

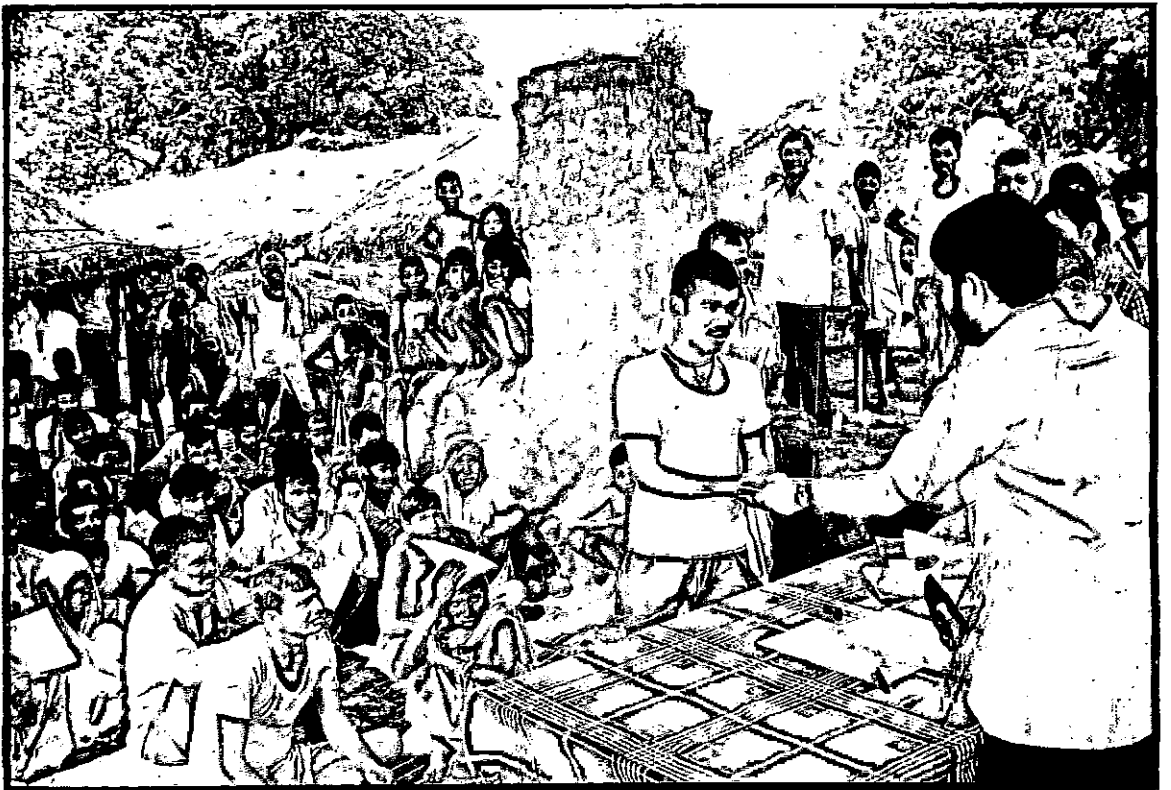
# Kurukshetra

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People's Involvement in  
**RURAL DEVELOPMENT**



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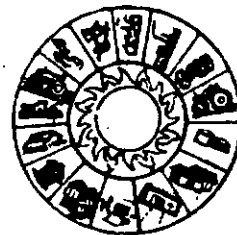
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## KURUKSHETRA

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# Panchayati Raj in Karnataka – some operational aspects

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**P**ANCHAYATI RAJ REFORM has been recurring subject for debate since the early 1960s. Various States have constituted Commissions/Committees from time to time to probe into the functioning of the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs), to identify the structural deficiencies and functional maladies in the PRIs and to suggest suitable remedial measure. For example, in Maharashtra, Nasik Committee of 1961, in Karnataka, Basappa Committee of 1963, in Andhra Pradesh, Narasimhan Committee of 1972 and in Rajasthan, G.L. Vyas Committee of 1973. It has been noticed that there is a wide gap, generally, between seriousness in constituting a committee/commission on PRIs and seriousness in accepting and implementing recommendations as contained in its report. This may be due to the absence of scientific study of Panchayati Raj reforms.

## The new Act

The modern panchayats in Karnataka State owe their origin to the Mysore Village Panchayats Act, 1926 passed by the then princely State of Mysore. On the 1st November, 1956, the new State of Mysore was formed in terms of the States Reorganization Act, 1956. At the time and immediately after that, five different pieces of legislation on rural local bodies alone were applying to five different regions which constituted the new State. They are: The Mysore Village Panchayat and District Board Act, 1952 for the old Mysore area, the Bombay Village Panchayat Act, 1933 for Bombay-Karnataka area, the Madras Village Panchayat

Act, 1950 for the Madras-Karnataka area, the Hyderabad Gram Panchayat Act, 1950 for the Hyderabad-Karnataka area and the Coorg Panchayat Raj Act, 1956 for the Coorg area. All these were replaced by a single piece of legislation, i.e., the Mysore Village Panchayats and local Boards Act, 1959. With the renaming of the State as "Karnataka" on the 1st Nov. 1973, the Act was called the Karnataka Village Panchayats and Local Boards Act.

## The structure

**T**HE ABOVE ACT PROVIDED a 3-tier structure, spatially speaking, Village Panchayat/Town Panchayat (VP/TP) at Village/group of village level, Taluk Development Board (TDB) at Taluk level and District Development Council at District level. VPs/TPs and TDBs were directly elected tiers with no 'organic linkage' and DDC was mainly a bureaucratic tier having organic linkage with the TDB. The Presidents of the TDBs were also the members of the DDC. Elected Chairmen were heading the VP/TP council and the TDB council but the Deputy Commissioner was made President of the DDC in ex-officio capacity. The functions of the VPs and TPs were incorporated in the Act under obligatory discretionary categories. Besides, they were to perform 'agency' role for higher level governments. The TDBs were also executive bodies with a wide range of powers and functions. The DDC was a co-ordinating and supervising body with no executive power. There had been provision for Gram Sabha.

Under the above-mentioned system elections were held thrice, first in 1960, then in 1968 and for the third time in 1978. Originally, their term was four years but later on it was extended to five years. In 1983, on the expiry of the term of the PRIs, administrators were appointed by the government.

After the advent of the Janata Party to power in this State in 1983, a new Act called Karnataka Zilla Parishads, Taluk Panchayat Samitis, Mandal Panchayats and Nyaya Panchayats Act, 1985 came into force. It provided for the constitution of Zilla Parishads at the district level and Mandal Panchayats for a group of villages having population from 8,000 to 12,000. These are the elected bodies in the new system. The Taluk Panchayat Samitis which are in the intermediate level (Taluk) are mere advisory bodies constituted by associating the Pradhans of the constituent Mandals, members of the Zilla Parishad from that Taluk. The MLA of the Taluk headed it.

### Elections & probe

**U**NDER THE NEW ACT OF 1985, elections were held in Jan. 1987 and these bodies became operational from April 1987. After the system was put into operation the then Government of Karnataka wanted to evaluate the system. A committee headed by K.S. Krishnaswamy was appointed in June 1988. Due to certain problems the Committee started its working in October 1988. However it submitted its report on March 31, 1989 itself. The Committee has to be appreciated for submitting its report within a short span of time.

However, when the Committee started its working, the new Panchayati Raj system was hardly one and a half years' old. Apart from that, during 1987-88, the Zilla Parishads (ZPs) had merely to implement the schemes that were already a part of the state plan budget. The real process of decentralization could be taken as having commenced fully from the year 1988-89 only. Thus, by the time the Committee started functioning, the new system had an independent experience of just six months. To evaluate any system it is always better to have its full term as the period of probing. The Committee itself has admitted that it would take more than two years to achieve the objectives of setting up the new system and it would be inappropriate to try to evaluate it in its two year's existence.

The Committee's three-pronged strategy to collect evidence, viz., (i) collecting information through the questionnaires, (ii) meetings with the respondents, and (iii) scrutinizing circulars and government orders seems to be

lacking in many aspects. It has received replies from only 6 Adhyakshas, 14 Chief Secretaries of the ZPs and 78 Pradhans of Mandal Panchayats. Written responses were received from 12 heads of departments but only 2 Secretaries to the government of Karnataka. The sample seems to be of very small size and the contact with the Mandal Panchayats and Pradhans have been less extensive. The Mandal Panchayats and Pradhans are closer to the people than Zilla Parishads and Adhyakshas. The Committee should have contacted more Pradhans and Mandal Panchayats which would have thrown light on many other problems.

### The observations

**W**HILE MAKING GENERAL OBSERVATIONS, the Committee claims that though only developmental responsibilities have been transferred to the new institutions and very little free resources are available to these bodies under the plan outlay; the achievements of Zilla Parishads and Mandal Panchayats are impressive. It points out significant improvements in schools, medical centres, allocation of house sites, etc. The development of inland fisheries and the performance of the horticulture farms are claimed to be good. However, on the ground that it had to ensure the submission of the report before the target date as well as to keep the report short, the data collected by it had not been reproduced. In the absence of any data supporting the contentions of the committee, it could lead to unnecessary suspicions that the committee has only recorded 'the impression' rather than collecting data and analysing them.

The committee has observed that, "We did not come across any evidence to show that the conditions of SCs and other under-privileged people have worsened consequent upon the introduction of Panchayati Raj. If the rural vested interests have waxed strong, it is for the reasons which have been long at work and which partisan politics at Central and State governments have regrettably encouraged". The above observation seems to have been made without much thought. The committee had neither probed the reasons for such a sorry state of affairs nor suggested any concrete remedial measures to overcome this.

The Asoka Mehta Committee (1978) on Panchayati Raj institutions has pointed out that, "Panchayati Raj institutions are dominated by the economically and socially privileged sections of the society and yielding no benefits to the weaker sections... corruption, inefficiency, scant regard for procedures, political interference in day to day ad-

ministration, parochial loyalties, motivated actions, power concentration instead of service consciousness, all these have seriously limited the utility of the Panchayati Raj for an average villager".

The present committee had been asked to identify the factors which are detrimental to the working of the PRIs. But it has not paid sufficient attention to the supposed domination of these bodies by the upper-castes. Instead of giving suggestions to overcome this, the committee concludes that, "these are remedied more by the spread of education and greater involvement of people in governance".

It has to be borne in mind that for the first time in the entire country, reservation of a huge percentage of seats, 25% in Zilla Parishads and Mandal Panchayats has been made for women. The committee has observed, "Women and Scheduled Caste members of these Panchayats, however, are still hesitant in asserting themselves. Hopefully, with more experience and better spread of education and employment to these neglected groups, this will also change rapidly for the better". At the same time it has not advised any further reservation in Panchayati Raj membership. It has opined that such a remedy could be worse than the disease. Its suggestion of rotation of the offices of Pradhans, and Upapradhans annually or periodically between elections in such a manner that women and SC/ST members alternate with others may not be sufficient enough to overcome this problem. What has to be done beyond reservation to empower women in decision-making in the PRIs? Will reservation be sufficient to empower women at the grassroots level? Such crucial questions escaped the attention of the committee.

### Functional mis-match

**W**HILE DEALING WITH the institutional aspects, the Mandal Panchayats have been analysed first. The committee had observed that there is a gross mis-match between functional responsibilities of the Mandal Panchayats (MPs) and their direct command over the resources. The Committee found out that the Mandal Pradhans were not able to meet the higher level persons at the ZPs to discuss matters pertaining to the their MPs. The committee's suggestion that the ZP members may be designated as contact-persons for the respective MPs seems to be practicable. By giving the Upadhyakshas a greater role in co-ordinating their potentialities may also be fully utilized.

The Committee has not highlighted the importance of the Gram Sabha. At present, the gram sabhas are expected

to meet twice in a year. The Committee has not given any opinion about increasing the number of meetings. Some 8,331 village panchayats have been replaced by 3,000 or so mandal panchayats thereby further widening the gulf between the common man and his representative. Thus the MP system may become a blow to the local autonomy. There is no institutional device in the present system to counter the bigger hamlets cornering all the benefits. As such it would have been more appropriate on the part of the committee to throw more light on the role of the Gram Sabha.

About the committees of the ZPs, it has come to a conclusion that the number of the committees may be reduced to four. Considering the vast area to be covered by the Adhyaksha of a ZP, this suggestion, if accepted, will give more time to him to attend to other activities also. It has pointed out that only developmental responsibilities have been transferred to the ZPs and the regulatory administration is vested with the Deputy Commissioner. Thus two parallel power centres have been created within the ZP. This will definitely result in co-ordination problems. As such it is against the principle of UNITY OF COMMAND. The present committee is thus right in recommending gradual transfer of law and order and revenue administrations to the PRIs.

The committee's concern over the reactivation of the State Developmental Council (SDC) is to be borne in mind since, if the SDC is not convened regularly, the PRIs may fear that the State Government has lost interest in their affairs.

