UTILISING RURAL INFRASTRUCTURE FOR STIMULATING BETTER HOME AND FAMILY LIVING

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A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS
IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

FEBRUARY, 1982

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author conveys her immense sense of gratitude to Dr.(Tmt.) Rajammal P.Devadas, M.A.,M.Sc.,Ph.D.(Ohio State), D.Sc.,(Madras), Director, Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College for Women, Coimbatore for her deep insight, scintillating inspiration, stimulation and continuous, tireless guidance in planning and monitoring this action research. Indeed, her personal touch and interest in this venture have been incommensurable. The author is highly indebted to her guide for the meticulous care, she had extended in the preparation of this manuscript.

The author records here reverential gratitude to Sri T.S.Avinashilingam, the Founder President of Sri Avinashilingam Education Trust Institutions and the architect of rural development planning by the institution, for his vision and inspiration, motivating her to serve and grow.

Thanks are extended to each and everyone of the officials and heads of institutions contacted during the planning and implementation of this project, for their interest, commitment and timely help in materialising the action plans contemplated.

The author wishes to express her deep sense of appreciation and gratitude to the participating community in the project villages for their heart warming response to the various action programmes initiated.

The author thanks Dr.(Tmt) Godavari Kamalanathan, Principal, Sri Avinashilingam Home Science (Autonomous) College for Women, Coimbatore for her encouragement.

She acknowledges with gratitude the valuable suggestions and help rendered by Dr. U.A. Balasubramaniam, M.Sc.(Ag)., Ph.D.(IARI), Assistant Professor, Agricultural Extension, Tamilnadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore.

Gratitude is expressed to the Ford Foundation, the sponsors of the Education, Training and Development Project undertaken by Sri Avinashilingam College of Education for Women, Coimbatore, for permitting the author to associate herself with the project. A word of thanks is conveyed to all the field staff who worked in the project, for their kind co-operation.

She thanks the University Grants Commission and the Director of Collegiate Education for offering her study leave for 13 months under the Faculty Improvement Programme.

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Introduction

INTRODUCTION

Integrated Rural Development (IRD) has become a national commitment. Eradication of rural poverty is a prerequisite for development, which will be possible only through a programme of IRD (Avinashilingam, 1977). Planners, policy makers, administrators, educationists, scientists and social workers perceive IRD as a springboard to launch several multipronged attacks on poverty. With this end in view they have assigned a high priority to IRD in the national plans.

Conceptually, rural development is development of the rural people. The problems of the rural poor are of great concern to both the politicians and the administrators. IRD is one form of expression of that concern. It is a strategy package seeking to achieve enhanced rural production and productivity, socio economic equality, balanced social and economic development and broad-based community participation in the process of development. In IRD, the objective is development, the method is integration, and the focus is rural (Sharma and Malhotra, 1977).

IRD, as Devadas (1977) has pointed out, encompasses numerous areas such as personality development, education, employment, nutrition, health, medical care, population control, agriculture and allied subjects and rural arts

and crafts. The outcomes of such development include improved productivity, increased employment and the resulting higher incomes for the target groups leading to acceptable levels of living in terms of food, shelter, education and health.

The cardinal aim of rural development, as Hope(1980) states, is balanced social and economic development including generation of new employment, equitable distribution of incomes, widespread improvement in health, nutrition and housing, greatly broadened opportunities for all individuals to realise their full potentials through education and a strong voice for the rural people in influencing the decisions and actions that affect their lives. Thus conceived, rural development means the far reaching transformation of the human factor, men and women, in the rural areas, through their economic institutions, structures, relationships and processes.

The Father of Nation, Mahatma Gandhi was the first to conceive the idea of IRD. The Gandhian plan sought allround development bringing into full and active play all the resources of the individuals, rebuilding every aspect of human life and envisaging a self supporting and self governing society. Following his advice, India, in spite of its handicaps of chronic rural poverty and

backwardness has been experimenting with various programmes of rural development in one form or the other. The impact of the Gandhian philosophy is evident in all the indigenous efforts to improve the quality of life of the rural poor.

Based on the various experiments in rural development in the pre-Independence and post-Independence era, the Community development programme was mooted as a people's self help programme. It was launched on Mahatma Gandhi's birthday on October 2, 1952, by the first Prime Minister of India, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, as a dynamic force to revolutionize village India, with lofty expectations for new and improved ways of living. Against the backdrop of two decades of crucial experimentation and experiences, the decade of the seventies unfolded fresh thinking about community development and the programme was revitalised, updated, appropriately modified and given a place of pride in India's national development (Ensminger, 1972). IRD is the outcome, to accelerate growth and to usher in better living conditions among the masses. It has been planned as a synergistic approach aiming at the total development of the area and the people, with the ultimate objective of improving the quality of living in the rural areas.

The Prime Minister of India, Smt. Indira Gandhi (1982) has given a definite directive for rural development in the agenda for the nation under the new 20 point programme. In the words of the Prime Minister, "This agenda for the nation has been dovetailed into the overall plan of development. It pinpoints areas of special thrust which will show immediate tangible results for various segments".

The home is the cradle of civilisation. The quality of national life depends upon the quality of the homes. It is the place where man's first, most important and most lasting learnings take place (Kittrell, 1951). It is the most important factor in influencing the trends in the patterns of living.(Devadas, 1958, 1960). Therefore it needs to be responsive to the changing needs of a world of changing values. In the midst of new and swiftly changing environment, the 'Home' must continue to play its important role and serve adequately the community and the nation at large.

In the Indian culture, the term 'Home' is synonymous with the term, 'Woman'. Therefore, rural development efforts should give full consideration to the important role women play in the home and in the community. As the United Nation's Economic and Social Council had pointed out,

reliance on the participation of women and youth in community projects invigorates development programmes and establishes them on a wider basis.

Unfortunately, development plans and supportive services have so far tended to view women only as target groups for free social service, ignoring their productive roles. As a corollary, women have featured more largely as beneficiaries in the 'dole' programmes for health, nutrition, education and family welfare, but have been forgotten in the designing of economic development efforts and institutional infrastructure. During the International Women's Year, 1975, there was a global debate on how to increase women's role in development and in the process of decision making at all levels of society, as individuals, citizens and as women. The Committee on the Status of Women (ICSSR, 1974) also expressed its great concern over the national neglect of women and made several recommendations regarding the positions to be given to women in the family and in the community.

The International Study Seminar on the Role of Rural Women in Development held in the U.K. in 1977 pointed out forcefully that women's development cannot be separated or viewed in isolation from the development of the whole community (ICSSR, 1978). The Seminar recommended that all

services for women in the rural areas should be integrated and offered as a package programme.

Realising the great need for involving women in community development, the Home Science Extension Programme was initiated in 1956 by the Government of India. Home Science has been recognised as an important tool in education for family living. Maximum utilisation of the available resources to derive the highest satisfaction through better living standards is the ultimate goal of Home Science Extension (Devadas, 1958). The few fundamental task of Home Science Extension is to assure rural women and men that they too are people, citizens, persons of worth and importance, deserving a rightful share in the benefits of development and improved ways of living.

In order to usher in better home and family living through extension services, a network of infrastructural facilities were built under various developmental programmes initiated in the country from 1952. The infrastructure comprises the facilities and services which provide sustenance to income generating and production activities and others related to social and cultural well being of the people. Infrastructure can be divided into 'economic' and 'social' components, the former comprising services such as finance, power, irrigation, transport, communication, banking and insurance and the latter consisting of services

and amenities like education, medical and health services, housing, recreation, water supply and sewage.

The infrastructure available at the door steps of the rural people today, include the Community Development Block set up and the Panchayat, programmes for economic development, primary health care, schools, balwadies, educational institutions and non formal and adult education programmes, community organisations such as Mahila Mandals and Youth Clubs, voluntary organisations and special programmes sponsored from time to time. The Community Development Programme represents a readymade, well knit infrastructure amalgamating the official hierarchy with the rural institutions and voluntary organisations.

Creation and development of infrastructure are essential. However, infrastructure is only a means to an end and not an end in itself. The goal of rural development programmes, is development of the people, of human beings, living in the rural communities. Rural development is instigated social change.

Do the benefits from the various infrastructure reach the identified target groups? If the answer is no, what should be the strategy? There is a widely prevalent notion, that in spite of all the efforts of the government and other

agencies, the coverage of the target groups is poor and touches only the fringe of the problem. But there is no supportive research data on this issue. The information available is scanty and is only on specific inputs and not on the wide spectrum of development and quality of living. Assessment of the extent of the contribution of the various developmental inputs to overall development of the rural community and better family living has been a missing link in such studies.

This microlevel study on utilising rural infrastructure for stimulating better home and family living has been attempted with the following specific objectives. To

1. Study the living conditions in the selected project villages and locate the specific needs and problems of the families;

2. Identity the infrastructure available in the selected project villages for development of the rural families and assess the extent of utilisation of the same;

3. Create an awareness amongst the people, specially the women, to benefit from, and participate in, the developmental programmes launched;

4. Encourage the formation of new and strengthen the existing community organisations, for sharing responsibility for fostering better home and family living;

5. Evaluate the impact of the efforts on the rural families in quantitative and qualitiative terms;
6. Arrange for follow up of the action programmes initiated and
7. Make workable recommendations to all concerned with rural development, based on the experiences obtained.

It is earnestly hoped that the findings of this maiden venture would throw light on the possibilities of utilising the available infrastructure, to foster better living conditions in the rural communities and also offer suitable guidelines for future researchers, extension change agents and policy makers working in the field of Integrated Rural Development.

Review of Literature

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature pertaining to this study is reviewed under the following broad headings:

A. Integrated Rural Development

B. Women as partners in Integrated Rural Development and C. Infrastructure for Rural Development.

A. Integrated Rural Development

This aspect is dealt under the following sub-headings:

1. Concept of development
2. Need for rural development
3. Precursors in rural development in India
4. Science and technology for rural development and 5. Integrated Rural Development.

1. Concept of development

Elaborating the concept of development, Devadas (1975) points out that it is a total process, in which all aspects of human life-aspirations, education, health and nutrition are involved and evaluated on the touchstone of economic growth and living standards. da Costa (1979), a Brazilian diplomat, and Secretary-General of the United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development held in Vienna in August, 1979, gives the new emerging concept of

development in 12 'musts', which are given below:

Development must be

a. total and must include social considerations and cultural and spiritual realisation

b. original in accordance with the objectives of each country

c. self determined to reduce dependency and vulnerability

d. self generated

e. integrated with strong horizontal and vertical linkages

f. such that it respects the integrity of the environment for the conservation of a country's social cohesion

g. planned

h. directed towards a just equitable social order

i. democratic and must respond to the choices of people

j. including less developed countries or regions without insulating them into reservations

k. innovative, original and creative and

l. based on a realistic definition of national needs and characteristics.

Ratnam (1980) interprets that development includes not only growth plus equity but also a host of social, psychological, anthropological, cultural, economic and political dimensions of the human problem. Development

always goes together with social justice. The following are the recommendations of the seminar on Development with Social Justice held at the National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD, 1974). In a massive participative programme of securing development with social justice, creation of a new national ethos is necessary, through motivating the people and use of communication media. For broad based development, people must be organised and given access to the national, economic and social systems and assisted to make decisions at all levels. The community development agencies and Panchayati Raj bodies can play a significant role in this direction.

Development should be considered as the break of a vicious circle of poverty, ignorance, overpopulation, poor nutrition, disease and external dependence. Development is a phenomenon of the emancipation of man in which the people become the determining force of their own destiny where they decide to break out of that vicious circle (Echeverria, 1981).

2. Need of rural development

The World Bank sector policy paper on Rural Development (World Bank, 1975) states that approximately 85 per cent of the 750 million poor in the developing world are in absolute poverty, based on the arbitrary criterion of an annual per capita income equivalent to $ 50 or less. Of the population

in developing countries considered to be in absolute or relative poverty, more than 80 per cent are estimated to live in the rural areas. Rural development can therefore be described as a strategy to improve the economic and social life of this specific group of people. The World Bank Survey papers also show that about 550 million people suffer from absolute poverty and of these more than 350 million live in the four Asian Countries (India, Indonesia, Pakistan and Bangladesh). In these countries which are characterised by a combination of extensive rural poverty and low levels of mobilizable resources, the problem becomes nearly intractable and calls for a determined single minded approach.

As George (1980) points out, poverty is often attributed to the vicious cycle of low income, low level of savings and low investment, leading to low level of employment and income. In identifying the poor, the unemployed and the underemployed together, stand out as the major group. According to the Rural Labour Enquiry 1974-'75, agricultural labour constituted 25.3 per cent of the rural households. The poverty group in the rural areas is easily identifiable as those who have very little land base and who are consequently underemployed or unemployed.

The Rural Labour Enquiry (74-75) also pointed out a decline in the number of days of wage paid employment in agricultural operations as compared to the statistics in 1964-65. In 74-75 men were engaged in agricultural labour for

185 days per year, women 129 days per year and children 145 days per year, pointing out the seasonal nature of the occupation (George, 1980). The enquiry also revealed that the agricultural labour households in debt had increased to 66 per cent in 74-75 from 61 per cent in 64-65 (George, 1980).

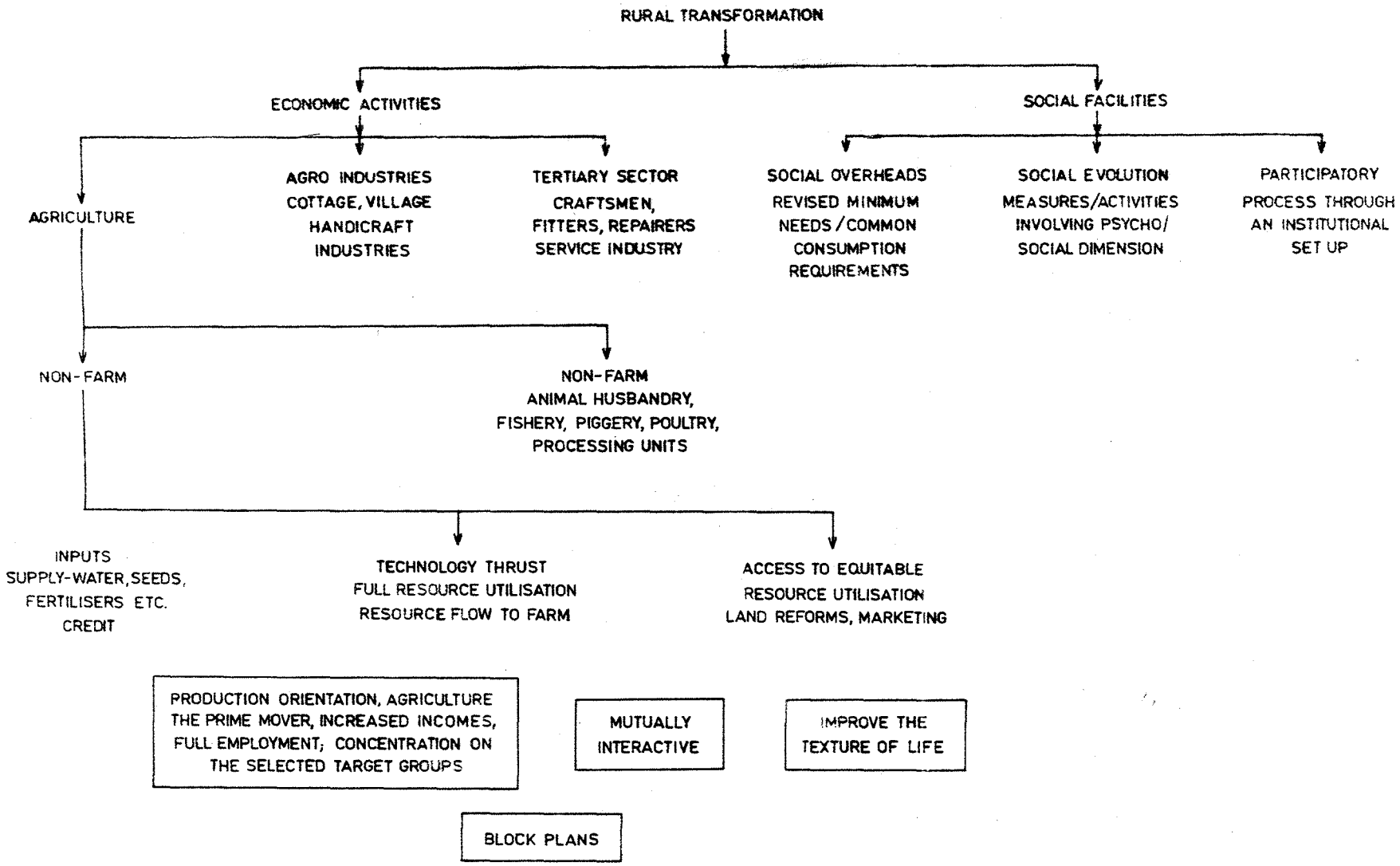
The Draft Five Year Plan (78-83) used a wider concept of poverty, with Rs.61.80 per capita per month for rural population and Rs.71.30 per capita for urban population, at 76-77 prices as the subsistence level. Using this, the population below the poverty line in 77-78 was projected as 48 per cent in the rural areas and 41 per cent in the urban areas. In working out this estimate, a higher level of caloric requirement (2,500 calories) was also presumed. A revised level, at 75 per cent of the indicators was accepted as the modified poverty line below which 26 per cent people in the rural and 22 per cent people in the urban areas live.

As Rajagopalan (1980) points out, poor are in a state of ignorance, frustration and anger. People are poor because they feel, that they are destined to be so and nothing could be done about it; poor perceive it as one that must be got rid of soon but feel that they could do nothing. The poor compare their poverty with others' prosperity and they hate to be poor.

Rural development means a process of change planned for bringing in better living conditions for the rural society (Rajagopalan, 1980). The essence of rural development lies in material happiness and social status. Rural development implies economic betterment with social change. Rau, (1980) gives a conspectus of the efforts for rural development, taking into account the several measures that have been fee taken for rural development (Figure 1).

As Copp (1972), states, "Rural development is not a research problem; it is not a theoretical concept but it is a policy goal. As a policy objective, rural development cannot be a 'Scientific Problem' in the usual sense. The ultimate goal of rural development which is a process, is the improvement of social well being among people".

The World Conference of Agrarian Reform and Rural Development which met in Rome in July 1979, declared "The fundamental purpose of (rural) development is individual and social betterment, development of endogenous capabilities, improvement of the living standards of all people, in particular the rural poor. Thus the development of infrastructure is only a means to an end - not an end in itself" (Adya and Lahoti, 1980). The term rural development conveys the movement of a whole system towards an ever large measure of



EVOLUTION OF AN EGALITARIAN AGRO-INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY

power to the people, for conscious participation in building their own future, higher production, equitable distribution maximum possible enjoyment to the producers and aesthetically and ecologically sound environment (Varma and Pillai, 1980).

A policy of rural development is a policy of national development. Rural development cannot be an extra, tagged on to the other policies of the Government. Rural development must be the description of the whole strategy of growth, the approach to development and the prism through which policies are seen, judged and given priority. Rural development means development. It indicates an approach, and the order of priorities (Nyerere, 1979).

For achieving the objectives of rural development the strategies should take into account the human factors that affect the process of development. Development is conceived as dynamic because it implies change from one level of existence to another level which is always better. The various aspects of the dynamics of development are:

Awareness	::	Gaining knowledge is one of the prerequisites for the subsequent process of development.
Perceptions	::	Perception of changes in the villages over a period of time is an indication of the extent of awareness and involvement in the process of change.

Affects	::	The affect of the person provides the base for motivation of the individual. Affect constitutes the feelings and emotions in regard to any object, person or programme.
Attitudes	::	Attitudes of villages are measured in terms of values, capability, responsibility and commitment (Muthayya, 1960).

The basic characteristics of 'Rural Development', as put forth by Wilcox et al (1976) are as follows:

a. It is a process concerned with people

b. It is goal directed

c. Its goals are intended to accrue 'better' conditions for rural people

d. It is concerned with more than economic development

e. It is 'balanced' and equitable development and

f. It is 'instigated' social change.

3. Precursors in rural development in India

The decade 1921-'30 was very fertile from the view point of early pioneering efforts on rural reconstruction. Sriniketan (1921) and Martandam (1921) emerged as centres of rural reconstruction, as also Brayne's Gurgaon experiment. Mahatma Gandhi started the constructive programme of rural reconstruction

first at Sevagram in 1920 and later at Wardha in 1938. The Rural Reconstruction Project in Baroda (1932), the Firka Development Scheme introduced in Madras State in 1946, the Etawah Pilot Project in Uttar Pradesh (1948) and the Nilokheri Experiment (1948) were the other experiments in the field.

Gandhian thinking had much impact on all those who wanted to improve the quality of life of the rural poor. Gandhiji said that village life must be 'touched at all points'. To him, it is through rural development that the entire process of decentralization and distribution can be facilitated. He emphasized the use of local resources and wanted every village to be self sufficient and self governing. He asked people to cultivate 'rural mindedness' (Swadeshi mentality). Gandhiji conceived the idea of 'Sarvodya Samaj', which was later established by his devotees in 1948 to realise his ideal of self sufficient, self reliant and self governing village community. The Bhoodan movement was born in 1951 (established by Vinobaji) which later took the form of Gramdan, the first step towards the replacement of individual ownership of land by communal ownership.

The Gandhian philosophy of the village as being the nerve centre of the people's universe, gave shape and commitment to a new programme of Community Development with the

village as the nodal point. To begin with, in response to war time shortages and the Bengal famine, Grow More Food Programmes were started in 1943; but on the recommendation of the Grow More Food Enquiry Committee under the chairmanship of V.T.Krishnamachari; they were brought in the fold of the Community Development programme. The new programme was to be a process of change from the traditional way of living of rural communities to progressive ways of living, as a method by which people could be assisted to develop themselves on their own capacity and resources. The main objectives of the programme were:

a. Utilising properly the vast unexploited resources lying dormant in the countryside and harnessing the unutilised energy in the village;

b. Encouraging village people to become self reliant, responsible citizens, capable and willing to participate effectively and with knowledge and understanding in the building of the nation;

c. Inculcating the spirit of self-help amongst the rural population by organising the developmental work through representative institutions like the Panchayats and Co-operative societies.

d. Focussing continued and heavy emphasis on improving and modernizing agricultural practices and methods essential for increased production;

e. Utilising the free time of the villagers for the benefit of the community as a whole;

f. Making people credit-worthy through the largest possible extension of the principles of co-operation;

g. Launching a peaceful attack on the five great giants i.e. hunger, disease, squalor, ignorance and idleness and

h. Upgrading the social status of the village teachers and enabling them to participate in the programme.

The whole country was divided into about 5,000 blocks each covering an area of 100 villages approximately and a population of about 50,000 to 70,000. The Programme Evaluation reports and other studies pointed out that the Community Development programme was top heavy. Based on the recommendation of the Balwantrai Mehta Committee, the programme took a new turn and Panchayati Raj was born in 1959 with a three-tier structure of local self government which has come to stay.

The break through in agricultural science and technology etc., led to the inception of special programmes most of which were sponsored by the Government of India. Of these programmes, a few focussed specifically on agricultural development, such as the Intensive Agricultural District Programme (IADP), Intensive Agricultural Area Programme (IAAP), High Yielding Varieties Programme (HYVP), National Demonstration Programme (NDP), Farmers' Training and Education Programme (FTEP), Multiple Cropping Programme (MCP), Special Programmes for Commercial Crops-tobacco, sugarcane, cotton, jute and oil seeds

and fruit crops, Dryland Agricultural Development Programme (DADP). The programmes for small farmers, marginal farmers and agricultural labourers were initiated during seventies. These were followed by the programme for the weaker sections initiated during the year 1979 under the name Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP). The Lab-to-Land Programme was also put forth in the same year. The other programme which was focussed on the weaker sections and the down trodden was the Food for Work Programme - now called National Rural Employment Programme (NREP).

During the fifth Plan the Minimum Needs Programme was introduced with focus not only on agriculture but also on elementary education, drinking water, roads, rural housing and rural electrification.

The National Commission on Agriculture recommended an adoption of a whole village approach to development to increase the growth potential of the villages, through a package of practices such as consolidation of holdings, maximizing water use and irrigation support and a suitable cropping programme. The programme was called 'Whole Village Development Programme'.

The Expert Committee on Consumption Credit (1976) contemplated setting up Regional Rural Banks, and Large Size

Agricultural Multipurpose Societies (LAMPS) for providing credit to farmers, distributing consumer goods and marketing.

Agricultural Universities have been set up and so also Krishi Vigyan Kendras, to speed up research and integrate the same with teaching and extension.

Special programmes for women and children have also been initiated from time to time, the chief among them being the Applied Nutrition Programme (ANP) to alleviate malnutrition among vulnerable groups, the Integrated Child Development Services Programme (ICDS) and several socio-economic and welfare programme of the Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB).

Several other approaches have also been tried in selected parts of the country to foster rural development. The Punjab Movement of Habitat was initiated on 1976 and experimented in 19 'Habitat' villages to herald the possibilities of the integrated human research and action programmes, to formulate the integrated human settlement policy through a truly interdisciplinary approach concurrently with other aspects of social and economic developments.

The Pilot Research Project in Growth Centres was introduced by the Government of India in 1970 in selected 20 Community Development blocks, which aimed at evolving a

broad research methodology for the development of emerging and potential growth centres by providing social and economic overheads in delineated areas in terms of a carefully prepared inventory of local needs. (Sharma and Malhotra, 1977 and Shah, 1977).

4. Science and technology for rural development

As the late Prime Minister Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru had exhorted, "It is science alone that can solve the problem of hunger and poverty, of insanitation and illiteracy, of superstition and deadening customs and traditions, of vast resources running to waste, of a rich country inhabited by starving people".

The professional scientists and technologists have a vital role to play in achieving rural transformation. Their first step is to prepare a scientific balance sheet of the developmental assets and liabilities of the selected rural area, in order to identify the developmental opportunities that exist and the bottle-necks that have to be removed. The next step is to convert these developmental opportunities into a portfolio of economically viable projects (Swaminathan, 1976).

Tracing the genesis of the impetus given to Science and Technology as a means of development, Sharma (1977) points out that an integrated approach for transferring modern

scientific and technological innovations to rural India has been realised only recently after the 63rd Indian Science Congress with the focal theme 'Science and Integrated Rural Development.' While addressing the 63rd Session of the Indian Science Congress attended by Scientists, technologists, administrators and planners, Smt. Indira Gandhi, Prime Minister of India said, "Science with its spectacular achievements in increasing production and multiplying a thousand fold the speed of man's movement and the range of his sight and sound, has aroused limitless expectations. And what is more, it has the capacity to fulfil them. The challenge before leaders of science and moulders of national and international policies is to direct the known and proven capacities of science towards the removal of hunger, want and the diseases of privation". (Indian Science Congress Association, 1976).

Following the clarion call given by Smt. Indira Gandhi, to the scientists, to take up the challenge of utilising science and technology to mitigate the miseries of the rural poor, the then Union Finance Minister, C. Subramaniam, while presenting the budget, included a paper on 'Strategies for Integrated Rural Development' outlining the strategies and

policies to be adopted for taking up the challenge. A working group was constituted to identify the districts, drawing up the plan of action and preparation of a 'Resource Inventory' for 20 districts, as a collaborative effort of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR), Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), Department of Rural Development (DRD), Department of Science and Technology (DST), Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR), Department of Space, Department of Meteriology and many other governmental and non-governmental agencies.

In 1976, the Government initiated the Integrated Rural Development Projects in 20 selected districts in the country, and the 'blue prints of action' were prepared. The planning phase for these rural development districts had three steps, namely:

a. Compilation of an integrated resource inventory on the basis of data available from a variety of sources;

b. Drafting a malady - remedy analysis that will serve to pin-point specific constraints that affect the life and work of the rural poor and to identify appropriate technology and

c. Vetting the draft action plan through field visits undertaken by inter-disciplinary teams.

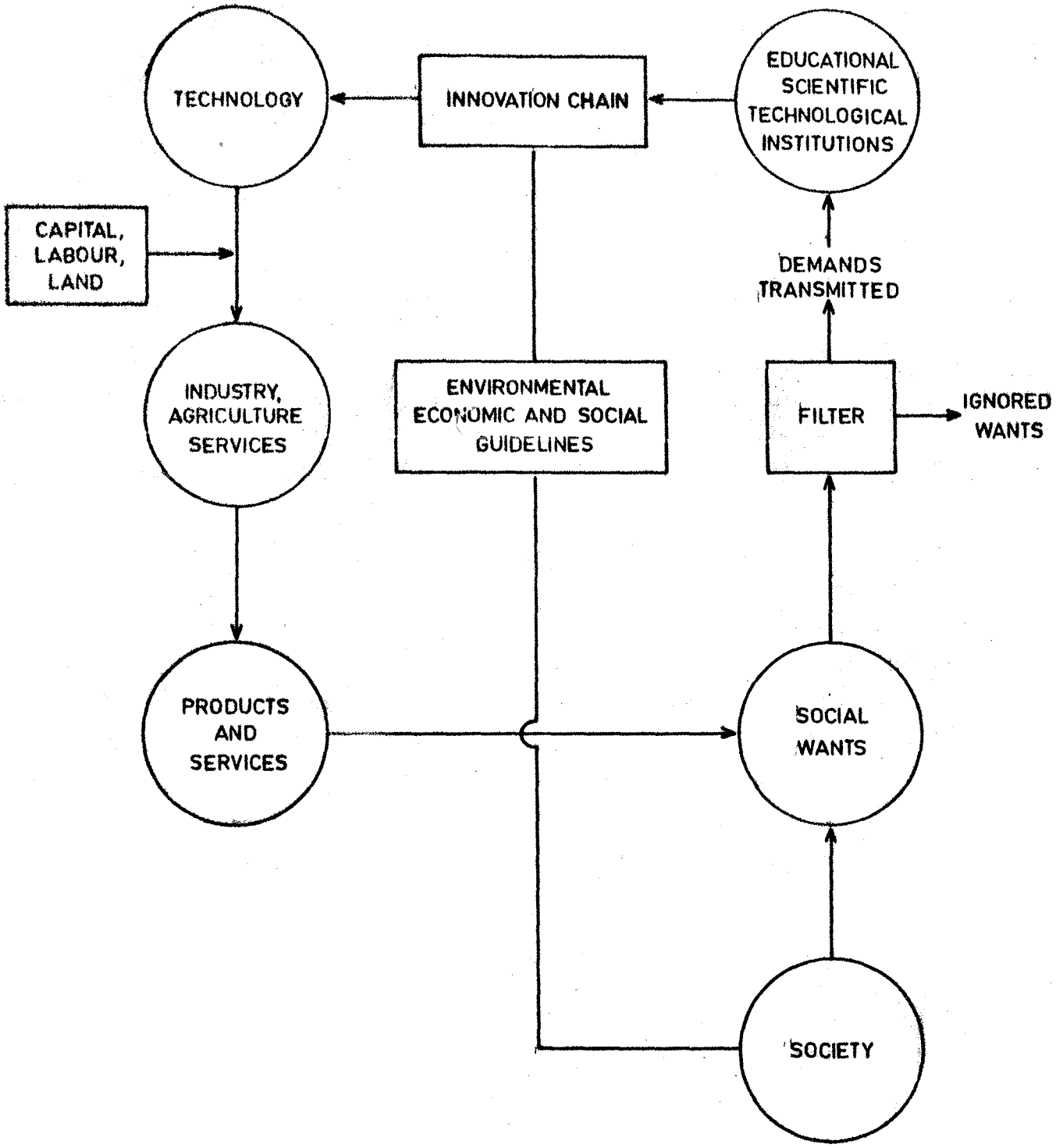
A rural Science and Technology Complex was contemplated to provide the necessary infrastructure (Sharma and Malhotra, 1977 and Shah, 1977).

The Karimnagar Project of Andhra Pradesh undertaken by CSIR has been frequently quoted to prove that scientific and technological inputs can make a vital impact on the life of the rural masses and by a deliberate re-orientation of science policy, known technologies can be adapted or new technologies developed to suit local resource endowments.

Realizing the great need to develop and use appropriate technology, the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, established in 1974 an agency known as Application of Science and Technology to Rural Areas (ASTRA) to give a rural orientation to the scientists of the Institute and correct the present urban bias in its educational, research and development programmes (Reddy, 1977).

The pattern of technology is shaped by and in turn shapes, the society in which this technology is generated and sustained. More specifically, technology responds to social wants, which are in turn modified and transformed by technology, as a schematically represented in Figure 2 (Reddy, 1977).

Reddy (1977) enumerates the criteria for the generation of appropriate technologies thus: (a) satisfaction of basic needs; (b) resource development and use; (c) societal development to reduce dependence; (d) cultural development; (e) human development and (f) environmental development.



GENERALIZED SCHEME FOR THE GENERATION OF TECHNOLOGY

FIGURE 2

The challenges before science are to open avenues for solving problems of the rural poor, to improve their existing practices with the object of increasing the output, to eliminate drudgery, human and livestock sufferings through optimum use of under utilised resources, to open new areas of employment by industrial technologies based on local raw material, blending of agricultural and non-agricultural occupation, better agro, mineral, animal and forest based work, the scientific development and management of land and water resources, malnutrition and other deficiencies and creating avenues of production of animal feed. Another challenge is to meet these needs without displacement of the participating rural community (Srivastava, 1977).

As Radhakrishnan (1977) remarks, while climbing up the ladder of technological affluence the scientists should take care, that while they approach the top, they do not fall to the depths of barbarity where all human values are eroded. What is important is the creation of the right kind of scientific manpower and infrastructure to facilitate the process of nation building.

5. Integrated Rural Development

National commitment to policies and programmes for rural development is a must if the efforts to eradicate rural poverty are to be effective and broadbased. The choice of methods and the sequence in which they are used, will

reflect social, cultural and political factors, as well as narrower technical considerations(World Bank, 1975).

The major objectives of development, accepted by the Government of India are: (1) growth; (2) employment; (3) social justice; (4) spatial coordination and (5) quality of life (Rao, 1980). Integrated development means development that takes into consideration all these objectives and tries to integrate and link them together through the plans, programmes and policies that are followed for the promotion of development.

Programmes of rural development are intended to bring about changes in the existing level of living of the people in terms of improving their conditions in regard to food, clothing, shelter, health and nutrition, education, family size, communication and so on. The rural development programmes have the following specific objectives:

i. Improving the living standards of the people, more particularly the weaker sections;

ii. Encouraging participation of the people in the developmental process;

iii. Making the process self sustaining through the development of required skills and capabilities and

iv. Setting up people's institutions at different levels to ensure the effective use of existing resources for continued development of the area and the people (Muthayya, 1980).

To accelerate growth (production principle) and to bestow better living conditions to the masses (welfare principle) are the current interests. 'Growth with redistribution' thus becomes the paramount goal of Integrated Rural Development. Thus conceived, IRD would lead to balanced development of the economy and the removal of inequalities in incomes resulting in internal factor flows and faster resource augmentation as also technical change. This is how rural development acts as a basic strategy of economic development (Shah, 1977).

All programmes aiming to reach the poor need to be supported by a well knit and well ordered structure of administration. Rural Development requires high technology, administrative hierarchies and coordination at various levels (Sivaraman, 1980). There is supportive evidence for this, from the World Bank sector paper (1975), which gives the elements of rural development thus:

a. A national plan or programme of action together with supporting national and regional policies and adequate centre-local financing arrangements;

b. A strong organisation at the national level to coordinate vertically organised, central government sectoral departments;

c. Greater decentralization with effective machinery at the regional and local levels for coordination and

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d. Participation by the rural poor in the planning and implementation processes through local government, project advisory committees, cooperatives and other groups.

Any plan of rural development to be effective under Indian conditions, according to Adya and Lahoti (1980), must take into account the following factors:

a. Optimum utilisation of resources in the rural areas;

b. Organisation of the rural poor, and their involvement in planning;

c. Creation of an urge in the people for better living and

d. Appropriate technology suitable to the rural poor.

Integrated Development should aim not only at creating certain amenities but also to create a change in the existing life styles, attitudes and tasks of the people. The fundamental task is development of an organised life through people's organisations with capable leadership and the ability of the leadership to utilise expert guidance. Working with the people is an educational process and not a rough and readymade approach (Rao and Kuppuswamy, 1976).

The present form of IRD has an unified field instead of the multi-purpose approach of the Community Development programme. As a plan of detailed action, it stresses four

important efforts: (a) accent on increased production both in agriculture and allied sectors such as animal husbandry, fishery, forestry, and horticulture; (b) emphasis on village, cottage, handicrafts and tiny industries; (c) coverage of the tertiary sector namely artisans and the skilled workers and (d) labour mobilisation through training in skills and organised mobilisation through training in skills and organised mobility of labour where opportunities for employment exist (Rau, 1980).

When one looks at the massive figure of 5,76,000 villages in India, only through such an approach and methodology, the interests of the weak can be protected (Varma and Pillai, 1980).

B. Women as partners in Integrated Rural Development

Literature in this aspect ~~deals~~ is reviewed under the following subtopics:

1. Women and development
2. Concept of better family living and
3. Role of Home Science Extension Education.

1. Women and development

The position of women in a society is an index of its civilisation. Women constitute one half of the population, that is one half of the country's human resources. As citizens,

workers and mothers, the contribution of women to economic and social development is vast. Hence emancipation of women should be considered as one of the generators of economic development and social progress (Devadas, 1976). Women must be recognized as power in development and involved more actively and productively in the developmental process for the eradication of poverty and for economic and social success.

According to the International Labour Organisation, there are about 562 million women in the world's labour force of 1637 million, and 65 per cent of them are in developing countries. This reflects the significant role of Women in national economy. Equal opportunities must be given to women for participation in all areas of human activity and expression, as potential generators of social change.

Indian studies have revealed that in 35 per cent of poverty households, the primary bread winner is a woman. This percentage increases with the increase in destitution. They are employed in the poorest paid, lowest skilled, least regular, most marginal, most arduous jobs in the economy because of the constraints imposed upon them, as women. Their productive roles are given scant attention to.

Programmes of rural improvement are mainly designed formen. Women very seldom benefit by such activities and whenever they do, it is with the consent of the male community of the village (ECA/FAO Joint Agricultural Division, 1972).

As the Report of the International Study Seminar held at the Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex (ICSSR, 1978) on 'Role of Rural Women in Development', points out, women all over the world have featured largely in programmes for health, education and family welfare but have generally been forgotten in the designing of economic development programmes and institutional infrastructure. The seminar felt that many of these negative effects could be avoided by a careful examination of women's role at an early stage of a scheme and design-built in systems to ensure involvement and participation of women in rural development.

Emphasising that the key to the progress of the country is the development and utilisation of human resources in general and women resource in particular, Arakeri (1976) points out that for better utilisation of women resources, they should be relieved from drudgery in the farm and home. Devadas (1976) remarks that for the eradication of poverty, management of resources in the farm, factory and home is essential, in which women have a great responsibility.

In the rural areas, women shoulder numerous responsibilities in homemaking and income earning activities. Management of the resources, bringing up children, producing adequate diet for the family, limiting the size of the family, sending children to school, meeting the needs of the adolescents and advising them for their future are among the many duties women do in the home. As such they are the decision makers and the pace setters for the nation. They need to be stimulated towards better management of their resources to remove poverty and create happy and healthy families and communities and thereby a strong nation (Devadas, 1979).

With proper counselling, rural women will be able to run their homes efficiently. Their work outside the homes, on the farm and field as labourers and managers, makes them powerful and indispensable agents of social change and development. Everywhere within the family, as members of the work force and citizens, women can exert a strong influence towards change, bringing about fulfilment in the flowering of personalities and capabilities (Devadas, 1977).

Adequate food, appropriate management of resources, betterment of near environment and improvement in the quality of life and participation of the whole family in the process are imperatives for IRD (FAO, 1975).

National welfare is synonymous with family welfare, as family is a very important unit for socioeconomic development. Hence, education of women must receive a high priority in the national plans. The obstacles which prevent the women's education and participation in the National uplift must be removed (Neqniq, 1972).

The role of women in the rural labour force should be given specific recognition. Agricultural extension programmes should be so designed as to reach out to them and wherever possible agroindustries should be organised to provide for both part time employment and for home-based functioning (Swaminathan, 1976).

The 'Field Programme Circular' dated 28th May 1975, issued by the Assistant Director General, United Nations on integration of women in agricultural and rural development traces the genesis of the declaration of the International Women's year. In December 1972, United Nations General Assembly Resolution 3010 (XXVII) proclaimed 1975 as International Women's Year for the full integration of women in the total developmental effort. A programme for international women's year was adopted by the UN Commission on the Status of Women at its 25th session in 1974 and endorsed by ECOSOC in Resolution 1849 (LVI). Accordingly the year 1975, was declared as International Women's Year to provide increased

assistance to those programmes, projects and activities which will encourage and promote the integration of women into national, regional, and inter-regional economic development.

The World Population Conference of August, 1974, the UNDP Governing Council, the Percy Amendment (1973) to the US Foreign Assistance Act, the UN/FAO World Food Programme (WFP) all these have stressed and issued circulars to member nations necessitating fallen opportunities for women in social and economic development.

The policies, principles and mandates for the programme for the United Nations Decade for Women, namely, Equality, Development and Peace are set forth in a number of international documents. These documents, especially the World Plan of Action (article 46) stress the importance of national action supported by action at the regional and global levels, involving all organisations in the United Nations system. The World Plan and the regional plans, provide detailed guidlines for improving literacy, extending co-educational, technical and vocational training in basic skills, increasing employment opportunities, establishing infrastructural services, offering legal protection, giving place in policy making positions at various levels, increasing comprehensive health service, protecting civil, social, political rights, recognising

the economic value of womens work in the home, promoting womens organisations, professional institutions and developing modern technology to reduce drudgery (United Nations Development Department, 1975).

Pointing out the need for involvement of women's rural institutions in the planning process, the Human Resources Development Division-ECA (1972) stated that the planners should not only proclaim that women are an important element in a nation building process but should put this into realistic terms in the plan itself.

About 81 per cent of the total population of India is rural (52 per cent male and 48 per cent female). About 72 per cent of the rural population (as per 1971 census statistics) comprise women and youth. Women constitute about 19 per cent of the total rural working force and a substantial part of labour in subsidiary occupations and key labour in agricultural operations. Nearly 89 per cent of female workers in rural areas are dependent on the primary sector agriculture, livestock and forestry. According to an estimate, about 3.8 million rural women were totally unemployed and 17.6 million underemployed in 1971. In general, the wages are lower for women than those for men in the unorganised sector. The rate of literacy among rural women is only

13.2 per cent as against 42.31 per cent in the urban sector. There is now an increasing realisation that the process of development, will be incomplete without the active involvement of women (Jain, 1980).

