each mandal selected for purposively sample. Thereafter multi stage random sampling was used to select mandals, Self Help Groups, and the Individual members of the group.
Sampling Design

The study was conducted the 300 respondents selected from the five Mandals in Chittoor district as shown below:
The sample was selected by following purposive random sampling method. The sample was selected from different castes as the women from all the casts but below the poverty line benefitted from NGOs welfare programmes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No</th>
<th>Name of the Selected Mandal</th>
<th>Name of the Selected Village</th>
<th>Sample collected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>NARAYANAVANAM</td>
<td>a Ganesh Yanadi Centre</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b Singaraiah S.T. Colony</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c Bandakinda Palli</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>NINDRA</td>
<td>a Iruguvai</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b Parvatarajapuraam</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c Cherlo Aruru</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>PUTTUR</td>
<td>a Mitta Palluru</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b Cherlopalli</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c Battalavari Kandriga</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>VADAMALAPETA</td>
<td>a Narayanadasu Thota</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b Mala Palli</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c Ramasamudram</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>VEDURUKUPPAM</td>
<td>a Pachikapallam</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b Mekabanda Palli</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c Nallavengala Palli</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sampling design is formulated for the purpose of collection of primary data. Chittoor district of Andhra Pradesh was selected purposively for the following reasons:

- Chittoor district experienced a spurt in Non Governmental Organizations and self help groups. This district stands unique with regard to promotion of self-help groups.
- Chittoor District is one of the backward District of Andhra Pradesh state in terms of the levels of female literacy, female empowerment and other socio-economic parameters.
Methods of data collection

The data pertaining to the study was collected from both primary secondary sources, more so from primary source. In the present research, study ‘interview scheduled’ was used to collect primary data.

The following tools were adopted for the collection of data for the present study includes:

- Interview Schedule,
- Personal Interviews, and
- Observation

The primary data were collected from the sample respondents by adopting the methods of Interview Schedules, Personal Interviews and Observation. Editing and standardization of the scheduled was done after the pilot study. Every care was taken to collect and record reliable data. Only personal observations were also recorded. Successful groups were specially recognized for making case study.

Interview Schedule

An interview schedule was prepared to collect the information from the respondents. The schedule was cyclostyled in English. To maintain accuracy and to grasp adequate information they were asked and interviewed in the regional language, Telugu. The interview schedule tentatively prepared was used to study a sample of 50 women agricultural labourers. 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 also made based on the experience of the pilot study. The final form of the schedule consisted of 45 questions. It was later cyclostyled and administered personally by the researcher in a face to face relationship with the respondents. Counter questions were posed whether necessary and observations were noted on the other side of the schedule. In addition to the schedule, quite a lot of information was obtained through informal discussions with the villagers.
Collection of data

The researcher well known to the present study area. This made researcher to have an easy access to the people for the collection of data. Fieldwork was conducted for the collection of primary data for a period of during three months March, April and May 2012. The collection of detainted information regarding the socio-economic and religious conditions of women agricultural laborers families was collected with the help of schedule prepared for this purpose.

The major source of data for the study was obtained through schedules, which covered all aspects of rural social economic conditions and religious attitude. Aged people were also interviewed informally to know about the various traditional customs and religious ceremonies.

The researcher conducted informal investigation to check the accuracy of the information. The present research work has been ensured coordinating the various methods such as structured interviews, participant observations and non-participant observation. Data was collected by group discussion.

The primary data was collected from the field centers and the secondary such as the information on geographical conditions of the area, size of the population etc from the census reports and district gazettes.

Rapport establishment

The researcher maintained an intimate relationship with women agricultural laborers families. The household’s in-turn responded to the researcher with affection and provided full co-operation and the information without any hesitation and delay. Despite the effect of cyclone in the month of July, the villagers gave good response. Elder people of the study villagers extended considerable help in gathering information.