### Political association

**T**O THE QUESTION OF ASSOCIATION of legislators and role of political parties, the committee has given partial answer. Association of legislators with Panchayati Raj institutions are of four types. They are (i) association with right to vote and hold office as in the case of Andhra Pradesh; (ii) association with right to vote alone as in the case of Zilla Parishads of the States such as Bihar, Karnataka and Tamilnadu and in the Panchayat Samitis of States such as Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh; (iii) association with no right to vote or hold office, e.g., Panchayat Samitis of Gujarat, Punjab and Tamilnadu; and (iv) no association at all, where they are kept out of the offices of the PRIs. Maharashtra comes under this category. The Committee has concluded that by associating MLAs with the Taluk Panchayat Samitis as Presidents, the basic principle that no one should be simultaneously entitled to

membership at two tiers of government has been compromised. It has suggested initiation of a change in this aspect before holding the next election to Panchayati Raj institutions. However it is silent with respect to the association of political parties and legislators at the district level. In Zilla Parishads, legislators are associated with a right to vote. In the election held during 1987, the Janata Party won in 16 ZPs. After the Assembly elections in 1989 and the split in the party, it lost its majority in 11 ZPs. This is mainly due to the defeat of that party in the elections. As the number of Congress MLAs increased in these ZPs, the ruling party was reduced to a minority. This political uncertainty and instability has impeded developmental process. The Committee could not visualize such eventualities.

With regard to the administrative arrangements, the committee has opined that the Chief Secretary of the ZPs should be given adequate powers to have a say in the administrative control of the district level officers. The Committee has resented that there is too much control over the ZPs by the State Departments and thus they are trying to reduce the role of ZPs. The Committee has felt that the meager staff strength at the Mandal level has to be improved. It has suggested that some more government functionary be transferred to the MPs and the Block Development Officer should be upgraded to Class I level.

Apart from the inadequacy of untied funds, even those funds mobilised by the MPs have to be credited first to the State Treasury and drawn as and when made available, the committee has observed. Furthermore, certain mandal schemes have been transferred to the ZPs. This, it seems, does not augur well for the progress of the PRIs.

### Planning

The 5th Chapter of the Krishnaswamy Committee report has been devoted to planning. It has been observed that adequate planning machinery is not available at the district level despite the fact that Karnataka is one of the few states where important steps such as appointment of District Planning Officers, creation of district planning cell in the Planning Department have been undertaken. Hence the committee has suggested reform of the planning and budgetary process.

The summary of the conclusions and recommendations

of the Committee has been neatly arranged in Chapter VI. The institution of Nyaya Panchayat has not at all been discussed, may be due to the fact that it has not yet become operational. The Committee has almost neglected the fact of absence of any institutional device to tackle the widely alleged corruption at the grassroots level.

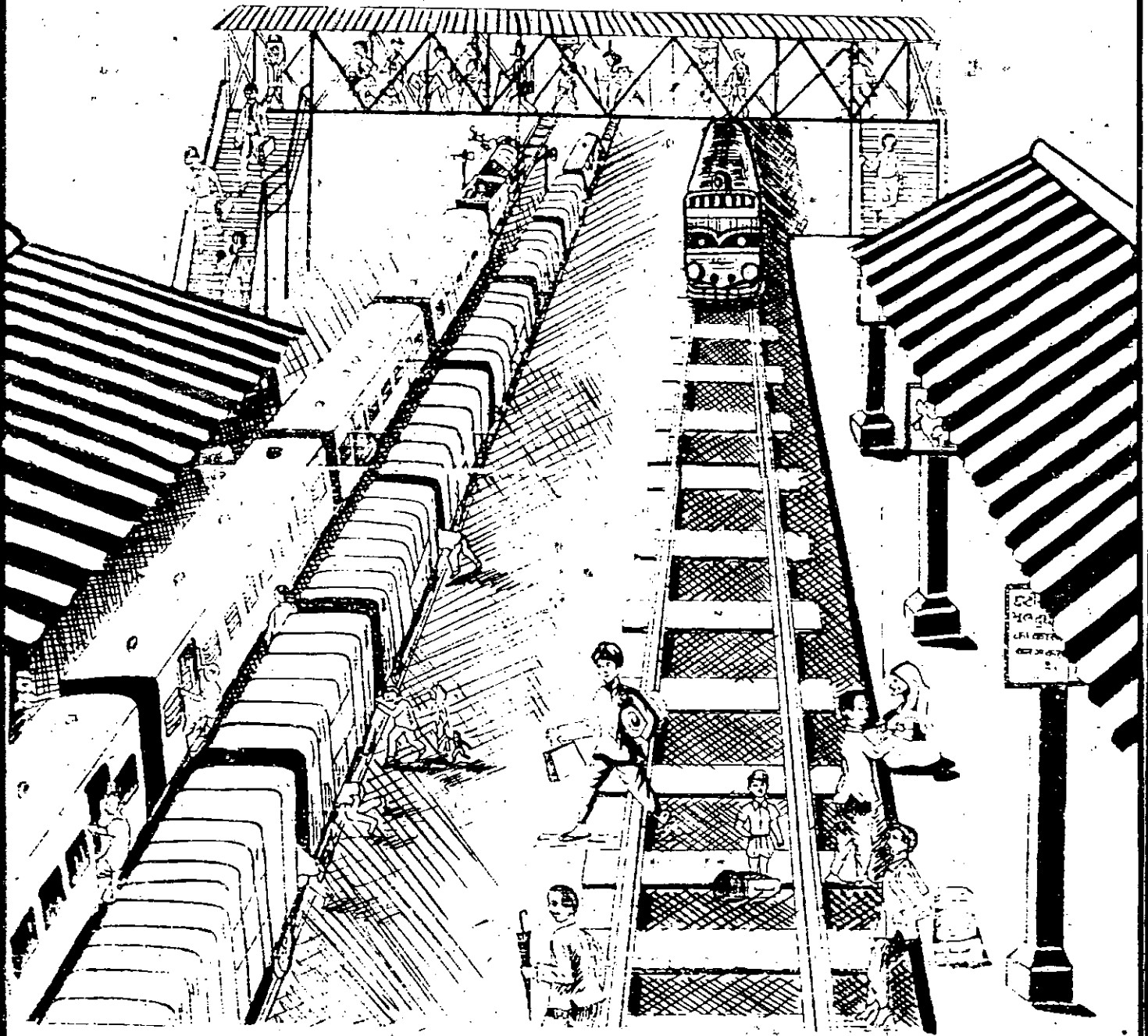
Despite many limitations such as time constraints and the preoccupation of the members, the Committee has discussed almost all relevant issues and submitted its report within a few months' time. However, its approach is lacking scientific basis and it has not even appended the date it claims to have collected. It has already been observed that the new Panchayati Raj system hardly had six months existence when the Committee started working.

After recapturing power in the State, the Congress Government is contemplating to overhaul the system and it has taken some drastic measures to change the system. Before making any decision in this regard, it would be appropriate to answer a basic question. How long the Panchayati Raj system will remain as an object for experimentation? What Henry Maddick observed in 1970 in his seminal work *Panchayati Raj*, appears to be true even today. He said, "...it is good to look critically at what is happening, but changes take time to digest — a period of rumination, a time for careful investigation, a further period of watchfulness should ensue before radical changes and reforms are urged once more".

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# How far people participate in rural development

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**W**ITH THE DAWN OF INDEPENDENCE, topics related to participation and its relationship to economic, social and human development have become subjects of discussion by many social scientists and rural development activists. The United Nations' Economic and Social Council has recommended that the Governments should adopt popular participation as basic policy measure in the national development strategy and should encourage the widest possible active participation of all individuals and nationals and non-governmental organisations such as trade unions, youth and women's organisations in the development process in setting goals, formulating policies and implementing plans (CSD: 1975). In our democratic rural set-up, participation gives the ordinary villager a means of voicing his opinion and showing by his efforts that he is able to take on responsibilities in planning, organising, implementing and evaluating rural community development programme. In this study, participation is described as much in the real sense of the term when the person who participates is fully aware of his action and is conscious of the responsibility he assumes in the process of rural community development activities.

Innumerable efforts have been made by various governmental and non-governmental organisations to alleviate the sufferings of the poor in India. Development programmes have attempted to improve the economic standard of the less-privileged through various types of approaches. However, past experience and evaluation show that the benefits of these programmes ultimately go into the

hands of the rich, leaving the poor into even a worse situation than before. In the present study a comparison has been made between the two types of approaches, namely, "Participatory approach and Partially-participatory approach" (Thomas : 1988). An indepth analysis of the participatory and partially-participatory approaches of voluntary agencies to rural community development will help us to explore the nature and significance of the extent of people's participation. Before we deal with the methodology of the present study, we need to understand the meaning of 'participatory and partially-participatory approach'.

## Participatory approach

**P**ARTICIPATORY APPROACH (Thomas: 1988) means, the kind of approach or method followed by some of the voluntary agencies together with the target communities in achieving the desired goals in the development process of their rural communities. In this approach, the problems of the ruralites are seen not as functional, but as rooted in the structural organisations of the society. The main thrust of participatory approach is to work through people's organisations. For this purpose the people of the target community are to be educated. Only through education can they understand the root causes behind the prevailing situation in the society. By education we mean not the formal classroom education, but 'Social Education' in much more restricted sense. Through social education people are helped to become aware of themselves so that they no

longer remain silent spectators of the exploitation and injustices existing in their society. The way to a successful development approach lies, therefore, in enabling the masses to become conscious of the reasons for their existing state of misery.

It is observed that in participatory approach there is a higher degree of participation in the development programme of the village by majority of the concerned villagers. Their participation is found in social investigation, in planning, in organising and in implementing various development programmes. Participation in this context would also mean people's participation in evaluating the programmes as well as in benefit-sharing.

### Partially-participatory approach

**P**ARTIALLY-PARTICIPATORY APPROACH (Thomas: 1988) is more or less similar to the social service approach in that it cannot lead to solving real problems of the masses. In this type of approach, by and large, the people are at the receiving end. Although the target community contribute their mite through *Shramdan* and moral support, their main participation is found in the benefit-sharing. The level of cooperation among the masses and between the various groups and associations in village community is comparatively less in partially-participatory approach. It has very little faith in people's ability in the decision-making. It does things for people, imposing ideas from the outside. In practice the partially-participatory approach makes the programme belong to the voluntary agencies wherever they operate and not to the people, which would mean that the programme will end when the agencies withdraw from the concerned village communities. In this approach it is often the government or the voluntary agencies that chalk out the list of people's problems, encourage them on priority basis and plan the course of action for the people. Often there is a propaganda campaign to sell the idea to the people. To a great extent control is vested in the few 'haves' and the benefit of the programme is shared by the "haves". In effect the distance between the rich and the poor does not narrow down but at times keeps on increasing.

### Methodology

**I**N THE PRESENT STUDY three rural community development projects initiated by three voluntary agencies from three districts of Madhya Pradesh, namely, Sehore, Dewas and Raisen have been covered. In all 600 persons have been interviewed – 200 each from each com-

munity development projects. Among the three projects selected for the present study, two projects, namely, from Raisen and Dewas have been identified as using participatory approach while the third, namely, from Sehore has been found to be using partially-participatory approach (Thomas: 1988). The present study has been undertaken to find the extent of people's participation in rural community development activities.

### Awareness about projects

A community that wants to make progress, socially and economically, must become aware of its problems and the root causes behind these problems. It means (Bhaduri and Amirsur: 1982) that the community must be awakened from the sleep of backwardness of living from day-to-day without concern for the future. The community thus discovers that injustices are committed, that there is perhaps exploitation. Such a community becomes keen to know what is happening inside and outside the community and the world at large of which the community is a small part. Consequently it is able to spell out its needs and aspirations. In order to find out the extent of awareness that the respondents have regarding the various development programmes undertaken in the village community by the voluntary agency and Village Development Association (VDA), specific data was collected.

All the respondents from both participatory and partially-participatory approach reported that they were aware of the construction works that were going on in their village communities. The term construction works include road construction, land reclamation and house-building. It is observed that most of the respondents in both the participatory (80 per cent) and partially-participatory (78 per cent) types of approaches were aware of the irrigation and drinking water projects that were being taken up in their village communities. However, there was significant variation between the respondents in the participatory and partially-participatory approaches regarding their awareness about the health and nutrition programmes going on in their village communities. While 77.5 per cent respondents from the participatory approach reported that they were aware of the health and nutrition projects that were being taken up in their village communities, only 22 per cent respondents from the partially-participatory approach reported that they were aware of the health and nutrition projects. This is an indication that the people in the partially-participatory approach have less awareness in comparison to those in the participatory approach regarding the health nutrition programme going on in their villages. Significant

variation is found between the respondents in the participatory (93.5 per cent) and partially-participatory (20 per cent) approaches regarding their awareness about the various educational programmes being undertaken in their respective villages. When we speak of educational programmes, they include the formal and non-formal educational facilities existing in their villages as well as the various types of vocational training courses. This data analysis very clearly indicate that in the partially-participatory approach, many respondents were not even aware of the various programmes that were being organised in their villages. This shows their lack of awareness and involvement in the various development programmes.

### Village Development Associations

**T**HE EXISTING INSTITUTIONS of participation are not conducive to the interests of the poor and so there is a greater need for the poor to organise themselves and participate. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) acknowledges that the lack of effective organisation of the rural poor is the main obstacle for their socio-economic development. The indepth Review of Rural Development prepared by ILO in 1976 emphasises the participation of the rural poor in rural development programmes, specifically through organisations of the groups. In order to become strong and be able to take one's own lot in hand, a community must be organised into small groups or associations in socio-economic terms. They should have common concern and should discuss it freely from common platform. In the formation of these groups or associations, there should not be any pressure from outside. The villagers should be left free to choose their own groups.