Women who comprise nearly half of our population have received a raw deal over the centuries. An unfavourable sex ratio with an excess of males is a characteristic shared by most of the developing countries. It is a matter of concern that the all India as well as rural sex ratios have been on the decline since the beginning of the century. The causes for this trend have not been fully investigated but it may possibly be due to the general neglect of women and their status. The low age at marriage (16.7 years), the high maternal mortality (250/100000 live births), the pitiably low levels of literacy (13 per cent), low level of employment (13 per cent) and the low level of expectation of life (46 years in 61-71) are all vivid indicators of the sad plight of women, particularly in the rural areas. Programmes for the welfare of women and recommendations of commissions for improvement of the status of women should receive more attention than they have received so far (Balakrishna, 1980).

The number of women workers went down sharply in the 20 years between 1951 and 1971, the ratio being 210 women for 1000 men. While the male working force increased by 27 per cent

women suffered a decline of 12 per cent. The 1971 census records show that as far women's employment, between 1961 and 1971, it declined by 50 per cent in the rural areas and by three per cent in the urban areas. A Committee on Unemployment, looking specifically into the agrarian sector observed that in 1975 about 3.8 million rural women were totally unemployed, 17.6 million under employed and 15.2 moderately underemployed. If employment is provided to 25 per cent of the female population by 1986, it will only mean a return to the position that prevailed about 15 years back (Balkrishna, 1980).

The women in India is disciplined from childhood, self/sacrificing, capable of endurance and devotion. She is in short a Wasted asset (Baig, 1976). Women who form 50 per cent of the rural population, must take a very active interest in problems like family planning, child and maternity care, nutrition, cleanliness and others related to the household. The country cannot make a headway in these field without educating rural women and involving them in the programmes.

A study on rural women in decision making action conducted by Dhillon (1980) in village Ayali Khurd of Mangat block in Ludhiana District, Punjab State, revealed that women were exercising a greater say in matters of purchasing household

articles and equipment when compared to farm issues. They were nearly wholly responsible for dairy. Their contribution on the farm was relatively lesser. They are active participants, indecisions relating to ceremonial 'give and take'.

A majority of the women claimed to have an equal voice in the family in deciding about the schooling of their children. However, observations regarding women's say in matters relating to children's future occupation was rather disappointing. Decision making for the exercise of political right of voting was still regarded as an exclusive male preserve - when women cast their votes wholly in accordance with their husband's wishes.

An overall analysis of the decision making role of women indicates that in 27.7 per cent cases, she had no say at all, while in the remaining 72.3 per cent, the decisions were taken on a joint basis. Of these, 15 per cent enjoyed an equal say as their husbands, while in 19.9 per cent, 31.7 per cent and 5.7 per cent they held ranks of first, second and third order of importance in the family respectively.

Critising the neglect of rural women in the programmes for rural development, the National Commission on Agriculture (1976) observed that planners have taken women for granted and

ignored the multiple and major roles that they play in rural life, in both productive and social spheres. Greater attention to strengthening or widening their productive, decision making and managerial roles, removing the obstacles that now prevent their access to available resources and services for development, increasing their strength to resist economic and social exploitation, and above all, enabling them to play their full and proper role in decision making bodies at the Panchayat, Block, District, State and Central levels are essential to utilise this vast untapped source of power available in the rural sector.

An integrated overall rural development plan, based on an assessment and evaluation of the contribution of women to the economic, social and development programmes with specific objectives and minimum time bound targets in regard to education, training, health, nutrition and employment is essential. Rural women are to be stimulated towards better management of the resources at their disposal to remove poverty and create happy and healthy families and communities and thereby a strong nation (Devadas, 1976).

A steering committee was constituted by the National Committee on Women in 1978, to identify the fundamental issues relating to women's welfare and development and workout

strategies that could be adopted for bringing women on par with men in all spheres of nation's activities (Lokkalyan, 1978). The National Conference on Women and Development in New Delhi, 19-21 May, 1979 made a number of recommendations in the field of health, education, employment, role of trade union and participation of women in the political processes. Elimination of sex bias in education and text books, overcoming the problem of girl dropouts, enhancement of school facilities within the reach of girls, introduction of functional literacy and linkage of education with village industries were some of the mad recommendations made for education.

Creation of special institutions to promote women's employment, representation of women on the Boards of Management of Banks and financial institutions, reservations of seats for women in training institutions, raising the age of entry of women in services, creation of special cells to provide free legal aid to women were the recommendations pertaining to employment of women. Giving the highest prority for primary health care system and services for mothers and children was the recommendation in the area of health.

Nomination by political parties of more women candidates at all levels and reservation of seats for women on panchayats

and local bodies, giving them the requisite training and experience and constituting of women's wings in the trade unions were the other recommendations (Lok Kalyan, 1979).

2. Concept of better family living

With the families as the units of operation, the components of better living are: (a) Resources, goals and values; (b) Planning for better living; (c) Execution of the plans and (d) Evaluation of the accruing benefits. All programmes for better living should be based on well planned viable efforts (Devadas, 1973 and Devadas, 1979).

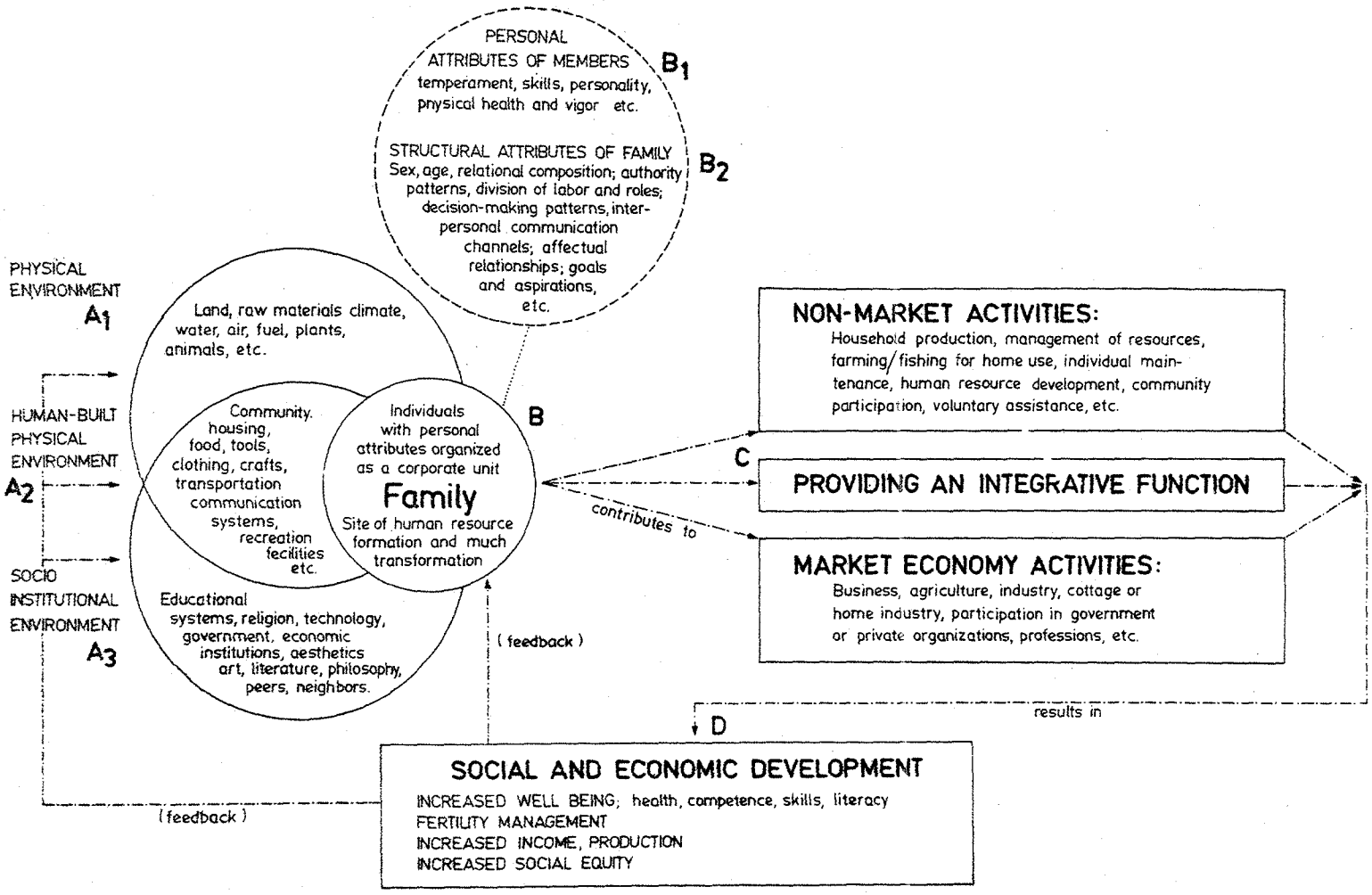
Better living demands that particular attention is given within families to the process of planning, decision making and setting of goals to improve the quality of living and the fullest utilisation of available resources such as food, housing, health facilities, education, employment and community services. Spritual, social, cultural and economic aspects are integral parts of the better living thus conceived (Devadas, 1973).

Better utilisation of money, health, management of resources, motivation of a higher standard of life, development of appropriate resources and their distribution, receptiveness to new ways of living, responsibility towards communities and adoption of small family size are a few aspects of the concept of better family living (Asuri, 1973).

Viewed thus, better family living is not mere economic improvement, without a knowledge of nutrition, health, child care, values and culture. Even health alone does not mean good living while a certain amount of money is necessary, it proper utilisation is even more important (Avinashilingam, 1976). Improvement in the family environment alone will lead to better living.

Planning for Better Family Living (PBFC) emerged as a programme of the Home Economics Section of the Nutrition Division of the FAO, with an objective to intensify and strengthen the competence of educators in urban and rural programmes, particularly within the area of family life (Devadas, 1973).

At the beginning of the 20th Century, socially responsible men and women were awakened to the idea that knowledge and understanding of the basic needs of families should be acquired. Quoting Bivens et al, 1975, Paolucci (1976) states that the core of Home Economics is the family ecosystem. It is the study of the reciprocal relations of the family to its natural and man-made environments. The application of the family ecological approach for identifying the relationships between family and social and economic developments che is presented in a model given in Figure 3. The environments shape the family and its members and the family contributes to development.



ECOLOGICAL MODEL FOR VIEWING ROLE OF FAMILY IN SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

The U.N. Ad hoc Inter-agency Working Group on Home Economics which met in 1968 stressed the need for family oriented programmes. Men and women, boys and girls, as contributors to the economic and social development of a nation and as partners in promoting better family living, need training and education that will ensure:

a. more efficient production in the farm and home enterprise and

b. wiser consumption of goods and services available to the family (Jamelid, 1972).

While stressing the importance of training girls and women for better home and family life, there is a parallel necessity for vocational training, for engagement in gainful economic activities (Human Resources Development Division, ECA 1972).

3. Role of Home Science Extension Education

Home and the family are the focal points for development and Home Science has a special role in meeting the needs of homes, families and communities. Home Science is education for living. It is a synthesis of arts, sciences and fine arts, interwoven together harmoniously to foster and nurture the physical, social, cultural and spiritual development of the individual, family and the community (Devadas, 1979). Home Science is one of the few applied sciences which takes note of

the ecological conditions of rural families and urban communities and help them to maximise the benefits accruing from them.

Ellen H. Richards, founder of the American Home Economics Association and its First President developed a creed for Home Science.

> Home Economics
>
> Ideal home life for today
>
> Unhampered by the tradition of the past
>
> Utilisation of all resources of modern science to improve the home life
>
> Freedom of the home from the dominance of things and their due subordination to ideals
>
> Simplicity in material surroundings which will most free the spirit for the more important and permanent interests of the home and society (E.H. Richards, 1904).

The creed is widely used all over the world (Kittrell, 1977).

The major objective of Home Science is developing, strengthening and fostering the best aspects of family and home life in its physiological, physical, psychological, emotional, economic, social and spiritual setting (Devadas, 1979). Home Science is the science of Family happiness. The real success of Home Science lies in giving more attention to the rural homes. A high standard of home life will have to be set up as the ideal, and the influence of women will have to be recognised in the culture of the nation. (Uma Nehru, 1956).

Home Science deals with all aspects of the community and the nation. With its unique contribution to better living, it plays a significant role in furthering national development. In IRD, Home Science with its concern for the development of the human factor, has a definite place. It is one of the crucial keys to economic and rural development and hence to national development.

Specifically, Home Scientists will implement better living through:

1. Developing family oriented programmes;
2. Helping families understand their functions in the context of the basic principles of development, as related to the improvement of conditions and levels of living;
3. Helping families plan the goals for the family, community and nation and work out strategies for achieving the goals with respect for national prosperity and prestige;
4. Developing knowledge and skills in planning the use of resources available to the family for optimum achievement of aspirations and expressions of human values;
5. Developing an understanding of the relationship of improved levels of living with family size, spacing family, dependency structure, roles and community participation;
6. Promoting action research for better family living with emphasis on population education programme and
7. Enhancing the quality of living (Devadas, 1973).

Colleges and students of Home Science can help rural and urban families to:

- locate and utilise better sources of heat by adopting the principles of organic recycling;
- develop consumerism and new attitudes towards optimising resources;
- harness solar energy for domestic and farm use;
- be efficient in post harvest technology, storage of grains and food preservation;
- assist in food service to the vulnerable groups and
- carry out research projects in villages to facilitate development (Devadas, 1979).

Technology has drastically changed the picture of home and family life around the world. Research in the basic disciplines must be a continuing process to provide facts for the enrichment of life (Kittrell, 1977). An applied discipline such as Home Science must integrate facts so that all families can readily apply them in their daily living.

Inaugurating the 63rd session of the Indian Science Congress at Waltair in 1976, the Prime Minister of India, Smt. Indira Gandhi exhorted that "greater attention should be paid to problems which affect people's day to day life and

intermediate technology should be utilised to solve them. The potential of science and technology must be harnessed for the optimum use of all national assets - human, animal and physical - for banishing poverty from our midst.

The Planning Commission in the Sixth Plan has specially mentioned the need for the application of Science and Technology for the improvement of the life and status of women. The Department of Science and Technology (DST), Government of India has formed a committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. Madhuri Shah, Chairman, University Grants Commission, to collect the information available and design programmes. The task is assigned to the Centre of Science for Villages, Wardha. The status report given by the centre includes technologies available to:

1. provide employment opportunity to women;
2. reduce drudgeries in the life of women,
3. improve sanitation and environmental conditions,
4. improve the health and nutritional status of women and
5. protect women from hazards.

(Centre of Science for Villages, 1981).

All individuals, families and communities require the applications of the components of Home Science for their well being. Therefore, knowledge of Home Science is essential for

all homes. It is even more indispensable to the rural setting, since the rural population comprises 80 per cent of the human assets in India (Devadas, 1979).

In order to raise the standard of the family, women need to be educated first. Wealthy Fisher (1968) stated that the Literacy House she founded in Lucknow was a breakaway from the narrow limited meaning of literacy namely the three R's . From the three R's, it has moved forward to the three F's of Food Production and Family Welfare Planning based on programmes of Functional Literacy. The area of Family Welfare Planning includes home management, child care, food and clothing, and provides opportunities for human beings to develop their fullest capacity through organisation of various programmes.

The concept of Home Science Extension was first introduced in 1955 as an integral part of the Community Development programme to realise fully the objectives set forth and to enable the rural woman to exercise her role as a homemaker more effectively and intelligently. A cadre of Home Science Extension workers was also created to motivate rural women to apply new knowledge for the improvement of their living pattern. The Home Science Extension Programme includes nutrition education, proper utilisation of resources and population education in relation to better living. However,

the coverage of the programme has been quite negligible, due to inadequate infrastructure, allocation of resources and lack of properly qualified workers to work in the field. Through Home Science Extension activities, rural women have opportunities to discuss their problems and seek solutions to them. Maximum utilisation of the available resources to derive the highest satisfaction through better living standards is the altimate goal (Chakravarty, 1974). The Home is the most important factor in influencing the trends in the patterns of living of rural families (Devadas, 1958). Hence any change in the attitudes of people has to start with the home and must carry the women of the home along with it.

Home Science Extension is not a subject but a broad field covering all phases of homemaking. Besides imparting skills, it helps in the development of leadership and sense of responsibility for the improvement of the family and community (Devadas, 1958).

The place of Home Science Extension in national development is: to give to rural people, in a form in which they can use it at a time when it is needed, "information that will enable them to become better citizens", to help rural families obtain and manage an income - both money and non-money that will contribute to better living for the family; to develop leadership abilities and an awareness of the need for improved facilities

in medical care, nutritional practices, rural homes to develop an appreciation of the importance of recreation in rural homes and villages; to develop in rural women and girls a competence in using their human and material resources in a way that will contribute to better rural living and to stimulate in rural people an awareness of the part they can play in making their village a more wholesome and attractive place in which to live. The Home Science Extension programmes are mainly implemented through women extension functionaries such as Lady Social Welfare Officers (Mukhya Sevikas) at the Block level and Rural Welfare Officers (Women)(Gramsevikas) at the village or grass root level. (Devadas, 1958).

C. Infrastructure for Rural Development

Literature on this aspect is reviewed under the following sub headings:

1. Community Development and Panchayati Raj
2. Infrastructure for economic improvement
3. Infrastructure for educational development
4. Infrastructure for the improvement of health and nutrition
5. Infrastructure for social development
6. Voluntary organisations for rural development and
7. Factors influencing the utilisation of infrastructure.

1. Community Development and Panchayati Raj

The aim of Community Development, started in India, in 1952, was to secure the fullest development of the material and human resources and thereby raise the rural community to higher levels of living by increased production in the agricultural front to meet the food shortage, development of cottage and small scale industries to provide employment to the unemployed, improvement of health and sanitation, provision of housing facilities and promotion of educational and other social welfare activities (Chandra, 1980).

Since the inception of the Community Development programme, the block was regarded as the unit of planning and the Block Development Officer (BDO) has been the kingpin of development administration. Describing the kind of BDO we need, Appu (1979) states thus: "If the massive programme for the transfer of productive assets to the rural poor is to be implemented efficiently, the country should find 6,000 able and dedicated persons to discharge the duties of Block Development Officers. It should be possible to pick up suitable persons from among the ranks of the Indian Administrative Service, the state services, agricultural and animal husbandry officers, economists, graduates in business management, executives of nationalised

banks etc. Through intensive training they can be equipped with the necessary skills and motivation. The BDO should be vested with adequate power and he should be held squarely responsible for the impelementation of the programme within the block".

Microplanning, that is, planning at the grassroots, at the village or the block level is a popular slogan of development planning. Macro level sectoral planning with the help of schematic budgets has shown some modest gains but at the local level, the impact has been uneven. As Gupta (1980) remarks, virtually little has been done by way of microplanning and planning at the village or block level remains a ritual. The existing bureaucratic organisational structure of the Rural Development department, through which all plans at the district, block and village levels are administered has been wanting mainly in two respects (a) the lack of relevance of programmes for the rual poor or the poorest of the poor and (b) absence of peple's participation. Therefore, the concepts of 'integrated area development' and 'micro-level planning' have emerged. Microlevel planning as Sen (1972) exhorts takes into account the presence of functional communities consisting of clusters of villages with close functional ties, which, for all practical purposes, constitute a community. 'Integrated area planning' implies planning for a given geographic area in all aspects of

development, transportation, communication, education, agriculture, banking, industry, health and family planning, recreation and any other services needed for modernisation and betterment of rural living. 'Growth centres' are small towns or large villages which have the potential of becoming nucleic for the future economic, social and political development of the surrounding areas. Drawn to these focal points will be clusters of 50, 75 or 100 villages covering a population of 50,000 to 1,00,000. Such centres will be linked to the villages they serve by trade, industry, finance, education etc., creating viable communities, which are rural based but linked to the modern services and amenities of urban focal points. (Ensminger and Roy, 1972).

Enunciating the concept of integrated rural-urban development, Rao (1980) points out the need for a 'cluster' approach to village development. Each cluster must become not only ~~ev~~ a viable but also an alive and integrated community with a recognisable identity and a sense of mutual belonging. Small towns should grow out of the cluster villages for serving rural areas. The foundations for a national policy of integrated rural-urban development should be laid at the grass root level. Decentralised development is the key to the betterment of rural-urban relations with the panchayat system as an efficient tool providing for participating democracy at the grass roots.

However, the Dantwala Committee, 1978, appointed by the Planning Commission, to prepare guidelines for block level planning has recommended planning at the district level since a rudimentary infrastructure is already in existence there. A peripatetic planning team can prepare the block level plans (Baghchee and Baghchee, 1980).

The introduction of Panchayati Raj nearly two decades ago, was a land mark in the evolution of developmental administration in India. The contribution of Panchayati raj, to rural development, as Shivish (1980) points out, could be visualised in short term, middle term and long term perspectives. The very existence of the Panchayati raj institution fills a vast organisational gap in that local planning gains participatory process and contributes to the improvement of programme implementation. The communication channels thus opened up by democratic processes help bridge the empathic gap to a considerable extent and transform both officials and non-officials in the direction of greater responsiveness. By broadening and intensifying politisation in rural areas, Panchayati raj institutions have a significant contribution to make to rural and national development and serve as a vehicle of democracy and development. Panchayati raj faced criticisms such as

dominance of dominant caste groups, political interferences, existence of corruption, favouritism and paucity of resources.

The Asoka Mehta Committee set up in 1977 suggested that Mandal Panchayats covering a group of villages with a population of 15,000 - 20,000 should be constituted in order to secure growth centre approach and location specific planning. Consequently, the block would cease to be the basic unit of devolution. At the grass root level, the people could be involved in the Mandal Panchayats through village committees.

Panchayati raj institutions should be assisted to establish remunerative enterprises. The small municipalities should be merged with the Mandal Panchayats. Weaker sections should be represented adequately by constitution of Social Justice Committees presided over by persons belonging to SCs/STs.

The committee also suggested that the state government should not supersede Panchayati raj bodies on partisan grounds. If supersessions become necessary, these bodies should be replaced by an elected body within six months. After the expiry of their term, the elections should not be postponed.

Improving the training programmes, creating rural organisations such as cooperatives, Mahila Mandals and Yuvak Mandals, involving all voluntary agencies in the formulation of projects and creating strong public opinion in support of measures aimed at social change are the other suggestions.

Raising a question will the Panchayati raj institutions (PRI's) help solve the problems of the poor, Rau (1980) states that they are not the only organisations which will solve all the problems of the weaker sections. They have to be supplemented by other functional groups, specialising in individual problems. The PRI's have to encourage to build them up, decentralize the operations and establish correlations and linkages to bring about an orderly rural transformation.

Supporting the view that the panchayats should do all development work, Hooja (1980) exhorts that the panchayat should be given such functions as will raise the confidence and faith of the local people and suggests that all physical assets and natural resources within the jurisdiction of the village panchayat should be placed under its management and control. The panchayats should be effective units of local management and self government, as well as agencies or units

of development operating at the basic or grass root level of a welfare oriented state and district level administration. Discussing the finance and functions of panchayats, Rao (1980) suggests that the local residents should become tax paying minded and watch the local policies and expenditure vigilantly.

Decentralisation as Rao (1980) remarks, should not mean just implementation at the lower level, but also formulation and participation at the lower levels to ensure attention to local needs, resources and constraints and constant feedback between the different spatial units of the planning process. Agnihotri (1979) points out that in order to make the dream of community development and rural uplift a reality, the work of planning must be entrusted to the village panchayats. The first requisitie for such a programme is a change in outlook and creation of an awareness in the minds of people. The plan for development should be drafted at the village level. Rural people should profit more by planned development if they are allowed to have a say about their own affairs.

Muthayya and Gnanakannan (1973) carried out a psychosocial study on developmental personnel in three states, Kerala, Mysore (Karnataka) and Tamil Nadu with a sample of

791 Block Extension Personnel who viewed the existing administrative powers, staffing pattern and grants for developmental programmes as adequate and the policies of the Government in relation to community development as encouraging. These functionaries perceived the contribution to agriculture, satisfaction of people's needs in all the areas of life, creation of an impulse to improve the living conditions among the rural folk, better educational facilities and allround development of the village as the outcomes of the programme.

Sen et al (1967) pointed out that the leaders and non leaders viewed the Community Development programme mainly as a network of specific activities. A vote of confidence was expressed in the programme and the respondents opined that the programme should not only continue but should be strengthened. The programme was perceived as better implemented after the introduction of Panchayati raj and Panchayats were considered as the right instruments to handle their problems.

The programme was perceived as intended for the development of agriculture followed by improvements in education and health. There was almost unanimous

agreement that villages have improved since Independence. The respondents perception of the general and specific improvements in their e villages was consistent with what they said about the Community Development and Panchayati raj programmes.

Chaturvedi (1977) conducted a study in Rajasthan and found that the local administrative system, fragmented between three subsystems (the cooperative net-work, the government department and the panchayat institution) had not emerged as a unified system with demarcated goals and clearly defined role boundaries of various incumbents. This has created problems of cooperation and coordination within and between units, resulting in under utilisation of human and material resources. The factors responsible for this situation were identified as inadequate mobilisation of resources by the local leaders, pressing demands of the people, sense of frustration on the part of political leaders, their indifference to Panchayati raj, problem of dual control of the officials by the elected representatives and development heads, lack of emergence of support structure, inadequate response from the people and lack of incentives for the officials.

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Furthermore, the study pointed out that new norms and values consistent with the goals of decentralized local

administrative system, which involved participation of people's representatives in bureaucratic functioning and the acceptance of economic development as the system's goals, have not yet emerged. Thus there existed what could be termed as 'transitional anomic' which accounted for the tensions in the system.

A study of the awareness about Community Development programme among the rural women in Tamil Nadu and Kerala by Savithri and Narayanaswamy (1974) pointed out that 78 per cent women in both the states were familiar with the term, community development. More than 60 per cent could state the benefits in the agricultural field, cooperation and the primary health centre. While 83 per cent in Kerala were aware of the personnel working in community development, only 46 per cent in Tamilnadu were aware of this.

The awareness about the panchayat structure and activities was fairly good, the awareness being better in Kerala. The literacy level of the women was a factor favouring their awareness.

Another study by Sahu and Leelavathy (1978) on the Community Development and Panchayati Raj in Orissa and Tamilnadu revealed that 50 per cent and 40 per cent women respectively in Orissa and Tamilnadu were aware of the Community Development programme while 100 per cent in Orissa and 75 per cent in Tamilnadu were aware of the Panchayati raj. Eighty per cent in both the states were aware of the gramsevaks and gramsevikas.

The awareness about specific programmes were 93 and 95 per cent for agriculture, 93 and 75 per cent for animal husbandry and 78 per cent for & village industries in Orissa and Tamilnadu respectively. Better awareness was noted in Orissa about cooperatives and educational opportunities while better awareness regarding health programmes was observed in Tamilnadu.

Although Panchayat areas of Tamilnadu are thickly populated than that of Orissa, there were more members in the panchayats in Orissa.

Lack of adequate finance, inadequate field staff and lack of cooperation from the higher authorities were the problems experienced in both the states. More powers for the Panchayat presidents and need for technical help and guidance were the suggestions for better performance by the presidents. The BDO s interviewed were positive about the outcomes of the Panchayati raj. They wanted more powers to BDO s, frequent supervision and constant guidance by higher authorities, more number of field staff and better cooperation from people's representatives for bettering the Panchayati raj.

A study conducted by Cherian and Ramathilagam (1972) regarding the awareness of rural women about the functioning of their panchayats revealed that 40 per cent had gone to

polls in the last election; 85 per cent considered betterment of the village as the chief objective of panchayts. Provision of drinking water supply, lighting and sanitation facilities and maintenance of roads were the specific functions listed. Payment of taxes was the major means through which the women were associated with their panchayats. Ninety three per cent were aware of the educational facilities created by the panchayats.

Only 43 per cent could name their panchayats correctly and only 50 per cent could name their presidents correctly; 35 per cent were not aware of the election procedures; while 30 per cent felt that they as women did not have any special role in panchayat administration, 64 per cent asked for greater representation for women in the panchayats. Education had a positive influence on the awareness of the women on the objectives and role of women in panchayats.

Another study by Thulasimani and Ramathilagam (1973) on the participation of women members in the panchayat affairs pointed out that while in general the members' knowledge about the organisation of panchayats, dates and methods of election was good, the educated members and those who were in their second term of office had a larger measure of awareness about the functions of panchayat than the others.

Their knowledge related to term of office and procedure for panchayat meetings and financial matters was poor. More than 50 per cent had regular attendance in the panchayat meetings, 51 per cent could describe their roles as women members; 48 per cent were willing to continue their term of office; 47 per cent did not like political intervention in panchayat affairs; 60 per cent wanted more than one woman member in the local panchayats. However, only 11 per cent stated that they approached the people to get to know their problems and only seven per cent conveyed the matter discussed in the meetings to others in their villages. The study in general revealed the possibilities of involving women in panchayats, if they are given proper stimulation.

2. Infrastructure for economic improvement

a. Efforts on generating employment in the rural areas

The unemployed in India number about 26 million (12 per cent of the total labour force). The Bhagwati Committee on Unemployment (1973) made the estimate of underemployment (disguised unemployment) thus:

Estimate of disguised unemployment (in millions)

Hours of work/week		Males	Females
Rural	1 - 14	4.44	4.02
	14 - 25	12.18	11.38
Urban	1 - 14	0.78	0.51
	14 - 28	1.83	1.54

Unemployed persons in 1971 were 18.7 million with 9 million as unemployed and 9.7 million underemployed (less than 14 hrs./week) (Joshi, 1980).

Mathur (1980) outlines the various attempts at employment generation in rural India as stated below:

(i) Rural works programme was initiated in 1961 with an initial investment of Rs.19 crores. This programme had drawbacks such as curtailment in funds from the original budget, shortage of technical and expert staff, delays in administration and lack of proper coordination and active technical collaboration.

(ii) Crash scheme for rural employment (1971-'74) with an outlay of Rs.12.7 lakhs generated employment to the tune of 3.150 lakh man days. The achievements were in the form of minor irrigation works, land development and reclamation, soil and water conservation, ground water recharging, drainage

and water logging and flood protection, development of pisciculture and extension of roads and culverts. This programme also suffered from want of adequate funds in time, technical support and lack of proper coordination.

(iii) Pilot intensive rural employment project was operated as part of the area development plans for three years from 1972 in selected 15 blocks - one each from the major states of the country. Road laying and minor irrigation were the major activities undertaken. The project had an expenditure of Rs.9.58 lakhs and provided employment for 1.81 lakhs man days. This project also experienced difficulties as that of the earlier projects.

(iv) Employment guarantee scheme of Maharashtra was launched in 1970-'71. The main focus was on relief works in the drought affected areas. The project had an expenditure of Rs.233 crores and generated an employment of 75.9 million man days. Employment was provided to the rural folk within 5 Km. of their residence and facilities in the form of huts, sanitation, drinking water, medical facilities and fair price shops were also arranged. The scheme was implemented through the departments and not through contractors.

(v) Food for work programme or the National rural employment programme was initiated in 77-78 for achieving the twin objectives of employment generation and development of a sound economic and social infrastructure in rural areas.

The programme has financial assistance in the ratio of 50:50 from central and state governments, the centre providing its share in the form of food grains through the Food Corporation of India. The outlay for NREP includes provision both for the material component as well as wage in the ratio 40:60. The overall limit for material component should not exceed 33 per cent in any district. The quantity of food grains (if available) as part of the wages would be two kilograms per head per day, distribution of which should, as far as possible, be through fair price shops. Contractors are excluded totally from the execution of this programme. Efforts are made to involve the Panchayati raj institutions and the works are planned through committees set up at the state and district levels.

Programmes of direct benefit to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes are given priority. The works include major, medium and minor irrigation, flood protection, drainage and anti-water logging, soil and water conservation and reclamation, afforestation and social forestry, road formation

construction of school buildings, drinking water wells panchayat ghars and community halls. The programme had utilised 10,82,025 million tonnes of wheat and 43,595 million tonnes of rice and generated employment worth 438 lakh man days in 1977-'78 and 1,304 lakh man days in 1978-'79.

(vi) Employment generation under IRD the main objectives of the new IRD programme is full employment and growth with distributive justice, through area specific plans within a period of ten years eliciting people's active participation, utilising voluntary agencies, organising training of target groups and field staff at various levels and giving a research base to the programme.

Agricultural development including animal husbandry, fisheries, forestry and horticulture, village, cottage and small industries, tertiary sector employment for various services and labour mobilisation and training in skills are the major activities contemplated.

(vii) Employment generation under rural industrialisation During the sixth plan, about 20 million are expected to be absorbed in agriculture and allied sectors while construction, mining, large scale industries etc. should provide for another 9 million leaving a balance of 17 million

to be tackled by the small scale industry sector including village industries. Of this, the Khadi and Village Industries would take care of 4 million, silk industry 4.5 million, handloom weaving 3.5 million, handicrafts 1.5 million and coir 0.5 million. The balance of 3 million would be the target of employment generation in the modern small scale industry sector during the sixth plan period.

In addition to continuing the existing schemes of government procurement and price preference, new measures are called for including training in entrepreneurship cum managerial aspects, institutional finance, promotion of industrial cooperatives, production planning, investment cum employment subsidy, loan under DIR scheme, machinery on hire purchase, built up sheds in industrial estates, power subsidy, income tax holiday for five years, exemption from fiscal measures, reservations of specific items, administrative support in the form of District Industries Centres, Small Industries Service Institutions, marketing and training support, supply of raw materials and research and development for evolving appropriate technology.

The development of both modern small scale enterprise and cottage or traditional industries is primarily a state subject, with a Director of Industries at the state level. In order to give more impetus to the work, a number of central and state level institutions have also sprung up (Mohanty, 1980).

The chief among them include Small Industries Development Corporation (SIDCO), National Small Industries Corporation (NSIC), Small Industries Corporation set up by the states and All India Handloom Board, Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC), All India Handicrafts Board and Central Silk Board and Central Coir Board.

Financial help for the above schemes is received from central and state governments, the banking system (comprising the Reserve Bank of India, the commercial and regional rural banks, and the cooperative banks), the State Financial Corporation (SFC), the National Small Industries Corporation (NSIC) and the State Small Industries Corporation (SSIC).

The Government of India introduced in 1978, the scheme of the District Industries Centre (DIC), to provide a 'focal point' for the development of small scale and cottage industries. The DIC is charged with the responsibility of providing all the services and support to small entew entrepreneurs. The major achievement of this administrative innovation is to decentralise decision making from the state to the district level, which relate to registration of small units, allotment of raw materials, providing recommendation to various district authorities for allotment of land, administrative clearances etc. The DIC

also provides a forum for coordination with various agencies engaged in the rural industrialisation programmes.

Reviewing the various programmes created for employment generation over the years, Mathur (1980) points out that there is need to link the employment generation programmes, adult education and development of skills for production and entrepreneurial capabilities through a national training system with support from different departments and institutions. Adequate provision of health services would also require to be considered as an integral part of employment generation programmes to promote productivity.

There is an urgent need to have the employment generation as part of national policy-frame in which incomes and wages, price stablisation, fiscal and monetary policies and reservation for protected sectors have to be viewed as total integral complex.

b. Commercial Banks

Creation of a strong financial infrastructure is an imperative need for the healthy growth of the economy. Institutionalising credit in the villages is a phenomenon of the 20th century in India. The banking system is one of the few institutions that impinges on the economy and affects its performance (Jayalakshmi, 1976).

Since nationalisation, the public sector banks in India have been following a policy in conformity with the national objectives and priorities. Commercial banks have been adopting villages for development with multi-dimensional approach (Bose, 1978). They try to bring the benfit of development to the rural areas, especially to those who have been passed by, in the growth process.

Singh (1981) states that the performance of banks in India during the period 1969-'79 is commendable.

Branches of Scheduled commercial banks increased by 21940 from 8262 in June '69 to 30202 in June '79. Of the new offices, more than half (11476) were opened in unbanked centres. The average population per bank branch declined from 65,000 to 18,000 during this period.

Aggregate deposits of the banks increased by Rs.26190 crores from Rs.4646 crores in June '69 to Rs.30836 in December '79 (fourfold increase during the decade).

The aggregate advances rose by Rs.17,260 crores from Rs.3599 crores in June '69 to Rs.20859 crores in December '79.

The share of priority sector in the total credit rose from 15 per cent at the end of June '69 to 30.6 per cent at the end of June '79.

Investment in government and other approved securities increased by Rs.9961 crores during the period to Rs.11006

crores in June '79. Credit under DIR scheme rose from mere 0.02 per cent in 1972 (Rs.87.3 lakhs) to 0.94 per cent (Rs.140.96 crores) in December 1979.

The number of public sector banks has increased from 22 in 1969 to 28 in 1980 and their share in deposits has gone up from 83.3 per cent to 90.9 per cent, in credit from 83.8 per cent to 90.5 per cent and in offices from 79.8 per cent to 87.9 per cent.

According to the perspective five year plan (1978-82) prepared by the National Institute of Bank Management (NIBM) banks would be creating additional employment to the extent of 18.3 millions over the five year period. Besides creating direct employment through lending operations, banks are also instrumental in creating indirect employment through the newly born units which induce growth of numerous input producing and output consuming types of industrial activities. Out of the 29.5 million persons entering the labour force during 1978-'82, more than 15 million are likely to get employment within the banking system or with the help of the system (Gupta, 1979).

Commercial banks give special attention to women's programmes. Vasantha and Sithalakshmi (1979) conducted a study with 25 banks, on the income generating projects undertaken by rural women with the aid of commercial banks. All the

banks gave loans for agriculture and animal husbandry. Eighty per cent gave loans also for small scale and cottage industries. Out of 25, 11 banks had adopted villages under their direct concern. The maximum number of rural women benefited from an individual bank was reported to be 394. The amounts of loans given commensurated with the need and repaying capacities of the parties. The loans were utilised to initiate new socioeconomic projects or expand the existing ones. The loans were expected to be repaid in 15-30 instalments. The banks not only functioned as commercial organisations but wished to maintain good interpersonal relationship with their parties. The study in short pointed out the potentialities of commercial banks in augmenting family income in the rural areas.

Soundaranayakam and Sithalakshmi (1980) point out that the awareness of rural women with regard to commercial banks is high, the major sources of information being neighbours, relatives and personal enquiries. However, the utilisation of this infrastructure was rather poor, 24 per cent utilising them as a means of saving and only 12 per cent for obtaining loans for promoting self employment. The reasons for the poor utilisation were: ignorance about bank procedures and location of the banks outside their own villages. The women interviewed gave worthwhile suggestions for better utilisation of the services of commercial banks such as education of women on the

procedures for obtaining loans, introduction of bank officials and giving priority to women while offering loans. They felt that the rural community organisations such as mahila mandals and Youth Clubs should take a lead in this direction. The bank officials contacted held high opinions about rural women since they repaid the loans promptly.

The role of ab banks in IRD can be only participative. While making available the input of credit, banks can actively endeavour to make sure that alongwith credit, certain other important pre requisites for actual development and increase in productivity are made available. Banks are assuming increasing responsibilities in development, in collaboration with other agencies operating at the grass root level (Nagar, 1977).

Ramaswamy (1980) suggests that the rural bank can become the focus of many developmental inputs. According to the enlarged concept of social banking, the rural banking systems should become a store-house of knowledge and skills bearing on the entire range of rural activities. They should be able to advise the farmer on small rural industry, mixed farming, dairying, storing and marketing. Printed literature which could be assimilated by the rural people should be produced by the banking systems. Commercial banks need to associate professionals, technologists and scientists in their routine work.

c. Khadi and Village Industries

In 1957, the Government of India, constituted a statutory body, the All India Khadi & Village Industries Commission (KVIC) as an agency for the development of Khadi and Village Industries with suitable powers and adequate funds. The KVIC is trying to solve the problem of unemployment through various village industries categorised under (1) Food and beverages (2) Textiles (3) Leather and Leather goods (4) Carpentry (5) Sericulture and (6) Metal and metalware.

The KVIC has played a creditable part in promoting improved technology in khadi and village industries by introducing wide range of modern tools, equipment and power for the production of coarse cotton cloth, the village leather industry, gobar gas plant, extraction of oil from non-edible seeds, bee-keeping and vegetable fibre industries, offering enormous employment opportunities (Subramanian, 1978).

At present, the KVIC has a network of 20 statutory boards, 700 registered institutions and 27,000 cooperatives; its marketing outlets consist of 12 emporia, 3500 khadi bhavans and bhandars and about 10,000 sales points (Gramodyog Sales Depots). It has 24 village industries (Mathur, 1980).

Table I gives the details of progress in the Khadi and Village Industries over the period 1968-1978 (KVIC, 1979).

TABLE I

PROGRESS OF KHADI AND VILLAGE INDUSTRIES

S.No.	Indices	Khadi		Village Industries		Total	
		68-69	77-78	68-69	77-78	68-69	77-78
1.	Production (in Rs. Crores)	23.38	64.89	75.12	192.54	98.50	257.43
2.	Employment (in lakhs person)						
	Part Time	12.03	6.83	7.38	11.79	19.41	18.62
	Full Time	1.32	2.39	0.79	3.15	2.11	5.54
3.	Earnings (in Rs. Crores)	13.27	31.06	12.19	50.10	25.46	81.16

There had been a tremendous growth in both Khadi and Village Industries in terms of production potentials, employment generation and earnings.

Research and development efforts financed by the National Committee on Science and Technology were taken through 22 schemes mainly towards evolution of appropriate technology. Some important achievements have been in palm gur, plam product, eri and tussar silk, tussar waste, muslin khadi, utilisation of non-edible oils and Charka technology.

The Khadi and Village Industries has the unique feature of generating employment suitable for women (details Table II) owing to the characteristics of light operation, feasibility of being plied during hours convenient to women after or while attending to domestic chores in the homes and the artistic nature of the jobs.

TABLE II

EXTENT OF PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN THE VARIOUS INDUSTRIES IN THE KHADI AND VILLAGE INDUSTRIES SECTOR (KVIC, 1979)

S.No.	Industry	Approximate percentage of women's participation in industry--overall
I	**Khadi**	
	1. Cotton	60 - 75
	2. Woolen	40
	3. Silk	50 - 60
II	**Village Industries**	
	1. Processing of cereals and pulses	80
	2. Village leather	10
	3. Cottage match	45
	4. Palmgur and other palm products	35
	5. Non-edible oil and soap	40
	6. Handmade paper	10
	7. Village pottery	35 - 40
	8. Fibre	50 - 60
	9. Lime manufacturing	15 - 20
	10. Collection of forest plants for medicinal purposes	50
	11. Collection of (i) gums	50
	(ii) resins	20
	12. Katha	50
	13. Fruit processing and preservation	50
	14. Bamboo and canes	35 - 40

Apart from Khadi, foodgrains processing has a tremendous potential for employing rural women.

Most of the village industries have the nature of household pattern of work. The children, women folk and elderly persons of the family can also participate in the work, and hence the family becomes the unit of operation. If the various women's organisations can come forward to promote these activities, the benefits will be larger. The women's organisations can help the development programme in popularising the products, methods of manufacture and other allied matters. There is an urgent need for co-ordination and co-operation between the Central Social Welfare Board and the KVIC at the national level. Besides, the State Social Welfare Advisory Boards and State Khadi and Village Industries Boards can render a helping hand in the development of the programme. (Venkateswaran, 1978).