Tools of analysis

The data collected through survey have been carefully, meaningfully analyzed by well-established statistical tools like simple statistical tools such as averages, percentage were used for analysis and interpretation of the data. After analyzing all
data an empirical analysis was furnished as to show how the socio, economic and cultural conditions were changed with impact of Non Governmental Organisations.

Limitations of the Study

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

Covering all the male and female agricultural participations in the selected villages is also on unwieldy task and hence the present research was restricted to 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 districts due to varied social, economic, institutional and cultural factors. In spite of these limitations, the study throws much light on certain broad features of women working in agriculture in Chittoor district, which may not be replicated elsewhere.

Analysis and interpretation of data

The collected data was analyzed and tabulated. The data was scrutinized, verified and analyzed with the help of computers. Frequency and Percentages are computed for interpretation of the data. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed by using the statistical package for the social sciences. Frequency and cross tables were generated and the results were interpreted through percentage analysis. While frequency tables were used to examine the profile of the Self Help Groups and socio economic particulars of the respondents.
Schematization.

The entire study is divided into seven chapters and a brief description of each chapter is presented below.

- The **First Chapter** consists of Introduction, Definition of NGO, History of NGO and Types of NGOs.
- The **Second Chapter** consists of Review of relevant Literature and Research Methodology.
- The **Third Chapter** concerned with Profile of the concerned NGO.
- The **Fourth Chapter** deals with Socio Economic profile of the respondents
- The **Fifth Chapter** concerned with Analysis and Findings and
- The **Sixth Chapter** brings out the Summary and Conclusions.

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**ANDHRA PRADESH**

**ADMINISTRATIVE DISTRICT**

Profile of Andhra Pradesh
The State of Andhra Pradesh is the 5th largest State in India having a total population of 76.2 million (2001) with a decadal growth rate of 14.59 percent. Andhra Pradesh is one of the Premier States in India and is the 'Telugu' speaking part of South India. It is located at 12 14 to 54 North latitude and 76 50 to 81 50 East-West lengths with a coastline of 974 kms, the States of Maharastra and Karnataka on the West, the State of Maharastra, Orissa and Chattisgarh on the North and Tamil Nadu in the South.

Andhra Pradesh is spread in area of 2, 75,045 Sq. Km. Comprising a population of 7, 57, 27,541 persons. Andhra Pradesh comprises 23 Districts 1122 revenue Mandals: 26,613 Villages and 67,505 Habitations. Geographically the State is divided into 3 regions, Viz., Coastal Andhra (9 Districts), Rayalaseema (4 District), Telangana (10 District).

Andhra Pradesh, India's fifth largest state in terms of area (275,608 sq. km), lies in the south-eastern part of India, with its coastline stretching for over a distance of 1200 kilometers, from Orissa to Tamil Nadu. The state was formed on 1st November 1956 by combining the old princely state of Hyderabad, with the Andhra state.

The state was formed in 1953, when the Telugu speaking areas were separated from the composite Madras state. Andhra Pradesh, the Kohinoor of India is a mystical land where history has left behind the monuments and architectural ruins; and dynasties as old as 300 BC. It is home to many holy temples with architectural beauty, which attract large numbers of pilgrims and tourists from inside and outside the country.

The hill sites, lakes, beaches of the state offer enormous travel destinations to its tourists. The people of Andhra are simple and hard working preserving their old religious and social traditions; they celebrate festivals in traditional fervor. Their hospitality attracts people from throughout the globe to explore the state with inquisitiveness.

The word Andhra means "Leader in Battle". Sanskrit writings reveal that the people of the state are Aryans. During the Mauryan reign, the state was a political
power in the southeastern region. Between 624-1323 AD the state faced a significant change in the social, religious and literacy spheres. During these periods, the language Telugu was emerged as a literary medium for the people and Sanskrit was less emphasized. This alteration in the literature was made by the east and west Chalky’s.

During the empororship of the Mughals the state also built social status and communal relationship with the Muslims. The language Telugu was equally treated with the Deccan Urdu. During colonial era, the state had a great contribution to the Freedom movement. After independence, the Telugu speaking portion of the Madras state demanded for a new state and it was fulfilled on 1st, November 1956 when Andhra Pradesh acquired the full status of a state of the Indian Union.