TABLE I

Distribution of respondents according to the frequency of attendance in 'VDA' meetings

S.No.	Frequency of attendance	Number of respondents		Total
		Participatory	Partially-participatory	
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Regular	182 (45.50)	28 (14.00)	210 (35.00)
2.	Sometimes	172 (43.00)	62 (31.00)	234 (39.00)
3.	Hardly any	46 (11.50)	110 (55.00)	156 (26.00)
Total		400 (100.00)	200 (100.00)	600 (100.00)

Regular meetings of the Village Development Associations (VDA) or groups at the grassroots level is an essential element that gives strength and vitality to the village community for implementing various developmental programmes. Attendance in the VDA meetings indicate the extent of participation of people in development. On the whole 39 per cent respondents (Table I) reported that sometimes they used to attend the VDA meetings, while, 35 per cent reported that they used to regularly attend the VDA meetings. Significant variation is found between the responses of the respondents in participatory and partially-participatory approaches regarding the frequency of attendance in VDA meetings. While 45.5 per cent respondents from the participatory approach said that they were regular in attending the VDA meetings, 55 per cent respondents from the partially-participatory approach reported that they hardly used to attend the VDA meetings. It clearly indicates that the frequency of attendance in VDA meetings by the respondents is more regular in participatory approach than in partially-participatory approach. From this we can infer that frequency of participation by villagers in VDA meeting is an essential element of participation of people in rural community development.

### Decision-making agent

**D**ECISION-MAKING AGENT is an important element in the process of planning, organising, implementing and evaluating any development activities. The approaches to development will depend on the decision-making agent. The successes and failures of any rural development programme rests on the decision-making agent. In this study, specific data was collected regarding the decision-making agent in community development activities as perceived by the general masses. Three types of decision-making agents were identified, namely, the panchayat samiti, the influential village leaders and the general masses.

On the whole 64 per cent respondents reported that the general masses, through their involvement in the VDA, made the decisions regarding the various community development activities. While 25.66 per cent respondents said that the panchayat samiti was the decision-making agent, 10.33 per cent respondents reported that the influential leaders constituted the decision-making agent. However, significant variation was found between the responses of the respondents from participatory and partially-participatory type of approaches. While 90.5 per cent respondents from the participatory approach said that the decision-making agent was the general masses themselves,

TABLE-2

Respondent's perception of the decision making agent in community development activities

S.No.	Frequency of attendance	Number of respondents		Total
		Participatory	Partially-participatory	
1	2	3	4	5
1	Panchayat samiti	16 (4.00)	138 (69.00)	154 (25.67)
2	Influential leaders	22 (5.5)	40 (20.00)	62 (10.33)
3	General masses	362 (90.5)	22 (11.00)	384 (64.00)
Total:		400 (100.00)	200 (100.00)	600 (100.00)

69 per cent respondents from partially-participatory approach reported that the panchayat samiti was the decision-making agent. This analysis clearly indicates that the decision-making agent has a great say in the type of approach to rural community development. While the general masses made the decisions in the participatory approach, it was the panchayat samiti consisting of the traditional leaders influenced by the political parties and bureaucrats that normally made decision in the partially-participatory approach. Thus it is found that while bottom-up approach is being made applicable in the participatory approach, in partially-participatory approach, the top-down approach still prevail.

### Nature of VDA meeting

For the purpose of analysing the data relating to the nature of VDA meeting we have made a three-tier classification, namely, participatory, partially-participatory and non-participatory.

TABLE-3

Nature of VDA meetings as perceived by the respondents

S.No.	Frequency of attendance	Number of respondents		Total
		Participatory	Partially-participatory	
1	2	3	4	5
1	Participatory	238 (59.50)	24 (12.00)	262 (43.67)
2	Partially participatory	140 (35.00)	54 (27.00)	194 (32.33)
3	Non-participatory	22 (5.50)	122 (61.00)	144 (24.00)
Total:		400 (100.00)	200 (100.00)	600 (100.00)

The data analysis shown in Table 3 indicates that according to 43.67 per cent of respondents, the nature of VDA meeting generally was participatory, while 32.33 per cent felt that the VDA meetings were partially-participatory in nature. Almost one-fourth (24 per cent) respondents reported that the VDA meetings were non-participatory in nature. However, significant variation was found between the responses of the respondents in the participatory and partially-participatory approaches. While 59.5 per cent respondents from the participatory approach said that the nature of VDA meetings were participatory, 61 per cent respondents from the partially-participatory approach said that the nature of VDA meetings in their village community was non-participatory. It was further found that in the participatory approach there were women representatives in the VDA, whereas in the partially-participatory approach there were no representation of women in the VDAs.

### Extent of assistance by VDA

**E**XTENT OF ASSISTANCE given by VDA in terms of cash, material resources and technical or managerial assistance for community development is an important aspect which is to be examined while studying the extent of people's participation in community development. Another point to be noted in examining the extent of people's participation in community development activities is the frequency of 'demanding people's contribution' by the voluntary agency operating in the area.

On the whole 49 per cent respondents said that great amount of assistance was given by the VDA for the development activities, while 19.33 per cent reported that to some extent the VDA was giving assistance for the various development projects in their village. However, in participatory approach as many as 71.15 per cent respondents said that the VDA was giving assistance to a great extent for the development activities, while in partially-participatory approach, 89 per cent reported that hardly any assistance was given by the VDA for the development projects. In short, the extent of participation by the VDA was found to be significantly high in the participatory approach, while in partially-participatory approach, the extent of participation by the VDA in the development activities was found to be insignificant.

The analysis of Table 4 indicates that according to 65.33 per cent respondents, the voluntary agency demanded contribution from villagers for most of the village development projects, while, 26.33 per cent said that for some projects

TABLE-4

Frequency of demanding people's contribution for development projects by the voluntary agency as perceived by the respondents

S.No.	Frequency of demanding Peoples Participation	Number of respondents		Total
		Participatory	Partially-Participatory	
1	2	3	4	5
1	For most projects	352 (88.00)	40 (20.00)	392 (65.33)
2	For some projects	42 (10.50)	116 (58.00)	158 (26.33)
3	Never sought	6 (1.50)	44 (22.00)	50 (8.33)
Total:		400 (100.00)	200 (100.00)	600 (100.00)

the voluntary agency sought the contribution of the people. Significant variation was found between the responses of the respondents from participatory and partially-participatory approach. While 88 per cent respondents from among the participatory approach said that the voluntary agency used to demand people's contribution for most of the projects, in the partially-participatory approach 58 per cent said that contribution was taken for some projects only. Thus the voluntary agencies working with the village communities in participatory approach were found to be enlisting people's contribution for most of the development projects taken up in their villages. Informal chat with the project staff, village leaders and the villagers also revealed that the voluntary agency was always trying to mobilise local resources. This enabled the people to contribute their share to a great extent for the development of their community.

### Level of people's participation

A THREE-SCALE FORMULA is adopted for rating the level of participation of the respondents. Thus the level of participation is measured in terms of high, moderate and low level of participation. High level participation would mean participation in planning, organising, implementing and evaluating the development programmes. It also includes participation in terms of resource contribution and benefit-sharing. In short, we call it as "Participation in decision-making". Moderate level of participation would mean participation by the respondents in terms of resource mobilisation which includes cash and material contribution *shramdan*, moral support as well as benefit-sharing. The third level of participation, namely, low level participation

TABLE 5

Distribution of Respondents according to their level of participation in community development programmes

S.No.	Frequency of attendance	Number of respondents		Total
		Participatory	Partially-participatory	
1	2	3	4	5
1	High (participation in decision making)	210 (52.50)	10 (5.00)	220 (36.67)
2	Moderate (Shramdan, cash & kind contribution, and moral support)	154 (38.50)	72 (36.00)	226 (37.67)
3	Low (Moral support and benefit sharing)	36 (9.00)	118 (59.00)	154 (25.66)
Total:		400 (100.00)	200 (100.00)	600 (100.00)

would mean participation by the respondents in terms of moral support and benefit-sharing. Table 5 above presents the field data regarding the level of participation. On the whole 37.67 per cent respondents reported of having moderate level of participation while 36.67 per cent recorded high level of participation in community development activities. Around one-fourth (25.66 per cent) of respondents recorded low level of participation. Significant variation was found between the responses of the respondents in participatory and partially-participatory approaches. While 52.5 per cent respondents from the participatory approach recorded high level of participation among the respondents from the partially participatory approach 59 per cent recorded low level of participation. This clearly indicated that the extent of participation of people in community development programme is comparatively less in partially participatory approach.

### Decision-making process

DECISION-MAKING PROCEDURE at the village level meeting will also show the extent of people's involvement in the process of decision-making in the community development activities. It is a common feature that a well attended meeting will need more time to discuss before arriving at any workable solution. Likewise, a meeting in which the decision-making is done by a dominated few will require less time for finding solutions to the

(Contd. on page 23)



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# Managing hill resources thro' community participation

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**T**HE DETERIORATION of Shivalika hills of northern India during the last one hundred years or so has aroused great concern among the departments concerned with the management of hills and their resources. The onslaught of man and cattle has virtually left these hills completely denuded with consequent problems of severe soil erosion, sedimentation and floods. The conventional approach to rehabilitate these hills has proved futile, for the problems of grazing, illicit felling of trees, etc have continued unabated.

The strict vigilance of the forest department, legislation and preachings have failed to bring about any change in the attitude of the people towards the hills. They look to the hills as a store house of fodder and fuel. To a great extent, the poverty of the people living in and around the hills is responsible for this state of affairs. They have no alternative to support themselves. Due to small land holdings, age-old agricultural practices and lack of irrigation facilities, the agricultural productivity is very low. Though the region receives about 1100 cm of annual rainfall, most of it goes as waste during the monsoon season. How to make the best use of the natural resources like land and water for the socio-economic well-being of the local people had been eluding solution despite all the technical know-how available. The Sukhomajri experiment (Mishra *et al.* 1980, Mittal *et al.* 1986 and Grewal *et al.* 1989) on integrated watershed development for the mutual benefit of the hills and the people has opened up new vistas of development in the Shivalik foot-hill region. The success of the experiment lies

in the involvement of the local people in managing the land and water resources at a number of places in Haryana, Punjab and Himachal Pradesh with great success. This paper presents the success story of Bunga project in the Ambala district of the Haryana State where community participation in natural resource management is quite spectacular.

## Water resource development

**T**HE PRIMARY NEED OF the Shivalik farmers is the irrigation water for their parched agricultural fields because there is no conventional sources of irrigation. Agriculture depends on rainfall which is highly erratic and uncertain. Therefore, water resource development formed the most important component of Bunga project. A 16-metre high earthen dam was constructed in 1985 to store 59.6 hectare metre runoff water from 127 hectare hilly catchment. The stored rain water is conveyed to agricultural fields by gravity through a network of underground pipelines. It was envisaged to provide two supplemental irrigation of 7.5 cm each to wheat crop over an area of 243 hectares. In case of early withdrawal of monsoon, a life-saving irrigation can be provided to the kharif crops.

## Constitution of society

**S**INCE STORED WATER IS a common property resources, its proper distribution and management is

imperative. The active involvement of local people in managing this precious resource is of utmost importance. An institutional arrangement was made in 1984 in the form of water user's association evolving a commonly acceptable method of distributing water. Its scope was further extended to the management of other natural resources and it was named *Hill Resources Management Society (HRMS)*. The HRMS has been registered under the Societies Registration Act of 1960. It has a set of written bye-laws which can be amended, modified or changed by the general body as and when necessary. The head of every family, residing permanently in the village, is eligible for membership of the society if he/she abides by the rules and bye-laws of the society. Every family living in the village, whether it owns any land in the village or not, has an equal right to become member of the society. At present, there are 165 members of the society, whereas there are 185 families in the village.

### Managing Committee

**T**HE SOCIETY ELECTS ANNUALLY, by simple majority, members and office-bearers of the Managing Committee from amongst its own members. This includes president, secretary, treasurer and five other members. There are 11 members in the managing committee. The Officer In-Charge of the Central Soil & Water Conservation Research & Training Institute, Research Centre, Chandigarh, Project officer (Agriculture) Panchkula and Agronomist, Haryana Agricultural University are Ex-officio members of the society. The policy decisions are taken by the general body.

### Functions of the society

**T**HE IMPORTANT RESPONSIBILITIES/ FUNCTIONS of the HRMS include:

1. To protect the hills from grazing and illicit cutting of vegetation.
2. To distribute water, grass and all others products available from the hills equally amongst its members. The distribution is done on a price fixed by the society. The fund thus collected forms the social revenue.
3. To raise social nursery and do tree planting in hills adjoining social land on road sides.
4. To lease out the reservoir for fish cultivation and such other activities for generating maximum mean-

ingful wealth and employment from all resources.

5. To ensure that every member of the society shall enjoy equal rights and responsibilities.
6. To see that all beneficiaries should pay the water charges regularly.
7. Repair and maintenance of dam and water conveyance system.
8. To resolve dispute of any type amongst the members of the society.

### Common property resources management

**T**HE TWO MOST IMPORTANT common property assets being managed by the society are forest land and water storage reservoir. The forest land adjacent to the village is 127 ha. Relative to private land, forest land comprises an important asset in the Shivalik foothill villages. The magnitude of forest land is 0.38 times that of common land. The villagers are heavily dependent for their fodder and fuel requirement on the forest land. Prior to the formation of the society, the forest department used to give annual contracts to private individuals for harvesting fodder and bhabbar grass. The contract rates for fodder grass were in the range of Rs. 9 to Rs. 10 per acre. The contractors in turn used to permit the villagers to cut fodder grass on an annual basis. The usual rates charged by them were from Rs. 250 to Rs. 500 per household for a period of 3-4 months. As a result of governmental and peoples' efforts to arrest soil erosion through plantation in the adjacent hills and social fencing, the forest vegetation including fodder and bhabbar grass increased. The fodder yield increased from one quintal per hectare of forest land to 5 quintals. The fodder availability per animal per day has increased from 11 kg. to 23 kg.