The study carried out by Soundaranayakam and Sithalakshmi (1980) on the extent of utilisation of infrastructure by women for their development, pointed out the great role played by KVIC and the associated Tamil Nadu Sarvodaya Sangh on generating employment in the rural areas specially for the women folk. Ambar charka spinning was the common activity found in all the five villages surveyed in Coimbatore Taluk. It was observed that wherever the

spinning units were run under the direct supervision and technical guidance of the KVIC or the Sarvodaya Sangh, the units were viable. On the other hand, wherever the women started spining as individuals, the programme suffered for want of supply of raw materials in time, technical guidance and ready marketing of the produce. The spinning programme fetched an income of Rs.25 to Rs.45 per week per spinner. All the 50 women surveyed had the habit of saving part of their income. Wherever literacy classes were built into the effort, participation in the spining programme made the women functionally literate by enabling them to put their signature, learn basic arithmetic for calculating the number of hanks produced and learn the names of the parts of the charka. The social benefits realised were team work, group living and inculcation of the spirit of Khadi, patriotism, organisational abilities and healthy competitions. Facilities such as provision of nutritious snacks once a week and nature cure guidance offered by the Tamil Nadu Sarvodaya Sangh were the additional health benefits.

Sarojadevi and Narayanaswamy (1981) studied the economic programmes sponsored by the Khadi and Village Industries in Coimbatore and Madurai Districts. Nearly 65 per cent respondents in each of the areas selected had a monthly earning of Rs.200 - 500. Almost all had followed their traditional occupations. The loans obtained ranged

from Rs.150 to Rs.5000 depending on the nature of the industries. Potters received the lowest amount and those who had set up soap industry or the printing press received the highest amount.

The working Group on Khadi and Village Industries has proposed certain measures to enlarge the activities during the Sixth Five Year Plan (1978-79 to 1983-84). From the present level of employment of 10.23 lakhs in 1976-77 in Khadi, they propose to increase employment to 19.89 lakhs (95 per cent increase) in 1983-84. Employment in village industries would increase from the level of 11.81 lakhs (1976-77) to 57.69 lakhs in 1983-84 (394 per cent increase). As for production, in Khadi, it would increase from Rs.55 crores in 1976-77 to Rs.189.54 crores in 1983-84 (345 per cent). In village industries there would be a manifold increase from the present level of production of Rs.181 crores in 1976-77 to Rs.6,206.78 crores in 1983-84 (3,329 per cent). The net additional outlay for six years for khadi would be of Rs.550.21 crores. In village industries it would be Rs.998.33 crores. The total outlay for six years thus would be of the order of Rs.1,937.76 crores which would provide employment to 77.58 lakh persons and their production would be of the order of Rs.6,396.32 crores in the terminal years of the Six Year Plan (Mathur,1980).

d. Central Social Welfare Board:

The Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB) was set up by the Government of India in 1953 to give financial and technical assistance and to promote welfare services through the voluntary welfare organisations. The programmes of CSWB are the following:

Grant-in-aid
Condensed courses of education for adult women
Socioeconomic projects
Creches for children of working and ailing mothers
Supplementary nutrition and
Training of Women in public cooperation

The CSWB has been giving grants upto 75 per cent for Mahila Mandals. The amount sanctioned is as follows:

Year	Amount released (in lakhs) Rs. in lakhs
1953-63	Rs. 60
1963-73	Rs. 280
1973-78	Rs. 190

The scheme of condensed courses of education was sponsored in 1958 for the benefit of deserving women between the ages of 18 - 30 years. The following courses are sponsored.

1. Two year educational course for adult women to prepare them for school final examination
2. One year course for SSLC failed women

and 3. Vocational training courses.

These education courses are implemented by the vouluntary welfare institutions for women. Cent per cent assistance is given by the CSWB for these courses and upto March 1978, a total of 2,350 courses were conducted for 52,749 beneficiaries (CSWB Annual Report, 1979).

Realizing the need for providing economic programmes to the needy women, the CSWB initiated the socio-economic programmes as early as in 1954. The socioeconomic programmes has so far (upto 1978) helped 11,502 women through 525 units set up with an outlay of Rs.115.60 lakhs.

The Dairy Scheme by CSWB is essentially an agrobased scheme started in 1973-74, providing self-employment to war widows and destitutes, assisting them with interest free loans. So far the CSWB has set up 699 agrobased units of dairy, piggery, poultry and sheep rearing and spent Rs.131.35 lakhs thereby benefiting 6,314 needy women (CSWB Annual Report,1979).

Several modifications are suggested from time to time in the scope and implementation of the programmes of CSWB. During the Sixteenth Conference of the Chairmen of State Social Welfare Advisory Boards in September 1980, (Report 1980) the creation of a District Coordinating Agency has been conceived as a vital link between the voluntary

institutions and the Board's State/Central level organisations. This new link at the District level will also act as a springboard of voluntary action and promotion of new voluntary agencies for the delivery of services in uncovered areas and for unrovered groups of people.

The absence of training of voluntary workers has been a serious handicap in the implementation of many programmes. Stress has therefore been laid on the training of voluntary workers and the creation of a new cadre of grassroot level organizers who could become pivotal persons in forming new voluntary organisations for the benefit of women and children. This thrust is found to result in an accelerated process of development in the rural, backward and tribal areas. Besides, closer monitoring and realistic programming will become possible by these effective links.

The CSWB envisages adopting a common pattern of assistance for all the Welfare Extension Projects grouped under Mahila Mandals, Demonstration project balwadies, Integrated preschool projects and Welfare Extension projects (Urban and C D)., treating them as composite welfare and development projects. Some of these projects are already implemented by registered voluntary institutions. The new proposal of establinshing composite welfare and development projects of the CSWB around the existing

institutional project base numbering around 523 with 1,875 centres, with a financial outlay of Rs.883 lakhs for the 6th plan, will provide a good infrastructural base for the delivery of extensive welfare services to the communities in these areas.

Table III points out the expenditure in the previous years as well as the outlay for the 6th plan along with the physically targets envisaged by the CSWB .

TABLE III

OUTLAY AND TARGETS OF THE CSWB PROGRAMMES

S.No.	Programme/Scheme	Expenditure (1979-80) Rs. in lakhs	Allocation (1980-81) Rs. in lakhs	Outlay (1980-85) Rs.in lakhs	Physical Targets (1980-85)
I.	General Grant-in-aid:				
	1. Voluntary organisation	96.85	95.00	880	40,000 grants
	2. Holiday camps for children	35.14	33.00	340	7,000 camps
	1. Establishment of a district coordinating agency for CSWB	---	---	273	390 dist. agencies
	2. Training/orientation of voluntary workers	---	---	74	470 courses
	3. Preparation of documentary films/film library	---	---	50	--
	4. Scheme for rehabilitation of cured laprosy patients	---	---	290	40 homes 2000 beneficiaries
	5. Homes for unattached women and old persons	---	---	400	50 Homes; 2000 beneficiaries
	6. Balodaya kendra	---	---	2,120	10,000 kendras 5 lakhs children
	7. Excursion trips for non-student youth from the island states and border areas to other parts of the country	---	---	225	1,500 trips 22,250 beneficiaries
	8. Establishment charges	---	---	172	
	G r a n d T o t a l : Rs.15,196 lakhs (say) Rs. 152 crores.				

Ref: Sixteenth Conference of the Chairman of the State Boards (1980).

The anticipated outlay on the programmes of the Board, retaining the actual outlay for 1980-81 at the present levels come to Rs.152 crores. This comprises of Rs.115.9 crores (80 per cent) for intensifying the implementation of the existing programmes and Rs.36.04 crores on new schemes amounting to about 20 per cent of the proposed outlay.

While huge allocations are made by the Board, the successful implementation lies in the hands of the agencies receiving the funds. Gopalan (1980) outlines the factors for the successful implementation of the socio-economic programmes as market, skill, finance, appropriate technology and appropriate agency. Referring to a study commissioned by the Board in 1975, she points out, roughly 50 per cent of the projects alone achieved a fair degree of success. The major problem was that the enterprise could not achieve the capacity it should, for either want of markets, quality of production or level of skill and entrepreneurship. The CSWB finds it difficult to advise anxious groups of people who would like to take up economic ventures, or what they could do successfully, as there is no data bank in the country which can readily throw up the kinds of products that can be taken up or is there an established market network for a traditional product.

The specific suggestions for improving the socio-

economic programmes are to have a national plan of action to mapout resources and market potentials, to develop linkages between training, production and market components, to establish a market network for the products, to arrange for timely availability of finance, to identify appropriate technology and research and to set up a strong organisational base.

e. Cooperatives:

A Cooperative Society is essentially an association of persons who join together on a voluntary basis for the furtherance of their common economic interest.

To promote a cooperative way of life is an important objective of community development. Coperatives can come to the aid of the weak and small farmers and promote social cohesion and economic equality (Mukerji, 1965).

Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, the first Prime Minister of India always exhorted that co-operative is not a programme thrust upon the people from outside but one which sought to achieve the objective of happier, healthier and more prosperous India, with the active participation of the people themselves (Nehru, 1969). The movement today has become a mammoth organisation covering about 95 per cent of the villages and 45 per cent of rural population (Sharma and Malhotra, 1977).

Since the cooperatives are the institutions of the people and by the people, they are used for the upliftment of the poor sections of the society and to protect them from the exploitation of middlemen and contractors. The principles of cooperation are open membership, political and religious neutrality, democratic control, distribution of surplus to members, promotion of business transactions, limited interest on capitals, pure goods and fair measures, sales at prevailing market price and promotion of education (Savile, 1976). Co-operatives aim at arranging for better farming, better living and better business for people.

Panchayati raj and co-operatives are living and dynamic incubators for democracy, growing and changing with the people. Whereas panchayati raj has taken democracy to the doors, cooperatives have played a significant role in providing institutional support to the organisation or agricultural production, accelerating the process of modernisation, providing an efficient distribution channel, maximizing consumer welfare and curtailing monopoly power (Sharma and Malhotra, 1977).

Women being beneficiaries of the several types of cooperatives in the rural areas have a great role to play in the organisation and functioning of cooperatives. In 1975, a Women's Cooperative Finance Corporation Ltd, was started in

Andhra Pradesh, as a step in the direction of improving the economic background of women folk. Out of the 20,000 women beneficiaries who received assistance from the corporation, as many as 8,900 had taken up dairying, while 6,301 and 4,312 had opted to take vegetable and fruit vending and provision stores and tailoring centres (Rao, 1978).

SEWA (Self Employed Women's Association) organised by Elaben Bhat, in Gujarat, is a Trade Union of unorganised women, working for the economic development of rural as well as urban poor. Vendors, quilt makers, garment workers, road construction workers, hand cart pullers, junk smiths, wastage pickers and others were organised, trained and motivated to work for their rights.

In a similar way in Tmilnadu, with the initiative of Jaya Arunachalam, a Working Women's Forum has been formed whereby, the very poor and illiterate women are moving on to leadership from absolute destitute conditions. They have now learnt to deal with banks, visit government offices and serve as examples of self initiation. A proposal is with the Government of Tamilnadu to start a credit and service society to offer credit to poor women and organise day-care centres, leadership training schemes and production units to help women. The rural landless women are also helped to organise dairy and poultry farming, through animal husbandary cooperatives (Arunachalam, 1981).

The main shortcomings of the co-operative system in India are the problem of overdues, indifferent management, domination by vested interests, shortage of resources, lack of effort to mobilize deposits, untrained staff and certain policies and procedures followed which are not suitable to local environment (Sharma and Malhotra, 1977).

A study by Vimala and Narayanaswamy (1980) on eight different types of cooperative societies pointed out that the people who got the loans from the society were not repaying the loans in time due to the interference of political factors and natural calamities, which reduced the services of the society. The major suggestion for improvement was that the members should be educated on the principles of cooperation. Another finding of this study was that out of 200 members randomly selected only 27.5 per cent were women.

The IRD needs active involvement of various cooperative organisations. They can participate in schemes leading to generation of additional employment, implementation of productive programmes and of the grass-root level beneficiary oriented activities with tertiary sector. Since these cooperatives have better knowledge of the available physical, human and animal resources in the area, they can design flexible and need oriented programmes for development from the village level upwards and promote backward, forward and

horizontal linkages. Such integration shall cover the entire gamut of rural life, since cooperatives have entered the areas of production, marketing and distribution in a very big way (Lakshman, 1980). Apart from co-ordination of the different lines within the structure, some harmony must be brought about between the various agencies and departments, the functions of which, overlap. There is also the need for a vigorous programme of cooperative education and training both for officials and non-officials (Sharma and Malhotra, 1977).

3. Infrastructure for educational development:

a) Programme for formal education:

Today, there is a growing recognition about the role the educational institutions from the local balwadi or elementary school to those of higher education play in rural upliftment. As stated by the Education Commission (1964-66), Kothari, 1966, the destiny of India is being shaped in her classrooms.

Education cannot be considered in isolation or planned in a vacuum. It has to be used as an instrument of social, economic and political chagnge and should be related to solving the problems of national development. In a predominantly rural country, education and rural development are complementary to each other. For this purpose education needs to be reoriented, from time to time, to the changes brought about in the society. This integral relationship between education and development needs to be exploited in the current efforts on rural development (Ambastha, 1977; Yojana, 1978 and Singh, 1977).

Quoting the National Seminar and Conference on Education for Rural Development, Nayar (1978) states that in linking education with development, the school can be used as an effective base for socio-economic extension which can fill the vacuum that exists between the extension agency at the block level and the village level.

The village school was given a pride of place when the Community Development programme was initiated and it was expected to serve as one of the three basic institutions, shaping the destiny of the rural areas. The primary teacher is the most suitable person in the village to shoulder the responsibility of organising the youth. As early as in 1960, the National Conference on Community Development recommended that the local school teacher should be entrusted with this responsibility because of his position, as an educated and enlightened person in the village (Srivastava, 1956 and Orientation and Study Centre, 1961).

Parent-teacher Associations (PTAs) in the villages can undertake the job of non formal education and enlist people's participation, so essential to bring in rapid social change. The stronger the relationship between the school and the community, the better shall be the development for both (Gujral, 1976).

Unfortunately there does not exist a conducive relationship between the rural school and the community. Studies conducted in several parts of Coimbatore District reveal that the community does not show interest in knowing about the school such as number of teachers, pupils or in sending their children to school. Yet, there is awareness about the midday meals; but no effort was made to assist in the

meal programmes. The schools are lacking in minimum amenities such as drinking water, toilet facilities, playground or sheds for preparation of midday meals. The PTA s either did not exist or were defunct. When attempts were made by researches to strengthen the school-community relationships through initiating or strengthening PTAs and introducing meaningful activities, the responses were encouraging. The attempts resulted in creation of basic facilities for the school such as drinking water, water tanks, kitchen garden, midday meals sheds, urinals and latrines for the school, library, fencing for the school, playground and durable assets like furniture and equipment. The other benefits are that the schools are transformed into springboards of health and nutrition education, sanitation and adult literacy. Better attendance and participation are noted in school functions and a stronger linkage is observed between the village school and the other community organisations such as Mahila Mandal, Youth Clubs and Welfare Committees. These attempts have thrown light on the fact that if properly kindled, these little sparks of leadership and community spirit may glow well and brighten the nation at large. (Ramathal and Sithalakshmi (1971), Sasikala and Leelavathy (1975), Padmakumari and Thangamani (1974), Ratnakumari and Narayanaswamy (1975), Kalaivani and Narayanaswamy (1976), Ramabhai and Narayanaswamy (1976), Jayalakshmi and Narayanaswamy (1977) and Kamalam and

LIBRARY

Narayanaswamy (1979)). Sufficient motivation on the part of teachers, parents and the community has resulted in better school-community relationships.

In addition to the primary school in the rural areas, the preschools are finding an important place in contributing to the development of the community from the points of view of education and nutrition and health.

The progress and prosperity of the nation are related to the growth and development of its children. The Indian term 'Balwadi' literally means 'Garden of Children' where children of the age group 2½ - 6 years learn and grow in the companionship of their peer groups, and the guidance of a loving and tender woman, called a 'Balasevika' or a 'Pre-school teacher'.

A balwadi is an extension upward and outward the home and family, rather than an extension downward of the primary school. It tries to promote the social growth of the children by maintaining, strengthening and enriching each child's personal relationship with his family and by introducing him at the same time to a wider world of people and opportunities. The major objectives of a balwadi are to:-

a) Enable the child to learn and practise the basic principle of healthful living;

b) promote the physical growth and motor development through coordination of the large and finer muscles of the child;

c) promote emotional and social development of the child;

d) promote the intellectual, language and aesthetic development of the child

and e) form desirable habits of eating, personal cleanliness and environmental neatness. (Ramji and Goyal, 1972).

Packiam and Sitthalakshmi (1977) organised a balwadi in a rural area and evaluated the outcomes which are as follows. Children registered increase in heights and weights owing to their participation in the supplementary feeding programme initiated in the balwadi. The balwadi children improved considerably in their personal hygiene and in overcoming behaviour problems. The parent education programme inculcated in the parents specially in the mothers, desirable attitudes towards the balwadi and improved their knowledge and understanding of the concepts of child care, nutrition, health and hygiene.

Shashikala et al (1974) through their study, confirmed that the balwadi could be used as an instrument of nutrition education to children, parents and the community.

Navaroji and Leelavathy (1976) conducted a study on eliciting local participation to improve the balwadi. They found that the efforts of the local leaders and organisation, the Mahalir Manram, the Youth Club and the PTA of the balwadi brought beneficial improvement in the health habits of the children.

Pushpabai et al(1973), Padmini and Leelavathy (1976), and Zacharia and Velmayil (1977) conducted studies on organising parent education programmes in balwadi. They found that the mothers started preparing new recipes in their homes as a result of the exposure to the education provided. Furthermore the mothers had become aware of the aims and objectives of the balwadi and purposes of the PTA. They expressed that they would develop better relationship with the balwadi teachers. A few parents learnt tailoring which was an economic boost to their family income.

Pointing out the value of higher education, Udgaonkar (1977) states that universities can become an instrument of social change if they involve their students and faculty in extension work and action research to lead to social change. The young in the universities have to be sensitised to the rural conditions and helped to think about the possible contribution that they could make to national development, rural development in particular.

The student community is a vast reservoir of human energy waiting to be harnessed for useful purposes. This would be possible only when their education is related to the solution of their personal and community problems, with close association between the curriculum and the community. The introduction of National Service Scheme (NSS), Community and

Social Service (CSS) in colleges in the University of Madras and Socially Useful Productive Work in the academic stream at the plus 2 stage in the Higher Secondary Schools, are attempts to realise the objectives spelt out by the Education Commission (1964-'66). Such services would become instruments to build character, improve discipline, inculcate faith in the dignity of manual labour, develop a sense of social responsibility and foster closer ties between educated persons and the rest of the community (Devadas and Sithalakshmi, 1980).

Quoting the Patel Committee Report, Raizada (1979) summarises the specific objectives of socially useful productive work as relating education to life and productivity providing them with educational and vocational guidance and offering a variety of forward looking experiences.

The aims of the NSS are to promote in students of higher education, national consciousness and a sense of social responsibility, to inculcate discipline, dignity of labour to help in the total development of personality and educational service to the community. From its inception, this scheme envisaged exposing the student community to social realities and thereby creating an urge in them for greater involvement in social service and nation building activities. Launched in 1969-'70, in 37 universities with the objective of imparting

education through community service, today 113 universities in more than 3000 colleges all over India have NSS. The enrolment of NSS student volunteers has increased from 40000 in 1969-'70, to 4,44,000 in 1979-'80 (Shah, 1979).

The overall objective of NSS is educational service to the community. The specific objectives are to arouse the students to social conscience and to provide them with the opportunity to work with and among people.

During the last 12 years, the growth of NSS has been phenomenal. The influence of NSS on college students was studied by Soundravalli et al (1974), Kamaleshwari and Sithalakshmi (1981) and Srilakshmi and Sithalakshmi (1981). They foundout that the NSS volunteers had realized fully their role in nation building, and had imbibed qualities such as cooperation, service mindedness, patience and enthusiasm through their involvement in group activities. Participation in the college and in the intercollegiate camps, offered specific and meaningful work experience to the volunteers and gave momentum to the entire programme in addition to development of leadership qualities. They had participated fully in the National Adult Education Programme.

Kand Sithalakshmi / Bala's (1981) study confirms the above findings in terms of influence signified by the role of NSS volunteers

in nation building activities, acquisition of the spirit of service and personality development. The specific outcomes pointed out by the 400 volunteers studied were: aquisition of leadership traits, development of positive attitude towards social service, skills development, education through service, development of faith in the people, personality development, preparation for careers connected with community development and creation of useful community assets.

The NSS scheme has witnessed a major change in emphasis and greater stress is now being laid on the involvement of the students in constructive and developmental programme, particularly in rural areas (Hulbe and Gaikwad, 1978). NSS has now come to be viewed as a 'movement' and not merely a 'scheme' (Ranganathan, 1979). It has been established as a co-curricular work. The recent trend is to integrate the curriculum with the developmental activities in the community. Such integration would bring realism to the course of study, since the subject matter studied can be applied to life situations. The philosophy of CSS introduced in the colleges of the University of Madras as a pioneering venture, to integrate education with community service, emphasises educating the people to help themselves. Using

the available resources and infrastructure, through their needs people can outline suitable programmes to meet them. The CSS activities are educational experiments to facilitate social change, foster modernisation and promote scientific living (Devadas, 1977).

However, mass mobilisation of youth from educational institutions requires great ideological commitment and a style of leadership that can stir the depths of social conscience (Gore, 1977).

A study conducted by Thangamani and Devadas (1978) to evaluate the CSS in operation in 28 colleges affiliated to the University of Madras has shown that the CSS has paved the way for the students to serve the community with their subject matter knowledge. The study points out the need for proper training of staff and students to prepare them to meet the challenge of orientation to the community and also the necessity for coordination of CSS with the existing administrative set up. The study by Ezhilarasi and Thangamani (1979) also confirmed this finding. Leelavathy and Devadas (1978) explored the scope of involving colleges in the implementation of the National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) and found that the potentialities of utilising the student power in this national task are great.

The educational, scientific and technological institutions have the multi-disciplinary competence to develop appropriate technologies for meeting the basic needs in the rural areas. Such redeployment of efforts using the existing infrastructure is a far more effective measure than creating new institutions for appropriate technology (Reddy, 1977). As Swaminathan (1976) suggests, organisation of a Rural Resource Corps manned by young professionals who volunteer to serve in the rural areas for a minimum period of 2 - 3 years will give opportunities for young doctors, engineers, agricultural scientists, veterinarians, social and home scientists to function as professional interns and acquire professional experience, maturity, insight and sympathy in understanding the realities of life in rural communities. In order to hasten the process of marrying intellect with labour, all educational scientific and technological institutions should be assigned well defined responsibilities for undertaking resource analysis for selected areas, and for preparing portfolios of viable projects in consultation with the people of that area. Each such action plan should be tailored to suit local needs, resources and priorities based upon participation of the local community.

b) Adult education and functional literacy

Adult education is indispensable in this modern world which is progressing scientifically and technologically, to bring about corresponding changes in social structures, human behaviours and responsibilities. Adult education is a tool for fostering and developing human qualities of mutual understanding, respect, sympathy and co-existence (Devadas, 1979). Without adult education, it is not possible to have economic and social development. Adult education helps in developing a rational attitude (Gupta, 1980).

Recognising illiteracy as a major hindrance to social and economic progress, the United Nations General Assembly called on UNESCO to make studies on the problem and workout strategies to fulfil the plans for the Development Decade. The Experimental Literacy programme of UNESCO was thus born (Burnet, 1965).

The Education Commission (1964-'66) has recommended that literacy along with its other components is a very effective means for the intelligent participation of men and women in the democratic institution and also in shaping the destiny of their own country in the long run. Adult education improves the personality of an individual in the totality of the welfare of the society both objectively and subjectively (Mathur, 1976).

When India got Independence in 1947, the percentage of illiteracy was as high as 86, which had decreased to 70 per cent in 1971. According to the 1971 census, literacy in India was 29.35 per cent for the total population; for males in was 40 per cent, while for women it was only 18.47 The census figures of 1981 reveal that India has literacy level of 36.17 per cent; 46.74 for males and 24.88 for women. Though the percentage of literacy shows improvement the absolute number of illiterates has increased from 37.2 crores in 1971 to 42 crores in 1981 (Padmanabha, 1981).

Supporting the literacy programme, the Prime Minister Smt. Indira Gandhi (1981) has pointed out that the nation must be made literate, and people should not be allowed to be exploited merely because they cannot read documents to which they have to put their thumb impressions.

Adult education is need oriented and could be defined as 'learning by objectives'. Conscientisation is an important element in adult education (Jayagopal, 1979).

Adult education requires a clear selective criterion; non an education which gives priority to quantitative factors of social and individual life but to qualitative factors. This selective criterion should ensure that adult education will provide the real emancipation of manking (Echeverria, 1981).

Literacy should become a part of work, of recreation, of religions observances and discharges of family respnn-sibilities. Practice of literacy should also opne up opportunities of personal progress, an aspect of which is the

possibility to enter the formal stream of education (Bordia, 1978).

Citing a lovely example from Nature, Swaminathan (1977), the leading agricultural scientist in India, has pointed out that evolution of progressive life system depends upon symbiois (mutually beneficial interaction) and synergy (generation of multiplier effect). Likewise the systems in adult education will have to blend formal with the non-formal, academic with the vocational and university with the school, so as to result in symbiosis and synergy, the two principles, nature has so beautifully employed in evolution.

The products of science become important factors in the daily lives of adults and therefore literacy must be combined with agriculture, industrial technology, child care, health, economics and programmes of adult education (Thomas and Kundo, 1978).

In order that adult education becomes a vital and effective instrument in the service of the poor, it is essential to redefine its priorities and functions and restructure the total and educational services in rural India (Indian Adult Education Association, 1975).

Education needs to be linked with rural development for strong, social, economic and pedagogic reasons (National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators, 1977). Adult education must be provided by a multiplicity of agencies

and voluntary organisations rather than by a single Government department. Adult Education should be integrated closely into the educational system of a country (Indian Adult Education Association, 1961).

Stressing the role of universities in rural development, the Commission on Higher Education for Women appointed by the University of Madras in 1977 (Devadas, 1979) exhorted that in order to alleviate the pressing national problems, students in higher education need to be trained in functional literacy related to human nutrition, rural arts and crafts, engineering, housing, food preservation, balwadi organization, small savings and family welfare, to prepare them for national work.

Delivering the Zakir Husain Memorial Lecture, Devadas(1979) stressed that attention should be given to integrate meaningfully the three major components of adult education, namely, literacy, awareness and functionality. Literacy components should be supplemented by suitable economic programmes.

The main concern for the literacy programmes, is change in the individual's thinking (Bacucom, 1978). Adult education is an educational emanation, based on the ideology that every man is a thinking, teachable, learnable individual, an individual who is endowed with rights which he has been deprived of, an individual who thus becomes

conscious of his rights and the need to exercise them fully and responsibly. Out of school education is thus, inherently human and deeply democratic (Adiseshiah, 1973).

The pattern of formal education being urban-oriented, cannot meet the hopes and aspirations of the rural people. It is here that adult literacy or in a wider sense, non formal education has a dominant role to play (Sen, 1979).

In the context of massive poverty and unemployment, developmental activities and non formal education need the strong support of official and non official organizations, to unite the poor and organize them so that they can generate sufficient power, self-esteem and confidence (Chowdhry, 1979). Non formal education can help youth to improve their skills, knowledge and understanding (Adiseshiah, 1977).

Delivering the Zakir Hussain Memorial Lecture Naik (1976) enumerated several conditions essential for the success of non formal education programmes.

In the context of its experimental World Literacy Programme, UNESCO (1976) has suggested that functional literacy should be incorporated into and correlated with economic and social development plans and with highly motivated people who need literacy for their own and their country's benefits. Literacy must be an integral part

of the overall education plan and literacy programmes must impart not only reading and writing, but also lead to fuller participation of adults in economic and civil life. Literacy is both a cause and effect of development (Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, 1968).

Literacy is thus perceived as fundamental social change - an experiment in human liberation. According to UNESCO standards, a minimum of four years' schooling is required for an individual to reach and maintain functional literacy (Das, 1979).

The Fourth Regional Conference of the Ministers of Education and those responsible for economic planning in Asia and Oceania held in 1978 in Sri Lanka (Indian Journal of Adult Education, 1978) made a resolution that the member countries must accelerate the struggle against illiteracy.

The problems of poverty and illiteracy are two aspects of the same stupendous problem and the struggle to overcome one without at the same time waging a fight against the other is certain to result in aberrations and disappointments (Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Government of India, 1978). Unless the poor and illiterate, to whom the benefits of economic development hardly percolate down,

become aware of their entitlements and articulate to get them on their own, the disparity between the rich and the poor is likely to increase inspite of the growth in national wealth (Jalaluddin, 1978).

The Government of India accepted squarely in 1978, the responsibility for adult education and eradication of illiteracy. The launching of the NAEP on October 2nd, 1978, is an act of fulfilment of the national promise to liberate the millions of illiterate men and women and to aid them to become self-reliant, responsible and responsive citizens. Though the NAEP, the hitherto sporadic efforts of the Farmers' Functional Literacy Programmes, Non-formal Education Programmes of the Education Department, Social Education of the Community Development Programme, Programmes of Voluntary Organizations, Universities and Colleges through the NSS and CSS, and the Functional Literacy Programmes of the nation-wide ICDS project have been mobilised to fight against illiteracy. In this massive efforts it is important that the adult education movement is closely linked with the planning strategy and strive to establish mutually supportive linkages with developmental activity (Ministry of Education and social Welfare, Government of India, 1978).

The financial provision for adult education has been increased over the years. From Rs.50 million during the

first five year plan, a provision of Rs.200 crores has been made for adult education programme for the period 1978-'83 which represents nearly 10 per cent of the total plan provision for education.

At the end of June 1979, over 94,000 centres were being run by different agencies with or without financial assistance from the central government, under the NAEP. In 1960-'61, the country had only 43,295 adult literacy centres which helped 7,40,110 adults to become literate. The NAEP aims at providing adult education facilities to cover about 10 crore illiterate persons within the period from 78-79 to 83-84 (Kurukshetra, 1980).

Research concerning adult education is imperative. Research must throw light on the factors which create motivation, political commitment and awareness. The methods and methodologies for monitoring and evaluation of adult education need to be explored (Devadas, 1978 and Devadas, 1979).

Mani (1981) describes the profile of a rural adult learner as middle aged, illiterate, belonging to backward caste and agricultural labourers. Folk songs and story telling were their favourite methods of learning. They expected a local teacher or a leader to be the animator. Taking their views and felt needs into consideration, appropriate curricular, teaching strategies and choice of animators should be made.

Saraswathi and Ravindram (1981) found the the neo-literates in their study who participated in the massive NAEP had very little or no access to the relevant materials which would help them to continue reading. With the provision of some basic help in the form of some relevant materials atleast in the initial stages, literacy could be made a possibility and a necessity.

Motivating people for adult education owing to cultural and social constraints, finding a proper locale for conducting classes, identifying proper instructors with voluntary spirit and conviction, varying speed of learning among the learners, eliciting community approval and appreciation and developing meaningful and useful learning and teaching materials are the major bottlenecks in the conduct of NAEP (Muthayya, 1980).

In planning adult education programmes, women must be taken into consideration, to make them conscious of their rights and responsibilities, assist them to acquire economic freedom, provide them with access to the knowledge and skills needed in day-to-day living, particularly in the areas of health, child care, nutrition, management of resources and better family living and to strengthen their participation in the total development process.

Nirmala and Sithalakshmi (1975) initiated a functional literacy programme for women in a village and carried it out for a period of 10 months. Out of 75 women in the 16 - 45 years age group who were found to be illiterate, 63 women evinced interest to become literate. While 35 members actually joined the programme, only 20 continued and benefitted. The study pointed out that rural women required a great deal of motivation and persuasion to realise the need for literacy.

The efforts of Kamu and Sithalakshmi (1978) with Harijan women (in the age group of 15 - 35 years) indicated 84 per cent attendance on an average. The study pointed out the beneficial effects of a vocational training programme (tailoring) as complementary to the functional literacy effort.

Meenakshi et al (1979) studied the potentialities of utilising local youth for implementing the NAEP. Convincing and collecting the learners to attend the classes, lack of interest of the learners, lack tof cooperation of the local leaders, difficulties in organising motivation programmes and lack of attractive incentives and physical facilities such as lighting were the major problems expressed by the youth volunteers, in the conduct of NAEP. Their chief recommendation was to integrate the literacy effort with economic programmes.

Hemalatha and Leelavathy (1980) studied the possibilities of stimulating adult women to participate in the NAEP.

They found that personal interest and gains were great motivating factors. The age groups 15 - 25 years was commonly benefitting and girls in the age range of 12 - 15 years also desired to join the programme.

The effectiveness of selected teaching methods for the conduct of NAEP was studied by Kalavathy et al (1980). They found that filmshows, dramatization, demonstration and use of recordings received cent per cent response. Exhibitions, posters and flash cards received 96 per cent attendance. A combination of individual, group and mass contacts fostered better cooperation from the learners. Comparing with the norms of literacy given by UGC (1978), 46 per cent learners were found to be above 'norms', 37 per cent were upto the 'norms' and only 17 per cent were 'below norms' (i.e. reading 50 words per minute; writing 10 words per minute and dictation 7 words per minute).

The case studies conducted by Umarani and Velmayil (1981) with 50 women learners drawn from 10 adult education centres in Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu reveal that among the beneficiaries, 64 per cent were from the low income households (coolies), 70 per cent belonged to scheduled caste and the remaining were backward, 54 per cent were unmarried girls. 82 per cent belonged to the 15 - 29 years age group.

Public meetings, motivation by instructors, prompting by neighbours and friends, radio and interest to read newspapers were contributory factors for enabling them to join NAEP.

Besides reading, writing and arithmatic, nutrition, sanitation, better family living, prohibition, savings and leadership qualities and proper use of leisure time were the items learnt by the respondents. Eighty six per cent could read and write well and 84 per cent could state the qualitative outcomes of participating in NAEP.

Lack of time and heavy work at home, location of the centre in a place far away from their residences, ill health and negative attitude of elders at home were the problems faced. Women in the 30 - 45 years age group hesitated to attend the classes with younger members.

Motivation is a prerequisite to success in adult education. In launching a frontal attack on illiteracy among women, governments, universities, colleges and other educational institutions, employers, Panchayati raj institutions, Mahila Mandals, youth clubs and numerous other voluntary organisations working for the upliftment of women, should be helped to participate fully. A coordinating body needs to be set up involving government departments of health agriculture, rural development, education, culture, labour,

Social welfare and industry, universities and colleges, workers' organisations, professional organisations, mass media and publishers, to bring together those responsible for education (Devadas, 1979).

4. Infrastructure for the improvement of health and nutrition

a. Primary health care

Primary health care is now receiving priority in national plans. Though during the last 30 years a network of 5,400 primary Health Centres (PHC) (one per block) and 38,000 sub centres have been set up, they are not enough for the vast size of the population. A PHC serves a population of about every 80,000 to 1,00,000, with two or three medical officers and about 40 para medical staff (Yadav, 1978).

As child bearing and rearing are the dominant role of women, maternity becomes a special problem in the context of the socio-economic status of the bulk of the population with inadequate housing, sanitation and poor medical facilities (ICSSR, 1975).

It has been realised that for the ultimate success of family welfare programmes in the rural areas, population education should form an integral part of rural extension package. For this purpose a total of 38,502 family welfare centres were functioning in rural areas upto the end of March 1975, in close collaboration with the Directorate of

Extension of the Ministry of Agriculture and the Department of Family Welfare. An inter-departmental committee has also been set up in the department of Rural Development in this connection (India, 1979).

A study conducted by Vijayambal and Jayalakshmi (1974) on the impact of the PHC's on the rural families revealed that all the 150 families contacted were aware of the functioning of the PHCs, specially their role in family planning and maternal and child health services. The educational status of the sample, income level and number of children in the school going age influenced positively, the awareness of the women about the school health programmes. The women were found to be lacking in nutritional knowledge which did not find a place in the programmes of the PHC. It is necessary to provide health services at the community level and hence needed to be community based (Issac, 1979). Primary Health Care integrates all the elements necessary to make an impact upon the health status of the community (Ghosh, 1980).

The Rural Health Scheme has been introduced in 1977. It aims at providing health care services at the door steps of the villagers. The Ministry of Health undertook an appraisal of the Rural Health Scheme in five PHC's through the Institute of Economic Growth. The scheme was operating in 741 PHC's, covering about 74,000 villages with 42,000

Community Health Workers. The report concluded that by and large the new rural health scheme was benefitting the scheduled castes and low income groups. One of the recommendations was that rural bias be given to the medical infrastructure from the bottom to the top. The introduction of one Community Health Worker for every 1000 persons in a village is a very desirable first step in this direction (Barnala, 1978 and Swasth Hind, 1978).

b. Nutrition intervention programme

Good nutrition and malnutrition are the end results of many interacting factors operating simultaneously and concurrently on the individual in the physical, ecological and cultural environment of the community (Dwyer, 1976 and Cooper, 1977). The plight of hungry, malnourished children is perhaps the greatest human problem of our times and a challenge to human ingenuity and achievement (Sabry, 1979). According to the assessment prepared for the World Food Conference, almost half a billion people are affected by malnutrition in the developing world (Protein Advisory Group 1977). Malnutrition is a very depressing health problem in India, arising out of poverty, lack of education and the consequent low standard of living, poor food intakes and nutritional status, disease and reduced capacity to work. Infants, preschool children and school going children are the

most critically affected. Malnutrition contributes directly or indirectly to high mortality and morbidity. The mortality rate below the age of 4 years is as high as 40 per cent and there has been little change in this proportion over the last decade. This high rate of mortality means an unfavourable ratio of dependents to Supporters (Srikantia, 1977).

Infantile malnutrition affects adversely e the formative years of human life and impairs the physical and mental growth to the point where they cannot benefit fully from education (Devadas, 1977).

Since the life of an infant starts before his birth during its prenatal stage, it becomes imperative that attention is focussed on the health and nutrition of the mothers right from pregnancy (Nath and Geervani, 1978). The high incidence of prematurity, low birth weight babies and the consequent neonatal mortality are mostly attributable to maternal malnutrition (Devadas et al, 1980) and (Nath and Geervani, 1978). Adequate diets are all the more essential for these women, especially in poor communities, who have not only to bear the burden of pregnancy, but also perform other household duties including the care of young children and earn a living too.

In order to ameliorate the problem of malnutrition among the vulnerable groups several nutrition programmes have been initiated in the country. The ANP is the oldest and the most comprehensive nutrition invention programme.

It is essentially an educational programme at the village and family level aiming to bring about changes in the choice of foods and feeding practices and promotion of consumption of improved diets by education, through self help and increased home food production.

Studies conducted by Devadas et al (1978), point out that the nutritional status of the expectant mothers and nursing mothers and the preschoolers participating in the ANP was significantly higher than that of the corresponding groups in the control villages. The nutritional knowledge, attitudes and awareness of homemakers showed improvements because of the nutrition efforts under ANP. The studies proved the great potentialities of utilising the balwadi (feeding centre) and Mahila Mandals (Women's groups) as vehicles of nutrition education to the community.

A national evaluation of ANP in six states covering eight ANP and eight non ANP villages from each state pointed out the need for strengthening the educational component in the programme. The study also stressed the need for universal coverage of the programme and a simple monitoring system capable of providing information on the progress achieved, in terms of selected objectives (Srikantia, 1980).

The Special Nutrition Programme (SNP) launched in 1970-71 is another step to combat malnutrition. The local

bodies such as municipalities, corporations, elementary schools, maternity and child health centres, municipal dispensaries, primary health centres etc. are used to locate the feeding centres. The selection of beneficiaries is on the basis of family income. The feeding is organised for 300 days in a year offering per child 300 calories and 10 - 15 grams of protein per day.

Sp. 1

The lacune in this programme are inadequate health inputs, lack of nutrition and health education, poor organisational and supervisory structure, inadequate participation of voluntary organisations and improper maintenance of records. The scheme depends on organizers working for a honoarium of just Rs.20/- per month (Rajendran, 1980).

The ICDS project was launched by the Government of India on October 2, 1975. A package of essential services is provided including supplementary nutrition, immunisation, health check up, referral services, nutrition and health education and non formal education. The population covered are children of 0 - 5 years, nursing and expectant women and women of 15 - 44 years.

ICDS is a multi departmental scheme with the Social Welfare Department as the nodal point for organisation (Tandon, 1980). The project started with 33 project

areas - 11 tribal, 18 rural and 4 urban increased to 100 in 1978 and 600 in 1982.

Most nutrition intervention programmes designed to alleviate gross or marginal malnutrition have been grievously dependent on foreign charity, whether bilateral or multilateral, much of which has proved to be of very high cost and of very short term benefit. Hence working out a realistic national nutrition policy closely integrated with other developmental plans as well as family planning has become very imperative (Mitra, 1980).

Problems of nutrition cannot be solved in isolation, but must be tackled through a carefully planned, comprehensive, integrated rural development programme (Srikantia, 1977). Sound foundation of good nutrition of a nation can be laid only through a well planned and integrated programme of development which will ensure the maximal utilisation of available resources (Gopalan, 1972). As Mitra (1980) points out nutrition is a subject which awaits the concerted energies of the planner, the economist, the sociologist, the communication specialist nutritionist and of course, all agencies concerned with production, transportation, storage, processing and distribution.