**Geography**

Andhra Pradesh is India's fifth largest state (in terms of area) spreading over an area of 2,76,754 sq. kms. It is located between 12° 41', 22° East longitude, 77°, and 84° 40' North latitude. It shares common boundaries with Madhya Pradesh and Orissa to the north, the Bay of Bengal to the east, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka to the south and Maharashtra to the west. The state also forms a major link between the north and south of India. For administrative purpose, the state has been divided into 23 districts. Based on geographical position, Andhra Pradesh can be divided into three distinct regions viz. Kosta (Coastal Andhra), Telangana and Rayalaseema. Telangana lies west of the Ghats on the Deccan plateau. The Godavari River and the Krishna River rise in the Western Ghats of Karnataka and Maharashtra and flow east across Telangana to empty into the Bay of Bengal in a combined river delta.

Kosta region occupies the coastal plain between Eastern Ghats ranges, which run the length of the state, and the Bay of Bengal. Rayalaseema is situated in the southeast of the state on the Deccan plateau, in the basin of the Pennar River. It is separated from Telangana by the low Nallamala hills and from Coastal Andhra by the Eastern Ghats.

**Climate and Rain fall**

Andhra Pradesh, owing to its proximity to the sea, enjoys a moderate climate throughout the year. The state faces a hot summer but after the rain begins in the
middle of June, there is a decline in the temperature as humidity takes over. Summer season starts from mid-April and continues until mid-July; the rainy season starts thereafter. Andhra Pradesh receives most of its annual rainfall from the south-west monsoon as well as from the northeast monsoon. The south-west monsoon begins in the second week of June and lasts until September while the northeast monsoon begins between October and November. The state's coastal belt receives heavy rains during the northeast monsoon and is subject to cyclones causing enormous damage to residential accommodation and to standing crops. The rainfall decreases from north to south. Northern parts of the state receive heavy rainfall from the south-west monsoon while the southern areas like Rayalaseema receive more rainfall from northeast monsoon.

The state experiences a mild winter in December but the temperature hardly goes down below 16 °C. The hot season causes the mercury to rise to troublesome proportions in the months of April and May when it could shoot up to 40 degrees or even higher. The major natural resources in the state include rivers, forests and minerals. These natural resources have not only provided a great wealth to the state but also have changed the livelihood of its people. Andhra Pradesh is also blessed with a stretch of over 1000 kms coastline supporting the rural economy of the state.

Rivers

Rivers are important resources for irrigation and power. Andhra Pradesh is blessed with 17 small and big rivers flowing through different parts of the state. Out of these, the major two rivers are Krishna and Godavari stretching thousands of square kilometers of land and creating largest perennial cultivated area in the country. The alluvial soils laid down by these rivers are highly fertile when irrigated and have made Andhra Pradesh one of India's leading agricultural areas. Today Andhra Pradesh leads the country in the production of rice (paddy) and is therefore called India's Rice Bowl. Rivers Godavari and Krishna rise high in the Western Ghats and cut deep through Andhra Pradesh while moving rapidly towards the east on their way to the sea. They, as well as The Tungabhadra River provide much needed water for irrigation. Fabricated (Man-made) canals help in distributing this water throughout the
state. There are several hydroelectric power projects running in the state, which have been setup to tap the water resources of the Krishna and the Godavari rivers.

**Forests**

The state has a total forest area of 63,814 sq. km. It is 23% of the total geographical area of the state. The forest is a major source of income to the tribal people. The timber and other forest products supply food to these people. Some people use typical timber in their woodcarving and it enhance the art of craft of the state. The medicinal plants grown in the forests are of biological importance and are of great economical value.