Somewhat related to forest management and soil conservation is water management. Water rights have been established for all the members of the Society. In case water distribution pipelines do not reach the land of any member, water selling rights have also been established. On an average, about 2 water discharges are made per household during the rabi season. The net result of this participatory water management has been increased farm yield rates. The average wheat yield (1984-1990) has increased from 9 q/ha to 28 q/ha. Mittal and Singh, 1990. Water storage dams, pumps, etc. are maintained out of water charges ranging from Rs. 3 to Rs. 6 per hour of water discharge. The third major common property resource managed by the HRMS is the availability of fuelwood which again is an output of



forest land. With the village society being able to impose and monitor the use of forest resources, the per capita availability of fuelwood has increased from 2.8 quantals to 4.2 quantals annually.

### Financial structure

**T**HERE ARE THREE MAIN source of income of HRMS, viz., sale of irrigation water, lease of catchment area for grass and bhabbar grass and lease of reservoir for fish culture (Mittal and Singh, 90) (Table 1 on page 14). Of these, the income from irrigation water charges was maximum (Rs. 67,500) during the period 1984-1990 followed by income from leasing catchment area for grass and bhabbar (Rs. 46,500) and leasing the reservoir for raising fish (Rs. 37,500). The HRMS is also imposing fines for unauthorised grazing of animals in the catchment area which shows that the institution of HRMS is quite effective in curbing the activity of grazing which was earlier going on relentlessly. The HRMS is maintaining its account in the Central Bank situated in the nearby village Rattenwali. The bank account is jointly operated by the president and the treasurer.

### Investment on development schemes

**T**HE INCOME OF THE HRMS is being used for various welfare activities in the village and for the maintenance of dam and water conveyance system (Table 2).

TABLE 2

Investment for Village Development Programme by HRMS

Items	Amount (Rs)
1. Matching grant for school	6000
2. Matching grant for making pucca streets	2000
3. Matching grant for dispensary	22000
4. Matching grant for veterinary hospital	10000
5. Purchase of utensils for community centre	4600
6. Pipe line (Purchase)	5000
7. Pipe line (Repairs)	3500
8. Salary of watchman @ Rs. 500 for 6 years	36000
9. Harizan chopal	2100
10. Cross breed bull	2500
11. Lift irrigation charges	4500
12. Pending irrigation charges	21000
13. Prize for N.S.S. camp	3500
14. Miscellaneous expenditure*	9500
15. Saving bank account	22840
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,55,040</b>

\* Includes travelling expenses of president, treasurer, postal expenditure of society, expenditure on meetings, etc.

The HRMS has provided job to a village youth who takes care of the water distribution to the users. He notes the timings and duration of the water supplied to the users. He also serves as a watchman for the protection of the catchment, dam, and other installations. The society has so far spent Rs. 1,32,200 on the various development activities in the village. It shows the concern of the society towards its assets and expenditure. The most noteworthy feature is that the HRMS has given Rs. 22,000 for the construction of a Dispensary in the village. Earlier villagers had to go to a nearby village even for getting the first aid. This is the greatest service which the HRMS has provides to the villagers. The HRMS had given a grant of Rs. 10,000 for the construction of a Veterinary Hospital in the village in 1988. This facility will mitigate the hardships of the local people in getting their animals treated. The HRMS has contributed a sum of Rs. 6000 for the construction of buildings of the school and the community centre. Earlier, there was no community centre but the concerted efforts of the HRMS and its financial contribution resulted in having a nice facility for holding meetings and for performing the marriage ceremonies, etc. The HRMS has provided a sum of Rs. 2000 each for Harijan Chopal and the for the renovation of an old temple in the village. In this way, the society has invested in the creation of community assets, by partly substituting for the government and partly acting as a complementary agent. Even after meeting part of the expenses on the above-mentioned welfare activities of the village, the HRMS was having a balance of Rs. 22,890 at the time of preparation of this paper. It shows that the HRMS is meticulous in maintaining its income and expenditure.

### Linkages with other departments

**M**EETINGS OF THE HRMS are held in the community centre. All members express their views freely. The elections for the office bearers are held annually. However, it is ensured that the elections are unanimous as far as possible. The activities of the HRMS are reviewed in a quarterly meeting which is presided over by the Deputy Commissioner of the Ambala district. Officers of all the line departments of the district invariably participate in these meetings. These departments offer their services to the villagers on priority. A redeeming feature is that village panchayat, which is a political body, does not interfere with the functioning of the HRMS. Rather it extends full support and co-operation as and when required.

## Failures

1. It was expected at the time of the constitution of HRMS that each head of the family living in the village will be a member of the society. However, there are still some families (mostly landless) who are not represented. Efforts to make them members have not been successful.
2. Women's representation is lacking.
3. Regular meetings of the HRMS are not held as provided in the constitution.
4. There are a few defaulters for payment of water charges.
5. Most of the *bona fide* members of the society do not attend the meetings.
6. A few cases were reported where the members took more water than they paid for it.
7. Sometimes big farmers have a tendency to influence decisions of the society in their favour.

## Lessons learnt

**T**HE INSTITUTION OF HRMS is comparatively a new experiment and needs continuous support from the State Government. There must be an agency/department to look after the interests of the society. The district level co-ordination committee meetings under the chairmanship of the Deputy Commissioner can play a vital role in the success of these societies. Integration of local members of the society with other agents of decision-making, namely, government, etc. alone can lead to a total concept of "par-

ticipatory development".

Thus the present study established the fact that the evolution of non-market, non-governmental people's organisation was found to have a place in development on economic and social grounds. Besides augmenting the social and economic status of the people, the HRMS has played a vital role in the management of common property resource vis-à-vis environmental rehabilitation. It is an example of a stable social institution of collective decision-making and action which has brought about sustainable socio-economic changes and growth with ecological harmony and balance.

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TABLE 1  
Annual Income of HRMS from various sources (1984-1990)

Source	1984-85	1985-86	1986-87	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	Total
Charges for Irrigation* water	2590	6480	12,590	3500**	20,200	22,180	67,540
Lease of grass and bhabbar from catchment area	300	3050	3250	4250	13,000	23,000	46,850
Lease of reservoir for fish	3500	3500	3500	3500	3500	20,000***	37,500
Membership fee	1320	330	—	—	—	—	1650
Grazing Fine	—	160	150	580	260	350	1500
Total	7,710	13,520	19,490	11,830	36,960	65,530	1,55,040

\* Average rate is Rs. 4.50 per hour.

\*\* The low figures in 1987-88 are as a consequence of drought of 1987.

\*\*\* The amount of leasing of reservoir for fish is for 3 years.

# Emerging administrative priorities in RD

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**T**HE RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES in India have significant achievements to their credit. A widespread administrative infrastructure has provided the confidence to launch an expensive anti-poverty programme unmatched anywhere in the world. The expansion of physical infrastructure of schools, village roads, health centres, drinking water facilities, housing for the weaker sections, sale centres for production requisites are to be compared with what we had when we started on the planned development path, to be believed. The expressions of rising frustration only prove the truism that we demand more only when we have achieved part of our ambitions.

It has to be acknowledged that rural development administration has not changed much from the days of Community Development (C.D.) phase. The programmes at the grassroots level are still being managed by the Block office, the Village Level Worker (V.L.W.), and the panchayat sewaks. What is more, the emphasis away from co-ordinated rural development to isolated sectoral development during Sixties and Seventies only diluted attention to the grassroots administration. The anti-poverty programmes and the twenty-point programmes added on the tasks without any significant attempt to bring about administrative reforms and adjustments.

The Planning Commission, forced to acknowledge this, appointed the Committee to review the existing Administrative Arrangements For Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation Programmes during the Seventh Plan. The Committee submitted its report in December 1985. The Union Department of Rural Development also received a Concept Paper on Panchayati Raj from the Singhvi Com-

mittee though a full report on restructuring of the Panchayat system was not finalised. The Union Government went further in holding meetings with district officers to understand directly what weaknesses afflicted development efforts at the district level and below. The Review Committee concluded that: "It is high time that a radical departure is made and the reliance on feudal and colonial structures done away with." It found that there were far too many government functionaries at the district level who were working at cross purposes. The Block Development Officer had become ineffective and the credibility of the organisation had been eroded considerably. The Singhvi Committee recommended that Panchayati Raj (P.R.) Institutions should become vehicles for homogenisation, secularisation, and socialisation of the national effort. The District Magistrates' (D.M.) meetings extolled the virtues of planning and administration at the grassroots level, with the Prime Minister (P.M.) underlining two cutting edges of administration, one at the district level and another one lower and even closer to the surface. In spite of so much of work done, no decisions were ever arrived at. At present there is no talk of any action in this regard.

## Restructuring of economy

**T**HE GOVERNMENT HAS ANNOUNCED A gradual restructuring of the economy. The larger role for the private sector will be accompanied with a progressive shift away from public investment in sectors. The contours will unfold gradually. The adjustment will extend to the agriculture sector. The play of market forces are expected to gain

a new respectability. The macro-level consequences will be apparent in the decline of interest in timely interventions to ensure that the pendulum does not swing in such a way as to result in total withdrawal of countervailing forces.

The Planning Commission is reported to have added the domestic sector investment in the total indicative investment in the next five years. This kind of investment is the largest in the agriculture and rural development sectors. This will possibly involve an assessment of the potential for domestic investment in rural areas and measures that can be taken to increase it. It will surely require a matching of private and public investment and incentives for augmenting private investment. The current design of rural development programmes will, therefore, require necessary changes and adjustments.

The micro-level responses to these macro objectives may not be easy to secure. The rural bureaucracy will be called upon to shoulder additional responsibility in this regard. Strong views have been expressed regarding the capacity and the motives of the rural development bureaucracy. It is taken for granted that the lags and shortcomings in performance are due to incompetence, corruption, social background, and political alignments of the lower civil service. If this is really so, then is it advisable to burden it with additional responsibility of this momentous nature?

There would seem, however, to be no escape from this. It has been accepted that poverty is a drag on development. The need to augment efforts in the social development sector has been accepted even by the World Bank. The broadening of the base of the production strategies demands such an emphasis. This will call for steps to strengthen the capability of the administration.

The design of the administrative arrangement should be such as to facilitate (a) active community articulation of local community needs, (b) mobilisation of local efforts to mop up and exploit locally available resources, (c) augmentation of such resources through importation from outside, private or public, at the minimum required level, (d) multi-disciplinary implementation modules and appropriate local implementing agencies under local control and, (e) performance appraisal on the basis of overall output as well as changes in life styles on evaluatory indicators. The activity should start at the lowest level of planning at the village level and evaluation must also begin there. The real micro level must be activated.

## Aministrative impediments

India's rural development administration typically presents the evils of a supervisory regime within a highly centralised system. The primary units such as the panchayat, the V.L.W. and the Block are left with no option but to cater to the needs and the whims of the supervisory agencies, official as well as, political. This load of supervision must be reduced drastically.

To start with, there are four principal organs charged with largely co-terminous responsibilities at the district-level. The membership is also over-lapping. These are: the Zilla Parished, the District Planning and Development Council (D.P.D.C.), the District Rural Development Agency (D.R.D.A.), and the Twenty-Point Programme Implementation Committee. One common factor is that almost the same set of administrative staff have to service them all. Apart from wastage of staff time in meetings and paper work, there is the further tendency to impose heavy inquisitory supervision work that keeps the local level functionaries always in arrears in implementing the works assigned to them. It is necessary that the system is changed and the whole range of development responsibility is consigned to one single authority. The district authority should be essentially deliberative, except in respect of inter-Block projects. Plan co-ordination should involve improving the quality of plan formulation at the lower level rather than their substitution at the district level. Responsibility and accountability must be scrupulously co-terminous.

A reconciliation of the boundaries of the Block, the Mandal and the police stations is also worth consideration. The launching of beneficiary-oriented programmes calls for reduction in Block boundaries. Development and law and order can no longer work in isolation. A minimum level of security is necessary for development to yield results. Finally, representative system control is a must for responsiveness in development administration. Thus a comprehensive view of the unit of administration at the intermediate level is called for. This should be supplemented with a new design of administrative integration at that level. The public system should provide for a uniform level of expertise in production and social services. The requirement of specialised services is target group-oriented and it should be paid for. The government system should, however, establish a clearing house of information in this domain.

The level of sectoral staffing at the lower levels has not been properly evaluated so far. In addition to programme-based staff, there are sometimes project-based staff as well. There are two sets of V.L.W. in certain areas. The areas of

panchayats vary and staffing is variable. Two sets of decisions are called for, namely, (1) the ratio and the relations between the panchayat, the VLW area, and the Block area and population, and (2) the executing agency for individual schemes, along with the level of supervisory control at these levels. A rational classification of complementary schemes and a rational staffing pattern would ensure that work is done effectively and indolent excess staff is effectively trimmed.

The experience suggests that organisation needs to be assigned a higher priority than the floating of new programmes. A serious examination of the reasons why beneficiaries are reluctant to assume responsibility of programme execution needs also to be undertaken. An environment that creates beneficiary stakes in the programmes for them and fosters confidence in their capability can and should be created. The organisational strategy should look at the primary units for executing small works, for co-operative ventures, formal or informal, to undertake area development works, the needed training to impart skill and upgrade technology, the motivation for integrity in managing accounts, and, a satisfactory formula for sharing of financial gains. The insistence on following public works procedures for rural works executed by beneficiary groups, labour co-operatives, or voluntary action groups will have to be given a go by. Along with relaxation of bureaucratic controls, a revision of technocratic controls and procedures is also called for.