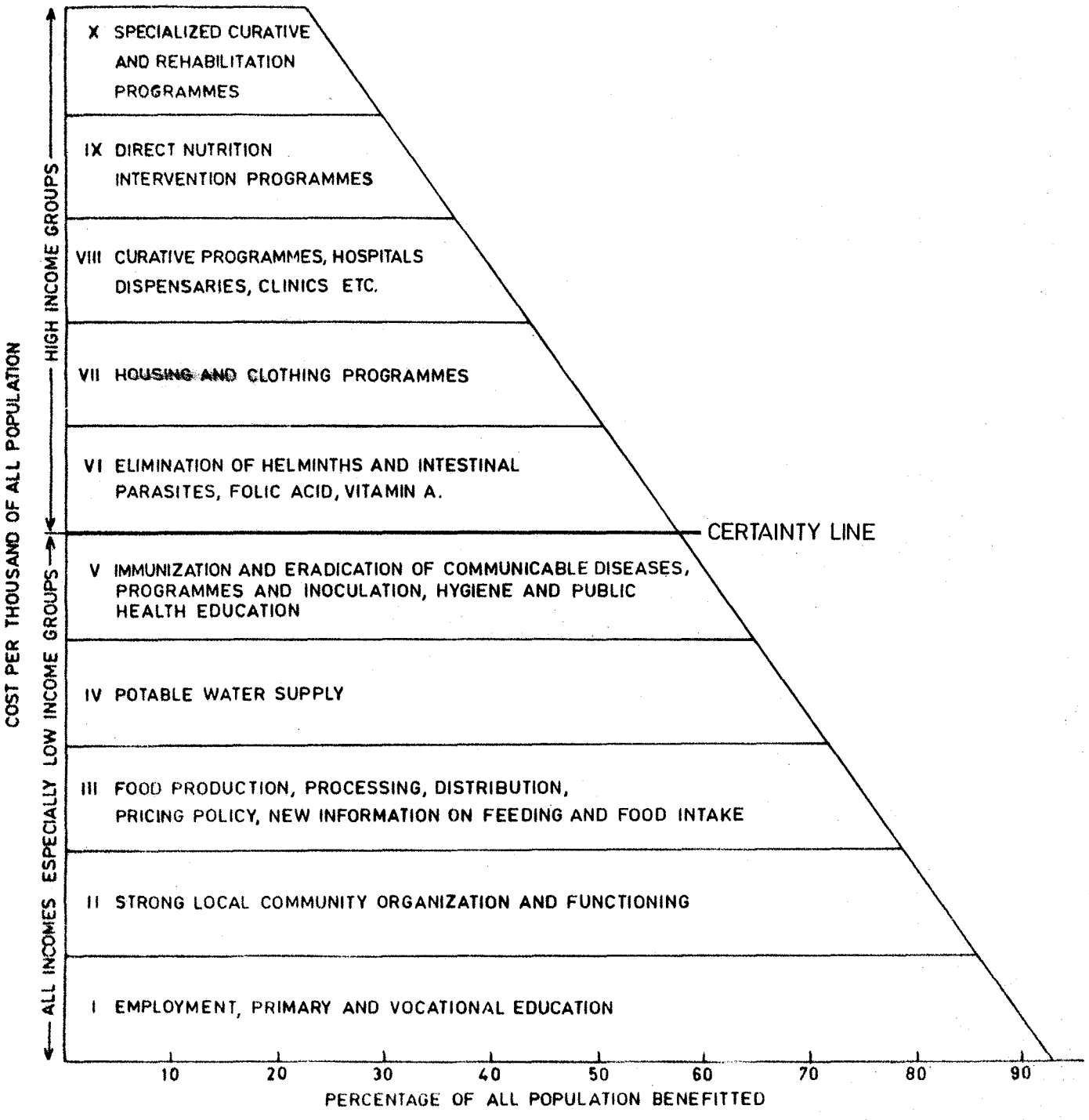
Mitra (1980) attempts a schematic presentation of the possible pay-off of (a) certain pervasive programmes which

largely benefit all income groups as well as intended target groups and (b) restricted positive intervention or curative programmes intended for specific target groups (Figure 4) Somewhere between the two groups, therefore, runs a certainty line, on one side of which the certainity of benefits is high and on the other low. There is also another assumption in this presentation that the government wishes to see its population employed and equipped with primary and vocational education on which investment will have to be made.

Removal of poverty does not, by itself, guarantee good nutritional status. While socio-economic improvements themselves are fundamental, unless health and nutrition education are continued, overall success will be limited (Pellett, 1981).

Discussing the different ways of imparting nutrition health education, Devadas (1980) states that nutrition and health education must form integral part of all formal and non formal educational efforts from the pre school stage to adulthood. When nutrition and health concepts were integrated in the curriculum of the primary school children, significant improvements in their nutritional knowledge, hygienic practices and health status were observed, due to a 'carry home' effect of the knowledge to the mothers. The school lunch programme itself is an effective medium for imparting nutrition/health education. Nutrition/health counselling units must be

(LEFT TO THE DIAGNAL LINE ARE HIGH PAY OFF AREAS AND TO THE RIGHT LOW PAY OFF AREAS)



RELATIVE COSTS AND PAY-OFFS OF PROGRAMMES BEARING ON NUTRITION

i. Family background

ii. Expenditure on family clothing and on preschoolers' clothing

iii. Types of material, colour, texture, colour, combinations, and designs preferred for preschool childrens' dresses

iv. Preference for readymade, tailormade and home-made garments, reasons for selection and problems faced in the selection

v. Types of trimmings, decorations, fasteners and plackets preferred for different garments and

vi. Child's influence on parents in clothing selection

Pilot studies were conducted with the schedules prepared. The consumers doubts in the schedule were rectified. The modified schedule is given in Appendix IV.

c. Conducting the survey

Home visits were conducted and the consumers interviewed at their leisure time. To give a clear picture to the respondents regarding textile varieties available, aids were prepared and these included samples on fabrics, colours, designs and textures.

d. Analysis and interpretation of data

The collected data were consolidated, tabulated and analysed and presented under Results and Discussions, Chapter IV.

established in rural hospitals, urban dispensaries and PHCs to counsel the patients and their relatives. Food cooperatives must include nutrition health education as part of their activity and assist the public in overcoming the hazardous effects of food adulteration. Low cost nutritious foods can be popularised in public eating places, factories and industrial canteens along with nutrition/health education.

5. Infrastructure for social development

a. Organisations for women

The Mahila Mandals (Mahalir Manrams - Women's Groups) are the grass root organizations for bringing women together, keeping them together by creating a common interest and working together for its success and progress. The mahila mandals are intended to build up a base for development of integrated services to women and children (Sreedharan, 1978).

The International Study Seminar held at the Institute of Development Studies in 1977 stressed that women's associations should be constituted at village level to break through the barrier of invisibility and poor access to (a) determine and articulate the felt needs of different groups of women; (b) organised services with the para-professional functionaries provided by the state or non-governmental organisations and (c) discuss issues affecting women and communicate their views to local and national authorities (ICSSR, 1978).

Realising the great need for organising women's groups, efforts are being made to set up national organisations for women (Publication Divsion, 1968). The Chief among the organisations which have come into existence are (i) Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA, 1905); (ii) National Council of Women in India (1925); (iii) All India Women's Conference (AIWC, 1930); (iv) Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust (1945); (v) The Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB, 1953) and (v) the Bharatiya Grameen Mahila Sangh (BGMS, 1955).

The BGMS ~~was~~ established in 1955 is another All India Organization for the overall welfare and development of rural women. The aims and objectives of this sangh are to federate the existing organizations working for rural women and to take steps to initiate new clubs.

The activities include family welfare, child care, formal and non-formal education for women, training, establishing community centres and organizing discussion meetings for rural women and office bearers. The BGMS collaborates with various agencies such as the Central Social Welfare Board, National Institute of Social Defence, National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development (NIPCCD), National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD) and other governmental programmes for implementing its activities (BGMS Pamphlet).

While the efforts of the national organizations are sporadic, the major programme for the development of women in rural India, in an organized manner was firstly conceived at the time of introduction of the Community Development Programme in 1952, with a modest beginning to form Women's Clubs known as Mahila Mandals. The objectives of these associations were limited to discussion of socio-economic problems and participation in some of the programme related to home chores. The potential of the Mahila Mandals was also sought to be utilized for programmes such as the ANP, ICDS programme for and other feeding programmes for women and children. They were also encouraged to take up production oriented activities like kitchen gardening, poultry, fishery, besides being involved in feeding demonstrations, propagation of family welfare and non formal education programme. There are 61,400 mandals with an estimated membership of 17.2 lakhs. The average number of mandals per block is 13 with a total membership of 382 (Jain, 1980).

The performance of Mahila Mandals has been far from satisfactory. These organisations have not yet been recognized as an integral part of the total rural development effort. The main reasons for their poor performance are

inadequacy of staff, vagueness in the objectives, lack of financial support, lack of participation of all sections of the society and absence of an appropriate policy approach.

Padmakumari and Sithalakshmi (1972) studied the activities of selected Mahila Mandals in Coimbatore district and identified problems such as non-cooperation of members, unskilled office bearers and absence of profitable activities. Factors such as having a separate building for the Mahila Mandal, educational status of the convenors and balwadi attached to the Mahila Mandal influenced positively and significantly the successful conduct of the club.

A study conducted by Uma Maheswari and Leelavathy (1980) also pointed out that the Mahila Mandals faced handicaps such as absence of specific programmes on a continuous basis, lack of guidance from the extension workers and absence of a meeting place. Meera and Jothimani (1981) conducted a study on the functioning of Mahila Mandals in Muzaffarpur District, Bihar, and found out that the Mahila Mandals in general concentrated on activities such as nutrition education, family planning and religious activities. Socio-economic activities got the least priority.

Jacob *et al* (1975) carried out an action research project in six women's clubs involving 120 members. Their attempt revealed that economic activities greatly attracted the women to join the club programmes. The women became aware of infrastructure such as BGMS, CSWB etc. and visits of dignitaries encouraged the club members. The active participation in Mahila Mandals resulted in the members' acquiring leadership traits such as cooperation, consideration for others, earnestness, sincerity and team work.

Janmathi and Leelavathy (1977) attempted to initiate non formal education programmes in selected Mahila Mandals where they emphasised the training component. Their study revealed the great potentialities existing in rural women to respond to interesting methods of contact and useful content and messages and also proved the positive outcomes of establishing linkages between the women's clubs and national programmes such as Save Grain Campaign (Ministry of Agriculture, Department of Food, Government of India) for imparting education on post harvest technology.

The study by Krishnammal and Sithalakshmi (1977) threw light on the possibilities of utilising the Mahila Mandal to develop leadership qualities among harijan (*adi-dravida*) women, through involving them in meaningful activities.

Geetha and Sithalakshmi (1973) surveyed the Farm Women's Discussion Groups organised by the Farmers' Training Centre and All India Radio and found out that the eexisting Mahila Mandals were converted into the Discussion Groups. Most of the discussion groups were defunct at the time of the survey mainly due to lack of interest on the part of the convenors, their ignorance, lack of facilities for meeting and absence of guidance and motivation from the supervisory staff. The factors responsible for success were identified as proper selection of leaders, existence of physical facilities, wide publicity to the programme and evaluation from time to time.

Following this fact finding survey Alamelu and Sithalakshmi (1974) attempted to strengthen the activities of the Farm Women's Discussion Groups by introducing a number of extension methods of contact and useful programme content. The study proved the beneficial effect of leadership training camps and that enhanced participation made women shed off fear and hesitation. It was noted that women should be viewed in totality and an integrated approach to their programmes was inevitable.

Saraswathi and Yegammai (1976) made an attempt to utilise the Mahila Mandal for the implementation of the Applied Nutrition Programme and came out with positive achievements. Sudhamani and Yegammai (1977) studied the impact of

the training in Applied Nutrition for the members and convenors of Mahila Mandals in Tamil Nadu taking 150 trainees from 14 ANP Blocks as her sample. The study revealed that the trainees gained knowledge in ANP and followed up items taught such as kitchen garden.

Velumani and Jothimani (1978), Shanthakumari and Jothimani (1980) and Jothimani and Devadas (1981) conducted action research projects on income generation for the members of Mahila Mandals and proved that the grassroot level organisations could profitably be used to train women in useful vocations to augment family income and savings.

Soundaranayagam and Sithalakshmi (1980) studied the extent of utilisation of Mahalir Manram by women as an infrastructure for their development. Though 74 per cent women stated to be active members of the association, the clubs did not appear to be the real agencies promoting social change. The activities of the clubs were found to be stereotyped, though there were specific instances of receiving awards.

Quoting a study on the working of Mahila Mandals conducted at the NIRD, Jain (1980) states that the participation of the women members from the weaker sections was meagre both in decision making process and the general activities. There was more emphasis on home-craft activities

as compared with economic activities particularly those intended for the benefit of the poorer sections.

In the Fourth Five Year Plan, two schemes namely, 'Incentive Awards to Mahila Mandals' and 'Training of Associate Women Workers' were introduced. Under the former, the mandals showing good performance over a year were awarded cash prizes for undertaking economic projects. The latter was designed to provide leadership training to village women. In the fifth Five Year Plan, another scheme, 'Promotion of Voluntary Action' was initiated, with an objective to utilise the potential of these organisations in the implementation of various programmes meant for women and children.

The Working Group on Development of Village Level Organizations of rural women set up by the Department of Rural Development, Government of India (1978) states that the existing Mahila Mandal programme for rural women operated by the Ministry of Agriculture and the CSWB, has been unable to make any serious impact due to handicaps such as lack of clarity in objectives, difficulties in identifying target groups and inability to reach the poorest sections, neglect of economic activity or training in productive skills, multiplicity of programmes and agencies with sectoral approaches and limited objectives, lack of properly qualified field staff, failure to mobilise effective and sustained support of menfolk

to rural women's programmes, and rigidity in design and structure of the programme.

The Working Group (1978) suggested that the existing Mahila Mandals be renamed as Rural Women's Organisations (in the VI Plan) with the basic objective of drawing rural women into the mainstream of development and to enable them to function as instruments of social change.

The specific activities suggested are to:

(i) increase their participation and training in income generating activities, such as agriculture, animal husbandry, kadhi and village industries, small scale industries, handloom and handicrafts and other industries that may be located in rural areas, nutrition programmes and adult education;

(ii) promote self reliance and collective action by rural women for the betterment of the home and family, village and community, facilitate better management of resources, and improve conditions for the bearing and rearing of children and ultimately become instruments for social change;

(iii) provide forums to enable women, especially from the poorer/weaker sections, to participate

freely and fully in decisions that affect their lives and that of the community i.e. for the social, economic, political and legal advancement of women and

(iv) enable women to have full access to development of resources and services.

b. Youth Clubs

Vitality and creativity are the two qualities which would characterise youth. Youth are associated with dynamism which should be used for constructive ends (Day, 1962). Youth with their vision for the future act as the agents of social change. A youth group which is socially conscious and responsive to the needs of the society can be a powerful force (Kuriakose, 1972 and Kuriakose, 1976).

The youth work may be undertaken with two distinct purposes. They are the development of youth members themselves and contributing towards the programmes of community services (Chakraborthy, 1978). While the regular school and university educational programmes attempt the overall development of human beings, in regular practice it hardly contributes to this suppreme goal of education whereas youth work activities give importance to the personal development of youth without neglecting the overall development (Golpelwar, 1974).

The basic aim of community organisation is to provide the machinery for a coordinated approach to community problems (NICD, 1967). One of the important objectives of the Community Development programme was to develop real and creative leadership amongst the village communities and youth leadership had been found to be useful (Singh and Sharma, 1974). As Ensminger (1957), Srivastava (1971) and Nair (1966) exhort youth could make direct contributions by transmitting to their parents, neighbours and other members of the community, new ideas, to prepare a proper climate for speedy development. Existence of a yuvak mandal in an area helps in the process of accepting new ideas, removal of resistance to modern techniques of agriculture and better living standards. The enlightened youth can also put a check on arbitrary and anti-social actions of vested interests in Panchayati raj Institutions (Chowdhry, 1977).

The purpose of organising Young Farmers' Clubs was to motivate rural youth both boys and girls in a practical way to become competent farmer and better homemakers by adopting improved techniques on their farms and in their homes. Thus they ought to become agents of change and make their club an important institution of community development (Chester, 1977). Pointing out the failure of the Young Farmers' Clubs, Alliband (1980) suggests modifications in their

model. He recommends the formation of young India Clubs and giving them a development oriented focus so that villages could have an invaluable, home-grown cadre of change agents who helped themselves, each time they helped the village.

In the Fifth Five Year Plan, a scheme of voluntary action was envisaged which was intended to harness the potential of youth energy in developmental work (Jain, 1980). According to the plan proposal, Yuvak Mandals are to be promoted/strengthened in 500 C.D. blocks at the rate of five per block. So far 90,000 Yuvak Mandals with a total membership of 19.5 lakhs have been established in the country.

The Nehru Yuvak Kendra (NYK) is a multipurpose institution for coordinating at the district level activities for non-student youth. One of the major purposes of NYK is to identify and foster leadership qualities in the non-student youth in the community. The NYKs are monitored by a coordinator at the District level. The NYKs have made a significant contribution to the implementation of the National Adult Education Programme since its inception in 1978. Inter-state Youth Camps are conducted to bring together youth from different regions and orient them to various cultural habits, traditions, customs and heritage.

Several attempts have been made to study the needs and interests of youth in the country and also the impact of youth clubs organized.

A study by Singh and Haque (1966) on the needs of the non school going rural youth pointed out that education was not found to be associated with the preferences of interests. Selvi and Rade (1967) studied the activities of rural farm youth and found that reading and listening to radio were their main leisure time activities.

A study by Grover (1966), revealed that rural youths were becoming urban oriented through their choice of vocation.

The study by Singh and Rao (1965), revealed that the boys had strongly favourable attitude towards organizing youth clubs and they liked a variety of projects.

Singh and Prasad (1965) studied the educational benefits of Youth Club activities as gain in awareness, interest, acceptance, knowledge and skills.

The study by Sherur and Thelagraj (1979) brought to light the potential of youth groups in developmental work. The youth needed training, adequate support and encouragement, security of employment and income and creation of good will in the panchayat to promote their activities.

The action research projects undertaken by Amirtham and Chandramani (1969), Vijaya and Bhatji (1970), Aleyamma et al. and Sithalakshmi (1975), Abraham and Sithalakshmi (1976) and Vijayalakshmi and Jothimani (1977) confirm the positive outcomes of youth clubs on rural youth. The following were the specific findings:

> Leadership qualities were developed by the club members, paving the way for responsible and responsive citizenship.
>
> Behavioural changes were observed in the members of the youth clubs which were in terms of better nutritional knowledge, improvement in skills, formation of desirable attitudes and adoption of better home living practices.

The serious drawbacks in organising youth clubs was that no systematic procedure was followed and the Youth Clubs were generally organized in a hurry (Singh and Prasad, 1963). Shukla (1965) adds that the problems of organizing rural Youth Clubs were very meagre finance, non supply of equipment either free or on subsidiary basis and the absence of economic projects.

Quoting a study conducted at the National Institute of Rural Development, Hyderabad, Jain (1980) points out, that the general thrust of the Yuvak Mandal's activities was on socio-cultural programmes and very little attention has been paid to economic programmes.

Kuriakose (1976) points out that training is essential for rural youth in the process of attitude formation and skill development. Youth groups need leaders and skills for all types of activities - to initiate need based projects as well as for participation in political activities. Kuthari et al (1977) feel that an efficient programme of organising the rural youth and imparting vocational training to them is imperative to harness their potentialities for national development.

A study conducted by Dhanalakshmi and Thangamani (1980) in seven villages selected in Karamadai Panchayat Union, Coimbatore District revealed that youth wanted to get trained in economic improvement programmes. They were interested in organising themselves as Youth Clubs and serve the community. These findings were in conformity with the earlier research undertaken by Kanchanamala and Sithalakshmi (1971) to study the needs and interests of school going and non-school going rural youth.

Realizing the great importance of equipping the rural youth to meet the national challenges, the Government of India have initiated a training programme for rural youth under 'TRYSEM' - Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment. The overall objective of TRYSEM is to train and settle in

employment 2,00,000 youth every year in agricultural and allied activities. Each block in the country will cover a minimum of 40 persons and the training courses will have a practical bias based on the concept of learning by doing and would be fully integrated with various on going schemes of rural development. After completion of training, the trainees will be given appropriate support from government for setting up their own enterprise. TRYSEM attempts also to build and strengthen the training infrastructure in rural areas by assisting for construction of class rooms, hostels, laboratories, workshops, training equipments, audio visual aids and vehicles, utilising the existing institutions such as Gramsevak/Gramsevika training centres, Farmers Training Centres, Krishi Vigyan Kendras, Agricultural and other Universities, ITIs and other existing state and central Government organisations. The scheme is flexible and admits infinite variations so essential in a country, as vast and diverse as India (Kaw, 1980).

Yuvak Mandals are the training ground for the youth to become better farmers, better homemakers, better citizens, and better leaders.

6. Voluntary organisations for rural development

Voluntary organisations have made notable contribution over the past several decades, in the field of rural reconstructio as fore-runners of the current strategies of rural development (Bhattacharya, 1970).

With the advent of Independence, voluntary organisations gained fresh impetus for rural development, supplementing and supporting governmental efforts.

Das Gupta (1972) quoted by Chazyulu (1980) identifies, two broad categories of voluntary organizations promoting rural development, on the basis of the nature of their functioning. They may act as catalytic bodies operating externally to the rural communities or they may emerge from within the rural communities serving as indigenous institutions. A very high percentage of the voluntary organisations in India belong to the former category functioning at micro (covering a tiny village) or macro (covering larger territories) levels.

Philanthropic considerations, social responsibility, commitment to certain philosophy appear to be the motivating factors in contributing to the genesis and growth of the voluntary bodies, though religious or profit motives are also present. As Chazyulu and Natarajan (1980) remark, flexibility, personal touch and easy accessibility to the client groups, capacity to initiate and experiment with new programmes, stimulate and mobilize resources of the community and sensitivity to field problems are often the strongpoints of the voluntary agencies can innovate, adopt themselves to new circumstances, experiment and take risks (Varma and Pillai, 1980).

According to Sharma and Malhotra (1977) in IRD, voluntary agencies can play a meaningful three fold role:

a) Catalyse the rural population towards developmental approach;

b) Build models, experiment with new programmes and act as innovators and

c) Represent the people of the area by identifying themselves with the local needs and aspriations.

Public participation is widely recognized as an important variable for rural development. Participation depends mainly on three factors i.e. awareness, willingness and capacity. To create awareness and willingness in the language of Paulo Friere, the people need to be conscientised. Conscientisation refers to the process of learning to perceive social, economic and political contradictions and act against the oppressive elements of reality.

In India three decades of democratic politics have raised the level of awareness among the rural people. But still they lack the capacity to articulate and to participate. Basic changes are needed in the socioeconomic structure to enable the rural poor gain the capacity to participate. This calls for organised, sustained effort. Organising the poor is a precondition for their participation in the developmental process (Prasad, 1980).

Since the early days of national planning for socio-economic development, these plans have regarded voluntary efforts as an integral element of rural development, not only because they mobilized people's cooperation, but also because such efforts supplemented the developmental efforts of the government (Varghese, 1979). Under Gandhiji's inspiration many men and women took up constructive work. The services of Sri Ramakrishna Mission, the activities of several Christian Missionaries with national and international linkages, the sporadic and localized movements such as the Chipo Movement in Uttarakhand, the Bharatiya Agro Industries Foundation, Pune, the Vedchi Intensive Area Scheme in Valod (Surat District), the Anand Niketan in Chhota Udaipur in Vadodara District, the comprehensive rural area project at Jamkhed (Ahmednagar), the Banvasi Seva Ashram (Mirzapur), the Social Work Research Centre, Tilonia (Rajasthan), the Kishore Bharati (Hosangabad), Gandhigram (Madurai), Gandhi-niketan (Kallupatti, Madurai), the Indo-Dutch Project (Hyderabad), the Bharatiya Grameen Mahila Sangh, the Grama Vikas Vauhini, Harijan Sevak Sangh, the Vaishali Small Farmers Association, Vaishali (Bihar), YMCA are only a few of the efforts undertaken. The list could be multiplied in the area of crafts, women and child care, organizing the rural poor, agricultural development, education, health, work among the sick and handicapped, setting up and running creches, organization of self-employed etc.

There is also an Association of Voluntary Agencies for Rural Development (AVARD) which has been functioning since 1958 as a federation and clearing house of information of its member voluntary organizations. Starting with a few agencies, by 1978, the association had about 150 members, spread throughout the country. AVARD has made studies of governmental and non-governmental programmes of rural development. It has helped in the planning, implementation and evaluation of special programmes and also has undertaken training programmes for workers in the area of rural development (Sen, 1978).

The role of voluntary organizations in rural development was discussed in the workshop on IRD held at the National Institute of Rural Development, Hyderabad, in October, 1979 (NIRD, 1980). The workshop recognized that though the number of voluntary organizations having sufficient expertise and sustained work in the field of rural development is small, their services should be utilised and institutional credit allowed to flow through them for rural development.

Of late the various service organizations such as Rotary Club, Lions Clubs, Y's Men's Clubs etc. also have been showing keen interest in rural development programmes. A study undertaken by Chitrakala and Narayanaswamy (1979) in Coimbatore

with 14 organizations indicated that development of leadership, promotion of friendship and good will and service to the community were the objective of these service organisations represented by advocates, doctors, engineers, chartered accountants, industrialists bankers, agriculturists and business people. Creation of community assets was an important activity reported, such as school/balwadi buildings, school lunch sheds, mini clinics, bus shelters, overhead tanks, community mills and houses for harijans. Immunizations and health campaigns, free legal aid, distribution of clothes, books and equipment for school children, drinking water supply etc. were the other need based projects, mentioned in the study. Eight per cent clubs worked through project committees and the clubs established in colleges and schools. The total amount spent on these projects was stated to be ranging from Rs.15,000 to 2,00,000. When the awareness of the public about the service rendered by these clubs was studied, it was encouraging to note that 72 per cent sample could identify the agency and its service to their areas.

A special central sector scheme has been envisaged by the Government under the Fifth Plan and continued under the rolling Plan 1978-'83, to secure the cooperation of All India Voluntary Organizations in promoting voluntary action

for rural development. Under this scheme entitled 'Promotion of Voluntary Schemes and Social Action Programmes in the Rural Area', the steps undertaken are Pilot Projects of Public Cooperation orientation seminars and research and evaluation (Chayulu, 1980).

As Rajkrishna (1979) exhorts, a number of academic institutions and private consultancy firms have also developed specialised competence in rural planning and their services should also be mobilized. In addition, business firms sincerely interested in rural development should be persuaded to place a part of their technical and managerial resources at the service of the rural people. Government departments should help them legally, administratively, technically and financially to make and implement area plans.

The Finance (No.2) Act, 1977 had introduced a new section 35-ee in the Income Tax Act, 1961, under which companies and cooperative societies are entitled to a deduction in the computation of the taxable profits of the expenditure incurred by them on any approved programme of rural development. The activities may include provision of gainful employment to the rural weak, construction and running of dispensaries, maternity and child/family welfare centres, nutrition programmes for school children, construction and running of educational and vocational training centres, construction and maintenance of rural link roads, drinking

water projects, construction and maintenance of village streets, pavements and drainage and cleaning of drinking water wells and ponds, rural electrification, rural housing, minor irrigation, agricultural improvement projects, animal husbandry and establishment of workshops for servicing and repairing of farm machinery and training of rural artisans etc. (Circular No.231, F.No.293/201/77-ITA II Govt. of India, Ministry of Finance, Department of Revenue, New Delhi, dated the 14th November, 1977).

Voluntary organizations, however, have been experiencing a number of problems affecting their efficiency. The organizations functioning at different levels, in different areas suffer from lack of coordination-both horizontal and vertical, suspicion and distrust. During a national seminar on voluntary efforts for rural development held in 1977, it was recommended that the voluntary agencies have to make conscious efforts to establish contacts with administrative machinery of the government at block and district levels and from their side strive to promote a process of open relations with each other. The government has to evolve a overall national policy in relation to voluntary sector in the country and some directions and guidelines have to be issued to local level administrative machinery for active identification and collaboration with

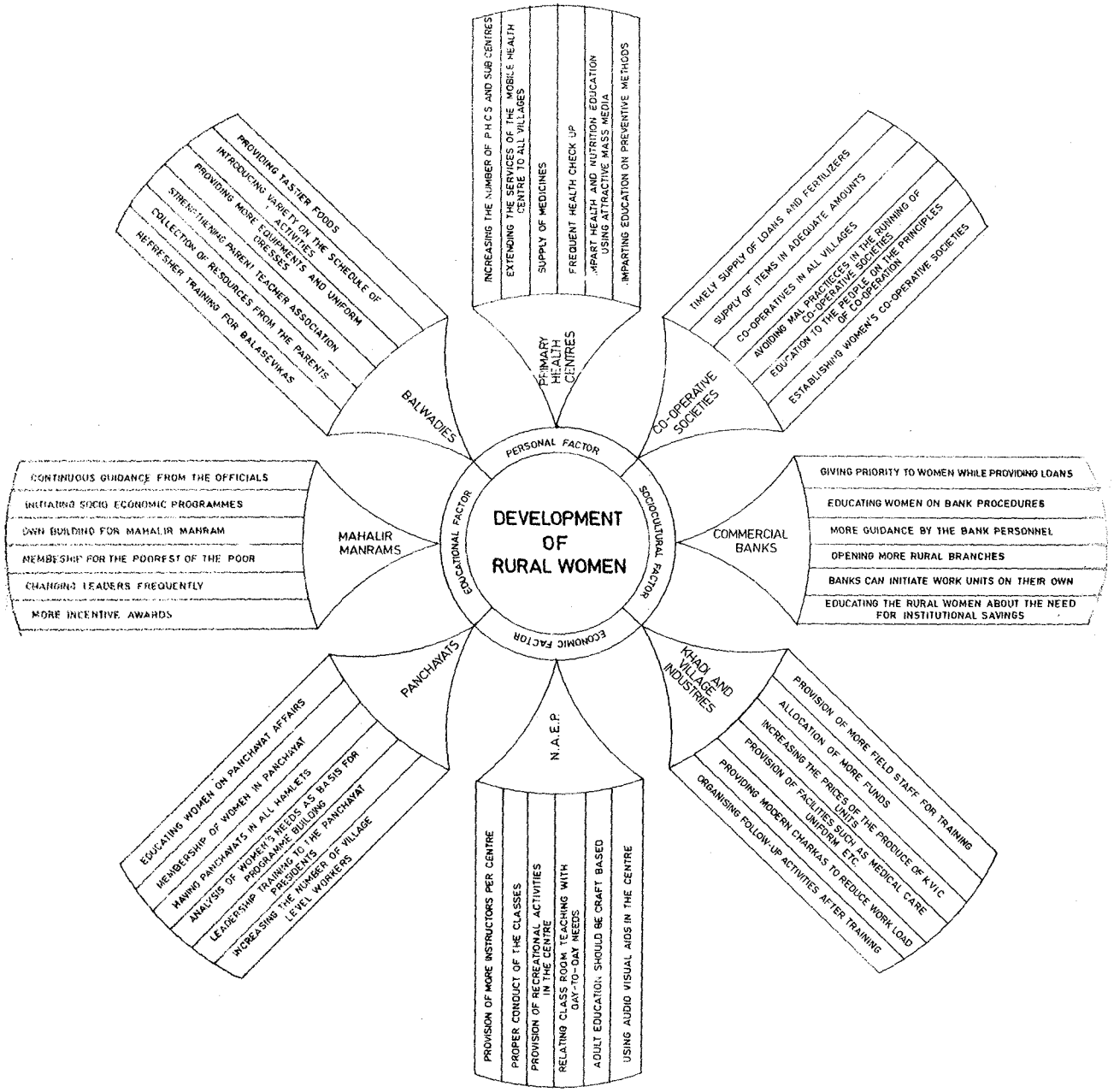
voluntary organisations in the field of development. It was also recommended that joint training programmes of voluntary workers and government should be organized at appropriate levels for joint exposure to problems.

Voluntary action as Varghese (1979) states, is a dynamic concept and its contours will keep changing. It cannot be fitted into a single model or a set of uniform principles. But its role will remain that of liberating disadvantaged people and groups and enabling communities to participate more fully and share in the benefits of development. Voluntary agencies as Sen (1978) remarks, are yet far from being people's organizations, but are nearer to the people than are the government agencies.

7. Factors influencing the utilisation of infrastructure

The extent of utilisation of infrastructure available, by the people, is related to a number of factors. Based on their study, Soundaranayagam and Sithalakshmi (1980) identified a number of factors favouring the utilisation of various infrastructure by rural women and developed an empirical model as shown in Figure 5.

The study pointed out that all services for women in rural areas should be integrated and offered as a package programme to improve the status of women in terms of their



FACTORS FACILITATING THE UTILISATION OF INFRASTRUCTURE BY THE RURAL WOMEN

earning capacity, nutrition and health condition, education and socio cultural status.

The task force on "Access to Rural Services" set up by the International Study Seminar on Role of Rural Women in Development, University of Sussex, U.K., in 1977, (ICSSR, 1978) stated that rural services should include all the welfare and development services needed to improve the quality of rural life and develop its human resources. The task force identified the barriers against the effective use of such services by rural women thus:

a) Problems of access firstly arise because of scarcity of resources and the allocation of priorities among services.

b) Programmes designed for rural women do not take into account the time they have at their disposal.

c) Problems spring from a failure to define actual target groups. Rural women are often visualised as an undifferentiated category. It is therefore, important to identify the target group for any service; the claim being the poorest working women, namely those engaged in agriculture are subsistence farmers, family workers or wage labourers. These women require immediate aid for their productivity and survival.

d) The spatial location of service institutions, the origin and characteristics of change agents, their lack of physical mobility etc. also restrict access to service.

e) The diversity and multiplicity of different service agencies often ~~affect~~ the rural population.

f) For most women, even basic services such as health and nutrition education are meaningful only if they are of direct use to their families. For poverty stricken families, ways of improving their earning capacity still remain the basic need.

The relatively earlier adopters in a social system, as Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) outline, tend to have more education, a higher social status, more upward social mobility, larger units, a commercial rather than a subsistence orientation, a favourable attitude toward credit, and more specialised operations. Earlier adopters also have greater empathy, less dogmatism, greater ability to deal with abstractions, greater rationality and more favourable attitude toward change, risk, education and science. They are less fatalistic and have higher achievement motivation. Earlier adopters have more social participation, are more highly integrated with the system, are more consmopolite, have more change agent contact, have more exposure to both mass media and interpersonal channels, seek information more, have higher

knowledge of innovations and have more opinion leadership. They usually belong to systems with modern norms and to well integrated systems. (Balasubramanian, 1980)

The barriers to change are grouped into cultural, social and psychological. The cultural barriers include: values and attitudes, culture, structure, motor patterns and customary body positions, and superstitions. The social barriers comprise group solidarity, conflict, authority imposed in the family and from outside and characteristics of the social structure. The psychological barriers are differential cross cultural perception, communication problems and learning problems (Foster, 1973).

Williams (1972) states that change - inevitable and universal is an element in every human situation. The variables which facilitate or retard change are no less complex than the change process itself. These may be personal, psychological, social, cultural, economic and situational factors. Among the factors facilitating change are motivation, availability of resources, education, while some of the factors which retard it are isolation, respect for tradition, conservation, vested interests, fear of the new, ignorance and the like.

Williams (1972) classifies the factors as given under:

1. Economic and technological factors

   a) Basic needs for acceptance of technology such as the availability of technical information, the economic climate, physical inputs necessary and incentives to the person concerned;

   b) Labour demand and

   c) Land tenure.

2. Social factors

   a) Family system and village organisation

   b) Religion

   c) Value system and norms providing structure and stability to society.

3. Situational factors

   a) High farm income

   b) Size of farm

   c) Exposure to new ideas.

Discussing the stimulants to change, Foster (1973), states that motivations for a general change may be strong, but unless the innovation fits into local cultural, social

and ideological values, it will have a weak reception. Motivations are of different types and generality. Some are culture bound. Religious beliefs on some cultures offer motivations to certain kinds of change. Competition and the competitive situation often are strong motivations for change. Other kinds of motivations seem to be universal or near universal on that they cut across all kinds of societies and cultures and are found in some degree almost everywhere. These include the desire for economic gain, desire for prestige, obligations and social forms and values of friendship.

III. PROJECT PROFILE

The project profile was designed as per the steps indicated in Figure 6.

A. Selection of the Area for the Project

Sarcar Samakulam Panchayat Union* of Coimbatore District was selected as the project site, in consultation with the Panchayat officials of Coimbatore Collectorate.§ Five villages located contiguously were chosen based on the suggestions made by the Commissioner of Sarcar Samakulam Panchayat Union. The other criteria for the selection of the villages were availability of public transport facilities and the cooperation evinced by the key leaders of the respective villages for their adoption. The villages thus located were:

1. Kottaipalayam
2. Agrahara Samakulam
3. Vellamadai
4. Thottipalayam

and 5. Vaiyamapalayam

Figure 7 illustrates the locale of the project.

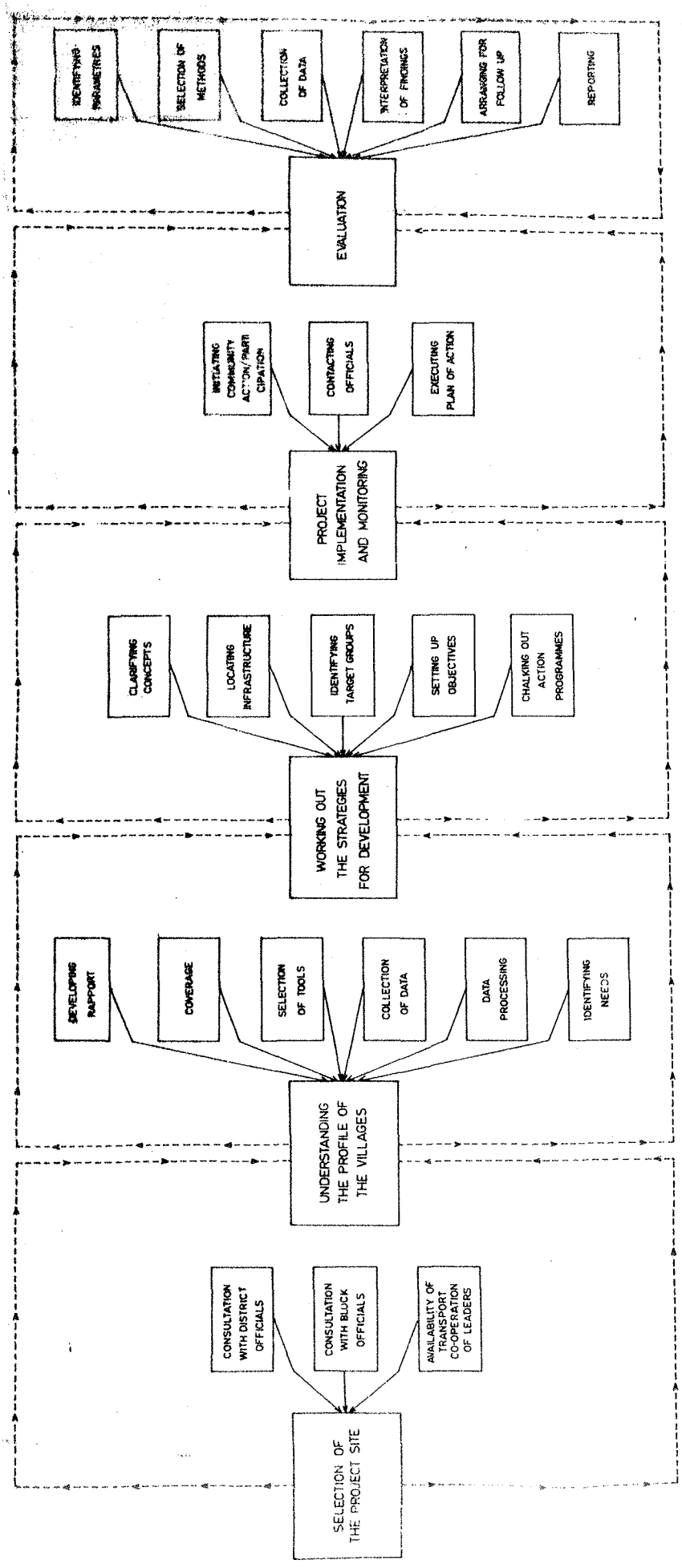
B. Understanding the Village Profile

A baseline survey, using an interview schedule (Appendix I) was undertaken in all the five villages located.

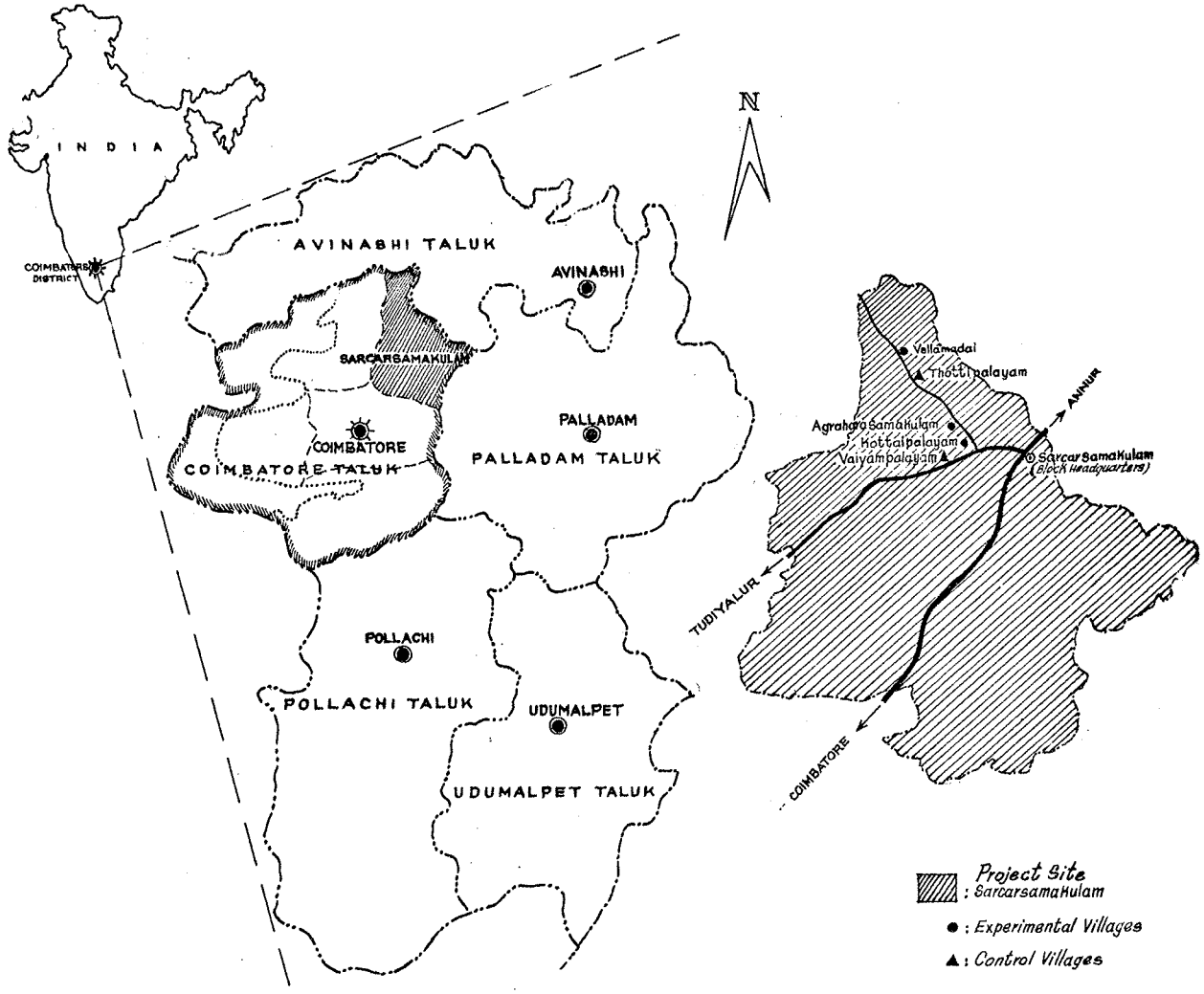
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* Panchayat Union is the functional and administrative unit of the Rural Development(Community Development)Programme in India, consisting approximately of one hundred villages.