**Transportation**

The state of Andhra Pradesh is well connected to rest of the country through well-maintained networks of air, rail and road. The interstate as well as intra-state transportation is smooth and hassle free. A total length of 4,104 km of National Highways passes through Andhra Pradesh. Besides, state highways measure up to nearly 60,000 km and 1, 04,000 km of Panchayati Raj road network make transportation much convenient and comfortable. The total length of railways route is nearly 5,085 km out of which 4,362 km is broad-gauge, 686 km is metre-gauge and 37 km is narrow gauge railway line.

A number of commercial ports punctuate the long coastline of the state. The most important port in the state is Visakhapatnam. Minor ports are located at Kakinada, Machilipatnam, Bheemunipatnam, Krishnapatnam, Vadarevu and Kalingapatnam.

**Agriculture**

The state of Andhra Pradesh is largely dependent on agriculture. About 70 percent of the total population depends on farming, and it is one of India’s main rice-producing states. The major crops grown here include paddy, sugarcane, oilseeds, beans, and pulses (edible seeds from crops such as peas, lentils, and beans). Agriculture plays a vital role in the economy of the state. Andhra Pradesh has three cropping seasons based on monsoons and availability of water from manmade sources. The three cropping reasons are kharif, Rabi and summer.
The state has a tropical climate with moderate diffusion to sub-tropical weather. Semi-humid conditions are prevailed in coastal areas. The state is divided into 7 zones based on agro-climatic conditions. These are:

- Krishna-Godavari Zone
- North Coastal Zone
- Southern Zone
- Northern Telangana Zone
- Southern Telangana Zone
- Scarce Rain Fall Zone of Rayalaseema
- High Altitude Tribal Areas

Major sources of irrigation are lift irrigation, minor irrigation sources, wells and tube wells and from rain. The annual rainfall varies from less than 60 cms in Western Rayalaseema to more than 100 cms in North and northeastern part of the state reaching as high as 150 cms close to the northeastern border crossing Eastern Ghats.

The category of soil in the state ranges from poor coastal sands to highly fertile deltaic alluvium. Black soils cover 25% of the total cultivated land and the alluvial loamy clay soils found in Krishna and Godavari deltas cover 5% of the cultivated area. The coastal sands occupy only 3% while the remaining 1% is covered by laterite soils in certain pockets of the State.

**Self Help Groups in Andhra Pradesh**

The State Andhra Pradesh has been the focus of attention on the world map primarily due to its pro-active government and significant strides made by its SHGs. SHGs are playing an important role in optimization of natural and human resources through people’s participation and achieving the goals of Vision 2020. The government of Andhra Pradesh has taken up women’s Empowerment as one of the main strategies to tackle socio-economic poverty. SHG movement through savings has been taken up as mass movement by women a path chosen by them to shape their destiny for the better. Development agenda of the state in the last few years of placing the people especially women in the forefront has enabled the formation of large number of Self-help Groups throughout the state where women are saving one rupee
per a day. The state government is making efforts to assist SHGs by providing revolving fund under various programmes.

Andhra Pradesh Economy

The economy of the state of Andhra Pradesh largely depends on agriculture. About 70% of the total population of the state depends on farming for their livelihood making it India’s main rice-producing states. Endowed with fertile land, water and a range of agro-climatic conditions, Andhra Pradesh is an agriculturally prosperous state.

In Andhra Pradesh, the linkages between different approaches towards development, poverty reduction and empowerment must be considered. It is not enough to address the economic indicators of poverty. While incomes have to be augmented through livelihood generation interventions, for which credit is an important component, determinants of human poverty in terms of health and education requirements require attention. Likewise, social poverty, which manifests in the presence of corrosive evils like caste taboos, norms of dowry, adherence to vices such as alcohol and drugs have to be woven into empowerment programs. The primary lesson learned from the Andhra experience is that there is value in using self-help groups as a conduit for poverty alleviation initiatives. However, one has to understand the limitations of this use and gauge the ways in which these can be surpassed to get more out of such an approach.