### Management areas

**T**HE ATTEMPT AT THE GRASS-ROOTS planning through local self-governing institutions or bureaucratic consultative mechanism have failed to deliver an integrative package of programmes designed to develop local physical and manpower resources. There has been a dangerous imbalance in favour of developing demonstrative physical assets to the detriment of human resource development. In the process the dependency syndrome has been strengthened — dependency on government machinery, dependency on the local dominant power structure, dependency on external inputs for growth. The need, on the other hand, is to build autonomous systems that can be run by mobilising local human resources to the maximum extent possible.

The first step should be to identify areas of growth management where integrated, multi-sectoral development activities would benefit from convergence of sectoral services. In concrete terms, the village economy should be seen

as operating a mutually supportive subsistence and surplus production sub sectors. Bulk of Indian farming continues to be for subsistence. This can benefit from within sector diversification incorporating a mix of food crops and commercial crops, supplementation of crop husbandry with animal husbandry, augmentation of rural energy supply through waste management and social forestry, and encouragement to home industry in support of these diversifications. This should be a spur for occupational changes, with a family engaging its members in diverse economic activities so that shocks from natural calamities and frequent crop losses are absorbed. More intensive use of human energy, productive use of on-farm and off-farm employment, multiplication of opportunities for value added products and more remunerative deployment of financial investment can induce higher rates of growth in productivity, and so surpluses. The surplus generated in the primary sector has to be used in the secondary sector locally. This wider diversification can offer more gainful employment, improved earning levels and levels of economic consumption. Marketing induced surpluses is a must for changing rural life styles. There are examples of this happening in the country but in limited measures and areas.

How can a change in strategy help this objective? The reduction in poverty has been perceptible but the rate and quality differs widely. A stage has arrived, therefore, for a change in investment policy. Mere selectivity in allocations will not suffice. Rural development funds of the Centre should be converted into regional fund available to limited number of States to approximate the rate of poverty reduction of the country. The States are obliged to use central allocations for budgetary ways and means management. While this may be inescapable within limits, the tendency of precisely the poorer States to damage programme implementation in this manner must be curbed. An integrated programme of marketing of the produce of the poverty group, including the small farmers, has to be introduced. The private sector has been reluctant to do anything in this regard. Necessary changes in government rules for purchases will set the trend for viable marketing. The poor must be induced by this means to respond to market demand in planning their production.

This will require a more positive approach to rural-urban linkages. The dichotomy between urban and rural areas cannot be eliminated. This can, however, be converted into a meaningful interaction between the two. The urban area signals for change must be heeded. The urban areas set the style and levels of production. The rural sector

must aim at surpluses in food, feed, and industrial raw materials for urban expansion. The marketing and transportation network for rural produce is centralised in urban areas. The rural elite draw their inspiration largely from urban development ideas which is important for modernisation of production as well as consumption. Growth in urbanisation is important for rural growth and the level and quality of urbanisation will set the pace for the rate of growth of rural economy and life styles.

The drawbacks in the performance of self-employment programmes, in particular, is ascribed substantially to the neglect of this reality. A more vigorous marketing approach, a thrust to generating surpluses in rural areas adjusted to marketability of the produce, a stronger linkage with urban money market has the potential to improve the economic viability of self-employment programmes. Therefore, a more organised effort in this direction along with needed investment in urban infrastructure for such linkages is called for.

A reform in the links of rural development planning with administrative and financial procedures of public works is sorely needed. The fear of irregularities and wastage of funds has to be overcome. After all, even under the present system wastage is rampant and programme objectives are given a go by. It has to be firmly determined whether the present procedures are more important or the attainment of the objectives, specially since the large scale flouting of the procedures has become the rule. In fact, a change in the financial and audit regime of grants-in-aid schemes and programmes, in consonance with the aim of maximising incomes of the beneficiaries, is called for. It will be beneficial to establish a system of asset accounting or physical performance audit in place of the present system.

### Needing a new ideology

**T**HE PRESENT PACKAGE OF self-employment, wage-employment and area development programmes in support of sectoral growth and welfare target programme is well conceived. Two sets of changes should, however, merit serious consideration. First, the range of activities for rural development necessary to expand the employment potential should be managed together. Consistent with occupational diversification within the family converging programmes should be managed as one programme, atleast at the lower levels of administration. Secondly, the overbearing presence of government should be phased out in favour of a dominant communitarian approach. The concept of peoples' involvement has ended in the tendency to

seek support and mass sanction after a programme has been centrally announced. There is no emotional attachment of the people concerned with the programme. This should, therefore, yield place to a new concept of 'peoples initiative for self-reliance'. It should be designed to secure group action to attain common targets. This can introduce a sense of belonging in the development process of a people highly individualistic and almost fatalistic about the inevitability of massive inequality. In this framework local self-reliance holds the key to rural development.

Changes in archaic economic relations, specially in land ownership and management, can be achieved through an increasing level of local participation in all ventures. Unfortunately, decentralisation conceived so far has been within a centralised and centralising framework. Democracy is a regime of autonomy at the level it is operative and yet the panchayati raj institutions never functioned on such a basis. A reversal in this situation is called for. It is imperative to foster democratic spirit and conduct at the grassroots level, which will release the impulses for equality. India's growth requires increasing levels of social equality and discipline. The encouragement to such trends must be ensured. But how is that to be processed? The application of reverse discrimination has not achieved it. The limited membership in representative bodies has failed the test. Success is possible through the economic planning route provided we are prepared to risk a drastic change in the legacy of the inevitability of bureaucratic penetration of this area. A trickle up approach where the beneficiary is trusted and is induced to put in his own resources in the venture to the extent possible is possible to be introduced.

The building of physical infrastructure may yet be held out as requiring centralised control. This is not really so. There are examples of commendable work of minor irrigation, school building, village road construction, conceived and implemented locally. The weaker section housing projects have been a success where responsibility has been assumed by the groups concerned. The fear of the government machinery harassing such local groups is preventing the release of local energy for undertaking more of such tasks. The engineering organisations own that control of contractors for highly dispersed work is becoming unmanageable. They have not succeeded in laying down life of a rural project related to the specifications implemented. Therefore, the time to assign truly local infrastructure, say of a panchayat dimension, to locally willing groups has arrived.

The local communities have been subjected to traditional pulls and subjugation in ideas from the vested proper-

tied interests. The arrogance of the rural elite has killed its faculty to think for itself in infancy. The political parties have not shown any consistent interest in rousing community's self-interest for local growth and advancement. A new beginning must be made. The political activists should join hands with voluntary action groups to evolve a minimum agenda for empowering the local community. A new development ideology should promote the flowering of local ideas. These agencies should also try to become the catalysts of the needed orientational changes for the community to strive for self-reliance in fields requiring no outside help. The artificial separation between politics and local bureaucracy in matters concerning this must be ended.

Planning and programme implementation for rural development can provide for inbuilt mechanism to deal with social alienation. The isolation of the sexes, the antagonism between castes, the continuing hardships of the socially disadvantaged groups, the disregard to the ambitions of the youth has added up to a massive sense of alienation. The law and order enforcement of an increasing intensity has only added to the emotional divide between the administration and the people. The system has the tendency to cripple the emergence of social action groups though a balanced, socially conscious action group interacting with organised bureaucracy improves the environment of positive action for rural development.

The economic activity and the earning revolution as

*(Contd. from page 13)*

problems as the general masses are voiceless and maintain silence. Two types of procedure were identified, namely, (a) people discuss extensively before arriving at an agreement and (b) people agree to the suggestion of influential leaders.

On the whole, 81.67 per cent of the respondents reported that people discuss extensively before arriving at an agreement regarding any issue. In all 94 per cent respondents from the participatory approach said that the people used to discuss extensively before arriving at an agreement, while in the partially-participatory approach as many as 57 per cent were of the same opinion. It is, however, observed that a good percentage of the respondents from partially-participatory approach feel that the general masses in their village communities have less say in the decision-making process. They are still being dominated by the influential and better-off sections in the community.

The above analysis of the field data show that the extent of people's participation in rural community development largely depend on the extent of awareness that the people of a community have regarding the various developmental

components of rural development have to seek relevance in an environment that fosters social harmony. They are a means to an end. The tasks for the future should, therefore, involve human resource development and organisation building of the kind that will serve these objectives. It is in this light that attention has been focussed on the three critical areas of administrative priority. These are the foundation. First, the needed structural change at the district level and below must be finalised expeditiously. This will end the present confusion in authority and simultaneously reduce the cost of administration. Secondly, the planning process for rural development should be turned upside down, without affecting adversely the availability of central funds. In fact, the criteria of allocation of rural development funds should be drastically changed in favour of faster reduction of poverty ratios of the states that have fallen behind. Finally, an orientational and functional change based on a healthy interaction between the bureaucracy, the technical manpower, the social action groups, and the political cadres and action groups has been advocated. Their agenda has to aim at self-realisation by the community of its potential to achieve a higher level of performance. These changes are necessary to secure better returns for the financial resources allocated, mobilisation of additional resources locally, improvement in the quality of rural works programmes and reduction in the level of rural dependency and alienation. □

projects that are being implemented in their villages. The other aspects found to be affecting the extent of people's participation in community development were the extent of membership in village development association, participation of women in the development process, frequency of attendance in the VDA meetings, nature of VDA meetings, the type of decision-making agent, the kind of decision-making procedure and the extent of contribution taken from the people of the target community for community development.

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# कुरुक्षेत्र पत्रिका की सफलता हेतु नगर महापालिका हार्दिक शुभ कामना करती है

नगर महापालिका, इलाहाबाद

नागरिकों से अपेक्षा है कि :-

1. कूड़ा आदि निर्धारित समय तथा कूड़ेदान में ही फेंकें।
2. अतिक्रमण सामाजिक अपराध है। पटरियों एवं सार्वजनिक मार्गों पर अतिक्रमण न करें।
3. सभी प्रकार के करों की अदायगी निर्धारित समय पर करें।
4. छुट्टे पशुओं को सड़क पर न छोड़ें और न ही सार्वजनिक जमीनों पर बाधें।
5. पार्कों को स्वच्छ, साफ-सुथरा रखें एवं पार्कों में लगे वृक्षों की रक्षा करें।
6. सड़क पर लगे बिजली के सामानों की रक्षा करें।

बी. के. द्विवेदी  
सहायक नगर अधिकारी।

प्रभुनाथ मिश्र  
मुख्य नगर अधिकारी।

श्यामा चरण गुप्त  
नगर प्रमुख

## READERS' PAGE

**O**UR readers will be glad to know that we have introduced a new column entitled READERS' PAGE in our journal. The column carries views of our Readers on various issues concerning rural development and on the subject(s) covered in the journal as well as its contents. Our readers may send their views, consisting of not more than 250 words and typed in double space on one side of the page, to the Editor, Kurukshetra, Room No.464-A, Krishi Bhavan, New Delhi-110001 by ordinary post.

The unpublished views will not be returned. Readers may therefore keep a copy of their views sent to the Editor. No remuneration will be paid for the letters published in this column.

A complimentary copy of the issue will be mailed to those whose letters appear in this column.



# Involving farm women in agricultural activities

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IT HAS BEEN UNIVERSALLY accepted that farm women play an important role in carrying out agricultural activities. They are contributing in both, i.e., decision making and performing the farm operations. The study, therefore, is intended to find out the extent of involvement of farm women in agricultural activities. The objectives of the study were to find out the involvement of farm women in agricultural activities, and to study the difficulties faced by farm women while performing these activities.

## Methodology

IN ALL 98 FARM WOMEN were interviewed by 'n'th interval method of random sampling at village 'Fetri' in Extension Block, College of Agriculture, Nagpur with the help of pretested interview schedule. While interviewing, the data was collected from farm women in respect of their involvement in different farm activities and difficulties faced by them. The data was further processed, computed and the findings were as under.

## Findings

TABLE 1 ON NEXT PAGE DESCRIBED the usual manual activities to be carried out by them under different heads.

Under the first category of land preparation, stubble collection (87%) and application of manures (66%) have

been found to be the major activities of farm women. It is also seen that farm women helped in cleaning the field boundaries (46%) and land levelling (38%). There was a substantial contribution of farm women in sowing operations. Ninety-two per cent of them have selected and treated the seeds. Seed cleaning operations involved 89 per cent farm women and actual sowing was done by 82 per cent farm women.

In interculture activities, farm women played a major role in weeding operations to the extent of 87 per cent. Application of fertilizers and thinning and gap filling jobs have been carried out by 56 per cent and 46 per cent of farm women respectively. The works like spraying, irrigation and dusting were also attended to by one-third of farm women by and large. The above stated finding is supported by Sangwan *et. al.* (1990) who stated that majority of the farm women participated in farm operations like storage of produce, uprooting of seedlings, transplanting, weeding, hoeing, harvesting, picking, threshing, winnowing and cleaning.

While studying harvesting process, the farm women had major contribution in drying and cleaning the grains (82%), reaping the crops (66%), collection and heap-making of the crops (61%) and threshing the grains (61%). The farm women were also observed storing and giving treatment to grain and seeds (40%) and grading the farm produce (46%).