§ Collectorate is the administrative body at the District level.



PROJECT PROFILE



LOCALE OF THE PROJECT

Figure.7

to understand the profile of the villages. Earlier, efforts were taken to establish rapport with the villagers, which was accomplished through frequent visits to the villages and contact with the key leaders in the areas. Census method was adopted to cover the entire 1,508 households in the five villages. The data collected were processed subsequently and the analysis and interpretation of the data are presented in the ensuing paragraphs.

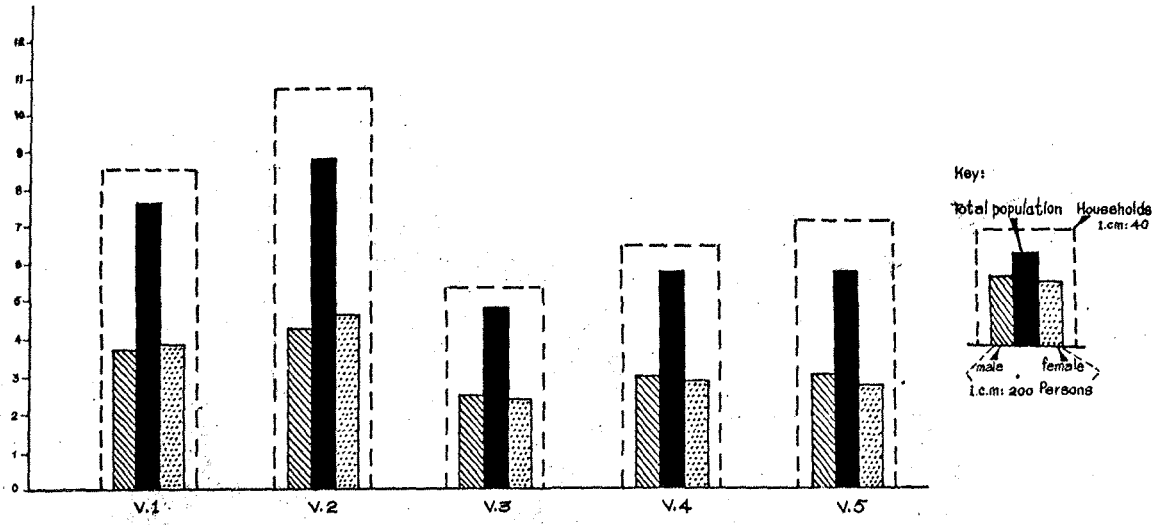
1. Demographic details

Table IV and Figure 8 give the demographic details of the villages under study.

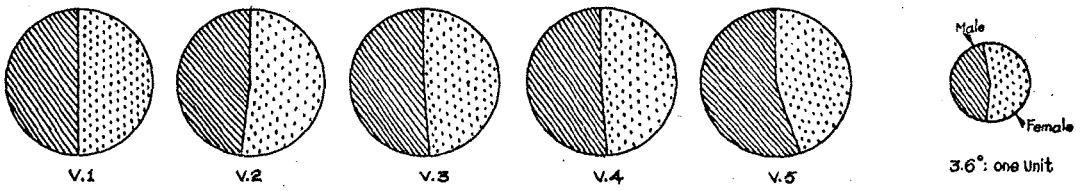
TABLE IV

DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF THE VILLAGES

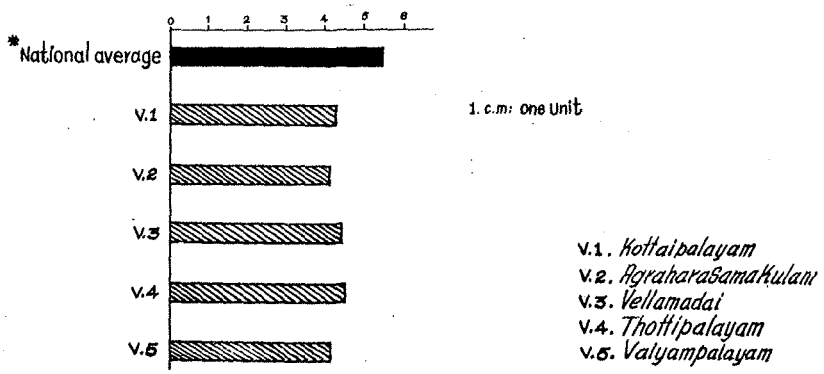
S.No.	Details	Kottai-palayam	Agrahara-samakulam	Vellamadai	Thotti-palayam	Vaiyam-palayam
1.	Total population	1,509	1,745	950	1,142	1,145
2.	Male	749	833	481	582	606
3.	Female	760	912	469	560	539
4.	Male-female ratio	50:50	48:52	51:49	51:49	53:47
5.	Number of households	340	422	213	254	279
6.	Average size of the family	4.44	4.14	4.46	4.50	4.10



3a. POPULATION OF THE VILLAGES



3.b. MALE FEMALE RATIO IN THE SELECTED VILLAGES



*Ref: Directory & Year book, Times of India 1979, P.267

3.c. AVERAGE SIZE OF THE HOUSEHOLD

DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND OF THE SELECTED VILLAGES

Figure. 8

The number of households ranged from 213 to 422. There was not much difference between the villages with regard to the male female ratio. The average size of the family ranged from 4.1 to 4.5.

The agewise distribution of the population, which helps to identify the percentage of population in the workforce is given in Table V.

TABLE V

AGEWISE DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION IN THE VILLAGES

S. No.	Age in years	Percentage of Population				
		Kottai-palayam	Agrahara Samakulam	Vella-madai	Thotti-palayam	Vaiyam-palayam
1.	Below 15	30-0	42.9	28.6	38.7	31.0
2.	15 - 60	58.0	48.1	57.2	55.0	54.6
3.	Above 60	12.0	9.0	14.2	6.3	14.4

Forty eight to 58 per cent of the population in the villages were in the age group of 15 years plus, which usually constitutes the workforce in the rural areas. This statistics was found to be near equal to the national

average*, 52 per cent of the population being in this age group.

2. Family type

Table VI reveals the family types existing in the villages.

TABLE VI

TYPE OF FAMILIES EXISTING IN THE VILLAGES

S.No.	Family Type	Percentage of families				
		Kottai-palayam	Agrahara Samakulam	Vella-madai	Thotti-palayam	Vaiyam-palayam
1.	Nuclear	82.4	87.0	92.5	94.9	65.6
2.	Joint	17.6	13.0	7.5	5.1	34.4

The percentage of joint families in the villages under study was extremely low (except in Vaiyamapalayam) pointing out the general trend of decline of the joint family system in the Indian rural scene.

* India, A Reference Annual 1977-'78, Publication Division Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Govt. of India, p.9.

3. Religion

The analysis of different religions in the villages indicated the dominant role played by the Hindu religions. Of the five villages selected for the study, four were almost completely Hindu oriented. The observation showed that the Hindu temples of varying deities were in existence in the sample villages. No mosque was observed to be present even in the village where a few muslims lived. There observed to exist only one church in the Kottaiplayam village. However, the services were not offered at regular periods.

There were observances of all the religious festivals in the Hindu temples where all castes united and worked. These occassions offered opportunities for teamwork and family reunions, so characteristic of the South Indian village scene. These festivals necessitated considerable monetary expenses on the part of families of all income groups.

4. Caste

Table VII shows the castes classified into forward, backward or scheduled, as per the guidelines given in the Tamil Nadu Gazette.

TABLE VII
CASTES EXISTING IN THE VILLAGES

S. No.	Castes	Percentage of households				
		Kottai-palayam	Agrahara Samakulam	Vella-madai	Thotti-palayam	Vaiyam-palayam
1.	Forward	5.3	0.5	6.1	1.2	9.3
2.	Backward	84.4	80.1	79.3	94.1	89.3
3.	Scheduled	10.3	19.4	14.6	4.7	1.4

All the villages had a dominance of backward class (over 80 per cent). The percentage of scheduled caste in these villages ranged from 1.4 to 19.4.

5. Mother tongue

Tamil and Telugu were the languages commonly used in the villages.

6. Marital status

It was interesting to note that 22 to 37 per cent of the boys and girls in these villages who were in the eligible age group for marriage (that is 21 years for boys and 18 years for girls), still remained unmarried. This points out the agreement of the rural people to the national policy to raise the age of marriage of their sons and daughters. The villages Vellamadai and Vaiyampalayam, where High Schools existed and the village Kottaipalayam which had a close access to a High School in a nearby town (Kovilpalayam), showed a better trend in this aspect, which may be attributed to the availability of educational opportunities.

7. Educational status

Table VIII indicates the educational status in the villages.

TABLE VIII

EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF THE POPULATION IN THE VILLAGES

S. No.	Details	Percentage of population *				
		Kottai-palayam (1370)	Agrahara Samakulam (1491)	Vella-madai (790)	Thotti-palayam (1002)	Vaiyam-palayam (975)
1.	Illiterate	51.3	71.0	37.2	73.6	43.3
2.	Can sign only	0.7	2.4	4.9	3.2	0.8
3.	Can read only	1.0	1.7	0.1	0.3	--
4.	Literate	46.3	24.4	56.1	22.5	53.7
5.	Graduate	0.4	0.3	1.6	0.2	1.6
6.	Professional	0.3	0.2	0.1	--	0.6

* Figures in parantheses denote the population above five years of age, in the respective villages, based on which the educational status was assessed.

More than 50 per cent of the population of villages Kottaipalayam, Agrahara Samakulam and Thottipalayam were illiterate. The villages Vellamadai and Vaiyamapalyam faired better with regard to literacy percentage, which my be attributed to the existence of better educational facilities

in the two villages, thus creating a favourable atmosphere for education.

8. Occupation

Table IX presents the employment status of the villagers.

TABLE IX

EMPLOYMENT STATUS IN THE VILLAGES

S. No.	Details	Kottai-palayam (1057)	Agrahara Samakulam (1007)	Vella-madai (678)	Thotti-palayam (700)	Vaiyam-palayam (790)*
1.	Employed as percentage of the workforce	72.2	82.0	53.2	77.5	53.4
2.	Unemployed as percentage of the workforce	5.4	1.7	3.8	2.2	8.1
3.	Non-workers in percentage	22.4	16.3	43.0	20.3	38.5

* Figures in paranthesis indicate the workforce in the respective villages (that is population in the 15-60 years age group).

The totally unemployed ranged from 1.7 per cent to 8.1 per cent which is an indicator of the waste of human capital in the respective villages. However, the magnitude of unemployment cannot be considered as grave mainly because the exact statistis on total unemployment was not available. People were mainly seasonally unemployed.

Table X gives the categories of occupations identified.

TABLE X

CATEGORIES OF OCCUPATION IN THE VILLAGES

S. No.	Categories of Occupation	Percentage* of workers				
		Kottai-palayam (763)	Agrahara Samakulam (829)	Vella-medai (361)	Thotti-palayam (543)	Vaiyam-palayam (422)
1.	Owner Cultivators	24.0	16.4	26.6	8.5	18.0
2.	Agricultural labourers	34.0	64.7	32.4	70.7	39.0
3.	Non-agri-cultural labourers	33.0	15.5	34.1	16.9	16.0
4.	Others	9.0	3.4	6.9	3.9	27.0

* The percentage was calculated taking into consideration only the number employed as given in paranthesis.

The percentage of owner cultivators in the villages ranged from 8.5 to 26.6; 32.4 to 70.7 per cent were agricultural labourers. When the total work force engaged in the agriculture field was taken into consideration (cultivators plus agricultural labourers), the percentage employed in the field of agriculture was 58.0, 81.1, 59.0, 79.2 and 57.0 in the respective five villages. The villages Agrahara Samakulam and Thottipalayam compared near equal with the national average* (82.3 per cent of the rural working population), pointing out their true agrarian nature. The situation in the other three villages is reflective of the fact that these villages (as is true of many villages in the industrial Coimbatore District), had a closer proximity to textile mills, machinery units and other professional concerns, dragging away the rural work force from the agricultural field.

Table XI gives the details of farming in the villages under reference.

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*Ref: India 1977-'78, Publication Division, p. 161.

TABLE XI

DETAILS OF FARMING IN THE VILLAGES

S. No.	Details	Kottai-palayam (95)	Agrahara Samakulam (123)	Vella-madai (104)	Thotti-palayam (133)	Vaiyam-palayam (76)*
1.	Average size of the farm (in hectares)	2.2	2.2	2.6	1.3	3.4
2.	Percentage of Small/marginal farmers	69.5	69.9	50.0	88.7	46.0
3.	Percentage possessing irrigated land	34.7	39.8	47.1	9.0	58.0

* Figures in paranthesis indicate the number of farm families (Owner cultivators only).

The average size of the farm was found to be the lowest in Thottipalayam village where the percentage of the small/marginal farmers was also the highest. The percentage of irrigated land owners was also extremely low in this village pointing out the poor returns from agriculture. In contrast, the village Vaiyampalayam had the highest percentage of farmers with irrigated land and the largest average size of the farm with the subsequent

lowest percentage of small/marginal farmers. The other three villages were almost equal with regard to average size of the farm, percentage of small/marginal farmers and percentage of farmers with irrigated land.

9. Income - expenditure pattern

Table XII reveals the distribution of the households according to their annual income.

TABLE XII

DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES IN THE VILLAGES ACCORDING TO INCOME

S. No.	Annual Income in Rupees*	Percentage of families				
		Kottai-palayam	Agrahara Samakulam	Vella-madai	Thotti-palayam	Vaiyam palayam
1.	Less than 2,500	50.2	45.5	43.1	61.0	51.2
2.	2,501 - 5,000	26.3	38.4	26.3	33.5	20.2
3.	5,001 - 7,500	10.6	8.8	17.4	3.9	11.2
4.	7,501 and above	10.9	7.3	13.1	1.6	17.4
	Percentage of families living below the poverty line	61.2	64.8	56.3	64.2	56.4

* The classification was based on the one given in the Times of India, Directory and Year Book, 1979, p.19.

A large majority of the households in all the five villages had an annual income of less than Rs.2,500, indicating the poverty stricken conditions of the rural masses. On further analysis, it was found that 56.3 to 64.8 per cent of the population in the villages were below the poverty line, which is higher than the national average* of 47.85 per cent of the population in the rural areas living below the poverty line (Figure 9).

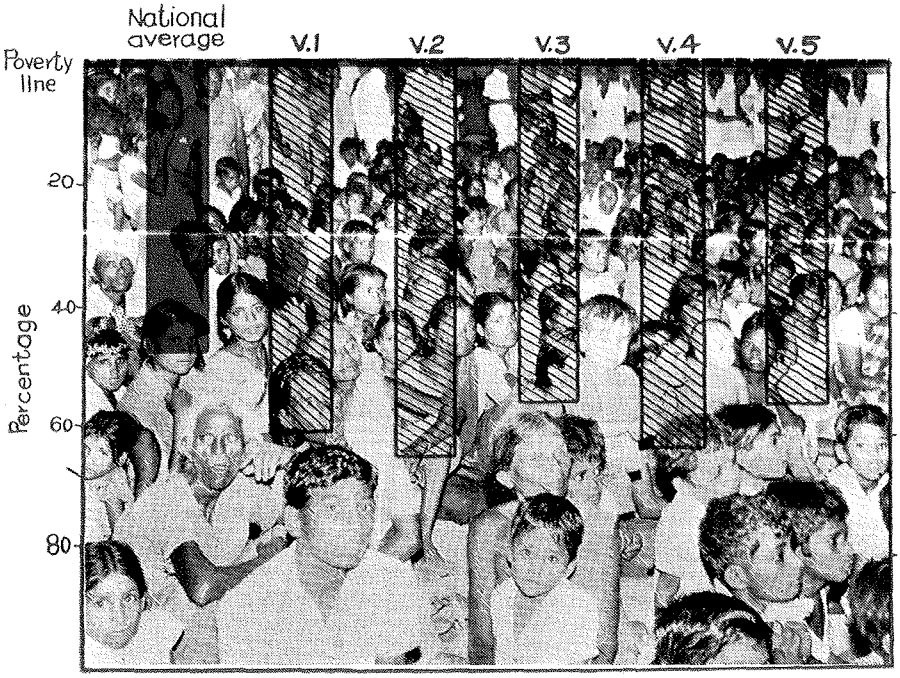
Table XIII gives the details with regard to the per capita income of families in the villages selected.

TABLE XIII

PER CAPITA ANNUAL INCOME IN THE VILLAGES

S.No.	Villages	Per capita income in Rupees
1.	Kottaipalayam	787.20
2.	Agrahara Samakulam	829.20
3.	Vellamadai	850.80
4.	Thottipalayam	999.60
5.	Vaiyampalayam	720.00

*Ref: Draft Five Year Plan, 1978-'83, Government of India, Planning Commission, 1978, p.50.



PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION IN THE SELECTED VILLAGES LIVING BELOW THE POVERTY LINE

Figure.9

While comparing with the national average, the per capita income of the villages under study was lower. However, the per capita income arrived at by dividing the total income by the total population, is not a clear index of the distribution of income. This is specially evident when the figures relating to population living below the poverty line is taken into consideration.

An analysis of the expenditure pattern was made and it was noted that the expenditure on food was the major item. Table XIV gives details of expenditure on Food.

TABLE XIV

FOOD EXPENDITURE PATTERN IN THE VILLAGES

S. No.	Percentage Expenditure on food	Percentage of households				
		Kottai-palayam	Agrahara Samakulam	Vella-madai	Thotti-palayam	Vaiyam-palayam
1.	Upto 25	5.1	3.8	5.0	1.2	8.1
2.	26 - 50	21.1	21.3	29.4	12.2	22.5
3.	51 - 75	48.3	35.2	34.6	37.4	27.5
4.	76 - 99	22.3	33.8	24.4	43.3	30.5
5.	100	2.2	2.8	0.8	5.5	5.5
6.	100 and above	1.0	3.1	5.8	0.4	5.9

More than 60 per cent households in all villages had been spending, over 50 per cent of their total income on food, pointing out their poor socio-economic status. The fact that a few households had spent all their income on food and also incurred debts for this. (Spending over 100 per cent on food alone) is alarming, indicating sheer destitution.

The extent of savings by the families was very meagre in all the villages. The percentage of families saving a portion of their income ranged from three to 25 per cent in the different villages. Agrahara Samakulam recorded the lowest percentage, while Vellamadai topped the list. The habit of saving was observed mainly in the families in the upper strata of income, receiving an annual income of more than Rs.10,000/-.

The problem of indebtedness was grave, 35 to 68 per cent families being indebts. The main source of borrowers was the private money lenders. Debts were reported to be incurred mainly for domestic purposes. A considerable percentage of respondents expressed unwillingness to reveal the extent of indebtedness, pointing out the social stigma attached to the practice of borrowing money.

10. Health status in the villages

The general health status was assessed by studying the mortality rates, incidence of communicable diseases, health practices being followed and the nutritional practices adopted.

Table XV points out the mortality in the villages.

TABLE XV

MORTALITY IN THE VILLAGES

S. No.	Details	Kottai-palayam	Agrahara Samakulam	Vella-madai	Thotti-palayam	Vaiyam-palayam
1.	Total number of deaths during the past five years (1971-1975)	77	70	65	89	54
2.	Occurance of deaths in the different groups of population (as percentage of total mortality in the respective villages)					
	a) Infants	10.4	12.9	15.4	20.2	22.2
	b) Preschoolers	6.5	5.7	6.2	3.4	11.1
	c) School going	--	10.0	--	5.6	--
	d) Adolescents	5.2	4.3	3.0	1.1	27.8
	e) Adults	33.8	37.1	16.9	9.0	24.1
	f) Old age	44.1	30.0	58.5	51.7	14.8
	g) Pregnancy	--	--	--	9.0	--
3.	Death rates (Persons per thousand population per annum)	10.2	8.0	13.7	15.6	9.4

When compared to the national average of 15.9*, the death rates in all the villages (except Thottipalayam) were lower, thanks to the efforts of personnel in Extension Home Science and the rural medical care. A noteworthy feature is the incidence of the lowest rates of death in the villages Agrahara Samakulam and Vaiyamapalayam which may be attributed to the location of the subcentres of the Primary Health Centre of Sarcar Samakulam Panchayat Union in these two villages. Except in the village Thottipalayam, ther was no incidence of maternal mortality, for the period referred to.

Table XVI and Figure 10 illustrate the communicable diseases reported in the villages for the past five years.

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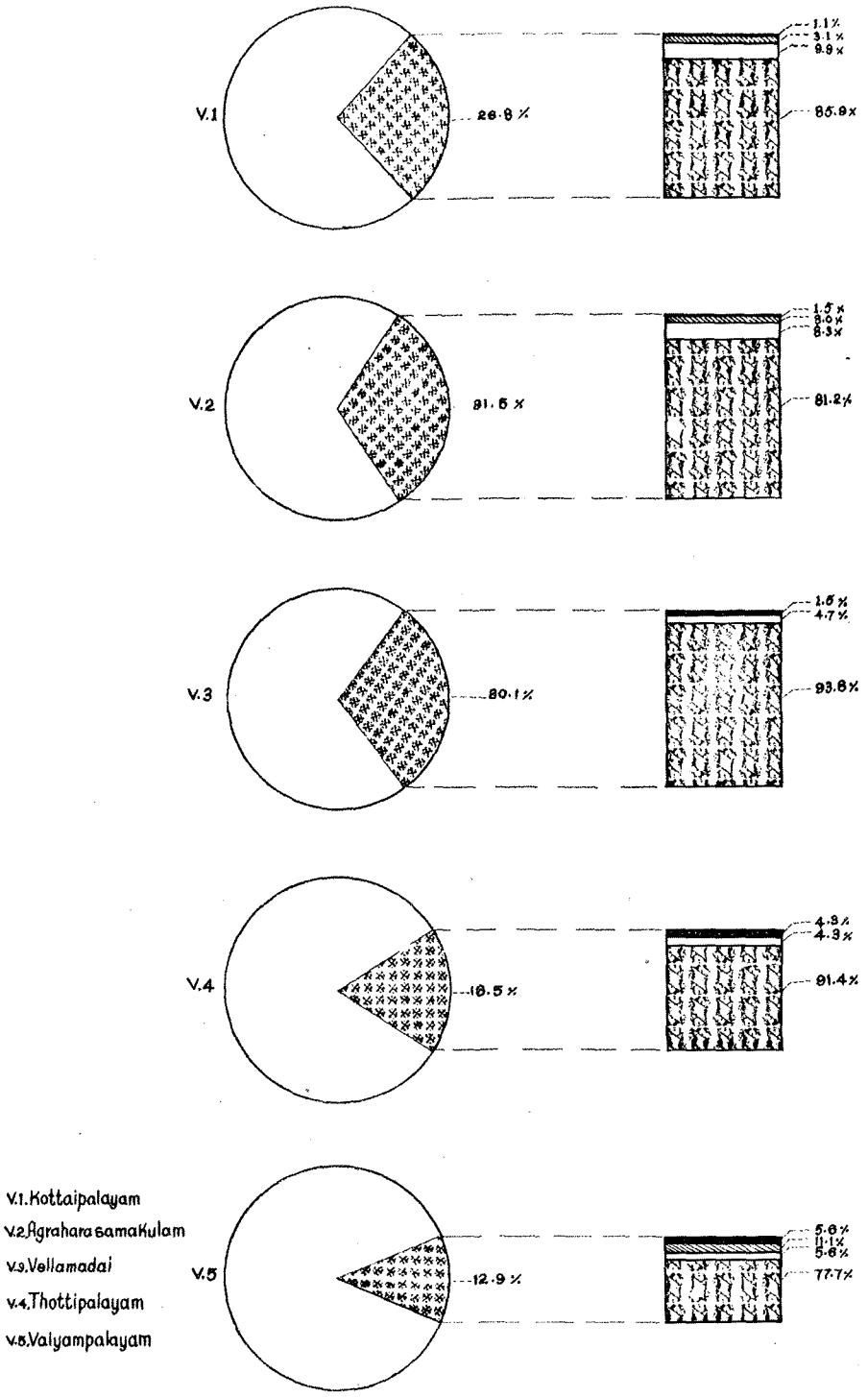
* Ref: The Times of India Directory and Year Book, 1979, p. 260.

TABLE XVI

COMMUNICABLE DISEASES REPORTED IN THE VILLAGES

S. No.	Diseases	Percentage of families reporting				
		Kottai-palayam (91)	Agrahara Samakulam (133)	Vella-madai (64)	Thotti-palayam (47)	Vaiyam palayam (36)*
1.	Total incidence	26.8	31.5	30.1	18.5	12.9
2.	Specific diseases (as percentages of total cases reported)					
	a) Small pox/ measles/chicken pox	85.9	87.2	93.8	91.4	77.7
	b) Whooping cough	9.9	8.3	4.7	4.3	5.6
	c) Cholera	3.1	3.0	--	--	11.1
	d) Malaria	1.1	1.5	1.5	4.3	5.6

*Figures in paranthesis point out the number of cases of communicable diseases in the respective villages.



COMMUNICABLE DISEASES REPORTED IN THE VILLAGES

Figure.10

The incidence of communicable diseases in the villages ranged from 12.9 per cent to 31.5 per cent over a period of five years. The highest frequency reported was ~~mmx~~ measles/ chicken pox comprising over 75 per cent of the total cases. The next in the order, though in a small fraction of the population, was whooping cough in children, occurring mainly due to the negligence of parents with regard to completion of all doses of DPT immunization.

Enquiries were made with regard to certain common daily chores which contribute to healthful living of the families such as ~~tak~~ing bath daily, changing and washing clothes.

It is surprising to note that even these common health practices were not followed by all in the villages studied. Acute water shortage was stated to be the reason for this situation.

Table XVII gives a glimpse of the nutritional knowledge of the homemakers in the respective villages as reflected in their cooking practices.

TABLE XVII

NUTRITIONAL KNOWLEDGE OF THE HOMEMAKERS IN THE VILLAGES

S. No.	Practices	Percentage of families following				
		Kottai-palayam	Agrahara Samakulam	Vella-madai	Thotti-palayam	Vaiyam-palayam
1.	Absorption method of cooking rice	52.4	58.8	59.2	44.5	59.9
2.	Absorption method of cooking vegetables	48.8	57.1	38.5	50.8	55.9
3.	Cutting vegetables after washing	57.1	45.3	44.1	38.6	44.1
4.	Cutting vegetables in big pieces	47.9	40.1	67.6	59.1	52.3
5.	Preserving seasonal foods	57.4	28.0	39.4	4.7	34.6

A fairly considerable percentage of the families in the selected villages were following desirable nutritional practices. The methods of preservation followed only by a very low percentage of homemakers in majority of the villages, were found to be traditional in nature.

11. Social awareness and participation

The respondents were enquired of their awareness about the Panchayat Union staff since Panchayat is a universal infrastructure for developmental purposes existing in all villages in India. Their awareness is shown in Table XVIII

TABLE XVIII

AWARENESS OF FAMILIES ABOUT THE PANCHAYAT UNION STAFF

S. No.	Details	Percentage of respondents being aware				
		Kottai-palayam	Agrahara Samakulam	Vella-madai	Thotti-palayam	Vaiyam-palayam
1.	Block Development officer	30.9	27.0	26.8	16.1	38.0
2.	Village level worker(gramsevak)	27.9	20.1	18.3	24.0	42.0
3.	Gram Sevika	32.4	30.8	26.8	17.3	42.0
4.	Mukhya Sevika	24.0	21.6	14.6	8.3	19.4
5.	Deputy Agriculture Officer	26.2	18.7	11.7	14.6	13.6

The awareness of the respondents from all the five villages, with regard to the Panchayat Union staff and their functioning was meagre, pointing out the poor impact made by

the Community Development programme, which is the machinery created for the development of the rural masses.

Table XIX gives an idea of the social participation of the respondents.

TABLE XIX

SOCIAL PARTICIPATION OF THE FAMILIES IN THE VILLAGES

Sl. No.	Social activities participated	Percentage of families stating				
		Kottai-palayam	Agrahara Samakulam	Vella-madai	Thotti-palayam	Vaiyam-palayam
1.	Listening to Radio	24.4	27.5	25.8	18.1	22.2
2.	Reading news papers	23.8	20.4	21.1	8.3	19.4
3.	Participating in club activities	7.4	11.8	10.8	3.1	9.7
4.	Attending training programmes	1.2	4.0	4.2	1.6	8.2

The rural families did not seem to evince much interest in social activities. The villages had Madhar Sangams (Mahila Mandals or Women's Clubs) which were almost defunct. Three

villages also had Farmers' Forum. There were 2 - 6 representatives from every village, who had earlier been members of the village panchayats. The other social activities included membership in caste/religious groups or political parties. Grouping into community organisations for constructive social purposes was almost lacking in the villages under study.

C. Working out the Strategies for Development

1. Preparing a conceptual model on 'Better Family Living':

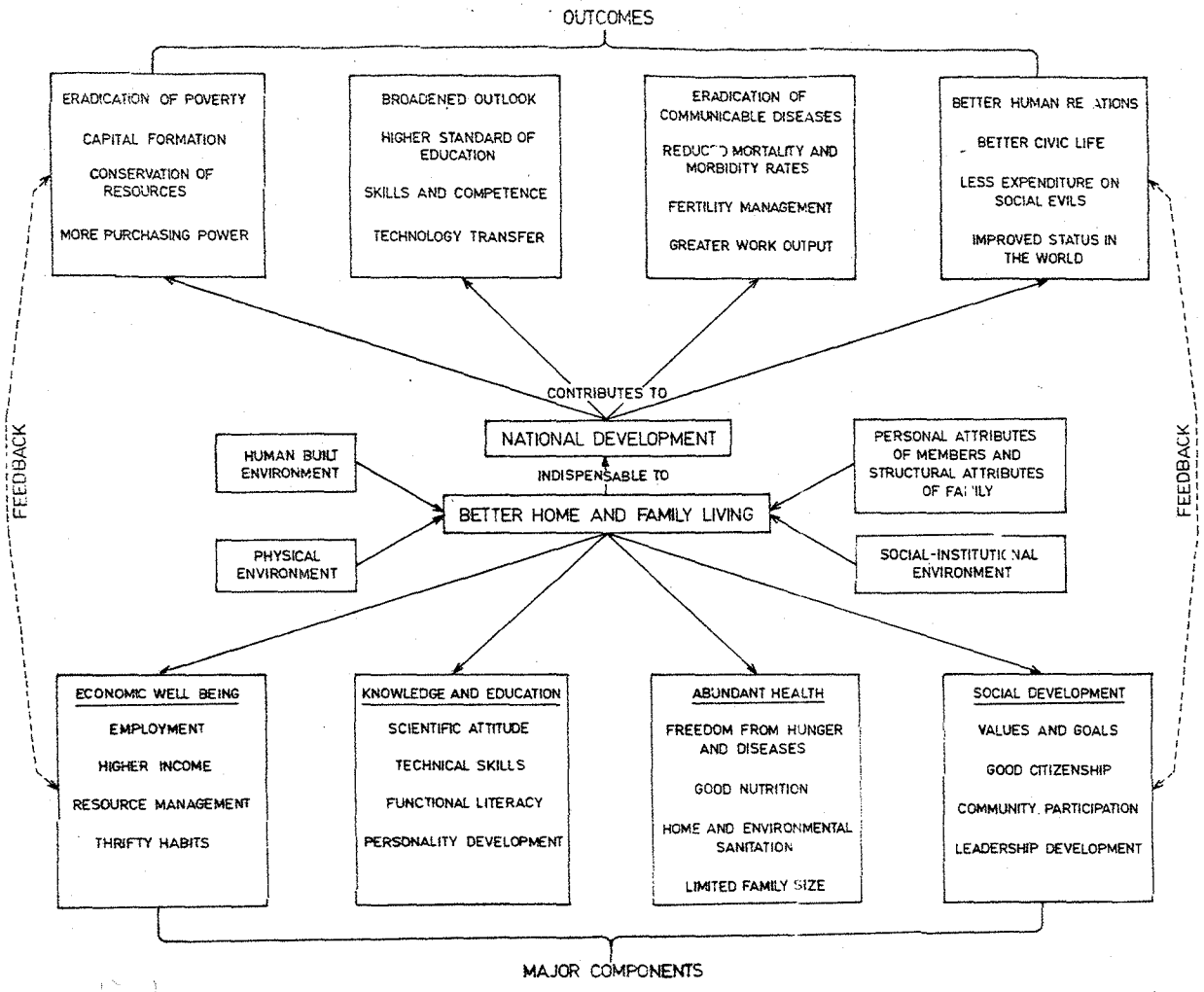
As a guideline for future course of actions, a conceptual model was prepared, indicating the specific components of the concept - Better Family Living and its outcomes. Figure 11 illustrates the conceptual model developed.

The four major components of 'Better Family Living' are:

a. Economic well-being characterised by proper resource management;

b. Knowledge and Education reflecting a scientific attitude so essential for behavioural changes;

c. Abundant Health resulting in optimum work output and utilisation of human capital;



CONCEPTUAL MODEL ON "BETTER HOME AND FAMILY LIVING"

and d. Social Development depicting upkeep of desirable values and goals so interwoven with participation in community affairs and leadership development.

The outermost columns describe the far reaching outcomes.

The outcomes of 'Better Family Living' include,

a. Economic Improvement in terms of eradication of poverty, capital formation, conservation of resources and more purchasing power.

b. Educational Development Characterised by broadened outlook, higher standard of education, development of skills and competencies and transfer of appropriate technology.

c. Health Status Improvement as reflected in eradication of communicable diseases, reduced morbidity and mortality rates, better fertility management and greater work output.

and d. Social development in terms of responsible citizenship, cultural development, reduced incidence of social evils, good moral standards, more leisure, improved status of women and better human relations leading to better civic life.

The fact that Better Family Living is affected by the physical human built and social environment and the influence of personal and structural attributes of the families are also indicated in the model.

While, it was beyond the purview of this project of short duration to aim at the outcomes of better family living in the broader sense, namely on the national panorama, all efforts were made to stimulate the rural people to work towards achieving better family living and also to assess the impact of the same on the families and on the immediate village communities.

2. Locating infrastructure:

A kaleidoscopic examination of the profile of the villages surveyed revealed that there were needs and problems that could be solved by

- the people themselves on individual and community basis
- the external agencies alone and
- the local people with the assistance of external agencies.

Therefore, a complete inventory of the infrastructure that aid in achieving improvement in all directions considered essential for bringing about better family living, was made

which included both local expertise as well as outside help. Figure 12 illustrates the specific infrastructure contributing directly or indirectly towards integrated development for better family living and their mutual relationship.

The infrastructure leading to economic development in the community are:

Commercial banks mobilising loans

Cooperatives which is one of the basic institutions forming the economic base of the rural society

Khadi and Village Industries struggling to materialise Gandhian economics of self-sufficiency with emphasis on rural/cottage industries.

Central Social Welfare Board encompassing a wide net work of socio-economic and vocational programmes, assisting the needy women

Special schemes on adhoc basis introduced by the government/voluntary bodies from time to time.

and National Savings Organisation motivating people to adopt thrifty living and invest for national causes.

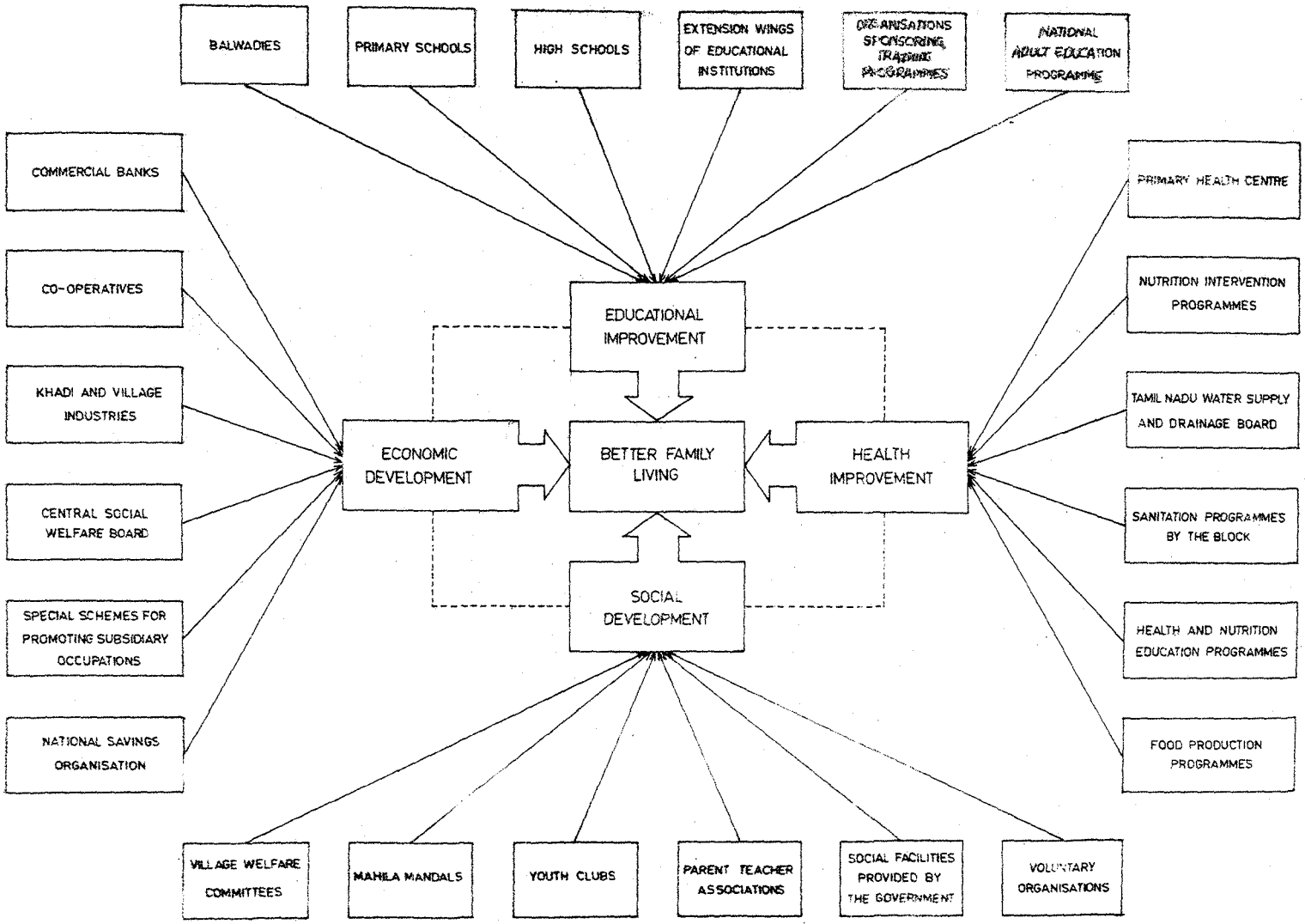
The infrastructure for the educational improvement of the masses included the

Balwadies organised by the government or private bodies

Primary schools, the widely available educational set up in the rural areas

Secondary schools, existing for a large complex of villages

Extension programmes of educational institutions undertaking non-formal education such as the National Service Scheme and extension wings.



PARADIGM SHOWING THE INFRASTRUCTURE IDENTIFIED IN THE PROJECT SITE

Training facilities offered by government and voluntary agencies in order to improve the skills of the target groups.

Non-formal and adult education programmes sponsored by the government and other agencies

The infrastructural facilities identified as available for the improvement of health of the families encompass the

Primary Health Centre existing in all block headquarters, Nutriton intervention programmes through the balwadi feeding programmes and the midday meals in the primary schools

Tamil Nadu Water Supply and Drainage Board attempting to provide portable drinking water through borewells, sanitation programmes by the block

Health and Nutrition Education programmes offered by the Government and voluntary agencies

and Food production programmes initiated by the block and other organisations.

The means of social and cultural development include the following:

Panchayats for administrative representation and participation in community policy matters

Community organisations such as Village Welfare Committees, Youth Clubs, Women's Clubs and Parent-Teacher Associations in balwadies and schools

Representation in voluntary organisations and cooperatives

The resource inventory (infrastructure available) thus made and the list of problems in the villages identified earlier through surveys and discussions enabled the investigator to make a thorough malady-remedy analysis, so essential for integrated development of the families.

3. Identifying target groups

Since the focus of the project was on fostering 'better home and family living', the family approach was given priority. The target groups identified were men, women and youth as well, who constitute the elements of change in any development programme.

4. Setting up objectives

Based on the problems and needs identified and considering the possibilities for development utilising the infrastructure available, the general and specific objectives were formulated.

a. General overall objective

The overall general objective was to bring about better home and family living by simulating, through the family approach, the men, women and youth in the selected rural communities to utilise the economic and social infrastructure for development.

b. Specific, workable objectives

To

(i) create an awareness amongst the rural community specially the women, of the need to become self-reliant and to motivate them to accept and participate in the developmental programmes launched;

(ii) stimulate them to utilise the infrastructure identified to fulfil their needs;

(iii) encourage the formation of and strengthen the community organisations for men, women and youth for developing local leadership and for sharing responsibility for fostering better home, family and community living;

(iv) evaluate the impact of the programmes on the rural families and on the community;

and (v) plan for suitable followup action so that the programme becomes selfpropellent.

The objectives served as guide points to chalk out the action programmes.

D. Project Implementation and Monitoring

Among the five villages taken for initial survey, the villages Kottaipalayam, Agrahara Samakulam and Vellamadai

were selected to be the project villages for impementing the plan of action and Thottipalayam and Vaiyamapalayam were treated as non-project villages for purposes of comparison.

1. Initiating community action and participation

a. Setting up the village welfare committees

For initiating community action and participation, Village Welfare Committees were formed in all the three project villages, involving official, non-official and opinion leaders of the respective villages, including women representatives. The committees were well oriented to the objectives of the project and involved in decision making with regard to the planning and implementation of developmental activities for their villages.

b. Activising the PTAs:

The PTAs attached to the primary schools were readily available as community organisations. However, they were almost defunct at the time of the initiation of the project. Therefore, as a first step towards improvement in the educational sphere, the PTAs were strengthened. Several discussion meetings were held with the members of the PTAs as to how to foster desirable school community relationship. They were motivated to prepare an inventory of the activities to be done for the improvement of the school. A resource inventory was also simultaneously made to fix priorities.

c. Strengthening Mahalir Manrams:

The Mahalir Manrams existing in all the three villages as sponsored by the Panchayat Union, were more or less defunct at the time of the start of the project. Therefore, efforts were immediately taken to revive them, strengthen them with membership and guidance given for meaningful activities. The Mahalir Manrams thus activised were registered under the BGMS, Coimbatore District Branch, to enable the members of BGMS to obtain bank loans and assistance from Khadi and Village Industries, CSWB and other institutions offering help for registered cooperatives.

d. Initiating Youth Clubs:

Realising the significant role the youth have in rural development programmes, youth clubs were first organised for girls in each of the three project villages. The support of the parents, the Village Welfare Committees and the Mahalir Manrams was elicited prior to starting the clubs.