- The limitations of micro credit to alleviate poverty or to empower people can be overcome by integrating micro credit with a powerful component of social and economic infrastructure.
- Self-help group’s political potential is powerful. Federations form the training ground to make leaders and potential political aspirants. This critical mass has tremendous potential to work for the betterment of the regions they represent.
- The potential of women-only SHGs for women’s empowerment depends upon several other supportive measures like education, health, housing and infrastructure.
- Partnerships are fundamental for development. This kind of inclusiveness where institutions and actors both public and private, work in synergy, has considerable potential for poverty alleviation. Market dynamics are not adequate to allocate costs and benefits. It is however difficult to conclusively say what the effect of excluding NGOs will be. In a larger design of partnerships, it may not be advisable to create rifts between actors working towards similar goals.

State accounts for considerable amount of reserves of important minerals in the country. These mineral resources add large revenue to the state's economy. Andhra Pradesh vibrant culture is reflected in its arts, crafts, dance, music and literature.

Festivals
Andhra Pradesh is bestowed with spectacular monuments, temples, mosques – all symbolizing the architectural creativity of the artisans of the state.

The Telugu speaking people are exceptional in celebrating fairs and festivals, be it religious or cultural. All regional festivals along with national festivals are celebrated with spiritual ecstasy and eternal serenity. Apart from religious festivals, the state also observes several fairs including the popular Brahmotsavam at Tirupati, Sri Rama Navami Festival at Bhadrachalam, Lumbini Fair, Vishaka Utsav and Deccan Festival.

TOPOGRAPHY OF 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 district 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 $12^0 - 37^\circ$ and $14^0 - 8^\circ$ of north latitude and $78^0 - 33^\circ$ and
79°55” east longitudes. It is bounded on the north by Anantapur and Kadapa districts, on the south by north Arcot Ambedkar and Dharmapuri districts 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 is 32,61,118 of which 26,15,286 is in rural and 6,54,832 in urban. The percentage of rural population in the districts is 80.2 while that of urban population is 19.8. The Scheduled Caste population in the district forms 18.75 per cent of the total population while Scheduled Tribe accounts for 3.42 per cent of the 264 towns in the state; thirteen are allocated in this district.

Historical Background

Chittoor district forms part of the country originally known as Dravida. For a long time it was under the rule of Pallvas, 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 Ananthacharyulu, Panuganti Ramarayanam, popularly known as the Rajah of Panagal, Bollini Munaswamy Naidu and Kattamanchi Ramalinga Reddy are some of the important personalities of the past generation, mention may be made of Dr.S.Radha Krishnan, P.Thimma Reddy, Ananthasayanam’ Ayyengar and R.B. Ramakrishna Raju Quite a few renowned personalities like Dr.Annie Besant, Dr.James cousins and C.S.Trilokekar were closely associated with the time-honored. Theosophical Institutions at Madanapalle in the district. The world renowned philosopher Jiddu Krishna Murthy was the brain behind the famous Reeshi valley school in the district as well.

POPULATION DYNAMICS

As per provisional reports of Census India, population of Chittoor in 2011 is 153,766; of which male and female are 76,566 and 77,200 respectively. The sex ratio of Chittoor city is 1008 per 1000 males.
In education section, total literates in Chittoor city are 121,094 of which 63,681 are males while 57,413 are females. Average literacy rate of Chittoor city is 86.37 percent of which male and female literacy was 91.69 and 81.16 percent.

Total children (0-6) in Chittoor city are 13,569 as per figure from Census India report on 2011. There were 7,112 boys while 6,457 are girls. Child sex ratio of girls is 908 per 1000 boys.

Chittoor city is governed by Municipal Corporation, which comes under Chittoor Urban Agglomeration. Although Chittoor city has population of 153,766; its urban / metropolitan population is 175,640 of which 87,480 are males and 88,160 are females.

Directorate of Census Operations in Andhra Pradesh has released an official Census 2011 detail of Chittoor, a district of Andhra Pradesh. Census officials in Chittoor District of Andhra Pradesh also did enumeration of key persons.