**Table 1**  
**Manual works carried out by farm women**

Sr. No.	Work	N=98	Per cent
<b>1. Land preparation</b>			
a.	Stubble collection	85	86.73
b.	Land levelling	37	37.75
c.	Application of manures	65	66.32
d.	Cleaning of field boundaries	45	45.91
<b>2. Sowing</b>			
a.	Cleaning of seeds	87	88.77
b.	Selection and treatment of seeds	90	91.83
c.	Sowing operations	80	81.63
<b>3. Interculture activities</b>			
a.	Irrigation	35	35.71
b.	Thinning and gap filling	45	45.91
c.	Weeding	85	86.73
d.	Watching standing crops	25	25.51
e.	Application of fertilizers	55	56.12
f.	Spraying	40	40.81
g.	Dusting	30	30.61
<b>4. Harvesting</b>			
a.	Reaping the crops	65	66.32
b.	Collection and to heap crops	60	61.22
c.	Threshing grains	60	61.22
d.	Winnowing operations	65	66.32
e.	Drying and cleaning grains	80	81.63
f.	Storage and treatment to grains and seeds	39	39.79
g.	Grading	45	45.91
<b>5. Allied agricultural activities</b>			
a.	Milking the milch animals	15	15.30
b.	Preparing cattle feeds and feeding the animals	25	25.51
c.	Cleaning animals and cattle shed	32	32.65
d.	Taking care of sick animals	10	10.20
e.	Arrangement of drinking water for animals	17	17.34
f.	Collecting fodder for animals	45	45.91
g.	Supervision of farm labourers' work	19	19.38
h.	Working in kitchen garden	30	30.61
i.	Maintaining poultry birds	9	9.18
j.	Calf rearing and care	42	42.85
k.	Female labour management and their payment	19	19.38
l.	Collection of fire wood	35	35.71
m.	Cleaning of house	94	95.91
n.	Cleaning of utensils and clothes	87	88.77
o.	Cleaning grains and its storage	75	76.53

Besides farm activities, the farm women also carried out the allied farm activities like preparation of cattle feeds and feeding animals (25%), cleaning animals and cat-tlesheds (33%), collecting fodder for animals (46%), kitchen gardening (31%), rearing calf (43%), etc. Not only this, but the primary activities of home management were also attended to by farm women in respect of cleaning house (96%), cleaning utensils and clothes (89%), cleaning grains and its storage (76%) and collection of fire wood (36%).

### The decision-making

The role of farm women was also studied in the decision-making process. The areas of decision-making and the activities thereon are given in Table 2. The replies were numerous in many of the decision-making areas.

It is observed that farm women played active role in the decision-making regarding areas of crops to be sown (41%) and participated in the decision-making of selecting the

**Table 2**  
**Involvement of farm women in decision-making**

Sr. No.	Work	N=98	Per cent
<b>1. Cropping pattern</b>			
a.	Area to be sown under crops	40	40.81
b.	Selection of varieties	30	30.61
<b>2. Land preparation</b>			
a.	Stubble collection	82	83.67
b.	Application of manures	45	45.91
c.	Cleaning of field boundaries	40	40.81
<b>3. Sowing</b>			
a.	Time of sowing	35	35.71
b.	Place of sowing	31	31.63
c.	Cleaning of seeds	75	76.53
<b>4. Decision-making at cultivation stage</b>			
a.	Irrigation	21	21.42
b.	Thinning and gap filling	50	51.02
c.	Weeding	80	81.63
d.	Watching of standing crops	20	20.40
e.	Application of fertilizers	15	15.30
f.	Spraying	35	35.71
g.	Dusting	31	31.63
<b>5. Harvesting</b>			
a.	Reaping the crops	61	62.24
b.	Collection and to heap the crops	57	58.16
c.	Threshing grains	55	56.12

d. winnowing operations	51	52.04
e. Drying and cleaning grains	60	61.22
f. Storage and treatment to grains	65	66.32
g. Storage and treatment to grains and seeds	35	35.71
h. Grading farm produce	45	45.91
<b>6. Allied agricultural activities</b>		
a. Milking the milch animals	20	20.40
b. Preparing cattle feeds and feeding animals	35	35.71
c. Cleaning animals and cattle shed	25	25.51
d. Taking care of sick animals	15	15.30
e. Arrangement of drinking water for animals	35	35.71
f. Collecting fodder for animals	52	53.06
g. Working in kitchen gardens	32	32.65
h. Maintaining poultry birds	6	6.12
i. Calf rearing and care	48	48.97
j. Female labour management and their payment	26	26.53
k. Collection of fire wood	35	35.71
l. Cleaning of house	98	100.00
m. Cleaning of utensils and clothes	98	100.00
n. Cleaning of grains and its storage	98	100.00

varieties of crops (31%) also. In land preparation process, the farm women took the decision mostly in stubble collection (84%), application of manures (46%) and cleaning of field boundaries (41%).

The active role of farm women was also observed in case of time of sowing (36%), place of sowing (32%) and were largely involved in the seed cleaning.

During the cultivation of crops on farms, the major decision areas of the farm women were regarding weeding operations (82%), thinning and gap filling (51%). Though not less, the farm women also had some role to play in the decision-making about spraying (36%), dusting (32%), irrigation (21%) and crop watching (20%).

Harvesting activities involved the decision of more than 60 per cent farm women in reaping the crops (62%), storage and treatment to grains (66%), drying and cleaning the grains (61%). More than half of the farm women had active role to play in the decision-making in respect of collection and heaping of the crops (58%), threshing grains (56%) and winnowing operations (52%). A sufficient proportion of 46 per cent and 36 per cent farm women took part in the taking of decision regarding grading farm produce and its storage and treatment to grain and seeds. This finding is supported by Bhagat (1980) and Sirohi Seema (1985) who interpreted that any innovation in agriculture or nutrition education

should be introduced through women for quick and effective adoption.

In the allied agricultural activities when observed, it was found that the farm women had significant role to play in the decision-making. Their involvement was in the preparation of cattle feeds (36%), arrangement of drinking water for animals (36%), collecting fodder for animals (53%) and rearing of cattle (49%). Not only this, 26 per cent farm women managed the female labours on their farms. Besides, numerically all the farm women acted in the decisions-making process relating to the cleaning of house, cleaning of utensils and clothes and in the cleaning of grains and its storage.

The study was also directed at ascertaining the difficulties faced by farm women while performing the agricultural activities. The difficulties were mainly related to money, labour, irrigation and inputs and are given in Table 3.

**Table 3**  
Difficulties faced by farm women while performing agricultural activities

Sr. No.	Difficulties faced	N = 98	Per cent
1.	Inadequate loans	96	97.95
2.	High cost of production of the crops	97	98.97
3.	Labour problems		
	a. Unavailability of labours	80	81.63
	b. Lack of skilled labours	38	38.77
4.	Irrigation facilities not available	31	31.63
5.	Inadequate irrigation water	74	75.51
6.	Non-availability of improved seeds at proper time	30	30.61

### Insufficient loans

The financial difficulties regarding inadequacy of loans were recorded by ninety-eight per cent farm women. While dealing with this aspect, they said that the cost of production of the crops was more than the loans they received. Regarding labour problems, 82 per cent farm women said that they did not get sufficient number of farm labours for carrying out the farm operations at the required time. This finding is supported by Malaviya A and Seema Rani (1988) whose study highlighted that women labour have low level of expectation from their landlords in terms of wages, working

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# Development of rural women — problems & alternatives

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**G**ENERALLY A WOMEN'S IDENTITY tends to be defined by herself as well as by others in terms of her relationship with men: as a daughter, as a wife, as a mother. Women have been made dependent by men and by the social milieu that has been created for them. It emanates from caste, class, patriarchy and sexuality of the male. Meenakshi Mukherjee observes that social conformity has always been more obligatory for a woman than for men.

## The widening gap

The gap between men and women is widening. The major areas of hiatus between them are, for example, in literacy, education and training, women's employment, female mortality, health care and medical services. Female mortality is higher than that of male. Women are lagging far behind men in these areas because of India's social and cultural heritage and strong tradition of patriarchy and male domination.\*

## Needs profile

**A**T THE POLICY LEVEL, there is a need to accept that women's needs are varied. As per a Government of India Report (1988), poor women can be divided into three categories on the basis of their needs.

1. Destitutes, disabled and handicapped women who want social assistance rather than income/employment-generating programmes;

2. Women (mainly belonging to the poorer sections) who are neither willing nor capable of taking up self-employment programmes and who want wage employment;
3. Women who have skill/education/literacy/enterprise to take up self-employment programmes.

In order to promote a definite social identity and equality, women need to be empowered through collective reflection and decision-making. The parameters of empowerment are:

- Building a positive self-image and self-confidence;
- Developing ability to think critically;
- Building up group cohesion and fostering decision-making and action;
- Ensuring equal participation in the process of bringing about social change;
- Encouraging group action in order to bring about change in the society; and
- Providing the wherewithal for economic independence.

## Employment

Women play an important role in agricultural produc-

tion, animal husbandry and other related activities such as storage and marketing of produce, food processing, etc. Apart from these, they spend almost 10-12 hours per day doing household chores including fetching of water and gathering of fuel. About 54 per cent of rural women and 26 per cent of urban women are engaged in marginal occupations in order to supplement the family income. An ILO study has estimated that the value of unpaid household work constitutes 25-39 per cent of the total gross national product in the developing countries.

According to the 1981 Census only 14 per cent of the total female population in the country fall in the category of 'workers'. The sectoral distribution of workers (1981) shows that a majority of the women (81.6 per cent) were in the primary sector covering agriculture, plantations, forestry, etc. followed by the secondary sector (8.9 per cent) and tertiary sector (7.5 per cent). The percentages of male workers in both the secondary and tertiary sectors in 1981 were 13.9 and 19.9 respectively.

Problems faced by women workers in rural areas are altogether different from those in the urban areas. Women workers in rural areas are largely landless agricultural labourers; members of households with uneconomic holdings; those engaged in traditional household industries like hand-spinning, hand-weaving, oil pressing, rice pounding, leather, tobacco processing, etc. These household industries, which are predominantly female labour-intensive and which have been a major source of employment in villages, appear to have declined in importance during the post-Independence period.

The share of rural women as wage labourers in agriculture rose from 25.6 per cent in 1961 to 49.6 per cent in 1981, though the share of agriculture in the total national income declined from 60.5 per cent in 1951-56 to 33 per cent in 1985-88 causing stagnation in real wages and available man-days. Employment area for women is restricted by (a) increase in landless households and female labour; (b) adverse impact of farm technology; (c) decline in jobs in industry, trade and services; (d) restrictions on women's access to resources (like land, credit, skills and technology); (e) negative attitudes to working women by women themselves, by men and the society at large; (f) inadequate educational and training opportunities for women; (g) inaccessibility to information and career guidance; (h) household and child-rearing responsibilities; and (i) lack of situational support.

In wage employment programmes, the steps needed include: (a) Increase in the size of the programmes; (b)

ensuring continuous work to women workers on productive assets; (c) design of programmes in relation to the specific needs and preferences of poor women; (d) provision of drinking water, creches, and worksheds; and (e) regular payment of wages at the stipulated rates. It is necessary to impart them training to improve their skills. The emphasis of training has been on knitting, sewing, embroidery and possibly animal husbandry. This has neither led to any increase in the employment of women nor enhanced their remuneration.

### Credit, raw material and marketing

**T**HERE ARE PROBLEMS FACED BY WOMEN in self-employment and informal sectors like lack of access to raw materials, credit and marketing facilities and inadequate knowledge of the market demands. Often, the end product lacks the finishing touch and the eye for detail is missing thus eroding profit margins. Women are further handicapped by lack of child care facilities, incongenial work place with poor ventilation and lighting facilities, poor skills and lack of training. They tend to get exploited by the middlemen and have to pay exorbitant rates of interest on the small loans that they manage to get. In such a situation, women doing their own accounting work get gradually weeded out.

### Case

**V**EGETABLE VENDORS IN AHMEDABAD are not allowed to travel by city transport buses with their produce. Therefore, they have to walk long distances from the wholesale market to the city market with heavy loads, or pay Rs. 10 by scooter which comes to half of their day's earning. Asked what their priority was, they unanimously said 'Do tokri ki jagaah' (Govt. of India, 1988).

Women are marginalised either because of class handicaps such as illiteracy, lack of information and low self-confidence or gender handicaps such as attitudinal discrimination, low mobility and lack of asset ownership. The non-institutional money-lender is a source for both consumption and production credit. Banks are still very much a taboo. IRDP, DRI and SEPUP do not even average a 20 per cent coverage of women borrowers.

Women are over-concentrated in low-productivity, low-skilled jobs with lower and discriminatory wages. The National Commission on Self-Employed Women noted that the wages given to women are one half or even less than that of males. It said even cooperatives and government sector

do the same. The Commission suggested the setting up of an Equal Opportunities Commission like MRTP Commission to investigate discrimination against women.

Among the poverty alleviation programmes, atleast 33 per cent of beneficiaries under TRYSEM and 30 per cent under IRDP have to be women. There are a number of schemes for the uplift of women like Awareness Generation Camps by CSWB, ICDS and Support for Training and Employment Programme (STEP) by the Union Department of Women and Child Development, etc. besides DWCRA. While IRDP goes by household approach, DWCRA and others promote collective empowerment approach. However their outreach is limited.

During the Seventh Five-Year Plan (1985-90), against the target of 30 per cent coverage of women under IRDP, only 18 per cent of the beneficiaries were women. Similarly, against a target of 64482 lakh mandays of employment generation for women under NREP, only 3540.05 lakh mandays of employment was provided to women constituting 17.7 per cent of total employment generated during 1985-90. However, in case of TRYSEM beneficiaries, against the target of 30 per cent coverage for women, the achievement was higher at 44.8 per cent during 1985-90.