After discussing the importance of the youth clubs, specific objectives were spelt out, the constitution framed and the activities were chalked out. The clubs elected their own office bearers. The activities were chosen in such a manner that they would contribute not only to the welfare of

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the individuals and their families but also benefit the community.

On observing the effective functioning of the youth clubs for girls, interested boys from the three villages expressed their desire to form youth clubs of their own. On getting guidance from the investigator on the procedures in establishing a club, the youth organised their clubs, elected their office bearers and launched into activities of public interest, with the continuous guidance and support of the Village Welfare Committees.

2. Establishing linkages with infrastructure

The officials in charge of the various infrastructure identified at the local level as well as at district level were contacted through correspondence and also in person to elicit their help and cooperation in the execution of the project. The Block Development Officer who is at the helm of affairs for all developmental programmes at the grass root level unit of operation and administration was contacted frequently in order to get the help from his team of officials and also for keeping him informed of the implementation of the project.

Whenever such contacts with officials were made, care was taken to introduce to the officials, the key leaders in the community, who would peruse the matter and follow up the

help sought. These exposures widened the horizon of contacts for the rural community.

3. Executing the plan of action:

The plan of action was prepared so as to cover the four major areas of better home and family living, namely:

a. Economic upliftment
b. Improvement in education
c. Improvement in health
and d. Social development.

a. Economic upliftment:

i. Arranging for bank loans

The Canara Bank, at Kovilpalayam, the headquarters of the Sarcar Samakulam Panchayat Union, was approached for obtaining loans for developmental purposes for the three project villages. With the help of the bank officials, the villagers were thoroughly oriented to the various credit facilities available in the bank and the rules and regulations and terms and conditions to be observed while availing the credit facilities. After scrutinising the needs and the feasibilities of operation and repayment, the bank authorities agreed to issue loans to the deserving families in a phased manner, over a period of three years. Loans were given for

agriculture, cattle and sheep rearing and petty business. Figure 13 illustrates the major types of loans issued.

ii. Organising cooperatives:

Milk cooperative societies:

The desire to form a cooperative Milk Society, was expressed by the youth representatives during one of the meetings of the Village Welfare Committee at Kottaipalayam. As a followup of this resolution, the leader of the Youth Club was advised to send the proposal and application to the Cooperative Milk Supply Union Ltd., Coimbatore and with persistent efforts, the Cooperative Milk Society came into existence on 13th August, 1976 at Kottaipalayam. Arrangements were made to have the off-take of the milk collected, at the village itself.

With the onset of this Cooperative venture in one village, the Village Welfare Committees in the other two project villages decided to follow suit. Consequently Milk Society was initiated at Agrahara Samakulam village on 27th January, 1977 and the services of this society were extended to the Vellamadai village from 29th March, 1978 onwards. Training was given to selected youth club members in assessing the quality of milk (fat content), working out the cost per litre and also in keeping accounts and distributing returns to



Figure. 13

members. The membership in the societies and the milk collection were in steady rise. Arrangements were made to offer routine veterinary assistance and instructions on cattle care to the members of the society. Figure 14 illustrates the functioning of the Cooperative Milk Societies.

Fair price shop:

One of the difficulties experienced by the people in the selected villages was that they had to walk to a nearby village at a distance of three kilometres to reach the nearest fair price shop. In order to tide over such day to day difficulties, the Tamilnadu Civil Supplies Corporation, Coimbatore District Unit was persuaded to a great deal, to organize a fair price shop at Kottai-palayam village itself to cater to the needs of the neighbouring villages. This effort bore fruits in January 1977 and the organisation of the store not only reduced drudgeries for the villagers but also made it possible for one of the educated youth (girl) in the village to get a job in the shop as the clerk-in-charge.

Farmer's cooperative credit society

The setting up of the milk societies and the fair price shops had a snow-ball effect, resulting in the extending of the services of the farmer's cooperative to the project



CO-OPERATIVE MILK SOCIETY IN ACTION



Figure.14

villages. The branch of the society was x located at Kottaipalayam village.

iii. Initiating home scale subsidiary occupations

The members of the Mahalir Manrams were motivated to start home scale subsidiary occupations. Registration under the BGMS enabled them to obtain credit facilities for starting the production units and recognition and marketing facilities for the produce.

The following occupations were started:

Items	Villages	Number of women involved
Preparing Murukku* (Figure 15)	Kottaipalayam	One
Pickle making (Figure 16)	Kottaiplayam	One
	Agrahara Samakulam	Two
	Vellamadai	Two
Vadagam** making (Figure 17)	Agrahara Samakulam	Two
Wire Chair making (Figure 18)	Kottaipalayam	Three
	Agrahara Samakulam	Three

* Murukku is a popular fried eatable prepared out of rice, dhal mixture. The speciality of the product is in the unique designs created with skilled hands.

** A preparation out of rice or sago following the method of preservation by drying in the sun.



PREPARATION OF 'MURUKKU'

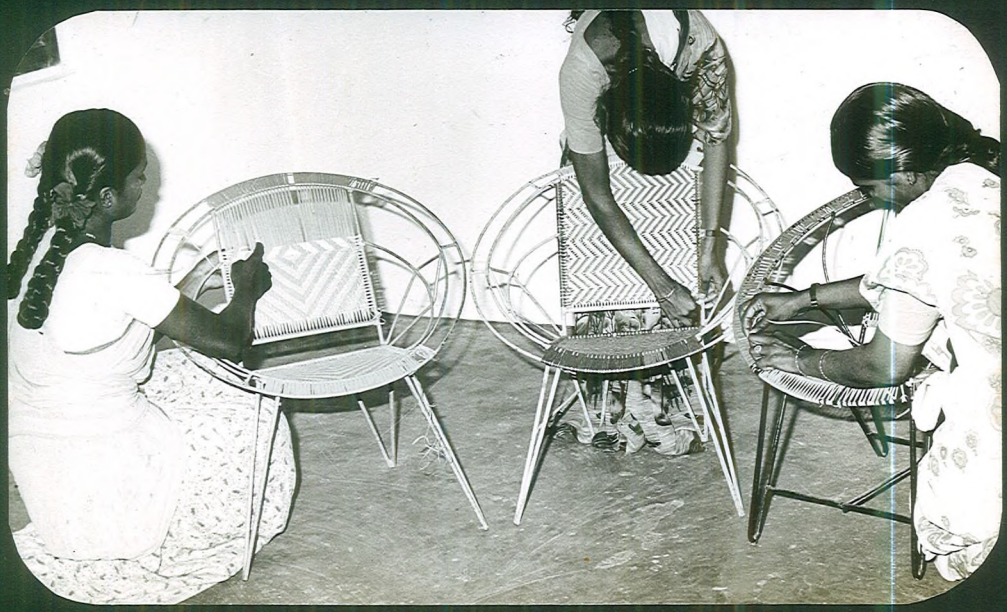
Figure.15





PREPARATION OF VADAGAM

Figure.17



WIRE CHAIR SPINNING

Figure.18

Short term loans ranging from Rs.100 - 500 were made available to the above members as 'seed money' for initial investment in terms of equipment and raw materials. Wherever needed, the beneficiaries were given the necessary training, as in the case of wire chair making.

Various possibilities were explored for marketing the produce and the help of the following agencies was obtained, after continuous persuasion of the concerned authorities:

Chinthamani, The Cooperative Super Market, Coimbatore

Tamil Nadu Civil Supplies Corporation, Coimbatore

'Khadi Craft', Khadi and Village Industries, Coimbatore.

Janatha Canteen run at the Coimbatore Municipal Bus Stand by the Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College for Women, Coimbatore.

Sarvodaya Sangh, Coimbatore

and the Canteens of Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya and Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore.

iv. Production of 'Kuzhandai Amudhu' - an infant food:

The infant food 'Kuzhandai Amudhu' developed and patented by Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore is a combination of a cereal, a pulse, roasted groundnuts and jaggery. The 'Ready to Eat' mixture emerged out of a longi-

tudinal study and research carriedout by Devadas and co-workers[§] in the laboratory and in the field. The food had been tested over thousands of children for acceptability and impact on the nutritional status.

One hundred grams of this food provide 397 calories and 13.1 gms. of protein which fulfil nearly one third of the daily nutritional requirements of children under five years. Different types of recipes solid and semi solid in nature, can be prepared out of this mixture. This mixture can also be incorporated in various sweet and savoury preparations in common use.

The mixture is a low cost, indigenous food, prepared utilising the less costly, locally available food stuffs. The technology involved in the preparation is simple and of low level, thus making it viable for adoption by the rural women. Except for grinding the coarse cereals (maize-jowar) into a fine flour in a mill, all the other operations such as cleaning the ingredients, winnowing, pounding, sieving, roasting and mixing could be done through manual labour. After mixing the flours in correct proportions, the food can be packed in polythene bags in a hygienic way, sealed and labelled suitably (Figure 19).

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[§] Devadas Rajammal.P, Jamala, S., Chandrasekhar, U and Murthy, N.K., 'Nutritional Evaluation of a maize-based Indigenous Infant Food, "Kuzhandai Amudhu", The Ind. J. Nutr. Dietet., (1974), 11, 257 to 263.



THE PROCESS OF PREPARING KUZHANDAI AMUDHU

Figure.19

A demonstration was arranged for the members of Mahalir Manram in the selected villages, on the preparation and use of Kuzhandai Amudhu. It kindled the interest of a few members of Kottaipalayam village to venture into the production of this food on a commercial basis. After considering the economic viability of the product, following serious deliberations with the nutritionists and calculating the cost benefit, it was decided to try the production unit on a small scale. Thus the production unit of Kuzhandai Amudhu was begun as a maiden effort, on the Tamil New Year's Day, 13th April, 1977. The patent was given by the College to these selected members of the Mahalir Manram at Kottaipalayam under the banner and registration number of the Bharatiya Grameen Mahila Sangh, with a nn capital investment of Rs.1,000/- contributed as loan by Sri Avinashilingam Education Trust. Necessary permission and licence for the preparation of this product were obtained from the Block authorities concerned.

Various agencies were approached for help in the marketing of Kuzhandai Amudhu. A demonstration - sales Campaign was conducted at Chinthamani, the Cooperative Super Market, Coimbatore for 12 days, in order to assess the responses of the public of Coimbatore, to the introduction of this new food in the market.

'Kuzhandai Amudhu' demonstration-cum-sales stalls were put up in the exhibition conducted in Madras in connection with the XXVII World Vegetarian Congress from 2-12-1977 to 5-12-1977, in the 'All India Tourist Trade Fair', at Madras from 24-12-1977 to 13-1-1978 and in the Tamil Nadu Government Exhibition held at Coimbatore in the summer months of 1979, to popularise Kuzhandai Amudhu among the local public. The food attracted the attention of the public owing to its low cost, taste and patent by Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, a renowned institution for nutrition research and education.

The paediatricians of Coimbatore City and Coimbatore Medical College were approached for recommending the use of Kuzhandai Amudhu for feeding the malnourished infants and children. The nursery schools and residential schools run by charitable institutions were also contacted to appeal to them to try Kuzhandai Amudhu with the children in their schools.

v. Availing the benefits of the calf-rearing scheme by the Tamilnadu Dairy Development Corporation:

The Regional Officer of the Tamilnadu Dairy Development Corporation at Coimbatore was approached and arrangements were made to extend the calf rearing schemes of the Corporation to

the project villages. This scheme of the Corporation coupled with the loan facilities extended by the Canara Bank for cattle rearing augmented the possibilities of strengthening the milk societies established.

vi. Initiating a coir rope making unit

While exploring the possibilities for initiating some type of village industry using low level technology at the village level, it was found that coir rope making could be started without much financial strain and operational difficulties. Therefore, the officer-in-charge of the village Industries of the KVIC was contacted to initiate a small coir-rope making project in one of the adopted villages. While selecting the beneficiaries, the Village Welfare Committee suggested that the project should be given exclusively for the Harijan women in Kottaipalayam village. Accordingly five Harijan (adidravida) women from Kottaipalayam village were sent for a fortnight's training in coir-rope making at the Cooperative Coir Making Unit of the KVIC at Kappalangarai, in Pollachi Taluk, Coimbatore District. A school teacher, a resident of the Harijan Colony was highly interested in this venture for the women and he was motivated to accompany the women to the primary training centre located nearly 100 kilometre away from the village. He was also interduced to the authorities for followup.

However, out of the five trained members, only three came forward to start the coir-rope making project and the other two dropped out owing to some family problems. The willing members were assisted to enrol themselves as members of the BGMS club, Kottaipalayam and to procure credit facilities upto Rs.1,000/- from the Canara Bank, Kovilpalayam, in order to purchase the equipment and fibre. Marketing facilities were explored and made known to the members. Figure 20 depicts the women at coir work.

vii. Self Employment programme

The BGMS unit of Coimbatore District and the Home Science Extension Department of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College for Women jointly conducted a fortnight - long training in self employment for rural girls with the financial assistance of the West Rotary Club, Coimbatore. Six girls, three each from Agrahara Samakulam and Kottaipalayam opted for Candle making and were trained in the process of making the same (Figure, 21).



COIR ROPE MAKING

Figure.20



CANDLE MAKING

Figure.21

A new scheme for self employment (TRYSEM) was introduced in all blocks to benefit the unemployed youth both boys and girls. The Village Communities were made aware of the benefits of their new scheme and motivated to join in these training programmes. The boys showed interest in automobile engineering, while the girls wanted to join the tailoring units initiated. Accordingly they were helped to get details of the training from the BDO and his team of extension officials and join the training programmes.

viii. Cattle loan scheme of the CSWB

The cattle loan scheme is one of the popular socio-economic schemes for rural women sponsored by the CSWB. Under this scheme, the needy rural women from the poor strata of the society, specially widows and destitutes can form themselves into units of five and apply for cattle loan of Rs.2000/- each, which is interest free. An undertaking to the effect of group guarantee system is the only security warranted. However the beneficiaries of this scheme have to undergo thorough screening, by the village officers, Block Development Officer, officials connected with the sponsoring agencies, District member of the State Social Welfare Board and members of the Sub-committee constituted for the cattle loan scheme. Only then, their applications would be considered for favour of sanction. Efforts were made to motivate the women in the project villages to benefit from this scheme, after explain to them the very rigid terms and conditions of the CSWB.

Thus after three and a half years of persistent persuasion with the State Social Welfare Board, three cattle units at the rate of one per village was obtained, thereby benefitting fifteen women from the three villages. Great care was exercised in helping the selected women to purchase the cattle for which the help was sought from the Assistant Director, Animal Husbandry, Coimbatore District and his team located at the Block headquarters. Several discussion meetings were held whereby the beneficiaries of the scheme could clarify their doubts with the Assistant Director, Animal Husbandry, and also the Cattle Insurance Officials (United India, Insurance Co., Coimbatore). After all these orientation training, the cattle were purchased, vaccinated for common diseases and insured immediately. Figure 22 portrays some of the proud owners of the cattle purchased under the CSWB socio-economic prgramme.

ix. Ambar Charka spinning unit sponsored by the KVIC:

After prolonged interactions with the KVIC, Coimbatore District for nearly three years, an ambar charka spinning unit was initiated for the benefit of the project villages whereby 25 women could be productively employed. The unit was



BENEFICIARIES OF CATTLE LOAN FROM C S W B

Figure.22

located at Agrahara Samakulam where spacious and safe accommodation was available. However, women from both Agrahara Samakulam and Kottaipalayam were recruited for the production unit. After training the members for two months (with a stipend of Rs.75/- p.m.), the production unit had started functioning steadily under the supervision and responsibility of an Instructor from KVIC (Figure 23).

x. Savings drive

Efforts were continuously taken to promote thrifty habits and savings among the families in the project villages with the help of the National Savings Organisations (NSO) - Coimbatore Unit. The methods of contact used were frequent door to door campaign, discussion meetings with the members of Mahalir Manrams, members of Youth Coubs and canvassing by the 'Savings Organiser' sponsored by the NSO for a group of villages. The NSS volunteers of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore were also utilised for this campaign.

b. Activities in connection with improvement in health and nutrition:

i. Immunisation vaccination drive:

The PHC, Sarcar Samakulam Panchayat Union was requested to extend their fullest support to the project villages. Right



AMBAR CHARKA SPINNING CENTRE IN OPERATION

Figure.23

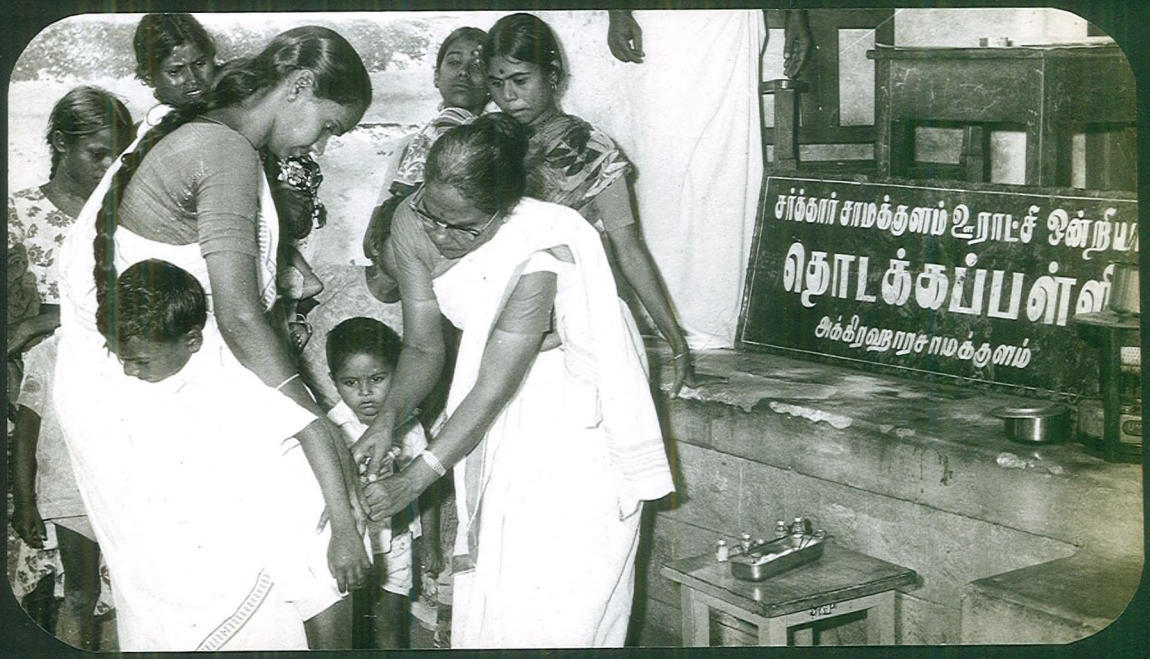
from the inception of the project, the mothers were motivated to adopt prophylactic measure, through interaction with them by way of door to door canvassing, group meetings, exhibitions, filmshows and approach through key leaders. As a result, the families in the project villages were receiving protection against diseases, at regular intervals through immunization and vaccination programmes (DPT and Polio for children, tetanus toxid vaccination for expectant women, primary and re-vaccination of children for small pox and inoculation for cholera) and through periodic supply of vitamin A capsules (Figure 24).

ii. Health check up

Frequent health check-ups by the PHCs for balwadi and school children and also for the public was a routine feature of the project. The Coimbatore Medical College was approached to organize special medical camps in order to facilitate the villagers to receive the help of specialits. Eye camps were organised in all the three project villages with the technical support of the Eye Relief Home, Padanur, Coimbatore. The cases requiring optical support and surgeries were followed up. The services of the Mobile Health Team of the PHC (which started functioning from 1-10-1978) were being fully utilised, during their weekly visits to the villages.



IMMUNIZATION FOR INFANTS



VACCINATION FOR SCHOOL KIDS

Figure.24

iii. Arranging for potable water supply:

Through constant interactions with the Tamilnadu Water Supply and Drainage (TWAD) Board, Coimbatore Division for Rural Water Supply, four bore wells were installed (Two each in Kottaipalayam and Agrahara Samakulam) to ease the water problem. With the assistance of the officials of the Health Department, the overhead tanks were chlorinated from time to time to ensure protected water supply to the inmates of the villages.

iv. Supplementary feeding programmes:

The village Agrahara Samakulam had the supplementary feeding programme for the vulnerable group, sponsored and run by the PHC. The expectant women, nursing mothers and pre-school children were covered under this programme. This programme was utilised as a vehicle to transmit nutrition and health education for the women.

The villages, Kottaipalayam and Agrahara Samakulam were chosen as the location for a short term nutrition research project by Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College to test the nutritional adequacies of supplementary feeding of pre school children with Leaf Protein in comparison with Kuzhandai Amudhu. Balwadies were established in these villages for education and feeding and to serve as venues to disseminate nutrition ~~xx~~ messages.

v. Health and nutrition education

Education on health and nutrition was incorporated in all the activities related to Mahalir Manrams, Youth Clubs and training programmes conducted for the villages. Intensive community nutrition campaigns were also conducted with the assistance of the post graduate students and research scholars of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore.

vi. Food production programme

Since the inception of the project, raising kitchen gardens, specially utilising the waste space at the back-yard and the sullage water were encouraged. The members of the Youth Clubs and Mahalir Manrams were exposed to discussions and demonstrations on kitchen garden by the agricultural experts from the Panchayat Union, Tamilnadu Agricultural University and the State Department of Agriculture during the training programmes.

In addition to individual home gardens, steps were taken to raise school gardens in the primary schools in all the three villages, with the labour contributed by the members of the Youth Clubs. The produce were utilised for the school lunch programme.

The cattle loan beneficiaries were educated on the nutritive value of dairy products and were motivated to keep aside some milk for family consumption.

Interested villagers were encouraged to start backyard poultries with the technical help from the veterinary experts and financial help from Canara Bank.

c. Educational activities

Education geared to the total development of the rural families was the focus in the project and therefore efforts were continuously taken to strengthen both formal and non formal education programmes in the project villages.

i. School enrolment drive

Motivation programmes were jointly organised by the members of the PTAs, Youth Clubs and Mahalir Manrams and the NSS volunteers of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College to enrol eligible children in the school and to tackle the problem of 'drop out' from the schools.

A few children born in very poor families who desired to pursue their studies were assisted in getting admission in free residential schools being run by certain charitable institutions in Coimbatore district. Ten girls were thus admitted in the TELC Home for Girls at Karunakarapuri, Pollachi Taluk, and five boys were put in St.Mary's High School (TELC), Karumathampatti, Avinashi Taluk.

The girls and boys desirous of continuing their college studies were assisted to get admission in Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore and Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya Arts College, Coimbatore as the case may be.

ii. Initiating balwadies

The balwadies established under the research project, not only arose nutrition consciousness in the community but also helped to augment the school enrolment efforts.

While the village Vellamadai could not be brought into the fold of the afore mentioned nutrition project (due to a political intervention), the Panchayat Union was constantly approached to initiate a balwadi in Vellamadai village, under the sponsorship of the Department of Social Welfare, Government of Tamil Nadu, with feeding component included. The efforts bore fruits and a balwadi has come into existence (Figure 25) from August, 1978. The CSWB has been approached to initiate permanent balwadies in Kottaipalayam and Agrahara Samakulam.

iii. Improving the amenities in the schools

The PTAs in all the three villages expressed as number one need, kitchen (sheds) for the schools, to prepare the school lunch. Discussions were held with the Village



BALWADI AT KOTTAIPALAYAM BEING INAUGURATED BY THE DIRECTOR



BALWADI AT VELLAMADAI

Figure.25

Welfare Committee and the PTAs to explore the possibilities of creating these assets with the active support and involvement of the local community, through donations in terms of cash, kind and voluntary labour. The cost of construction was also estimated in consultation with the Panchayat Union Engineer and local construction workers. The PTAs resolved to request the NSS of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore to conduct their Rural Reconstruction summer camps in the three villages.

Subsequently three NSS summer camps were conducted in Kottaipalayam (1976), Vellamadai (1977) and Agrahara Samakulam (1978) and school lunch sheds for the respective village schools were constructed (each worth Rs.2,000) (Figure 26). The cardinal feature of the whole venture was that the Village Welfare Committee and the Youth Clubs took active role in this effort, thereby strengthening the bonds of school-community relationship.

The spirit thus kindled took deep roots and spread with greater momentum. The public support continued and attempts were made to organise school gardens, construct urinals, arrange for fencing of the school and give water tap connection to the school (Vellamadai). The Youth Club members took turns in maintaining the assets created.



SCHOOL LUNCH SHEDS CONSTRUCTED

1. Kottaipalayam
2. Agraharasamakulam
3. Vellamadai

Figure. 26

iv. Conduct of training programmes

In addition to the informal type of education programmes for the members of Mahalir Manrams and Youth Clubs during their meetings, special training programmes sponsored by the government and voluntary bodies were utilised. The are described in the subsequent peragraphs.

Training in storage of grains, rodent and pest control:

Realising the magnitude of the problem of losses of food grains during storage caused by insects, rats, birds, mites, moisture, fungi and microorganisms, Government of India, Department of Food, has created an agency "Save Grain Campaign" to undertake the responsibility of transmitting the message on improved storage of Grains and Pest and Rodent Control, to practising farmers. The Save Grain Campaign send their technical experts to recognised institutions interested in rural welfare, to conduct certificate and adhoc courses for farm women, free of cost.

Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College utilised this infrastructure and conducted a 21 day certificate course in Grain Storage for the benefit of farm youth from 11 adopted villages. This course was conducted from 29th Sept. to 19th October, 1976, when six girls from the farm households of the project villages (one from Kottaipalayam, two from

Agrahara Samakulam and three from Vellamadai) participated in the residential training course. Practical field level training through village camps was an important features of the effort. The participants also gave a programme over the All India Radio. The response to the course from the participants and their parents was good.

One of the essential conditions of the certificate course was stipulating a minimum qualification of SSLC to be eligible for participation. This posed impediments in the selection of candidates and the benefits of the training were limited to only educated farm youth.

When the trained youth went back to their respective villages and communicated the benefits from their training, a few more farm women (who did not have the required educational qualification) expressed their desire to undergo such training. Therefore the authorities of the Save Grain Campaign, Regional Office, Madras were requested to sponsore a special Save Grain Campaign in the project villages. The effort was highly rewarding and the authorities of the Save Grain Campaign went out of the way to relax their conditions and sponsored a special ten days non-certificate course for the project villages. An expert was sent and the course was conducted successfully from 15th April to 4th May, 1977. Thirty farm women(ten from each of the three villages)underwent the training which was mainly of practical nature (Figure 27).



DEMONSTRATION ON FIELD RAT CONTROL

Figure. 27

Leadership training camp

A Leadership Training Camp was conducted by Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, under the auspices of the BGMS from 28-3-1977 to 17-4-1977 for three weeks. Five representatives from the project villages - three from Kottaipalayam, one from Agrahara Samakulam and one from Vellamadai, participated in the training which aimed at developing leadership qualities in women and imparting the latest subject matter knowledge, to them in nutrition, health, education, social welfare, first aid, agriculture, animal husbandry and community organisations, which are essential development. The training broadened the outlook of the participants and enthused them to offer leadership in their native communities.

Training camp in 'Public Cooperation':

A training camp for rural women in Public Cooperation was sponsored by the National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development (NIPCCD), funded by the CSWB and organised by the BGMS Coimbatore District Branch. It was conducted for the project villages for ten days from 5th March to 14th March 1979. There were 20 women (six from Kottai-palayam, Seven each from Agrahara Samakulam and Vellamadai) participating in the camp. The participants were selected

from a heterogeneous group with regard to age, education and income strata, so that they would represent their own groups and fit into same. Kottaipalayam which had facilities for accommodation was selected to be the venue of the camp.

The camp had the following specific objectives: To

1. Identify the needs of the women in rural areas and orient them through training camps in a manner in which they can involve themselves to meet their felt needs.

2. Offer to them subject matter knowledge in aspect related to public cooperation and participation in community welfare activities.

3. Expose them to developmental activities for the welfare of the rural families.

4. Bring out their latent talents and foster leadership qualities in them.

and 5. Provide opportunities for them to serve as liasions at the village level.

The participants had a splendid opportunity to meet Mrs. Margaret Plume, Member, Associated Country Women of the World to which BGMS is affiliated. With the backdrop of her rich experiences in working for the rural women,

all over the world. Mrs. Plume gave worth-while ideas to the trainees to work for the development of their follow women.

The schedule for the training programme included classes on the philosophy of public cooperation, developmental programmes for rural women, role of voluntary organisations in development, subject matter classes on agriculture and post harvest technology, housing and home management, better nutrition, health and hygiene, population education and family welfare programme, clothing care, social legislation relating to women's welfare and civic education. The resource personnel were drawn from Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College for Women, Coimbatore, the Panchayat Union, and the PHC of Sarcar Samakulam, St. John's Ambulance Association, Coimbatore, Lawyers Association, Coimbatore, Mass Education Bureau for Family Welfare, Coimbatore and Tamilnadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore.

The training camp included theory classes, practical demonstrations, group discussions, film shows and field trips to different organisations. The most interesting aspect of the training camp was the involvement of the participants in assessing the health status of the children

(below 12 years) of the three villages. This experience opened up new vistas of practical knowledge for these women and awakened them to contribute their mite to improve the health status of their own communities.

Several competitions were conducted to encourage the participants and certificates were awarded to recognise their participation in this novel venture by the NIPCCD.

Training in self employment

Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College conducted a training course for self employment for rural women in collaboration with the Rotary Club of Coimbatore West, for three weeks in October, 1979. The objectives of the training course were: To,

1. Develop professional skills in rural women

and 2. Enable them to augment their family income through self employment.

Twenty five rural girls hailing from seven villages adopted by the college, participated in the training course and underwent training in one of the following projects of their own choice -- spinning in ambar charka, soap making, candle making, tailoring and chalk making. Five girls from the project villages (two from Kottaipalayam and three from Agrahara Samakulam) participated and underwent training in

candle making. The Canara Bank, Kovilpalayam Branch had come forward to issue loans for initiating the economic venture.

Earlier, in 1977-'78 one girl from Vellamadai village was helped to undergo the residential training course in tailoring for a period of one year at the vocational training centre, Kasturba Niketan, Rajan Nagar, Bhavanisagar Coimbatore District run under the financial grant of the CSWB. The girl, now married and settled in another village, earns her living with the skill acquired by her.

v. Adult education and functional literacy

Since the inception of the project, attempts have been made to impart functional literacy to the women, as part of the activities of the Mahalir Manrams and Youth Clubs. The efforts were strengthened by the initiation of the nationwide Adult Education Programme (NAEP). Two centres, one for men and one for women were organised in each of the three project villages, under the scheme of voluntary assistance for NAEP, whereby the Sri Avinashilingam Education Trust Institutions got 60 centres sanctioned. Out of the 60 centres, six were given to the project villages with 30 learners per centre. Stress was made on functional literacy with components of better income, health, nutrition, education

and social values. A specially designed Primer 'Padikkalam Vanga' incorporating all the components of better family living was used to impart functional literacy. The local educated youth were appointed as instructors with a payment of Rs.50 as monthly honorarium. The centres were equipped with instructional and learning materials.

d. Social and cultural development

i. Strengthening Mahalir Manrams

The Mahalir Manrams existing in all the three villages (sponsored by the Panchayat Union) were more or less defunct at the time of the start of the project. Therefore, efforts were immediately taken to revive and strengthen them. The clubs were registered under the BGMS to enable them to apply for economic ventures, with the assistance of the bank, KVIC and CSWB. The Tamilnadu Civil Supplies Corporation, Chinthamani, and Khadi Crafts and its sales emporium of Government of Tamilnadu lent a supporting hand to these Mahalir Manrams. The clubs thus served as springboards for the initiation of several activities.

Attempts were made to encourage the Mahalir Manram members to participate in all the activities sponsored as part of the Community Development programme. The interested members participated in the tour programme organised by the Mukhya Sevika (Social Welfare Officer) to places of religious interest in Tamilnadu.

Special demonstrations on the use of low cost, local foods, baking and preservation were organised from time to time in cooperation with the women extension personnel of the block. The mothers participated with joy in all the Baby shows organised by the Panchayat Union.

The members participated not only in the village functions (social and religious in nature) but also took part in the various functions and festivals organized by Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College and Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya.

A special training programme in vegetable and fruit preservation was conducted in collaboration with the Food Technology Department of the Tamilnadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore. The women and youth participated in the various training programmes sponsored by Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, a detailed account of which was given earlier. The members had the joy of participating in the programmes of All India Radio. All the national days were celebrated by the members of the Mahalir Manram, the important ones being Independence Day, Gandhi Jayanthi, Children's Day and Republic Day. They took very active role in all functions and activities held in connection with the 20 point programme of Government of India. The

project villages had been given the honour of being chosen by the Field Publicity Officials from the Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity, as the site for the celebration of the 59th year Birth Day of the Prime Minister Smt. Indira Gandhi in November, 1977. Competitions were held and prizes were given for 59 women and youth. An informative exhibition on 20 Point Programme was put up and a public meeting was held in March, 1977. The Mahalir Manram and Youth Club members took in an active role in putting up the exhibition and also in the arrangement of the function.

ii. Initiating Youth Clubs

Realizing the tremendous potential youth have in development, Youth Clubs for girls and boys were initiated in all the three project villages.

The individual projects undertaken by the girls were undergoing training programmes, home gardens, tailoring and craft and self employment programmes. The community activities were working in the school gardens, assisting in the creation of community assets, digging soakpits, helping in the health activities, participation in village festivals etc. In addition to special projects for the girls' clubs, the members participated in several activities organised for the Mahalir Manrams also.

Majority of the activities by the Youth Clubs for boys were towards community welfare. The Youth Clubs assumed a tremendous share in terms of arranging for cash, kind and contributing labour in building the school lunch sheds in their respective villages. As follow up, the Youth Club of Vellamadai collected local funds and constructed urinals for the school and also extended the water pipe lines of 100 metres length to the school premises. They joined hands with the NSS Volunteers of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College in community activities such as digging sokage pits, constructing drains, clearing bush obstructing pathways, approach road laying and working in the school gardens.

One of the remarkable accomplishments with the efforts of the youth clubs of Agrahara Samakulam and Vellamadai was levelling a road from Thottipalayam village to Vellamdai (2 km. length) to facilitate the State Highways Department to metal the same. The State Highways Department was approached for the sanction of the scheme of pucca road. worth Rs.50,000 was got sanctioned after continuous persuasion.

Two bore wells for Kottaipalayam and two for Agrahara Samakulam were obtained by contacting the TWAD

Board Rural Water Supply Scheme, in order to ease the acute water problem existing in 1976-'77. The members of the Youth Clubs of respective villages took the responsibility in maintaining and repairing the same. The youth of Vellamadai collected funds and gave a separate water tap connection from the overhead tank to the Harijan Colony in January, 1978.

The Youth Clubs of the three villages jointly sent applications to the Transport authorities for extra bus facilities for the villages. The matter was followed up and two more bus routes were obtained for the villages.

The Youth Club at Kottaipalayam was instrumental in getting the Fair Price Shop for their villages. Applications were sent with the signatures of the heads of all the families in Kottaipalayam and nearby hamlets and the matter was followed up with the Tahsildar, Civil Supplies, Coimbatore.

In the same way, milk cooperatives were established in Kottaipalayam and Agrahara Samakulam with initiative of the leaders of the Youth Clubs. They came forward to receive training in estimating the quality of milk and in the procedures for calculation. Thereafter they managed the entire process till the societies took roots and became ready to employ paid assistants and clerks.

Another accomplishment was deepening the big pond at Agrahara Samakulam by youth, with the technical assistance of the Public Works Department. The pond was deepened and the work consumed a week's time for completion from 8-5-1978 to 14-5-1978. The bunds were suitably raised. The NSS Volunteers from Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College also contributed their share in this "Shramdan" (donation of labour) project, through organising day camps in the villages.

The youth of Vellamadai followed suit and they volunteered to offer manual labour and deepened the various tanks around the village with the technical assistance of the Engineering section of the Sarcar Samakulam Panchayat Union and also the Community Polytechnic, Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya, Coimbatore. It took three full months to complete the work.

Furthermore, the Youth Clubs in the respective villages engaged themselves in adhoc activities such as maintenance and repair of street lights, panchayat radio and other public amenities.

The Youth Clubs took an active role in arranging for all the public meetings and festivals and also celebrated all national days with enthusiasm and vigour.

They gave a strong support in setting up NAEP centres and enrolled the illiterates. They also came forward to run the centres.

Figure 28 depicts the Youth Club members in action.

Table XX gives a summary of the various activities planned and implemented in the project villages.



YOUTH CLUB MEMBERS IN ACTION

Figure. 28

TABLE XX

SUMMARY OF THE ACTIVITIES CARRIED OUT IN TH

S.No.	Activities carried out	Village/Villages
1..	Initiating community action and participation	All the three villages
2.	Economic upliftment:	
	a) Loans for socio-economic development	All the three villages
	b) Milk Cooperative Societies	Kottaipalayam Agrahara Samakulam
	c) Fair price shop	Kottaipalayam
	d) Farmers' Cooperative Credit Society	Located at Kottaipalaya Services extended to al neighbouring villages
	e) Home scale subsidiary occupations	All villages
	f) Production unit of Kuzhandai Amudhu	Kottaipalayam
	g) Cattle and calf rearing schemes	All the three villages
	h) Ambar Charka spinning centre	Agrahara Samakulam
	i) Savings campaign	All the three villages

'ROJECT VILLAGES

Infrastructure utilised

Village Welfare Committees
PTAs
Mahalir Manrams
Youth Clubs - Girls and Boys

Canara Bank, Kovilpalayam Branch

Cooperative Milk Supply Union Ltd., Coimbatore
Village Welfare Committees
Youth Clubs - Boys

Tamilnadu Civil Supplies Corporation
Youth Clubs - Boys

Coimbatore District Cooperatives
Youth Clubs - Boys.

BGMS, Coimbatore Dist. Branch, Canara Bank, Kovilpalayam, Block Development Agency, KYIC, Coimbatore, Sarvodaya Sangh - Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu Civil Supplies Corporation, 'Chinthamani' Cooperative Super Market, Coimbatore, Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidayalay Coimbatore, Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore, Mahalir Manrams of the respective villages, Rotary Club - Coimbato:

BGMS Coimbatore District, Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore, Block Development Agency; Govertment of Tamilnadu Tamil Nadu Lutheren Church.

BGMS, CSWB, Block Development Agency; Tamil Nadu Dairy Development Corporation

KVIC, Coimbatore District.

National Savings Organisation; NSS Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore; Mahalir manrams and Youth Clubs.

S.No.	Activities carried out	Village/Village
3.	**Improvement in Health and Nutrition:**	
	a) Immunization/Vaccination drive	All villages
	b) General health check up	All villages
	c) Portable water supply	All villages
	d) Supplementary feeding	Kottaipalayam and Agrahara Samakulam Vellamadai
	e) Health/Nutrition education	All villages
	f) Food production drive	All villages
4.	**Improvement in the Educational Status**	
	a) School enrolment drive	All villages
	b) Balwadis	Kottaipalayam and Agrahara samakulam Vellamadai
	c) Improving school amenities	All villages
	d) Training programmes	All villages
	e) Non formal/adult education programme	All villages
5.	**Social/Cultural Development**	
	a) Strengthening Mahalir Manrams	All villages
	b) Initiating Youth Clubs - Girls, Boys.	All Villages

Infrastructure utilised

PHC, Sarcar Samakulam Panchayat Union

PHC, Coimbatore Medical College, Eye Relief Home -Podanur

Tamil Nadu Water Supply and Drainage Board, Coimbatore (Rural Water Supply Division)

Research Project of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore.

Block Development Agency.

Students & Staff of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Mahalir Manrams, Coimbatore, Youth Clubs.

State Department of Agriculture, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Block Development Agency, Mahalir Manrams and Youth Clubs, Schools.

School teachers, Youth Clubs, Mahalir Manrams, PTAs NSS Volunteers of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore.

Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore

Block Development Agency, PTA members

Village Welfare Committees, PTAs, Mahalir Manrams Youth Clubs, NSS Volunteers of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore.

Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore

Save Grain Campaign, Department of Food, Govt. of India, BGMS, NIPCCD, Rotary Club, Coimbatore.

Mahalir Manrams, Youth Clubs, NAEP under the scheme of assistance to voluntary agencies.

Block Development Agency, Mahalir Manram, Convenors, Village Welfare Committees.

Key leaders of the villages, Mahalir Manram members, NSS Volunteers of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Religious Associations existing in the villages, Public Works Department, Highways Department, Community Polytechnic, Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya plus all the agencies enumerated under items 1, 2, 3, and 4.

E. Evaluation of the Project

1. Identifying parameters:

The yardsticks for evaluating the project were determined based on the outcomes expected and the components of better family living. The parameters were so chosen as to measure both the quantitative and qualitative accomplishments of the project.

a. Economic upliftment

The economic improvement was measured in terms of the following indices:

i. Mobilization of bank loans:

The major source of capital used for augmenting economic activities in the project villages was the bank loans. Therefore this was assessed.

ii. Changes in the income patterns of the households:

As a result of a number of economic activities introduced, changes were expected in the income patterns of individual families and the villages as a whole. Therefore comparisons were made of the data before and after the project with regard to the following:

Per capita income in the villages,

Conditions of poverty,
Expenditure pattern
and Pattern of savings

People's views on changes in income were also elicited.

b. Improvement in the educational status:

This aspect was studied against the following indicators:

i. Changes in school enrolment and 'drop out':

The interest of the parents in sending their children to school is reflective of the value they attach to education, which is a major contributor to better family living. Such interest would be revealed when the children of the school going age enter school and also continue. Therefore, the data pertaining to school enrolment and and school drop out, prior to the project and after the project were compared, to assess the impact of the motivational programmes for parents to realise the value of education.

ii. Changes in the literacy rate:

Functional literacy was interwoven in the various programmes to which the women and youth were exposed. Therefore, the changes in the literacy rate were found out.

iii. Impact of non formal education programmes for women:

The women in the project villages were exposed to a number of non formal education and training programmes which attempted to open up newer vistas of learning. Therefore the impact of such training programmes was studied.

iv. Status of school community relationship:

The school, one of the basic rural institutions contributes to the welfare of the community, establishing a two way relationship. In this project several activities were undertaken to build up and strengthen such relationship since strong school community cohesion is an outcome of responsible citizenship and leadership, which are essential for better family and community living. Therefore the school community relationship was assessed and used as an index of the success of the project.

c. Improvement in the health status

The improvement in health status was assessed using the following yardsticks:

1. Benefits of coverage of children under the various prophylactic measures:

The data on the coverage of children under immunisation, vaccination and other prophylactic measures, as existed prior to the initiation of the project and as resulting from the project were compared in order to find out the extent of utilisation of the infrastructure for health, namely, the PHC.

ii. Morbidity and mortality rates:

The conditions of morbidity and mortality as existed prior to the project were compared with those after the project, to evaluate the impact of utilisation of various health measures offered to the families.

iii. Adoption of small family norms:

Population education was an inherent component in all the educational endeavours undertaken in the project villages. The yardstick for measuring the influence of population education was the adoption of small family norm and a comparison was made of the number of families adopting this norm before and after the project.

iv. Impact of health and nutrition education programmes:

The impact of health and nutrition education on the population in the project villages was studied, in terms of:

health status of children participating in nutrition demonstration programmes;

food production through kitchen gardens

and dietary practices adopted by the families.

d. Social development:

Social development was measured in terms of the following criteria:

i. Impact of participation in community organisations:

Acquisition of better family living should ultimately lead to greater participation in community affairs and development of responsible and responsive leadership conducive to self reliance. Therefore the extent of participation of the families in community organisations was considered to be an important aspect of evaluation in this project.

ii. Awareness about the infrastructure and outcomes of the project:

The crux of the project was to stimulate the rural families to tap all resources available for their development. Hence, awareness of the people about the infrastructure available and the specific returns they obtained were regarded as important parameters reflecting social development.