In 2011, Chittoor had population of 4,170,468 of which male and female were 2,083,505 and 2,086,963 respectively. There was change of 11.33 percent in the population compared to population as per 2001. In the previous census of India 2001, Chittoor District recorded increase of 14.86 percent to its population compared to 1991.

The initial provisional data suggest a density of 275 in 2011 compared to 247 of 2001. Total area under Chittoor district is of about 15,151 sq.km.

Average literacy rate of Chittoor in 2011 were 72.36 compared to 66.77 of 2001. If things are looked out at gender wise, male and female literacy were 81.15 and 63.65 respectively. For 2001 census, same figures stood at 77.62 and 55.78 in Chittoor District. Total literate in Chittoor District were 2,711,432 of which male and female were 1,512,958 and 1,198,474 respectively. In 2001, Chittoor District had 2,176,990 in its total region.

With regards to Sex Ratio in Chittoor, it stood at 1002 per 1000 male compared to 2001-census figure of 982. The average national sex ratio in India is 940 as per latest reports of Census 2011 Directorate.
### Chittoor District Population according to 2011 census.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2001</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actual Population</td>
<td>4,170,468</td>
<td>3,745,875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2,083,505</td>
<td>1,889,690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2,086,963</td>
<td>1,856,185</td>
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<tr>
<td>Population Growth</td>
<td>11.33%</td>
<td>14.86%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Area Sq. Km</td>
<td>15,151</td>
<td>15,151</td>
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<tr>
<td>Density/km2</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>247</td>
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<tr>
<td>Proportion to Andhra Pradesh Population</td>
<td>4.93%</td>
<td>4.92%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sex Ratio (Per 1000)</td>
<td>1002</td>
<td>982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Sex Ratio (0-6 Age)</td>
<td>931</td>
<td>955</td>
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<tr>
<td>Average Literacy</td>
<td>72.36</td>
<td>66.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Literacy</td>
<td>81.15</td>
<td>77.62</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female Literacy</td>
<td>63.65</td>
<td>55.78</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Child Population (0-6 Age)</td>
<td>423,165</td>
<td>485,584</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male Population (0-6 Age)</td>
<td>219,141</td>
<td>248,394</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female Population (0-6 Age)</td>
<td>204,024</td>
<td>237,190</td>
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<tr>
<td>Literates</td>
<td>2,711,432</td>
<td>2,176,990</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male Literates</td>
<td>1,512,958</td>
<td>1,273,940</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female Literates</td>
<td>1,198,474</td>
<td>903,050</td>
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<tr>
<td>Child Proportion (0-6 Age)</td>
<td>10.15%</td>
<td>12.96%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Boys Proportion (0-6 Age)</td>
<td>10.52%</td>
<td>13.14%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Girls Proportion (0-6 Age)</td>
<td>9.78%</td>
<td>12.78%</td>
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**Source:** State Census 2011.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
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<tr>
<td>Population (%)</td>
<td>70.53 %</td>
<td>29.47 %</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>2,941,581</td>
<td>1,228,887</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male Population</td>
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<td>614,242</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female Population</td>
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<td>614,645</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sex Ratio</td>
<td>1002</td>
<td>1001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Sex Ratio (0-6)</td>
<td>933</td>
<td>927</td>
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<td>Child Population (0-6)</td>
<td>305,825</td>
<td>117,340</td>
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<td>Male Child (0-6)</td>
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<td>Female Child (0-6)</td>
<td>147,580</td>
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<td>Child Percentage (0-6)</td>
<td>10.40 %</td>
<td>9.55 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Child Percentage</td>
<td>10.77 %</td>
<td>9.91 %</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female Child Percentage</td>
<td>10.02 %</td>
<td>9.18 %</td>
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<tr>
<td>Literates</td>
<td>1,788,531</td>
<td>922,901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Literates</td>
<td>1,019,095</td>
<td>493,863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Literates</td>
<td>769,436</td>
<td>429,038</td>
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<tr>
<td>Average Literacy</td>
<td>67.86 %</td>
<td>83.03 %</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male Literacy</td>
<td>77.73 %</td>
<td>89.25 %</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female Literacy</td>
<td>58.08 %</td>
<td>76.86 %</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Source: State Census 2011.