Women, particularly in rural areas, are involved in the collection of fuel and fodder. With the process of deforestation, this task has become more strenuous as women have to walk longer distances to collect fuel. The problem of drinking water is very acute. Poor women have to spend a number of hours everyday in walking long distances and straining themselves to fetch water.

### Training

**T**RAINING OF POOR WOMEN AS WELL AS extension workers dealing with women is necessary to change the social thinking and attitudes which are detrimental to women. Women, even if they are literate, mostly do not have the training which could help them to expand their existing ventures or start new ones for which they need skills in marketing, in acquiring credit, maintenance of accounts and in project formulation. Curricular module should be prepared to train women through various channels and encourage the growth of entrepreneurship, technical skills, general awareness and knowledge.

### Impact of policies

**T**HE COMMITTEE ON STATUS OF WOMEN (1975) noted that the anti-discrimination approach, stress on education, legal equality and franchise as major instruments for women's development have failed.

The setting up of women development and finance corporations, departments of women development and reservations in anti-poverty schemes and new schemes of grant-in-aid are yet to lead to perceptible changes in the empowerment and status of women though they extended economic or social assistance to women beneficiaries. Representation of women in state legislatures and Parliament continues to be low. There are contradictions within legal system as among customary laws, coded laws and statutory laws as well as between personal laws governing women's ownership of property, inheritance and succession, preventing access of women to rights and productive resources. It is the non-governmental sector, unfettered by red-tape and paternalism, that holds out a brighter hope for development and improvement in the status of women provided it receives adequate support.

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# Rural Development thro' cooperatives

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**C**OOPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN INDIA has not lived upto expectations, but every one says that it should succeed. The failure or success of the movement has to be judged in the way in which our cooperatives are organised and functioning. The societies which have achieved success are not too many in our country. But such societies have a message to transmit to the nation that cooperatives are the real potent instruments to change the face of rural areas. In fact, it is pointed out that cooperatives in our country have a vital role to play in improving the overall rural scenario. Though the cooperatives are recognised as change agents in rural India, yet their progress so far has been far from satisfactory. However, there are certain cooperative societies which have achieved tremendous success in catering to the needs of rural people, but their number can be counted on fingers in our country. Yet not much effort has been made to study such societies in depth to examine the factors which contributed to such a success. One such successful society is Gattududdenapalli Large Sized Cooperative Credit Society located in Krimnagar district of Andhra Pradesh. This society has a message to convey to the country that cooperatives will never fail if they are properly managed under the direction of dedicated, devoted and disciplined leadership.

An attempt has been made in this paper to highlight the factors responsible for the success of this society.

## Genesis and services

**T**HIS SOCIETY WAS ESTABLISHED in the year 1959. The members of the society have acquired tremendous

self-confidence over a period of time to manage their own affairs. This society, which started functioning with an initial strength of 275 members, a share capital Rs. 17,000, a lending amount of Rs. 47,000 and a net profit of just Rs. 1,000, has achieved a spectacular growth with 1061 members, share capital of Rs. 7.43 lakhs, a total turnover of Rs. 168.73 lakhs and netting a profit of Rs. 1.03 lakhs in the year 1986-87.

Multifarious services are rendered by this Society. Important among them are provision of short-term and medium-term loans at the right time, supply of quality seeds, fertilisers and plant protection chemicals in time, supply of electric motors and other agricultural implements, purchase of paddy and maize and sell the same after processing, distribution of essential commodities to weaker sections through fair price shops, supply of poultry feed to the members, deposit mobilisation from members and finally running training programmes for their members.

## Progress of the society

**M**EMBERSHIP: AS INDICATED EARLIER, the membership of the society has increased from 275 in 1959 to 1099 in the year 1985-86. But this number fell to 813 in 1988-89 due to disqualification of many members as a consequence of increase of share capital from Rs. 10 to Rs. 100 and also due to separation of one village from the area of operation of this society.

## Share capital

The share capital of this society increased from a mere Rs. 17,000 in 1959-60 to Rs. 8.63 lakhs in 1988-89. Similarly, the reserve fund and deposits have also increased. The total

to Rs. 89.35 lakh. In the year 1987-88, the Society witnessed the record total sales from Rs. 44.00 lakh in 1978-79 to Rs. 138.39 lakh. It is also encouraging its members to take up seed multiplication by supplying the foundation seed and at

Table I  
Internal Funds

Particulars	1959-60	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84	1984-85	1985-86	1986-87	(Rupees in Lakhs)	
											1987-88	1988-89
1. Members	275	779	914	969	1004	1043	1074	1092	1099	1052	1061	813
2. Member's share capital	0.17	1.73	1.87	2.19	2.79	3.03	3.41	4.01	4.28	4.53	7.43	8.68
3. Other's share capital	—	1.45	1.63	1.52	2.82	1.91	4.30	4.19	1.58	1.47	2.36	2.92
4. Reserve fund	—	0.38	0.41	0.44	0.47	0.72	1.01	1.01	2.00	2.01	2.10	2.12
5. Depreciation reserve	—	2.32	2.59	3.00	3.75	5.16	6.49	7.84	9.90	11.31	11.34	13.24
6. Other reserves and funds	—	1.62	1.62	1.63	1.73	1.75	2.41	2.50	4.08	4.34	9.93	18.33
7. Members' thrift	—	0.21	0.20	0.21	0.19	0.29	1.05	1.49	2.22	3.65	5.06	7.04
8. Members' deposits	—	0.36	0.91	0.46	0.19	0.41	0.90	1.33	1.77	3.38	4.42	9.02
9. Others' deposits	—	—	—	—	—	0.50	1.40	1.20	0.93	0.61	0.27	0.17
Internal funds (2+4+5+6+7+8)	0.17	6.62	7.60	7.93	9.12	11.36	15.27	18.17	24.26	29.22	40.27	61.35

internal funds of the society increased from Rs. 17,000 in 1959-60 to Rs. 61.35 lakhs in 1988-89. All these particulars over a period of time are given in Table I.

**Business transactions.** The Gattuddanapalli Large-Sized Cooperative Credit Society Ltd., has been providing short-term and medium-term loans in time every year. During the year of its inception (1959-60), the Society advanced short-term loans worth Rs. 0.47 lakhs; but during the later year loans disbursed for various agricultural and allied activities had increased to Rs. 34.20 lakhs in the year 1988-89. The Society is not only providing cash credit to its members but also supplying production inputs like quality seeds, fertilizers and pesticides in time. The inputs sold by the Society increased from Rs. 19.12 lakh in 1978-79 to Rs. 28.15 lakh in 1988-89. The consumer goods sold by the Society also increased progressively from Rs. 89,000 in 1978-79 to Rs. 13.23 lakhs in 1988-89. During the same period the output marketed increased from Rs. 24.09 lakh

the same time procuring the graded seeds to market them to N.F.C., Andhra Pradesh Small Scale Development Corporation and other private seed companies. The society is paying a bonus of Rs. 10 per quintal over and above the market price if the members sell the produce, specially paddy and maize, to the Society for the repayment of loans which they availed of earlier for crop production. The procured products, i.e., paddy, after milling, is being sold by the society to the State Government as per the levy rules and disposing off the remaining rice in the free market. The procured maize is mainly used as an ingredient in manufacturing poultry feed. The Gattuddanapalli Large-sized Cooperative Credit Society is also advancing medium-term loans for the purchase of electric motors and accessories to its members and to start dairy and poultry units for small farmers in collaboration with the Small Farmers Development Agency.

The Society is supplying on hire cranes to its members



for deepending of irrigation wells at reasonable charges. It has two lorries and a van which are utilised for transporting inputs and farm products, and for bringing essential commodities to fair price shops respectively. These vehicles are being provided to the members of the Society on hire. The Society is selling essential commodities like rice, sugar, kerosene, etc. through its three fair price shops. It is also procuring eggs from its members and selling them at distant markets like Nagpur at one paise profit margin on each egg.

**Loans and recoveries:** The society has advanced a modest sum of Rs. 47,000 during its first year of operation,

actions of the Society estimated per member are given in Table III on the next page. The performance of the Society can be judged in a better way by studying the progress of different items of business per member. It is to be noted that there was no variety of business except lending short-term credit to its members during 1959-60. But the society took up varied businesses activities during later years. It is observed from the Table that the share capital per member rose from Rs. 222 in 1978-79 to Rs. 1067 in 1988-89. During the same period the thrift deposit increased from Rs. 73 to Rs. 1975, inputs sold per member from Rs. 2,455 to Rs. 3,462. Similarly, the consumer goods sold per member in-

**Table II**  
**Business Transactions**

Sl. No.	Particulars	(Rupees in Lakhs)											
		1959-60	1978-89	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84	1984-85	1985-86	1986-87	1987-88	1988-89
1.	Inputs	—	19.12	17.87	20.14	22.43	21.34	28.82	27.75	24.73	17.66	20.68	28.15
2.	Consumer goods sold	—	0.89	0.62	0.54	0.84	2.87	2.66	4.75	8.52	14.03	16.44	13.23
3.	Output marketed	—	23.99	15.66	25.20	23.65	31.76	58.51	61.86	53.30	56.54	101.27	89.35
4.	Total sales (1+2+3)	—	44.00	34.15	45.88	46.92	55.97	89.99	94.36	86.55	88.23	138.39	130.73
5.	Hire charges	—	—	0.04	0.10	0.76	1.40	1.23	1.47	1.37	1.25	1.32	1.26
6.	Loans recovered	0.47	12.22	9.76	16.38	11.94	19.01	23.22	31.98	20.46	27.09	24.99	32.82
7.	Loans disbursed	0.47	14.66	16.05	24.49	15.16	17.96	22.18	27.31	16.17	28.85	30.34	34.21
	Total business (4+5+6)	0.47	56.22	43.95	62.36	59.62	76.38	114.44	127.81	108.38	116.57	164.70	164.81

i.e., 1959-60 and it rose to Rs. 34.20 lakhs in 1988-89. As for as recoveries are concerned the Society could recover the entire amount during the first year and the percentage of recoveries have ranged between 60.82 per cent and 126.52 per cent since then. From 1982-83 to 1985-86, the recoveries recorded were 105.85 per cent to 126.52 per cent as overdues were paid to the Society by its members. These overdues pertained mainly to the poultry finance. The particulars of business transactions are presented in Table II above :

**Per member business transaction:** The business trans-

creased from Rs. 114 in 1978-79 to Rs. 1627 in 1988-89. It is quite interesting to note that the output marketed per member also increased from Rs. 3080 to Rs. 10990 during the same period. The sales per member showed a tremendous increase from Rs. 5649 to Rs. 16080 during the period mentioned above. The loans disbursed and recovered per member increased from Rs. 1835 to Rs. 4208 and from Rs. 1569 to Rs. 4037 respectively during the same period. The total business turnover per member thus showed a three-fold increase during the above period. It increased from Rs. 7218 in 1978-79 to Rs. 20272 in 1988-89.

TABLE III  
Per member average

Particulars	(In rupees)											
	1959-60	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84	1984-85	1985-86	1986-87	1987-88	1988-89
Per member share capital	61	222	205	226	278	291	318	367	390	430	700	1067
Per member thrift and deposits	—	73	121	69	38	68	182	258	364	668	894	1975
Per member inputs sold	—	2455	1955	2079	2234	2047	2683	2541	2250	1679	1949	3462
Per member consumer goods	—	114	68	56	84	275	247	435	775	1334	1549	1629
Per member output marketed	—	3080	1713	2601	2356	3045	5448	5665	4850	5375	9545	10990
Per member sales	—	5649	3736	4736	4673	5366	8379	8641	7875	8387	13043	16080
Per member loan disbursed	170	1882	1756	2528	1511	1722	2065	2501	1472	2743	2859	4208
Per member loan recovered	—	1569	1068	1690	1189	1823	2162	2928	1862	2575	2356	4037
Per member hire charges	—	—	4	11	76	135	115	135	124	119	124	154
Per member business	—	7218	4809	6437	5938	7324	10655	11704	9862	11081	15524	20272

### Achievements of the Society

**WITH NO ASSETS TO THE CREDIT** of the society during the initial year, i.e., 1959-60, the Society has built up fixed assets as well as movable assets over the years. During the year 1963-64, the society purchased an area of 2.01 acres of land and further increased its extent to 4.0 acres, where it has built its office, rice mill, poultry-feed mixing plant, seed processing unit and other godowns valued at Rs. 26.29 lakhs.

The society has also laid the foundation stone to build its first godown in the year 1959-60. Action was initiated for the sale of electric motors in 1961-62 and for the lending of medium term loans for the purchase of electric motors in 1962-63. Rice mill with one tonne capacity started functioning during 1966-67 with the financial help from N.C.D.C., which was modernised during 1978-79. The year 1966-67 was of special significance to the Society as it opened its first fair price shop and started purchasing paddy from members. During 1974-75, the Society opened three more godowns which were built in 18 months period and located at different villages of the Society's operational area. The Society was given permits by the Government of Andhra Pradesh to export rice to other States during 1975-76 for the first time.

The Gattududdenapalli Society was adjudged as the best society in the district of Karimnagar for the year 1980-81. Three fair price shops were opened in its own building during 1981-82. The year 1983-84 was of special significance to the Society as it celebrated its Silver Jubilee and was adjudged as the best Society by the 'SAMAKYA' of Hyderabad among its member societies for the year 1982-83. During the same year, the society — inaugurated its sixth godown, wherein a seed processing unit was started.