2. Selection of methods of evaluation:

The following methods were adopted to measure the outcomes of the project.

a. Direct recording of the activities by the investigator:

The specific projects initiated such as cattle loan, small business, production of Kuzhandai Amudhu etc. were monitored directly which enabled collection of data for evaluation.

b. Maintenance of records by the beneficiaries:

The beneficiaries were requested to keep records of the income gained, thereby indicating the outcomes of the project. Further the records maintained in the banks, schools and PHCs etc. also served as ready reckoners for the benefits of the programme.

c. Periodic evaluation:

Periodic evaluation studies were conducted by administering schedules to the participating members. For instance, participants in a training programme were asked to respond to specially constructed schedules. In addition mid term and final surveys were conducted using the census method, covering the entire villages:- both project and non project, to assess the overall impact of the project (Appendices II and III). Rating sheets were developed and used to evaluate the leadership qualities developed (Appendix IV).

d. Case studies:

Case studies on all infrastructure were made to pinpoint the specific outcomes and to locate bottlenecks.

3. Collection of data and interpretation of findings:

The data were collected using the afore mentioned methods. The data were scrutinised keeping in view the parameters developed. Based on these, the findings were interpretted.

4. Arranging for follow up:

Discussions were held with the leaders of the community organisations as to the type of follow up needed and the ways and means of continuing the salient features of the project. The linkages necessary to ensure continuous feed back were also worked out.

5. Reporting:

Reporting was done based on the analysis of the data collected on the various aspects. The findings are discussed in Chapter IV.

Results and Discussion

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of this action research are presented and discussed under the following heads:

A. Economic upliftment

B. Educational status development

C. Health status improvement

D. Social development

and E. Observations of the Investigator.

The project villages namely Kottaipalayam, Agrahara Samakulam and Vellamadai are referred to as P_1, P_2 and P_3 respectively and the non project villages Thottipalayam and Vaiyamapalayam are referred to as NP_1 and NP_2. These keys are used in all the table and figures throughout this chapter.

A. Economic Upliftment:

The economic upliftment in the project villages has been analysed with reference to the following five aspects.

1. Mobilisation of bank loans

2. Changes in the income pattern of the households

3. Changes in the expenditure pattern

4. Extent of changes in domestic savings

and 5. Increase in family income - a realization.

1. Mobilisation of bank loans:

One of the major accomplishments in this research was linking the needy villages with the commercial banks and facilitating the flow of capital into the villages. The flow of financial help to the villages extended by the Canara Bank, Kovilpalayam is presented in Table XXI.

T

FINANCIAL FLOW TO THE PROJECT A
OF

S. No.	Categories of Loans	Project Villages			
		P_1(N:310)		P_2(N:385)	
		No. of beneficiaries	Total Amount disbursed Rs.	No. of beneficiaries	Total amou disbursed Rs.
1.	Dairying	122	2,41,000	53	1,09,000
2.	Calf rearing	43	43,000	21	21,000
3.	Small business	30	25,000	9	4,500
4.	Crop loan	20	71,000	60	2,22,000
5.	Sheep rearing	25	8,500	3	4,500
6.	Bullock and cart	2	6,000	1	3,000
7.	Gobar gas plant construction	2	10,000	9	34,000
	Total:	244	4,04,500	156	3,98,000

	Project Villages	
Mean number of beneficiaries:	215	-
Mean flow of capital(in Rs.lakhs)	4.97	-

ABLE XXI

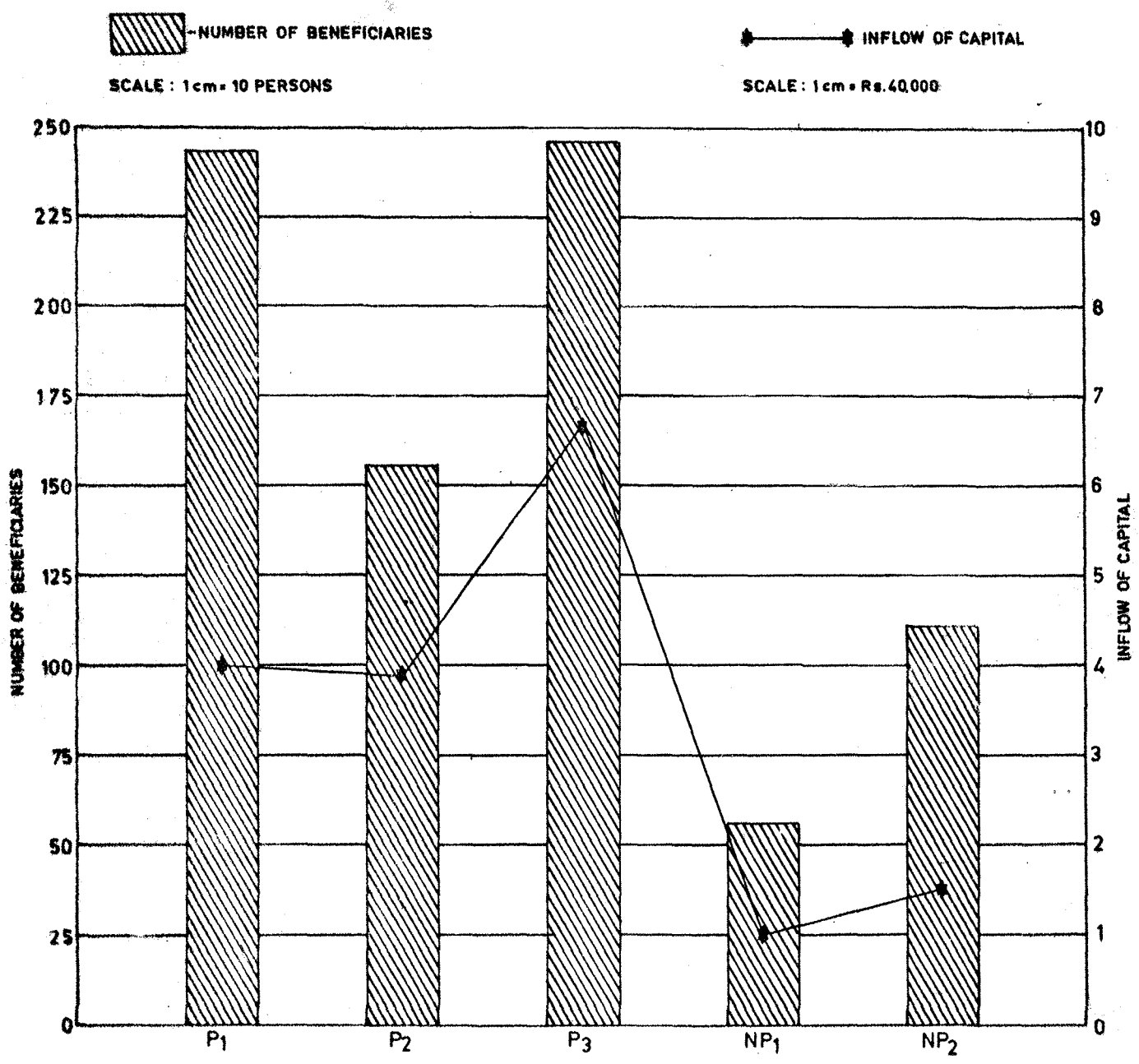
ID NON PROJECT VILLAGES OVER A PERIOD
OUR YEARS

	Non Project Villages					
	P_3(N:195)		NP_1(N:217)		NP_2(N:244)	
t	No. of beneficiaries	Total Amount disbursed Rs.	No. of beneficiaries	Total Amount disbursed Rs.	No. of beneficiaries	Total amount disbrused Rs.
	67	1,29,000	24	51,000	18	38,000
	4	4,000	22	22,000	17	17,000
	5	1,000	--	--	6	3,000
	144	4,73,000	9	31,000	22	85,000
	--	--	--	--	48	19,000

A decline in the number of families was observed in all the project and non project villages over the four year period. Figures in parantheses indicate the number of families in the various villages at the conclusion of the project period. The analyses of data after the project pertain only to these revised number of families, to pointout the changes in various aspects over the project period. The decline in the number of families was to the tune of 30, 37 and 18 for the project villages and 37 and 35 for the non project villages.

Although the infrastructure, bank, extends its services to all the villages in its normal course, the steps taken by the investigator to create an awareness in the minds of the people in the project villages about the banks' help, as well as the closer contacts established with the bank authorities resulted in a greater financial flow to the project villages, when compared with the non project villages. (Figure 29). This pointsout the fact that when concerted efforts are made to link the needy people with the financial infrastructure and when proper motivation and education are given to the rural people, more of them to utilise the bank loan facilities.

The loans were predominantly for dairying in two project villages and in the two non project villages. The villages Vellamadai, Agrahara Samakulam and Vaiyampalayam where agricultur



FINANCIAL FLOW TO THE PROJECT AND NON PROJECT VILLAGES

FIGURE 29

was the dominant occupation, benefitted more by crop loans. Sheep rearing was uncommon except in the Adi Dravida (Harijan) hutments of Vaiyamapalayam Village. 'The need based' disbursement of loans by the nationalised bank is a positive trend.

2. Changes in the income pattern of the households:

The changes in the income pattern in the households were assessed in terms of the following criteria:

a. Percapita income in the villages,

b. changes in the percentage of families living below the poverty line

and c. Changes in the distribution of the families incomewise.

a. Percapita income in the villages

The changes in the percapita income over the base period (1976) are presented in Table XXII. The percapita income was worked out by taking into consideration the total income of the villages and the population.

TABLE XXII

PERCAPITA INCOME PER YEAR IN THE VILLAGES

S. No.	Details	Percapita income in Rs.				
		Project villages			Non Project Villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	Before the project *	787.20	829.20	850.80	999.60	720.00
2.	After the project	985.69	1038.60	1125.09	1026.09	816.01
	Increase	198.49	209.40	274.29	26.49	96.01
	Percentage increase over the base year	25.2	25.3	22.2	2.7	13.3

* Refer Table XIII

	Project villages	Non project villages
Mean increase=	Rs. 227.39	Rs. 61.25

The percapita income in the project villages had risen by Rs. 227.39 (a minimum of Rs. 198.49 to a maximum of Rs. 274.29). This increase commensurates with the capital investments, through bank loans and other income generating efforts with the assistance of the CSWB, milk cooperative society and home scale subsidiary occupations. In contrast, the mean increase in the percapita income in the non project villages was only Rs. 61.25.

A comparison was made with the national figures* while the percapita income in the project and non project villages in 1976 was lower than the national average of Rs. 1020/-, the percapita income in the project village after the project was near equal to the national figure of Rs. 1081. If the income generating efforts are sustained, the percapita income would soon cross the national average and rise further.

b. <u>Changes in the percentage of families living below the poverty line</u>:

Table XXIII and Figure 30 indicate the changes in the percentage of families living below the poverty line.

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* The Times of India, Directory and Year Book 80-81, The Times of India Press, Bombay, p. 287.

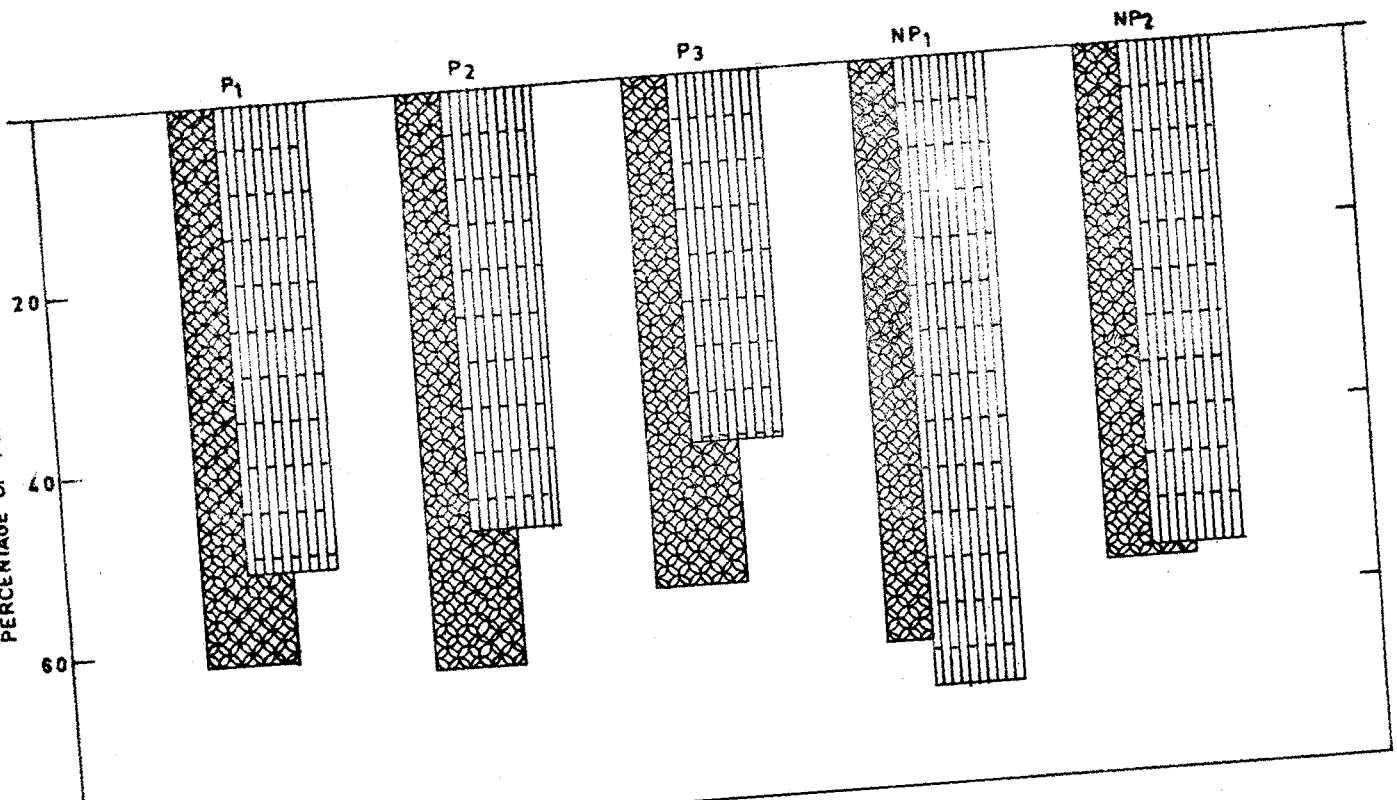

P1
P2
P3
NP1
NP2
20
40
60
SCALE:
1 cm = 5 PER
KEY:
P1
P2
P3
PROJE
NP1
NP2
NON
BEF
AFT

TABLE XXIII

CHANGES IN THE PERCENTAGE OF FAMILIES LIVING BELOW THE POVERTY LINE

S. No.	Details	Percentage living below the poverty line				
		Project Villages			Non Project villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	Before the Project (Refer Figure (9))	61.2	64.8	56.3	64.2	56.4
2.	After the project	50.2	48.8	40.5	68.8	55.4
	Change	-11.0	-16.0	-15.8	+4.6	-1.0

\- decrease
\+ increase

There was a noteworthy fall in the percentage of families living below the poverty line in the project villages. This finding is in tune with the improvement in the percapita income of the households in the project villages. This again is a pointer towards the positive impact of the efforts to augment the family income on the lowest rung of the society.

The decrease in the percentage of families living below the poverty line was almost negligible in the case of one of the non project villages while in the other village (Thottipalayam NP_1), an increase in the percentage of population living below the poverty line was noted. The increase in the percapita income in these non project villages has been among the higher income groups.

c. Changes in the distribution of families incomewise:

Table XXIV depicts the distribution of families in the project and non project villages, according to their annual income. A comparison was made between the positions existing at the start of the project and at the completion.

TABLE XXIV

DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES ACCORDING TO THEIR ANNUAL INCOME

S.No.	Annual income in Rupees	Percentage of families									
		P_1		P_2		P_3		NP_1		NP_2	
		B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
		Project Villages						Non-Project Villages			
1.	Upto 2,500	50.2	46.9	45.5	44.4	43.2	40.0	61.0	62.5	51.2	52.5
2.	2,501 - 5,000	28.3	33.1	38.4	35.0	26.3	21.0	33.5	29.8	20.2	17.2
3.	5,001 - 7,500	10.6	11.5	8.8	9.8	17.4	21.5	3.9	3.4	11.2	15.7
4.	7,501 and above	10.9	8.5	7.3	10.8	13.1	17.5	1.6	4.3	17.4	14.6

B - Before the project - Ref. Table XII

A - After the project

The general trend in the project villages was a slight fall in the percentage of families living in the lower income brackets and a rise in the percentage living in the higher income groups. The situation in the non project villages was contradictory.

These findings are in line with those related to percapita income and percentage living below the poverty line. They reflect the impact of the several income generating attempts in the project villages, which mainly catered to the needy and the lowest in the socio-economic ladder in the project villages.

3. Changes in the expenditure pattern:

The expenditure pattern was assessed at the initiation of the project and at the completion of the same. The expenditure on food was mainly noted. Table XXV gives details of expenditure on food.

TABLE XXV

FOOD EXPENDITURE PATTERN IN THE PROJECT AND NON PROJECT VILLAGES

S. No.	Percentage of income spent on food	Percentage of families spending				
		Project villages			Non project villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	upto 25	4.3 (5.1)	2.9 (3.8)	5.4 (5.0)	1.2 (1.2)	6.8 (8.1)
2.	26 - 50	23.3 (21.1)	22.3 (21.3)	31.8 (29.4)	14.6 (12.2)	29.1 (22.5)
3.	51 - 75	60.0 (48.3)	52.0 (35.2)	54.0 (34.6)	41.0 (37.4)	30.7 (27.5)
4.	76 - 99	11.4 (22.3)	20.0 (33.8)	8.0 (24.4)	37.7 (43.3)	27.5 (30.5)
5.	100 and above	3.2 (1.0)	2.8 (5.9)	0.8 (6.6)	5.5 (5.9)	5.9 (11.4)

Data in paranthesses relate to the position prior to the start of the project.

The percentage expenditure on food was found to decrease over the project period in majority of the households in the project villages, which may be attributed to the impact of the efforts towards raising family income, home food production

and nutrition and health education. The proportion saved from the food budget was reported to be spent on items such as education of children, buying additional clothing and acquisition of capital goods such as vessels, furniture etc.

4. Extent of changes in domestic savings:

Table XXVI presents the position of domestic savings during the base year and after the completion of the project. The comparable figures for non project villages have also been indicated.

TABLE XXVI

EXTENT OF CHANGES IN DOMESTIC SAVINGS

S. No.	Details	Percentage of families saving				
		Project Villages			Non project Villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	Before the Project	6.8	2.8	24.9	5.5	14.7
2.	After the Project	58.1	45.0	56.9	11.7	26.8
	Increase over the base year	51.3	42.2	32.0	6.2	12.1

The marked increase in the savings in the three project villages was due mainly to the combined efforts of the National Savings Organization and the NSS volunteers of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College and in addition due to the active involvement of the Youth Clubs and Mahalir Manrams in these villages. These coupled with the initiation of income generating activities in the project villages augmented the possibilities for savings. Furthermore, the compulsion on the part of loanees to open savings bank account, at the time of obtaining loans from the bank, brought about considerable changes in the savings pattern in the project villages. The fact that the loan amounts were actually credited to the savings bank accounts had promoted further the savings habit.

5. Increase in family income a realisation:

During the final evaluation, the respondents were asked whether their family income had risen over the past four years. One third of the families (33.3 per cent) in the project villages stated that they had experienced an increase in their income. In contrast only 6.5 per cent families in the non project villages realized an increase in family income. This situation is in agreement with the earlier findings related to the increase in the percapita income, decrease in the percentage living below the poverty

line and improvement in the savings pattern. The increment in family income in the project villages might thus be ascribed to the various efforts undertaken to augment income.

B. Educational Status Development

The development in the educational status was assessed on the following lines:

1. Changes in school enrolment and school dropouts
2. Changes in the literacy rates.
3. Outcomes of the non formal education and training programmes

and 4. School-community relationship

1. Changes in school enrolment and school dropouts:

School enrolment drive was one of the major activities of the project. Table XXVII gives details of the enrolment in the primary schools in the project and non project villages.

TABLE XXVII

CHANGES IN SCHOOL ENROLMENT IN THE PROJECT AND NON PROJECT VILLAGES

S. No.	Details	Enrolment in the schools				
		Project Villages			Non project villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	Before the project* (number)					
	Male	104	84	49	66	64
	Female	76	53	40	54	64
	Total	180	137	89	120	128
2.	After the project** (number)					
	Male	127	103	61	72	68
	Female	89	61	49	57	70
	Total	216	164	110	129	138
3.	Percentage Increase over the project period					
	Male	22	23	24	9	6
	Female	17	15	23	6	9
	Mean	19.5	19.0	23.5	7.5	7.5

*mean values for a period of four years before the project

**mean values for the four year project period.

As revealed in Table XXVII there has been a considerable increase in the percentage of children in the school going age, admitted in the primary schools in the project villages. The percentage increase ranged from 22 - 24 in respect of boys and 15 - 23 in respect of girls.

The mean percentage increase in school enrolment over the project period was greater than the national figures* of 12.1 per cent increase (i.e. from 83.9 per cent in 1975-'76 to 96 per cent in 1978-'79), the percentage being calculated for the school going age groups.

In contrast, there was only very slight improvement in the percentage enrolment in the non project villages. The enrolment of the children in the school going age in the primary school alone would not indicate any improvement in the educational status of the community, unless the children who enter the school continue and complete atleast the primary stage of schooling. An assessment of the 'drop outs' from the schools was therefore made, by scrutinizing the records maintained in the schools for the periods - before the initiation of the project and during the project period under analysis, in order to evaluate the impact of the motivation and education given to the parents in the community on the value of education. Table XXVIII presents the percentage 'drop outs' in the project and non project villages under investigation.

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*Ref: Manorama Year Book, 1979, Manorama Publishing House Kottayam, Kerala, p. 636

TABLE XXVIII

PERCENTAGE DROPOUTS FROM THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN THE PROJECT AND NON PROJECT VILLAGES

S. No.	Details	$ Percentage dropouts				
		Project villages			Non project villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	Before the project*					
	Male	22.0	24.4	31.9	37.7	30.4
	Female	51.0	36.7	46.2	45.7	31.0
2.	After the project**					
	Male	7.6	8.6	6.5	33.3	25.3
	Female	8.0	12.9	12.3	42.0	27.5
3.	Percentage decrease in dropouts over the base period					
	Male	14.4	15.8	25.4	4.4	5.1
	Female	43.0	23.8	33.9	3.7	3.5

$ The percentage was calculated against the children entering the schools in the respective villages during the specific years.

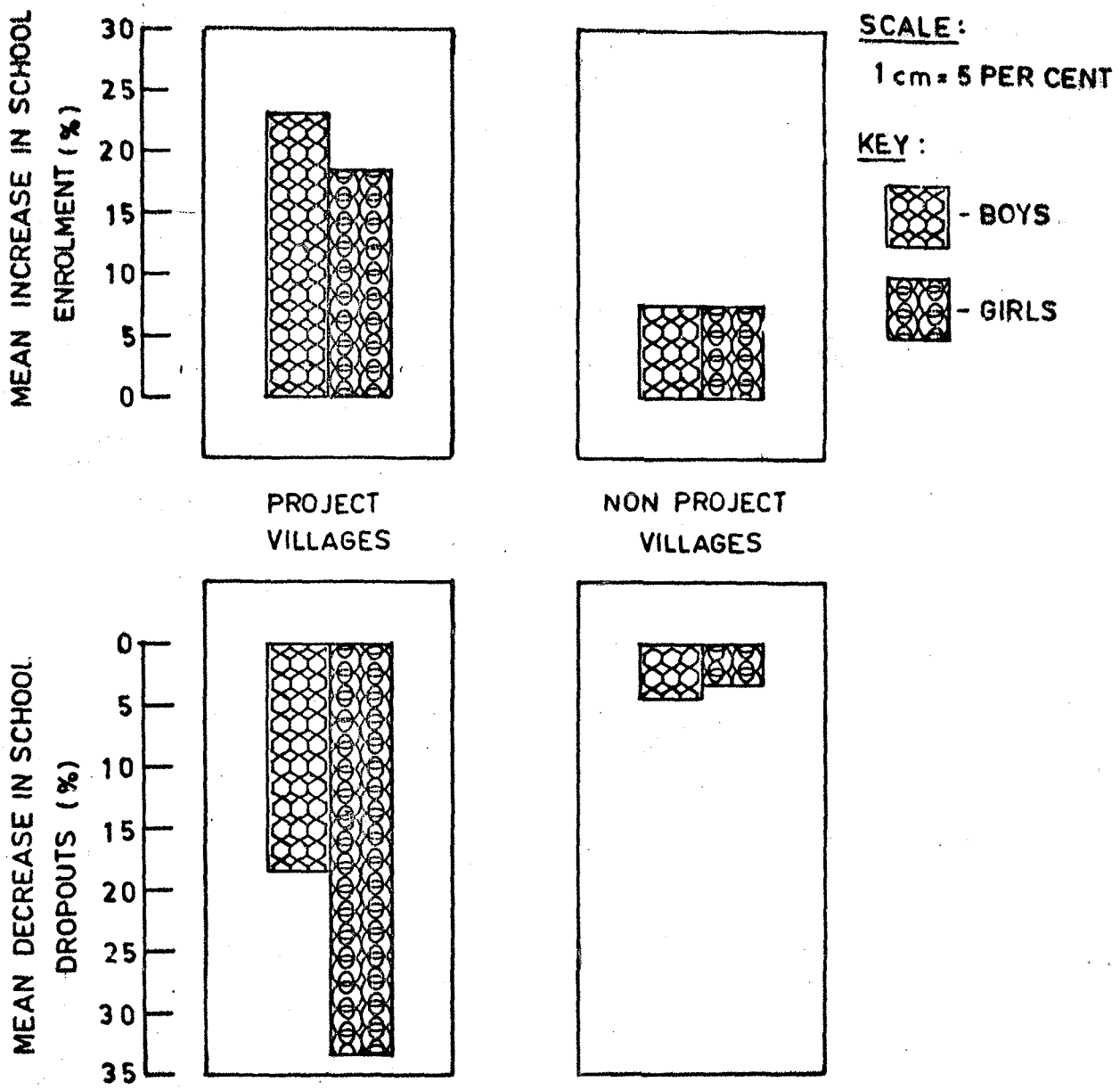
* Mean values for a period of four years before the project
** Mean values for the four year project period.

Over the project period of four years there was a noteworthy decline in the percentage 'dropouts' from the primary schools in the project villages. The decline was more in respect of girls, pointing out the realisation on the part of the parents regarding the need for educating their daughters. The improvement in the percapita income of the households evinced, also would have acted as a motivating force on the part of parents to bestow their attention on the education of their children. The percentage decrease in 'dropout' was only negligible in the non project villages under analysis.

Figure 31 illustrates the changes observed in the educational status in the project and non project villages.

2. Changes in the literacy rates

The changes in the literacy rates were noted from a comparative analysis of the prior and after situation. Table XXIX gives details of these changes.



CHANGES IN THE EDUCATIONAL STATUS IN THE VILLAGES

FIGURE 31

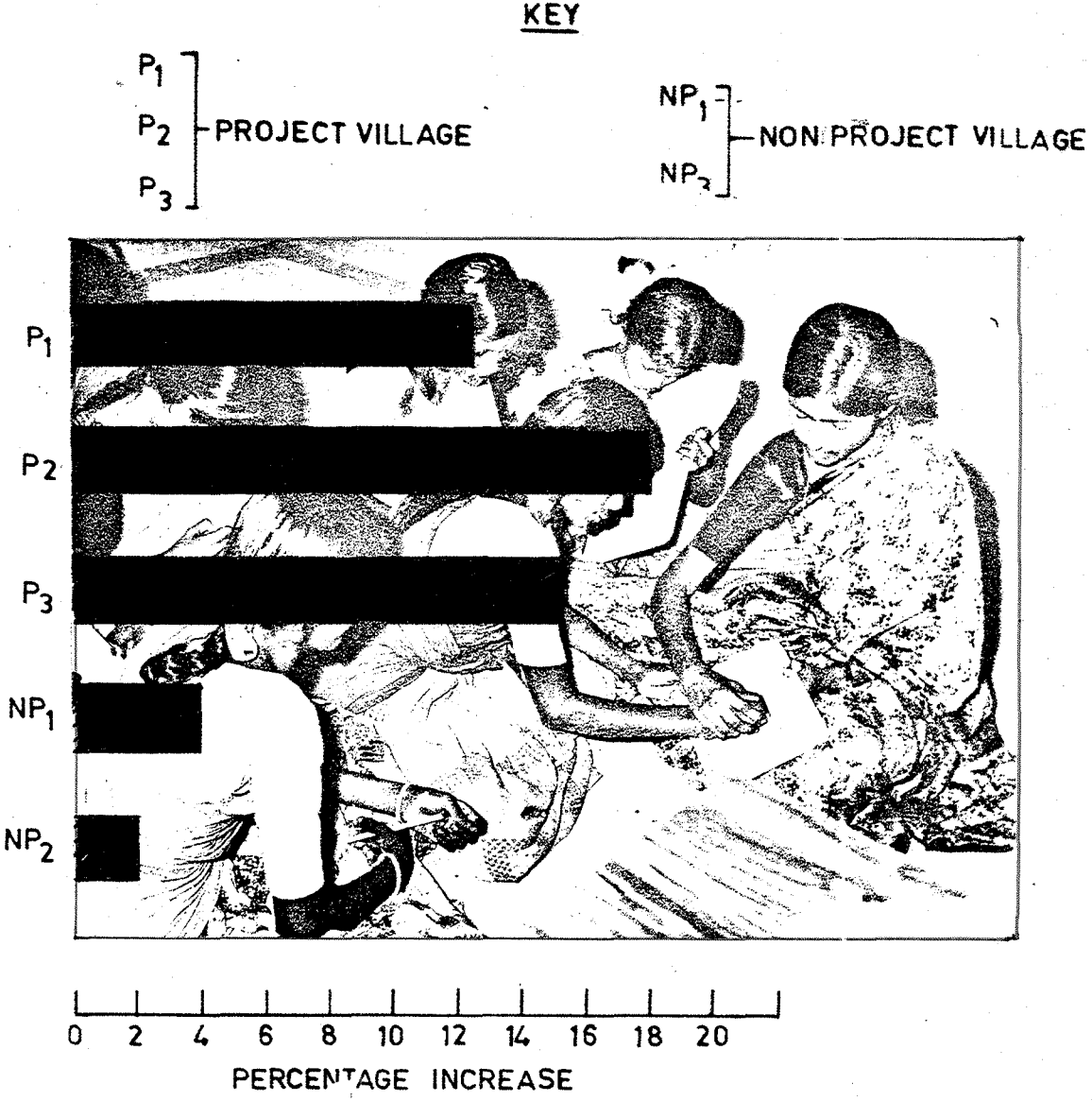
TABLE XXIX

COMPARATIVE STATEMENTS SHOWING THE CHANGES IN THE LITERACY RATES IN THE PROJECT AND NON PROJECT VILLAGES

S. No.	Details	Percentage of population being literate				
		Project villages			Non project villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	Before the Project*	48.7	29.0	62.8	26.2	56.7
2.	After the Project	61.2	47.0	78.0	30.0	58.9
	Increase in percentage	12.5	18.0	15.2	3.8	2.2

* Refer Table VIII.

It was heartening to note that the efforts taken to impart functional literacy programme through the Youth Clubs, Mahalir Manrams and the adult education (NAEP) centres, bore fruits and there was a considerable increase in the percentage of literates in the project villages. Figure 32 gives a comparison of the improvements in literacy rates in the project and non project villages.



IMPROVEMENT IN THE LITERACY RATES IN THE VILLAGES

3. Outcomes of the non formal education and training programmes:

The members of Women's Clubs and Youth Clubs were exposed to several training programmes, camps and other non formal educational programmes described in the previous chapter. The Women and youth participants were exposed to different subject matter such as agriculture, post harvest technology, nutrition, health, child care, social participation, civic life etc.

Evaluation of these experience through discussions, observation and administration of interview schedules before and after the programme (in the case of training camps) revealed the following benefits:

a. The experiences had widened their horizons of understanding about the components of better family living. This understanding had a great deal to contribute towards change of behaviour such as undertaking income generating activities, understanding the value of education, adoption of desirable health measures and participation in community affairs.

b. Participation in the non formal education programmes also enabled the members to develop their latent talents and leadership traits as revealed by their own self evaluation and assessment by the investigator.

c. Since the training programmes were organised mostly on a joint basis for all the three project villages and also for a cluster of villages, the participats had opportunities to mix with other members from neighbouring villages and learn from their experiences.

4. School-community relationships:

The attempts to establish and maintain good school-community relationships in the three project villages paid off as shown below:

1. PTAs which existed in the villages as mere formalities were activised and helped to function as effective community organisations, to make and carryout decisions related to school improvement. Women members were motivated to join the PTAs and stimulated to participate in community affairs.

2. The PTAs were instrumental in constructing school lunch sheds in all the three project villages with local contributions in cash, kind and labour.

3. The enthusiasm evoked in the construction of school lunch sheds was sustained and additions to the facilities of the schools were made by way of water tank and urinals in respect of Vellamadai, school gardens in all the three villages and fencing for the schools at Vellamadai and Agrahara Samakulam.

4. All the national days and festivals such as Independence Day, Gandhi Jayanthi, Children's Day and Republic Day were celebrated in the school jointly by the PTA members and the Youth Clubs.

5. The PTA members participated meaningfully in all education programmes conducted and evinced great cooperation in the implementation of the 20 point programme, then in full swing in the country.

6. Even after the investigator has withdrawn from the project villages, after a four year period, these community organizations continue to bestow their support to all the developmental activities in the villages.

C. Health Status Improvement in the Community:

This aspect is discussed under the following headings:

1. Utilisation of health services of PHC;
2. Changes in morbidity and mortality rates;
3. Adoption of small family norms;
4. Views of the respondents about the health measures undertaken and
5. Impact of health and nutrition education programmes.

Every possible effort was taken to stimulate the people in the project villages, to utilise the health services of the PHC, Sarcar Samakulam Panchayat Union. The results are presented in Table XXX.

TABLE XXX

EXTENT OF UTILISATION OF THE HEALTH SERVICES OF THE PHC DURING THE PROJECT PERIOD

S. No.	Health Services	Number of beneficiaries over the project period				
		Project Villages			Non project Villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	DPT Immunisation	131	177	147	73	55
2.	DT Immunisation	75	125	75	38	31
3.	Tetanus Toxoid for Pregnant Women	20	20	20	5	4
4.	FST (Iron) for mothers	34	24	30	11	9
5.	FST for children	14	28	29	7	9
6.	Vitamin A solution for children	188	132	221	49	61

With adequate motivation and guidance, the villagers could make significantly greater use of the available health resources. This was revealed in the great differences in the number of beneficiaries between the project and non project villages. Further probe was made on the extent of utilisation of the PHC prior to the start of the project, in order to evaluate the effect of the implementation of the project on the health status of the community under study. The results are presented in Table XXXI.

TABLE XXXI

UTILISATION OF HEALTH SERVICES BY THE PROJECT VILLAGES BEFORE AND AFTER THE PROJECT

S.No.	Villages	Average number of beneficiaries per annum											
		DPT		DT		Tetanus toxoid (mothers)		FST (mothers)		FST (children)		Vit. A. solution for children	
		B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
1	Project village 1	14	33	10	19	--	7	--	11	--	7	15	61
2	Project village 2	10	44	16	32	--	7	--	9	--	9	12	49
3	Project village 3	11	37	7	19	--	7	--	10	--	10	15	60

B - Before the project mean values for four years

A - After the project mean values for the project period.

As revealed in Table XXXI there was a considerable difference between the average number of beneficiaries of the various prophylactic and health measures, prior to the project and after the project. This situation is reflective of the impact of continuous health education programmes in the schools, Youth Clubs and in the Mahalir Manrams.

2. Changes in morbidity and mortality rates:

The aspect was discussed in terms of the following:

a. Prevalence of communicable diseases

and b. Mortality rates.

a. Prevalence of communicable diseases:

The prevalence of communicable diseases in the villages is indicated in Table XXXII

TABLE XXXII

PREVALENCE OF COMMUNICABLE DISEASES

S. No.	Details	Percentage of families reporting				
		Project villages			Non project villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	Before the project*	26.8	31.5	30.1	18.5	12.9
2.	After the project	9.7	8.1	9.7	16.6	11.3

* Refer Table XVI

The incidence of communicable diseases was found to have been considerably reduced in the project villages. This could be ascribed to the continuous health education programmes in the project villages, and the prophylactic measures such as vaccination and immunization undertaken by the health team of the PHC.

b. Mortality rates

A comparison was made of the health records maintained by the PHC with regard to death rates (Table XXXIII).

TABLE XXXIII
DEATH RATES IN THE DIFFERENT VILLAGES

S. No.	Details	Death rates* in different villages				
		Project Villages			Non project villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	Before the project	8	8	9	9	11
2.	After the project	4	3	5	8	9

* Calculated for 1000 population.

The reduction in death rates in the project villages may be attributed to the reduction in the incidence of communicable diseases and also to a greater utilisation of the health services by the PHC.

3. Adoption of small family norms:

Though the investigator did not involve herself in direct family planning drive, continuous contacts were made with the officials of the PHC in the family planning programmes. Furthermore, population education highlighting the influence of family size on good nutrition, health and better standard of living found part of all educational endeavours in the project villages. Table XXXIV gives statistics on the adoption of methods of limiting family size by the families in different villages. The statistics were obtained from the records maintained at the PHC.

TABLE XXXIV

EXTENT OF ADOPTION OF METHODS OF LIMITING THE FAMILY SIZE

S. No.	Villages	Average number of persons/annum adopting the methods					
		Tubectomy		Vasectomy		Temporary measures	
		B	A	B	A	B	A
	Project villages						
1.	P_1	4	11	3	22	57	113
2	P_2	5	13	4	23	51	108
3	P_3	7	13	5	23	78	117
	Non Project Villages						
4	NP_1	1	3	1	3	38	51
5.	NP_2	2	5	2	4	37	48

B - Before the project - Mean values for the four years
A - After the project - Mean values for the four year project period

The improvement in the rate of adoption of different methods of family planning was satisfactory, although a majority preferred temporary measures. The vast differences in this regard between the project villages and the non project villages revealed the impact of education.

Further probe was done on the impact of population education as reflected on the birth rates (Table XXXV). The data were collected from the records of the PHC.

TABLE XXXV

DETAILS OF BIRTH RATES IN THE DIFFERENT VILLAGES

S. No.	Details	Birth rates				
		Project Villages			Non project Villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	Before the Project	20	19	18	21	26
2.	After the Project	10	10	13	19	25

The decline in birth rates in the project villages was in line with the adoption of birth control measures. Compared to this achievement, the decline in birth rates in the non project villages was negligible.

4. Views of the respondents about the health measures undertaken:

During the midterm appraisal and final survey in the villages, the respondents were questionned asto whether or not the provision of health measures was satisfactory. Table XXXVI reveals their responses on the health measures undertaken in both the project and non project villages under analysis.

TABLE XXXVI

OPINIONS OF THE RESPONDENTS ABOUT THE HEALTH MEASURES UNDERTAKEN BY THE PHC

S.No.	Opinions	Percentage of respondents stating				
		Project Villages			Non Project Villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	The role of PHC with regard to periodic vaccination was satisfactory	100.00	100.0	85.6	19.6	--
2.	Poor people were benefitted by the supply of medicines free of cost	96.8	95.0	88.2	25.0	60.0
3.	More of films on Health Education should be screened	83.9	83.9	74.9	--	--
4.	The PHC should concentrate more on family life education	48.4	48.4	65.6	5.0	--
5.	The doctors should stay in the village itself	21.0	17.7	18.0	--	17.1
6.	Arrangements should be made for more frequent cleaning of the roads	17.8	20.0	20.5	--	--

The opinions of the respondents with regard to the health measures undertaken were positive and reflected their concern over improving the health status of the village as a whole. Much emphasis was placed on periodic vaccination, free supply of medicines and educational components in the project villages. However, the non-project villages did not express their opinion except that the economically poor were benefitted by the supply of medicines free of cost. This points out the poor awareness about and utilisation of the services of PHC in the absence of motivation programmes.

5. Impact of health and nutrition education programmes:

This aspect deals with the following:

a. Impact of feeding programmes;

b. Adoption of desirable dietary practices

and c. Food production through kitchen gardens.

a. Impact of feeding programmes:

The balwadies established in Kottaipalayam (P_1) and Agrahara Samakulam (P_2), through their feeding component had an exceptionally good impact on the health and growth of the preschool children. It is appropriate to quote here the specific outcomes as measured by the nutrition workers of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College*.

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* Ref: Unpublished report of the Leaf Protein Project.

Table XXXVII gives details of the increase in heights and weights registered by children attending the balwadi.

TABLE XXXVII

INCREMENTS IN HEIGHTS AND WEIGHTS OF PRESCHOOL CHILDREN IN THE PROJECT VILLAGES

S.No.	Details	Height (cm) (N:40)		Weight (kg) (N=40)	
		P_1	P_2	P_1	P_2
1.	Initial reading	86.80	87.00	10.75	10.90
2.	3rd month	88.30	88.50	11.35	11.50
3.	6th month	90.55	90.50	12.00	12.05
4.	12th month	94.55	94.50	13.05	13.20
5.	24th month	100.32	100.25	14.50	14.60
	Increment	13.50	13.25	3.75	3.70

It was evident that the balwadi children on an average registered an increase of 13.25 - 13.5 cm in height and 3.70 - 3.75 kg. in weight over a period of two years.

Figure 33 illustrates the impact of the feeding trials with Kuzhandai Amudhu on the preschool children attending the balwadi at Kottaipalayam Village (P_1).