PROFILE OF CHITOOR DISTRICT

Chittoor District is one of the districts Andhra Pradesh state in India. The district headquarters is at Chittoor town. The district has a population of Chittoor in 2011 is 153,766; of which male and female are 76,566 and 77,200 respectively. The sex ratio of Chittoor city is 1008 per 1000 males.

Chittoor district is famous for Tirupati, Kanipakam and Sri Kalahasti temples. It lies in the Poini River valley of southernmost Andhra Pradesh, on the Bangalore-Chennai high way.
It is a market center for mango’s, grain, sugarcane, and peanut. Its industries include oilseed and rice milling. It is also home to Nutrine Confectionaries, a major chocolate company, Granite industries and mango pulp manufacturer in India.

Geography

The district is a part of Rayalaseema and lies in the extreme bounded by Anantapur District to the northwest, Cuddapah District to the north, Nellore District to the northeast, Krishnagiri District, Vellore District and Tiruvalur District of Tamil Nadu state to the south, and Kolar District of Karnataka state to the west. Chittoor district lies extreme south of the Andhra Pradesh state approximately between 12°37' - 14°8' north latitudes and 78°3' - 79°55' east longitudes. 30% of the total land area is covered by forests in the district. The district has an area of 15,359 km and population of 3,745,875 of which 21.65% were urban as of 2001. Mango and tamarind groves surround the city of Chittoor, and cattle are raised in the district. The soils in the district constitute red loamy 57%, red sandy 34% and the remaining 9% is covered with black clay black loamy, black sandy and red clay. The important rivers in the district are Ponnai and Swarnamukhi rivers, which originate in Eastern Ghats. Other rivers include Kusathali, Beema, Bahuda, Pincha, Kalyani, Araniyar and Pedderu. None of the rivers is perennial. The population of Chittoor District according to 1991 census was 32.5 lakhs with density of 214/km.

The mountainous plateau comprising 31 mandals of Madanapalle division and on the east comprising the mandals of Puttur, Narayanavanam, Vadamalapeta, Kammnapalle, Karvetinagar, Vedurukuppm, S.R.puram, Palasamudram, Nagari, Nindra, Vijayapuram, Pichatur, Nagalapuram, Satyavedu, Varadaiahpalem, B.N.Kandriga, K.V.B.Puram, Thottambedu, Srikalahasti and Yerpedu. Eight mandals viz., Chittoor, G.D.Neliore, Putha Iapattu, Penumor, Gudipala, Yadamari, Thavamampalle and Irala, stand almost as dividing line between the two natural divisions of the district. The Eastern Ghats are predominant in the western region and they gradually bend towards the sacred Sheshachalam Hills of Tirupati, passing through Chandragiri erstwhile taluk and entering into Nellore district. The general elevation of the mountains of the district is 2,500 ft above the sea level.
Demographical View

The district occupies an area of 15,152 Sq.Kms. with density of population of 246 per Sq.Km. The total population of the district is 3745875 of which 2934845 is in rural and 811030 is in urban. The percentage of rural population in the district is 78.30 while that of urban population is 21.70. The Scheduled Caste population in the district forms 7.02 Lakhs of the total population while Scheduled Tribe accounts for 1.28 Lakhs of the 210 towns in the state, 13 are located in this district.

Languages

Telugu is the native language in the district. While Tamil is also spoken by in significant number of people. Kannada is also spoken in the border areas of Karnataka and Urdu is also an important language spoken by Muslims.

Temperature and Rainfall

The temperature in the western parts of the district like Madanapalle, Horsley Hills, Chembakur are relatively lower than the eastern parts of the Chittoor District. This is because of the higher altitude of the western parts compared to the eastern parts. The summer temperatures touch 46°C in the western parts where as in the eastern parts it ranges around 36°C to 38°C. Similarly, the winter temperatures of the western parts are relatively low ranging around 12°C to 14°C and in eastern parts; it is 16°C to 18°C.