The society is deputing its staff members for advanced training and re-orientation to cooperative institutions periodically. It is conducting periodical classes for its members to imbibe the principles cooperation.

### Factors for Society's success

**THE FOREGOING ANALYSIS** of the functioning of the Society clearly indicates that it has achieved significant success. This warrants replication of such societies so as to make the cooperative movement a grand success. The factors responsible for the success of the Gattududdenapalli Society are: (1) dedicated, devoted, disciplined and selfless leadership of its successive presidents

(Contd. on page 38)



### How direct is 'Direct Attack on Poverty'!

It is a fact that rural development is not delivering something 'to' the people but it is 'with' and 'through' them. Hence the participation of the people is not only desirable but that is the essence of it. Where do the anti-poverty measures aiming at directly attacking poverty stand in this people-centred development? Of all the anti-poverty measures IRDP (Integrated Rural Development Projects) demands due attention. The main thrust of it is to provide assets to the beneficiaries (poorest of the poor!) in order to enable them to cross the poverty line. Most of the studies on the evaluation of IRDP have shown that the real beneficiaries, i.e., the poor, whose poverty it is aimed to attack directly, haven't benefited. Few could realize that this is the inevitable, though unintended, consequence of the inegalitarian socio-economic structure. In a highly differentiated power structure, strongly disfavoured the poor, any developmental attempt at reaching these people directly through different measures like distributing assets, would tend to fizzle out.

Hence, the long-term aim of rural development in reducing inequality through the laudable concept of 'direct attack on poverty' hasn't materialized. Moreover, by helping the people in distributing assets (even if it reaches them) it would not make their position in the present structure any different in the long-run.

How about utilizing the cost involved in IRDP in educating the people and, secondly, strengthening the Panchayatiraj institution which would certainly promote the involvement of the people in rural development? Is it a direct attempt at rural development?

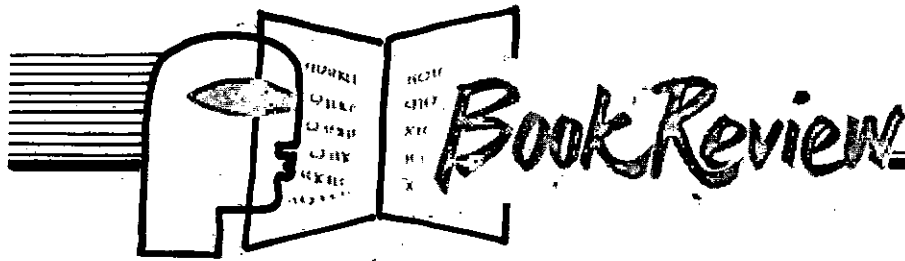
— ARIMA MISHRA  
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### First tackle poverty of action

How happy do we feel pointing accusing fingers at failures of rural development in picking up, without knowing or defining "Rural-Development". We find scholars jumbling their thought processes down with 'poverty', 'IRDP', 'Garibi Hatao', 'distribution of income', 'gaps of: poverty-line-level and the poorman's income' — too many norms! Instead of wasting too many years in lollipopping, would it not have been better if we had devoted ourselves to doing practical (field) work in outlined areas, as for example, land reforms? (We could have borrowed Japanese line of action rather than feed our masses on false hopes of implementation.) Maybe, by now we would have achieved something that could pale the poverty-line into obscurity rather than living as pop-singers of 'Garibi-Hatao', 'Poverty-Mitao', 'Rozgar-Badhao' [by promising providing menial-manual work] Maybe our thoughts had been rich but (directionlessly) we have not been able to alleviate the poverty of our actions and performance. Can 'rural employment' not go beyond 'Jawahar Rozgar Yojana' in government-sponsored programmes? Can there be assurance of provision of work to the work-seeking workless poor (please don't mention "guarantee")? Can there be more efforts on "target-" or "beneficiary-development", than on "channel-development" for reaching it? Without all this, what would be the impact of 'trickle-down' effect?

Can we blame 'rural-development' not picking up with our action-frozen efforts?

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**RURAL POVERTY AND UNEMPLOYMENT** By Bepin Behari. Published by Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., 576 Masjid Road, Jangpura, New Delhi 110 014; First published: 1990; Pages 387; Price Rs. 350.

The twelve chapters of this book deal with nearly all the major aspects of rural life, its economy, the various problems and their solutions. While the description is lucid, the author has strenuously tried to make the content non-technical for the benefit of all concerned in rural development.

Today, a major segment of the poor in the country lives in rural areas and this comprises landless agricultural labour, small and marginal farmers and village artisans. Tracing the challenge of poverty alleviation in historical retrospect, the author laments that the actual impact of land reforms had been far from satisfactory on the country. Dilating on the failure of cooperativisation of land, the author noted that despite the fact that Jawaharlal Nehru had an article of faith in the cooperative farming, he had his own limitations of inexperience in social relationships. As such his inability to comprehend the several related problems with the reform stood in the way. Also, the failure of land reforms programme in transforming the village life by destroying its organic relationship with nature and introducing modern style of industrialised living as in several centrally directed economies arose due to the absence of an integrated approach to the task of rural economic regeneration.

The chapter on quantification of poverty level discusses thoroughly the views of different authorities and the estimates made by them on the poverty level in India from time to time. The author draws certain conclusions from these. He finds that a large chunk of Indian population, specially in rural areas, is still below the poverty line showing its inability to meet its basic requirements. This proportion can be as high as 50 per cent, if not higher.

On the issue of employment generation in the rural

areas, the author analyses the various pros and cons in conjunction with technological supports. He points out that *Gandhian Utopia* woven around the trusteeship concept was neither worked out in detail, nor was it given an operational status. Stressing upon the fact that solution of rural unemployment requires an innate urge among the village community to generate adequate work opportunities for the local population, the author gives examples of a number of countries – China, Taiwan, Korea and Israel – where such efforts have succeeded. Here, in India, "The government support to programmes and institutional assistance accorded to rural development as a matter of fact, instead of arousing the spirit of local initiative and enterprise, have actually benumbed them and the village population have begun to consider these aids as political succour instead of catalyst for their developmental efforts."

Elsewhere the author has quite elaborately discussed the nature and extent of rural unemployment prevailing in India. An interesting observation made by him is that the establishment and development of small scale units did not create a large number of self-employed workers. "The new small industrialists having got secured-market, easy capital and assured profit, have emerged as a new industrial elite creating a new social stratification which is not necessarily leading to the egalitarian goal." As for khadi and village industries development and their various programmes, it is pointed out that they have not made any substantial impact on rural development. "The employment covered by the khadi and village industries programmes worked out to only 1.75 per cent of the total artisans in the various sectors." It is said that the amount spent on khadi and village industries programme has been unrelated to its achievements. It has also deviated from its original Gandhian objective, while its organisational structure has become very unwieldy and non-profitable.

The author makes a strong plea for evolving a radically new strategy to eradicate rural poverty. He would like some new innovative programmes based on experiences and critical evaluation of the past area development programmes to be taken up. In the programme of industrial liberalisation,

the labour and industrial inputs should be drawn mainly from within the rural district. The government should provide wage subsidy to the extent of 20 per cent of the wages paid in the form of non-food items of consumption.

An important observation made by the author is that technological innovations are not required merely for cheapening the cost of production or for accelerating the pace of development. "The technological adaptations need not disrupt the existing socio-economic organisation of the rural community. The technology should be adapted in such a way that it generated greater employment, enabled the artisans to earn higher income and provide them greater opportunities for enjoying the amenities of life. This needs psychological as well as technological orientation in a new way." Perhaps, no one could disagree with the author on this point.

— NAVIN CHANDRA JOSHI

**WHEN IN INDIA: A STATISTICAL PANORAMA;** by Prabhash Prasad Singh; Inter-India Publications, New Delhi; pp 597; Price-Rs. 580.

The significance of the role of women in society needs no reiteration. In India they account for almost half of the country's population. Throughout the ages their part has been decisive in shaping not only the country's progress in all spheres but also in giving it a certain direction. But with our vast and enormous population the problems here are special in character and qualitatively different in each region.

Mere generalisation can hardly be helpful in dealing with the subject of progress in improving the condition of women in this country where it has undergone changes all the time. A valuable aid to the understanding of the problems affecting their development is by means of statistical tabulation and evaluation.

The book in hand is an attempt to provide an insight in to the amelioration of the sufferings of in this country teeming with regional variations through a statistical panorama.

The author is fully equipped in training and vocation to undertake this difficult task. Dr. Prabhash P. Singh, a graduate in Library Science, has worked on an Area Study Bibliography, a notable project of the ICCSR. An Assistant Librarian at the A.N.S. Institute of Social Sciences, Patna, he provides in this work an overall study of the subject through 335 tables. The latest statistics on the various aspects of women's life in the national mainstream has thus been brought into the focus.

An attempt has been made here to cover almost all facets of the subject such as population, vital statistics, education, labour, employment, wages, health and welfare. Dr. Singh has taken care to include certain other aspects generally being ignored in such studies. The sphere of politics and the opportunities for participation in the nation's decision-making process available to women is among the important facets not adequately brought to light so far but now receiving attention of this author.

Among the other sections that he has done well to highlight are women's share in planned programmes; in the distribution of national and international awards and their subjection to a multitude of crimes as well as their own involvement in the incidence of crimes. What makes the study immensely valuable is Dr. Singh's explanatory introduction to the tabulations under each section.

The introductory comments, in fact, serve the highly useful purpose of acquainting the reader with the nature and the distinctive characteristics of the varied problems of women's advancement and welfare under each facet of life analysed by the author. For instance, under the section on plans and programmes, the major areas for women's development as defined by the Planning Commission are briefly outlined in perspective. This is followed by a set of seventeen tables giving statistical details of analysis through charts of figures illustrating the studies made by the author.

An attempt has been made through statistical analysis furnished here to clearly bring out the sex disparities in each area of national life. The observations made by the author in his preface on the harsh reality of inequalities suffered by women are lucidly illustrated in the tabulations. As pointed out by him, it is evident that the status of women in India is indeed and unfortunately far below than what it ought to be in a modernising society. The survey set forth in the book exposes this reality in the levels and degrees of the integration of women into the social, political and economic life of the nation.

The author's findings, however, do not make it a picture of unreveled gloom. The silver lining comes glimmering in the progressive and now irreversible phenomenon of an increase in the number of women in very field of the mainstream of national life. It has, as Dr. Singh says, "raised the curtain on an invisible dimension in the pattern of inequalities of the national and international decision-making process."

This carefully prepared volume on women in India goes a long way in understanding their present position in society as the nation is almost poised to enter the Twenty-first

Century. It also helps in drawing up plans and formulating programmes and services for a greater participation by women in the various fields of national endeavour.

While the main focus of this study is on overall statistics on an all-India basis, inter-state figures have also been added wherever necessary. A separate chapter at the end is devoted to international comparisons. This, however, brings us to the important question of the desirability or otherwise of looking to the models of other countries. Would it not be advisable to adapt our institutions to the ethos in which our country and people have been rooted all through?

It would be well to note that Mrs. Indira Gandhi gave a fresh and vigorous orientation to the regenerating programmes of planned progress with accent on women's

*(Contd. from page 27)*

conditions, interpersonal relationship and recognition of their work. According to them, this happened because of large out-migration from village Fetri to industrial city Nagpur. Thirty-nine per cent of the farm women have mentioned that they did not get the skilled labour as per the requirement of farm operations and they were required to get the work done through unskilled labour resulting in uneconomic or less profitable from farm operations. Though not less, 32 per cent of the farm women have also mentioned that they were working on unirrigated lands and hence they had no farm work all the year round on their own farms. Those who had irrigation facilities (75%), have expressed that they had insufficient well irrigation water for growing crops throughout the year. It is, therefore, necessary that Government agencies approach the area under study for exploring the possibilities of supplying soil water and advising them to dig up the tube wells at the desired spots. It was also mentioned by the farm women that there

*(Contd. from page 34)*

particularly, Sri Malla Reddy; (2) organising and providing timely supplies and services to its members; (3) undertaking of non-credit activities and extending services to the members for their agriculture and allied activities; (4) imparting training in cooperation and agricultural practices to members; (5) cooperative spirit of the members of the society; and (6) committed august body of management and well-experienced personnel at the helm of affairs.

active participation. She had always insisted that our planners should pay heed to the country's cultural roots in formulating their schemes.

In assessing this study it would, therefore, be worthwhile to bear in mind that women in India can provide a new breakthrough to their development by taking the fullest advantage of the spate of progressive legislation of recent years. The time has come for women to brace themselves to the emerging forces unleashed by the process of modernisation and industrialisation. And in this renaissance they can pin their faith on the fullest cooperation and active participation of the other half of their fellow citizens. This book 'WOMEN IN INDIA' provides valuable factual material to those engaged in this progressive task.

— M.K. DHARMA RAJA

was difficulty in getting improved seeds at proper time in the village. If sale purchase society in the village and Gram Panchayat tackle this issue, their efforts are likely to improve the situation.

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#### Conclusion

**G**ATTUDUDDENAPALLI LARGE-SIZED Cooperative Credit Society has clearly demonstrated that, if cooperatives are to be successful, they have to cater to all the needs of the rural people in an integrated way through devoted leadership, dedicated management, disciplined members and cooperative spirit among them. The future of rural India lies in the cooperatives and to make this dream a reality, we need many more "Gattududdenapalli Societies" and "Malla Reddys" □