Chittoor District receives an annual rainfall of 918.1 mm. The South West Monsoon and North East Monsoon are the major sources of rainfall for the district. On average, the district receives 438.0 mm of rainfall through the South West Monsoon (From June to September) and 396.0 mm from North East Monsoon (From October to December). The rainfall received by the district in the years 2002 and 2003 are 984.2 mm and 934 mm respectively.

Municipalities

In the district, there are seven municipalities: Chittoor, Madanamapalli, Nagiri, Palamaner, Punganur, Puttur, and Srikalahasti.
Municipal Corporation

The famous pilgrim town, Tirupati is upgraded as Municipal Corporation.

Revenue Divisions: There are three revenue divisions, Madanapalli, Chittoor and Tirupati. Madanapalli is the biggest revenue division of India.

Assembly Constituencies

There are 14 assembly constituencies in Chittoor district such Chandragiri, Chittoor, Kuppam, Madanapalle, Nagari, Palamaner, Pileru, Punganur, Puthalapattu, Satyavedu, Srikalahasti, Thamballapalle, Tirupati and Gangadhara Nellore.

Mandals: There are 66 mandals in Chittoor district.

Rivers: The Rivers flowing in the district are non-perennial in nature and for major part of the year 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 of the district and finally enters into Nellore district. Other important rivers of the district are the Kusasthali, the Beema, the Bahuda, the Pincha, the Kalyani, the Araniyar and the Pedderu, which flow in different mandals of the district. Besides the above rivers, there are a number of small hilly streams flowing in the district.

Soils: - The major portion of the district is covered by red soils with portions of alluvial soil in Chittoor and Bangarupalem erstwhile taluks. The soils in this district constitute red loamy 57%, red sandy 34% and the remaining 9% is covered by black clay black loamy, black sandy and red clay.

Flora: - The climate, topography and geology have played an important role impressing the flora of the district. The district has hills and plateau and elevation ranges up to 1,318 meters. The floristic compositions in the forests vary from dry mixed deciduous to thorny scrub with occasional patches of dry, evergreen growth. The forests of this region can be broadly classified into the following three principal types.

- Dry tropical South Indian dry mixed deciduous forests
- Southern cutch thorn forest groups &
- Tropical dry evergreen forests
Mesophytic type of flora like Syzygium cumini (Neredu), Pongamia ghaira (Kanuga) and large trees of Terminalia arjuna (Erramaddi and Tellamaddi) are found. Large trees of mango, Phoenix Sylvester’s (Ita) and different types of grass along watercourses are also found.

Fauna:

In the forests of this district at present wild animals like tiger and panther (Panthera pardus) are present in small numbers. Sloth bear (Melursus-ursinus) is found still in good numbers in all class 1 reserves of the district. Wild dog (Cuon alpinus), wild pig (Sus cristatus), porcupine (Hystrix indica), hyaena (Hyaena striata), jungle cat (Felis chaus), jackal (Canis aureus), fox (Vulpes bengaleensis), wolf (Canis lupus) etc., are the other carnivores present in the district. The commonly found herbivora. Present in the district are sam bur (Rusa unicolor), black buck (Antelope cervicapra), chital (Axis Axis), wild sheep - (Civis cycloceros), mouse deer (Mimina indica), hare (Lapium finidus), rabbit etc. A number of species among birds exist in this district. Among the birds the birds of large grey babbler (Turdoides malcolmi), the large grey shrike (Lanius excubitor), the king crows, mynas and crows, bee-eaters, hoopoes, swifts, vultures, eagles, kites, owls, sand grouse, quails, partridges, green pigeons, pigeons, peacock etc., are found in this district.
This photo's shows the researcher interview is beneficiaries in the NGO and self-help group's respondents.
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