The remarkable improvements registered by way of disappearance of clinical symptoms demonstrated the efficacy of feeding children with low cost nutritious diets such as Kuzhandai Amudhu and leaf protein.

Betterment in health condition was reflected in the improvements in balwadi attendance. The percentage attendance was found to increase from 68 to 93 in Kottaipalayam (P_1) and from 63 to 95 in Agrahara Samakulam(P_2).

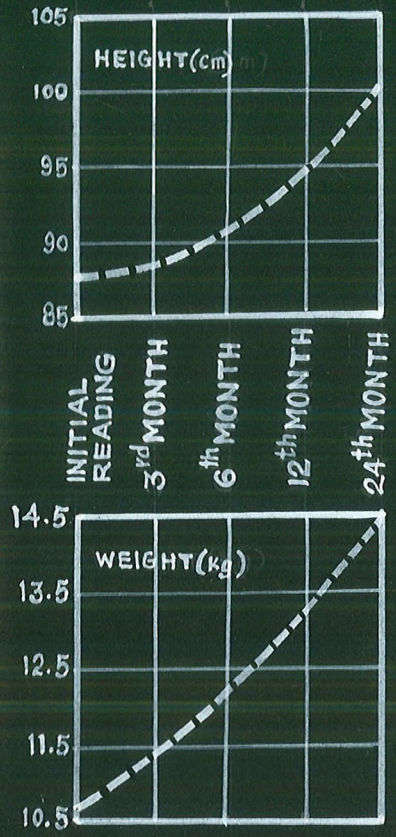
The parents, specially the mothers were given continuous nutrition/health education through use of interesting methods including folk media and parent education programmes. This enabled them to improve their nutritional knowledge and home dietary practices.

b. Adoption of desirable dietary practices:

The nutritional knowledge as reflected in certain dietary practices was assessed in the project and non project villages and is presented in Table XXXVIII.



BEFORE





AFTER

IMPACT OF KUZHANDAIAMUDHU FEEDING TRIAL ON PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

Figure.33

TABLE XXXVIII

DESIRABLE NUTRITIONAL PRACTICES ADOPTED BY THE RESPONDENTS IN THE PROJECT AND NON PROJECT VILLAGES

S. No.	Dietary Practices	Percentage of families adopting				
		Project villages			Non project villages	
		P_1	P_2	P_3	NP_1	NP_2
1.	Absorption method of cooking rice	81.3 (52.4)	95.5 (58.8)	88.2 (59.2)	52.3 (44.5)	58.0 (59.9)
2.	Absorption method of cooking vegetables	81.0 (48.8)	96.1 (57.1)	97.4 (38.5)	60.0 (50.8)	58.0 (55.9)
3.	Cutting vegetables after washing	93.2 (57.1)	73.5 (45.3)	96.9 (44.1)	40.0 (38.6)	46.0 (44.1)
4.	Cutting vegetables in big pieces	84.5 (47.9)	88.3 (40.1)	82.0 (67.6)	60.0 (59.1)	36.0 (34.8)

Data in paranthesses indicate the percentage of families following the methods earlier, prior to the start of the project.

Due to the impact of the continuous community nutrition efforts in the project villages, there was a marked improvement in the nutritional knowledge of the families under study, thus motivating them to adopt desirable cooking practices. The community nutrition education programmes by the post-graduate students and the NSS Volunteers of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, an action research programme on nutrition education through non formal educational methods undertaken by a researcher of the college, the education programmes conducted for the parents of the balwadi and the primary school - all had a combined multipronged effect on the people in the project villages. As for the control villages, the percentage of people following the methods remained more or less unchanged over the project period of four years.

e) Food production through kitchen gardens:

The efforts taken in the direction of home food production resulted in a large number of families in the project villages taking to kitchen gardens. Table XXXIX presents the increase in the kitchen gardens in the project villages under study.

TABLE XXXIX

INCREASE IN THE KITCHEN GARDENS IN THE PROJECT VILLAGES

S.No.	Details	Percentage of families having kitchen gardens		
		P_1	P_2	P_3
1.	Before the project	12.0	21.5	18.0
2.	After the project	72.6	64.5	64.5
3.	Increase	60.6	43.0	46.5

It was heartening to note that more than 60 per cent families in the project villages had kitchen gardens, pointing out a positive trend towards self sufficiency in vegetables. Lack of space and absence of fencing were the constraints expressed by the families who did not raise kitchen gardens. When the project villages were compared with the control villages, the latter had only 7.8 and 11.2 per cent more families starting kitchen gardens. This proved the impact of the efforts on motivation of the families and the influence of nutrition education in the project villages.

D. Social Development evinced by the people in the Project Villages:

This aspect includes discussion on the following:

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1. Impact of participation in community organisations

and 2. Awareness about the infrastructure and outcomes of the project.

1. Impact of participation in Community organisations:

a. Village Welfare Committee:

The members of the Village Welfare Committee in the three project villages participated actively in all the developmental activities initiated from the planning stage to the evaluation of outcomes. The leaders and members brought newer ideas to be implemented in the villages, even after the project period was officially over. This points out the fact that given the proper impetus, the key leaders of the village can carry on rural development programmes with the full support of the people themselves.

The negative aspect was that the Panchayat structure in the villages did not function due to politial interference and the elections to the panchayats pending over a long time. The country faced two Lok Sabha and two assembly elections during the short project period with so much of political fanfare which affected the routine functions of the people and their leaders. Decisions with regard to construction of pucca drainage and provision of other social overheads were kept in abeyance, in anticipation

of formation of fresh panchayat bodies to collect revenue for the purpose. However, the project villages could register progress inspite of this obstacle.

b. Youth Clubs:

The fast development of youth clubs in the project villages, on the otherhand sounded a positive note on the emerging pattern of leadership in the rural side. The various opportunities provided to the youth club members - both boys and girls-had a good impact on the development of leadership traits.

The impact of the Youth Clubs was assessed in terms of the following outcomes:

(i) Behaviour changes observed in the members of the clubs

(ii) Leadership qualities developed by the members of the Youth Clubs.

Since the activities and exposures were similar for the youth in all the three project villages, the discussions are done in common.

(i) Behavioural changes observed in the members of the Youth Clubs:

The behavioural changes in the youth were assessed based on the following criteria:

Development of skills

and Formation of desirable attitudes.

Development of skills

The skills developed by the members of the Youth Clubs were judged through scores for performance in various occasions and in different competitions (Table XL).

TABLE XL

SKILLS DEVELOPED BY THE YOUTH CLUB MEMBERS

S. No.	Skills developed	Percentage of members obtained scores				
		51-60	61-70	71-80	81-90	91-100
	By Girls					
1.	Preparation of novel recipes	50.0	33.5	13.0	3.5	--
2.	Tailoring	27.0	40.0	20.0	13.0	--
3.	Crafts	19.5	40.5	20.5	10.0	3.5
	By Boys					
1.	Organizing ability	34.0	33.0	16.5	15.0	1.5
2.	Communication of ideas	25.0	26.5	26.0	15.5	7.0
3.	Public speaking	10.5	17.5	10.0	37.0	20.0

The skills developed by the girls were mainly concerning their daily chores as homemakers while those acquired by the boys were related to their participation in community welfare activities.

Formation of desirable attitudes:

The attitudes of the members towards group efforts were reflected in

Participation in club activities

Statement of benefits accruing to them from their participation in club activities

and Suggestions of the members for strengthening the the club

Participation in club activities

Table XLI reveals the percentage attendance of the members in the various activities.

TABLE XLI

ATTENDANCE OF MEMBERS IN THE YOUTH CLUBS

S. No.	Percentage attendance	Percentage of members	
		Girls	Boys
1.	60 -70	10.0	20.5
2.	71 -80	37.0	44.5
3.	81 -90	36.5	20.5
4.	91-100	16.5	14.5

A large majority of the members had more than 70 per cent attendance in Youth Clubs, pointing out their great interest in group work. When the attendance of girls and boys was compared, it was noted that the percentage attendance of girls was higher than that of boys. The main reason was that the girls did not go out for employment and had time to attend all meetings of the Youth Clubs.

Statement of benefits accruing from their participation in club activities:

Table XLII illustrates the expression of the Youth Club members with regard to the benefits accrued from participation in club activities.

TABLE XLII

BENEFITS ACCRUING TO MEMBERS BY PARTICIPATION IN YOUTH CLUB ACTIVITIES

S.No.	Benefits	Percentage of members stating	
		Girls	Boys
1.	Profitable use of leisure	90.0	85.5
2.	Adjustment with others	77.0	77.5
3.	Acquisition of leadership traits	76.5	72.5
4.	Development of teamspirit	73.5	73.0
5.	Development of fellowship	70.0	82.0
6.	Acquisition of new skills	60.0	70.0

The clubs served their purposes in fostering group cohesion, so essential for better family and community living.

Suggestions of the members for strengthening the club activities:

Both girls and boys gave some useful suggestions for strengthening the clubs initiated. They include: increasing the membership, increasing the subscription rates, initiating employment oriented programmes and undertaking more community centred activities for fostering mutual self help. These suggestions reflect the positive attitudes of the members towards their own clubs and their

full realisation that Youth Clubs should serve as spring boards for rural development.

(ii) Leadership qualities developed:

This aspect is dealt with in terms of

Self Evaluation by the Youth Club members

Assessment by the investigator of the leadership qualities developed by the members

and Evaluation of the contribution of Youth Clubs by the local leaders and parents.

Self evaluation by the Youth Club members:

Table XLIII presents the answers to the questions in the check list administered at the beginning and at the conclusion of the project. The check list that was developed and tested in the earlier studies on leadership was modified and used in this study (Aleyamma, 1975, Abraham, 1976 and Vijayalakshmi, 1977).

TABLE XLIII

SELF EVALUATION BY THE YOUTH CLUB MEMBERS OF THE LEADERSHIP QUATITIES DEVELOPED

S.No.	Leadership qualities	Percentage of members stating					
		Girls (N:57)			Boys (N:70)		
14.	Interact with officials	12.0	63.0	51.0	13.0	73.0	60.0
	Willingness to:						
15.	Abide by the rules and regulation of the club	44.0	100.0	56.0	26.0	100.0	74.0
16.	Participate in programmes benefitting the gamp	30.0	100.0	70.0	33.0	100.0	67.0
17.	Listen to others	26.0	100.0	74.0	37.0	100.0	63.0
18.	Assume leadership	12.0	72.0	60.0	13.0	73.0	60.0

As revealed in Table XLIII, by participating in the Youth Club activities, the members, both girls and boys could improve their latent leadership traits. As a result of exposure to a number of group activities all the girls and boys had developed qualities such as interest in group work, interest to move with others and serve others, abilities to adjust, voice opinions and to guide and willingness to listen to others, conformity to the group regulations and participation in activities benefitting the group. Ability to share ideas with group, self confidence and decision making ability, were the additional qualities that all boys developed.

An attempt was made to compare the percentage increase in the exhibition of different leadership traits by girls and boys and statitical analysis was done using 'Omega test' meant for comparison of percentages for two different samples. Table XLIV gives this comparison.

TABLE XLIV

COMPARISON OF YOUTH CLUB MEMBERS FOR PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN LEADERSHIP TRAITS

S.No.	Leadership qualities	Percentage increase Girls (N:57)	Boys (N:70)	Ω value Girls	Ωvalue Boys	Ω difference	't' value
	Interest to:						
16.	Participate in programmes befitting the group	70	67	0.2910	0.2453	0.0457	0.3610
17.	Listen to others	74	63	0.3541	0.1861	0.1680	1.3272
18.	Assume leadership	60	60	0.1424	0.1424	No difference	

* Significant at 5 per cent level

*** Significant at 10 per cent level

By participating in the youth club activities, a higher percentage of boys developed qualities such as interest to work in groups, interact with others, serve the community, share with others, abilities to adjust with others, motivate others, solve problems, make decisions, plan work, interact with officials and willingness to abide by the rules of the club. The percentage increase in the acquisition of leadership traits was found more in the case of girls than in boys, in respect to traits such as abilities to express ideas, self confidence, orginality and intitiative and willingness to participate in programmes and listen to others. These reflect the nature of activities to which two groups were exposed i.e. more of group projects for the boys' Youth Clubs.

On statistical analysis, there was significant difference at 5 per cent level only in the case of percentage increase for two qualities-interest to share with others and abide by rules and regulations and significant difference at 10 per cent level for interest to work in groups, ability to motivate others and make decisions.

<u>Assessment by the investigator of the leadership qualities developed by the Youth Club members:</u>

Table XLV gives the achievement of the leadership qualities by the Youth Club members as assessed by the investigator using the criteria sheet (Appendix IV).

TABLE XLV

LEADERSHIP QUALITIES DEVELOPED BY THE MEMBERS OF THE YOUTH CLUBS AS ASSESSED BY THE INVESTIGATOR

S.No.	Leadership qualities	Percentage of members possessing					
		GIRLS (N=57)			BOYS (N=70)		
		At the beginning	At the conclusion	Increase	At the beginning	At the conclusion	Increase
17.	Initiative	16.0	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
18.	Punctuality	16.0	77.0	61.0	10.0	79.0	69.0
19.	Organisation	12.0	77.0	65.0	13.0	83.0	70.0
20.	Activities	12.0	70.0	58.0	23.0	100.0	77.0
21.	Originality	12.0	63.0	51.0	19.0	77.0	58.0
22.	Patience and perseverance	12.0	70.0	58.0	13.0	71.0	58.0
23.	Participation	12.0	60.0	48.0	13.0	77.0	64.0

Participation in the Youth Club enabled all girls (members) to develop qualities such as honesty and integrity, vigour, intelligence, harmony, obedience, sympathy, enthusiasm and courage. All the boys had develbped traits such as honesty, vigour, itelligence, harmony, obedience, sympathy, enthusiasm, self confidence, courage and friendliness and activeness. Thus participation in club activities enabled full realisation of eight qualities (out of 23) in the case of girls and 11 qualities in the case of boys. However, there was remarkable improvement in the case of girls as well as boys with regard to attainment of other leadership qualities too.

Table XLVI gives a comparison of the percentage increase in girls as well as boys exhibiting different leadership qualities, as a result of exposure to Youth Club activities. Statistical test using 'Omega Test' was also done.

TABLE XLVI

COMPARISON OF GIRLS AND BOYS YOUTH CLUB MEMBERS FOR PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN LEADERSHIP TRAITS

S.No.	Qualities	Percentage increase Girls (N:57)	Boys (N:70)	ζ Values girls	Boys	ζ difference	't' Value
18.	Punchuality	61	69	0.1568	0.2756	0.1188	0.9385
19.	Organization	65	70	0.2155	0.2910	0.0755	0.5965
20.	Activeness	58	77	0.1137	0.4033	0.2896	2.2878*
21.	Originality	51	58	0.0141	0.1137	0.0996	0.7868
22.	Patience & perseverence	58	58	0.1137	0.1137	No difference	
23.	Participation	48	64	-0.0283	0.2006	0.2289	1.8083***

* Significant at 5 per cent level
*** Significant at 10 per cent level

The members of girls' and boys' Youth Clubs compared equally with regard to qualities such as intelligence, harmony, co-operation, initiative and patience and perseverence. The percentage increase was greater among girls with respect to qualities such as courage, sociability friendliness and service mindedness. The percentage increase among boys was ~~was~~ higher for the other qualities (Table XLVI).

However, on statistical analysis, there was significant difference between the groups only with regard to the quality 'activeness' at five per cent level, and only for the quality 'participation' at 10 per cent level where the boys fared better. These point out the fact that owing to more exposure to community oriented projects boys' youth club members developed the aforesaid qualities.

Evaluation of the contribution of Youth Clubs by the local Leaders and parents:

The responses to the enquires to local representatives and parents, about the youth clubs are given in Table XLVII.

TABLE XLVII

OUTCOMES OF THE YOUTH CLUBS AS PERCEIVED BY THE LOCAL LEADERS AND PARENTS

S.No.	Outcomes	Percentage stating
A.	**Youth Club for girls:**	
	1. The girls had learnt items useful for the community	80
	2. The girls had learnt practices in relation to better family living	73
	3. The girls acquired skills for better farming	68
	4. The status of the young girls in the village community was raised	55
B.	**Youth Club for Boys:**	
	1. The boys were responsible for the creation of durable community assets	100
	2. The clubs generated employment potentials in the village itself through milk cooperatives and self employment schemes	100
	3. The boys were aware of national integration and became community conscious	75

The community leaders and parents could pinpoint the specific outcomes of the Youth Clubs for girls and boys. The respondents were happy that the clubs widened the horizon of knowledge in the youth in the villages, specially the girls who were encouraged to come out of their shells.

c. Women's clubs:

The members of the women's clubs in all the three villages were evaluated for the outcomes of their participation in club activities (Table XLVIII)

TABLE XLVIII

BENEFITS ACCRUING TO MEMBERS BY PARTICIPATION IN WOMEN'S CLUB ACTIVITIES

S. No.	Benefits	Percentage stating (N: 153)
1.	Awareness about BGMS	90
2.	Opportunities to meet women of other villages	90
3.	Profitable use of leisure time	87
4.	Participation in training programmes	81
5.	Gain income through economic activities	75
6.	Acquisition of leadership traits	66
7.	Knowledge on better health/nutrition	66
8.	Skill development	60
9.	Participation in community affairs	57

Data in paranthesis indicate the number of members of the women's clubs

These benefits reflect the high esteem the members had for their own clubs. The clubs could serve their purposes in fostering group cohesion and leadership traits so essential for better community life. The opportunities given in the clubs facilitated the simple rural women to cross the narrow frontiers of their own homes and widen their outlook in the community and nation.

2. Awareness about the infrastructure and outcomes of the project:

a. Awareness about the Panchayat Union staff:

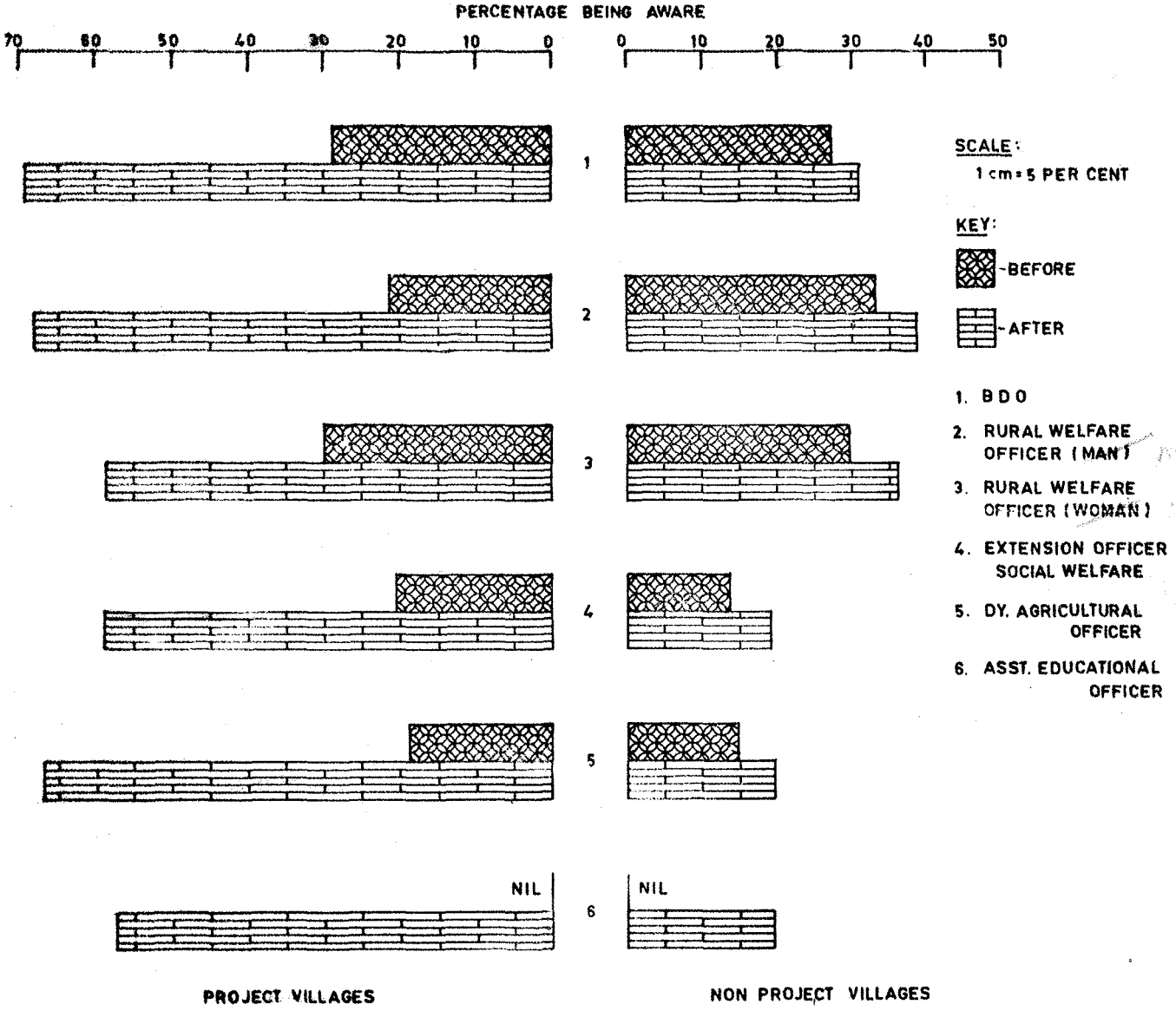
During the project implementation, efforts were taken to expose the people in the project villages to the developmental staff of the Panchayat Union both for assistance in the execution of the activities and for meetings and special programmes. This resulted in increased awareness of the people about the personnel working for their improvement at the grass root level of administration (Table XLIX and Figure 34).

TABLE XLIX

AWARENESS ABOUT DEVELOPMENT PERSONNEL

S. No.	Personnel	Percentage of respondents being aware				
		Kottai-palayam	Agrahara samakulam	Vella-madai	Thotti-palayam	Vaiyam-palayam
1.	Block development Officer	70.0 (30.9)	65.0 (27.0)	74.0 (26.8)	20.0 (16.1)	42.0 (38.0)
2.	Rural Welfare Officer (man)	78.0 (27.9)	62.0 (20.1)	64.0 (18.3)	25.0 (24.0)	52.0 (42.0)
3.	Rural Welfare Officer(Woman)	54.0 (32.4)	57.0 (30.8)	64.0 (26.8)	22.0 (17.3)	50.0 (42.0)
4.	Extension Officer (Social Welfare)	64.0 (24.0)	52.0 (21.6)	60.0 (14.6)	15.0 (8.3)	24.0 (19.4)
5.	Dy. Agricultural Officer	61.0 (26.2)	68.4 (18.7)	72.6 (11.7)	21.0 (14.6)	18.0 (13.6)
6.	Assistant Educational Officer	55.0 (nil)	62.0 (nil)	56.0 (nil)	20.0 (nil)	18.0 (nil)

Data in parenthesis indicate the percentage of families being aware of the developmental personnel, prior to the start of the project (Ref. Table XVIII)



CHANGES IN AWARENESS ABOUT DEVELOPMENTAL PERSONNEL

FIGURE 34

The increase in the percentage of families who became aware of the block personnel point out the closer contact established between the people of the project villages and the developmental staff. Furthermore, the implementation of several activities initiated in the project villages necessitated the beneficiaries to get the consent and signature of the BDO, Dy. Agricultural Officer, Extension Officer, Social Welfare, (Mukhya Sevika). The construction of school lunch sheds with the voluntary contributions of the public and the undertaking of other welfare activities through the PTAs brought the Extension Officer for Education also to the project site. All these had created an awareness in them and they had to meet the staff of the block several times for their work.

However, due to the limited number of the village level women functionaries, and due to the fact that the post of the gram sevika allotted to the project villages had remained vacant for a long time, the contacts with them were limited. Consequently, awareness about them was also less.

b. <u>Major changes observed in the villages after initiating the project</u>:

During the mid term and final evaluation of the project the respondents were asked to point out the major changes they had observed in the project villages. Table L presents their responses.

The people in the project villages were keenly observing the changes brought about in their areas, irrespective of the fact, whether or not they had directly benefitted from the particular activities. The programmes which generated gainful employment, adult education, health activities, provision of safe water supply and social overheads in the villages attracted the attention of the respondents to a greater degree than the others.

c. Suggestions for future:

When the people surveyed were asked to suggest activities for future they could list those found in Table LI.

TABLE LI

ACTIVITIES SUGGESTED FOR FOLLOW UP BY THE RESPONDENTS

S. No.	Activities	Percentage of respondents stating		
		Kottai-palayam	Agrahara Samakulam	Vella-madai
1.	Initiation of libraries	76.1	75.2	67.0
2.	Help for construction of latrine in the houses	39.0	36.8	24.6
3.	Organisation of cooperatives	30.0	29.0	72.3
4.	Arrangement for additional bus facilities	25.8	24.2	21.5
5.	Construction of pucca drainage	20.3	15.8	11.8
6.	Initiation of more cottage industries	19.4	17.1	10.3
7.	Employment for all	18.4	18.1	26.7
8.	Removal of caste system	12.3	11.6	38.5
9.	Creation of recreational facilities	9.0	8.1	16.9
10.	Arrangements for additional bank loans	---	---	11.8

The suggestions point out the impact of education and motivation given in the project villages. A large majority wanted libraries to be initiated. This effort could not bear fruit during the project period. Observing the benefits of the milk cooperatives, the respondents wanted to further benefit out of other types of cooperatives too.

The health education imparted induced atleast a considerable percentage of respondents to desire for latrines in their own homes and to have pucca drainage.

The positive outcomes of the employment oriented activities motivated the people to continue the efforts and expand the same through starting of more of cottage level industries.

Removal of caste system was suggested by a few. The problems arising out of the caste system which is deep rooted in the tradition bound Indian society would not be removed overnight. It requires tireless efforts on the part of all concerned to work for bringing about equality in social status. However the attitude of the few who suggested this is commendable and worth following up.

E. Investigator's Observations:

The experiences encountered by the investigator in the process of stimulating the rural families to utilise

the infrastructure for fostering better home, family and community living are discussed infrastructurewise.

1. Block administrative set up and Panchayat administration

Constant rapport was maintained with the block administrative set up, this being the major infrastructure meant for the total development of the rural families. The fact that the block continues to be the unit of planning and implementing several developmental programmes was fully taken note of and utilised in channelising the programmes available and help in terms of personnel designated to carry out the activities. This resulted in greater awareness among the rural families in the project villages about the block functionaries and their roles. Maximum utilisation of all the ongoing and special programmes was done and involvement of the block functionaries was possible within the constraints of time, finance and priorities at the disposal of the block.

However, the major handicap faced by the investigator was the frequent transfer of the Block Development Officers and the need to orient the new officials again and again, on the objectives and programmes envisaged in the project villages. During the short span of four years there were four BDOs taking charge of the Block with numerous transfers

among the other personnel such as Extension Officers of Agriculture, Education and Social Welfare. The post of gram sevika (leave vacancy) remained vacant for years together. Therefore, desirable achievements were not possible in carrying out women and children's programmes in the project villages.

Furthermore, as in the case of any other block administration, the development departments specially agriculture, animal husbandry, rural industries and health (PHCs) functioned in isolation. Therefore it was extremely difficult to achieve the coordination desired. Within the limitations of time and other resources, it was difficult for the investigator to bring together these functionaries, make them understand the need for a wholistic approach and implement the programmes. The block had to implement several adhoc programmes and was constantly under the tide of changing political currents. This coupled with frequent transfers of personnel posed problems in the smooth run of the project.

The experiences of working with the 'Panchayat' structure were rather a strange and far from all expectations of the investigator. The panchayat structure in the three project villages did not function effectively

and programmes demanding the whole hearted attention of the elected panchayat, such as providing basic amenities in the villages like construction of 'pucca' drainage, street cleaning and maintenance, electrification, maintenance of water taps etc. could not be achieved to the full satisfaction of the investigator and the target families. The participation of women in panchayat affairs was almost nil.

The people of Kottaipalayam village, specially the youth population, shuddered at the very utterance of the name of their President who was a very rich man residing in a neighbouring village and who had come to power through money as well as backing by his own caste. He had not visited Kottaipalayam even once after his election. All the efforts of the investigator to bring him to Kottaipalayam atleast to preside over a function or a national day celebration, were in vain.

The President of Agrahara Samakulam, a total illiterate, was the representative of the 'lowest' but dominant caste in the village. His illiteracy, lower caste and economic backwardness were being exploited by the people of the high caste and he was almost a 'dummy' president, shy even to attend the Village Welfare Committies

and functions organized in the village. He had practically no voice in the village and was a 'laughing stock' among the youth of the village.

The president of Vellamadai, again was 'caste' backed and did not get much support from the villagers. There was constant opposition to his decisions, specially from the youngsters who were waiting for an opportunity to throw him out in the next election.

The elections to the panchayat in Tamil Nadu had been pending for more than a decade, due to various political reasons. Therefore, the panchayats were more or less defunct and the villages were being administered mainly by the governmental machinery with a total absence of the much desired grass-root level democracy. However, during the short project period, the country faced two Lok Sabha and two Assembly elections, with so much political fanfare, which affected the routine of the villages, their leaders and the block functionaries. Programmes and policies of the outgoing government were completely rejected by the incoming government causing great tension and reshuffle in priorities and were impendiments to development. Submission to such drastic changes with resultant disappointments were inevitable in a democratic set up like India under the currents of strong political forces.

Unless there are some constitutional changes, freeing atleast the grassroot level democracies from the clutches of politicians, wholistic, need based development of the rural folk would be far from reality.

2. Infrastructure for Economic upliftment

a. Commercial Banks:

The financial help rendered by Canara Bank, Kovilpalayam to the project villages was extremely encouraging. In addition to agricultural loans, the bank rendered assistance to all possible avocations, specially to group efforts by the women's clubs. In a few cases, the parties could not get loans for want of security to be shown to the bank. Whenever group guarantee was ensured, loans were given with immediate effect. The existence of banks enabled the people to open savings bank accounts. The insistence of banks to start accounts, while disbursing loans also encouraged them to continue this habit. One difficulty experienced and expressed by the villagers was their inability to understand the bank procedures, and the terms and conditions of borrowing and repaying. It was beyond the capacity of the investigator to accompany the parties to banks every time they wanted help. Therefore it is suggested that some arrangements like an advice cell be made in the rural branches of commercial banks to enlighten the rural families on simple banking procedures.

However, problems of lack of recovery and misappropriation of loans were found in the project villages also, though the bank authorities felt that the situation in the project villages was better the when compared to that in other villages. Such experiences cautioned both the investigator and the bank authorities in extending the bank loans. Groupism in the villages, backed by political parties was the main impediment in utilising this infrastructure to the maximum extent.

b. Khadi and Village Industries:

There was no spinning centre or any village industry sponsored by the KVIC in the project villages prior to the initiation of the project. Efforts to start an ambar charka spinning centre in one of the project villages took three and a half years of processing and finally the centre was initiated in Agrahara Samakulam village where accommodation was available. Twenty five women from the village participated in the stipendary training programme (Rs.75 per month/person) of whom 20 joined the actual project. The women earned according to their capacity to spin which ranged from Rs.2 to Rs.6/day. The women were happy that they could get jobs in their village premises itself. It was possible to start the adult literacy centre also involving the illiterate spinners.

However, the project had certain drawbacks. In addition to the delay in the initiation, it lacked continuous guidance and supervision of trained persons. The instructor from KVIC who was supposed to guide and supervise the spinners had to look after three centres located in far off villages with inadequate transport facilities. Therefore, his frequency of visiting this centre was only intermittent. The charkas which were already old and repaired, needed frequent repairs by technicians. This caused delay and affected the efficiency of the spinners who got irritated with the whole thing and some of them left this venture. This happened during the peak agricultural seasons when there was a great demand for labourers. Agricultural labour fetched higher daily wages and also the women used to collect from fields some vegetables and fuel free of cost.

The experience of the investigator pointout that if the ambar charka spinning has to be successful, there should be a full time, interested instructor, to guide the members. As an alternative, village youth who are educated and unemployed may be trained to be the instructors and encouraged to set up khadi and village industries. If the spirit of khadi and village industries is to spread and succeed, the KVIC should not only be target oriented and have competitive spirit but also try to educate the rural community to make use of the KVIC better.

The support KVIC gave for marketing the produce made by the villagers was also not very encouraging.

While authrorities at higher level agreed to offer support, the local authorities were not very responsive. Every time they expected the investigator to accompany the rural women when they supplied items like pickle, or kuzandaiamudhu or eatables and during settlment of accounts which was not possible. The items supplied were not displayed or canvassed properly and at times spoilage also occurred. Frequent transfer of officers posed yet another problem.

c. Co-operatives:

The efforts made by the village youth to get a consumer co-operative for their villages bore fruit almost immediately, with the able cooperation evinced by the Civil Supply authorities. It was found that agricultural co-operatives, specially the nearby Tudiyalur Co-operative Agricultural Service Society (TUCAS) and the credit societies were utilised by the agriculturists to the fullest extent.

Among the two milk co-operatives organised, the one at Agrahara Samakulam has been doing well and had expanded in terms of membership, milk collection and services rendered to the members by way of veterinary help. On the otherhand,

the one at Kottaipalayam has been suffering intermittent closures, owing to political interventions and misunderstanding among two youth groups (caste based) in the village.

As for marketing of items prepared by women, the support from co-operatives, mainly the Tamil Nadu Civil Supplies Corporation was not very encouraging. The authorities at the state and district levels were highly considerate, while the local personnel did not evince much interest to market items produced in the rural areas. Sometimes, due to lack of proper display and sales, the items supplied such as Kuzhandaiamudhu and pickles were in the unprotected shelves for over six months and got spoilt and the authorities demanded replacement of stock, which led to loss for the producers for no fault of theirs. Having been discouraged thus, the village women did not want to approach the cooperatives further for support.

The support from co-operatives for marketing was only due to the involvement of the college, which had established a name and connection with the state government. Otherwise the rural people were deprived of support and encouragement from this infrastructure, which is meant for their welfare.

d. Central Social Welfare Board:

The programmes sponsored by the CSWB utilised for this project were the condensed course of education, vocational training course, cattle loan programme and adhoc training programmes. The registration of women's clubs under BGMS enabled the women to benefit from the programmes of CSWB.

Young girls who had failed in SSLC joined the condensed course of education run by Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College and completed their school education. One girl benefitted from the vocational training programme and got her diploma in tailoring.

Fifteen women, five from each of the project villages were selected to be the beneficiaries of cattle loan under CSWB. Care was taken to select the women as per the criteria laid down by CSWB that the women must be poor, destitutes, or widows and must agree to continue in the group till the loans were repaid. The women were eligible to get interest free loans of Rs.2000/- each which they should repay in monthly instalments of Rs.50/- . The project elicited great response and enthusiasm and the beneficiaries were identified carefully. But it took nearly three years to get these loans sanctioned. The women had to undergo rigorous scrutiny

by the block officials, officials from the State Social Welfare Board and by the subcommittee constituted by the Board to monitor this venture. The rules and conditions imposed by the CSWB were very strict and a lot of time and efforts were to be spent by the beneficiaries to understand the terms, fill up applications, give guarantee required and select the animals. The project benefited 15 women who got a monthly income of approximately Rs.75/- after the loan amounts are paid up. This is the positive side.

On the otherhand, this cattle loan scheme suffered from a number of bottlenecks leading to practical problems. The amount given i.e. Rs.2000 per head could not fetch good milch animals (buffaloes or cows). The women were too poor to spend extra amounts and purchase better quality cattle. The cattle loan beneficiaries of CSWB were not eligible to get additional bank loans also. Only country varieties could be purchased and the milk yield was not very high. With the ever increasing cost of fodder and cattle feed, the women found it very difficult to maintain the cattle. Since two years after starting this project there were cases of two deaths and three infertility. Fortunately the animals were insured and therefore the women could get full compensations in cases of death and 75 per cent cost in cases

of infertility. While the SSWB gave the BGMS district unit (sponsors) some amount to meet the costs of supervision and insurance during the first year of its operation the investigator could educate the women on the need for insurance and made them renew their policies in the subsequent years also. The women were urged to pay some extra amount every month alongwith loan instalement, to be kept aside for insurance to reduce financial strain at one point of the year.

Veterinary help other than that arranged by the investigator was not encouraging. The changes incurred on veterinary help were beyond the limits of the beneficiaries. This was an impediment in the project.

Besides the above projects, training programmes in Leadership, Social Defence and Public Co-operation were organised with the financial assistance of CSWB. As per rules, camps were organised for 10 - 15 days. These training programmes, no doubt enabled the shy rural women and youth to come out of their shells, get to know each other and make use of their latent talents. In short, they broadened the outlook of the participants and helped to foster the much desired attitudional changes in them. However, since these camps necessitated staying away from their households, the response from homemakers was limited, though youth girls participated wholeheartedly. Also the trainings were on adhoc basis and had to be organised with short notice.

This was because the sponsors demanded exhausting the finance allocated, within the particular financial year concerned. Not enough time was given to the investigator to plan effectively. Furthermore, the sponsors insisted on following strict syllabi for the training which at times did not suit local conditions. The syllabi were very general and hotch potch. Though the investigator took care to adopt the same to local needs ~~it would~~ it would be better if the institutions concerned were given the freedom to frame the syllabi and organize courses to fulfil local, felt needs. The training programme needs to be peripatetic in nature and enough provision must be made to do follow up.

3. Primary Health Centre:

The experiences of working with the PHC were varied. While it was difficult to bring about coordination between the other developmental infrastructure (block) and the PHC, the PHC itself offered the highest cooperation in implementing the health aspects of the project contributing to better home and family living in terms of protection of the vulnerable groups from dangerous and communicable diseases, adoption of small family norms, reduction in birth as well as death rates in the project villages and educating the people on health.

However, the PHC also suffered from want of continuty of personnel (there were four doctors assuming change during the four years), lack of proper equipment even for sterilising the instruments and absence of adequate referral services owing to insufficient number of health personnel. Concentration was given to the Family Planning drive which has been a national mandate specially during the 'national emergency' much to the neglect of the other health aspects.

The problem of distance between the PHC and the project villages (2 - 6 kilometres) was an impediment in the effective utilisation of this infrastructure by the families. However a mobile health programme was introduced by the PHC which was a boon to the poor families who benefitted by the weekly visits made by the mobile health team.

4. Educational Institutions:

Rich experiences were encountered by the investigator in working with educational institutions within the community (school) and outside the community (Colleges and training institutions).

Fullest cooperation was obtained from the primary schools in the three project villages and the teachers concerned understood the purpose of the project and realized

the great need for strong school community relationship. Support was given in terms of extending school facilities for adult education classes, conduct of school Youth Club activities, Village Welfare Committee meetings, functions in the villages, exhibitions put up and camps for NSS volunteers of the college. PTAs which were almost defunct at the start of the project got enlivened and the PTA office bearers and members participated wholeheartedly in the various projects.

However, the problem faced in the utilisation of village school was that in certain cases the headmasters and school teachers were not residents of the respective villages and this posed difficulties in establishing school-community relationships. The school staff also faced the problem of frequent transfers, which was again an impediment in the project. The High School at Vellamdai, a Government High School, evinced only a limited response in the programmes of community welfare and the reason given was that they had to get orders from higher authorities for each and every activity proposed.

The difficulties faced in working with the PTAs were controversies arising among members owing, to caste, religion, political backing and craving for power and recognition. The problems came to lime light mainly during celebration of festivals and functions in the school or in the village.

Continuous rapport was established by the investigator with the educational institutions in the neighbourhood namely Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College and Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya. The NSS units of both the colleges conducted their summer/winter camps in these project villages and helped in the creation of durable community assets. The Community Polytechnic of Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya extended great support in undertaking projects such as road laying, pond deepening and training youth in self employment. The post graduate students both M.Sc./M.A.s and B.Eds., of Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College assisted in the collection of baseline data so essential for organizing educational programmes (Nutrition Education).

However, such help was intermittent and it was not possible to link the students permanantly with developmental activities since they worked under constraints such as examinations, vacations and change of sets of students after completion of studies.

5. National Adult Education Programme:

Adult education programmes could not be started in the initial stage of the project till the other programmes, specially the economic programmes took roots. The response to the adult education programme was not satisfactory to

begin with and there was lack of continuity too. A lot of efforts was needed to motivate the community to join the functional literacy classes organised. The department of education initiated adult education classes through the primary school teachers, which also did not elicit good response.

However, the adult education programme got fresh vigour and new life when the National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) was launched on October 2, 1978, as a national mandate. The project villages were covered by the NAEP organised by Sri Avinashilingam Education Trust Institutions under the Scheme of Assistance to Voluntary Organizations by the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Government of India. In each village two centres (one for men and another for women) were organised to cater to 30 adult men and 30 adult women (15-35 years age group) respectively. The animators (instructors) were chosen from the villages themselves and trained. The running of the adult education centres for a period of 10 months offered rich experience, positive and negative.

The programme indicated the great possibilities of utilising local educated youth for imparting adult education. The youth were paid a monthly honorarium of Rs.50/- each.

With the earlier efforts on motivation, there was response to the adult education programme. The village community also came forward to offer help to this programme by way of providing free accommadation, facilities for lighting etc.

However, the programme had a number of defects also. The funds for NAEP were extraordinarily delayed which almost came after the 10 months period, leading to dissatisfaction among the instructors and lack of continuity of the programme. This delay was mainly due to the change of government at the centre in early 1979, and thus the NAEP suffered due to political whims and fancies. The programme of NAEP could not be linked with other welfare and economic projects to the desired extent.

Strict adherence to the age group specified (15-35 years) was not possible and the learners were from the age group 12-45 years. The attendence in the centres was approximately 20 learners per centre as against 30. While a limited follow up was possible by way of organising a small library by the Youth Clubs, the efforts to persuade the Local Library Authorities, Coimbatore to initiate 'pucca' libraries in the project villages did not bear fruit.

6. Community Organizations:

The root cause for all success in the project was the great cooperation extended by the community organisations namely Village Welfare Committees, Madar Sangams and Youth Clubs for boys and girls.

The Village Welfare Committees were instrumental for planning and implementation of all developmental programmes in the respective project villages. Represented by elder members from various segments of the community (caste and otherwise) these members served as opinion leaders and enabled the investigator to play her catalytic role to the best of her efforts. However, the functioning of the Village Welfare Committees was not free from operational problems such as casteism, political intervention and the criticisms from public which at times were bottlenecks to the decision making process. Great care was therefore exercised in putting fourth proposals, getting their approval and roping them in, in the implementation.

As for Madar Sangams, the functioning was successful since the members were constantly involved in interesting activities. Furthermore, the registration of these clubs under BCMS and fostering economic programmes with the

clubs with the assistance of various agencies were the keys for the success of this endeavour. The major difficulty faced by the investigator was unhappiness of the members who were left out from the economic ventures since they did not fulfil certain criteria laid down by the funding agencies.(Eg. Cattle loan by CSWB).

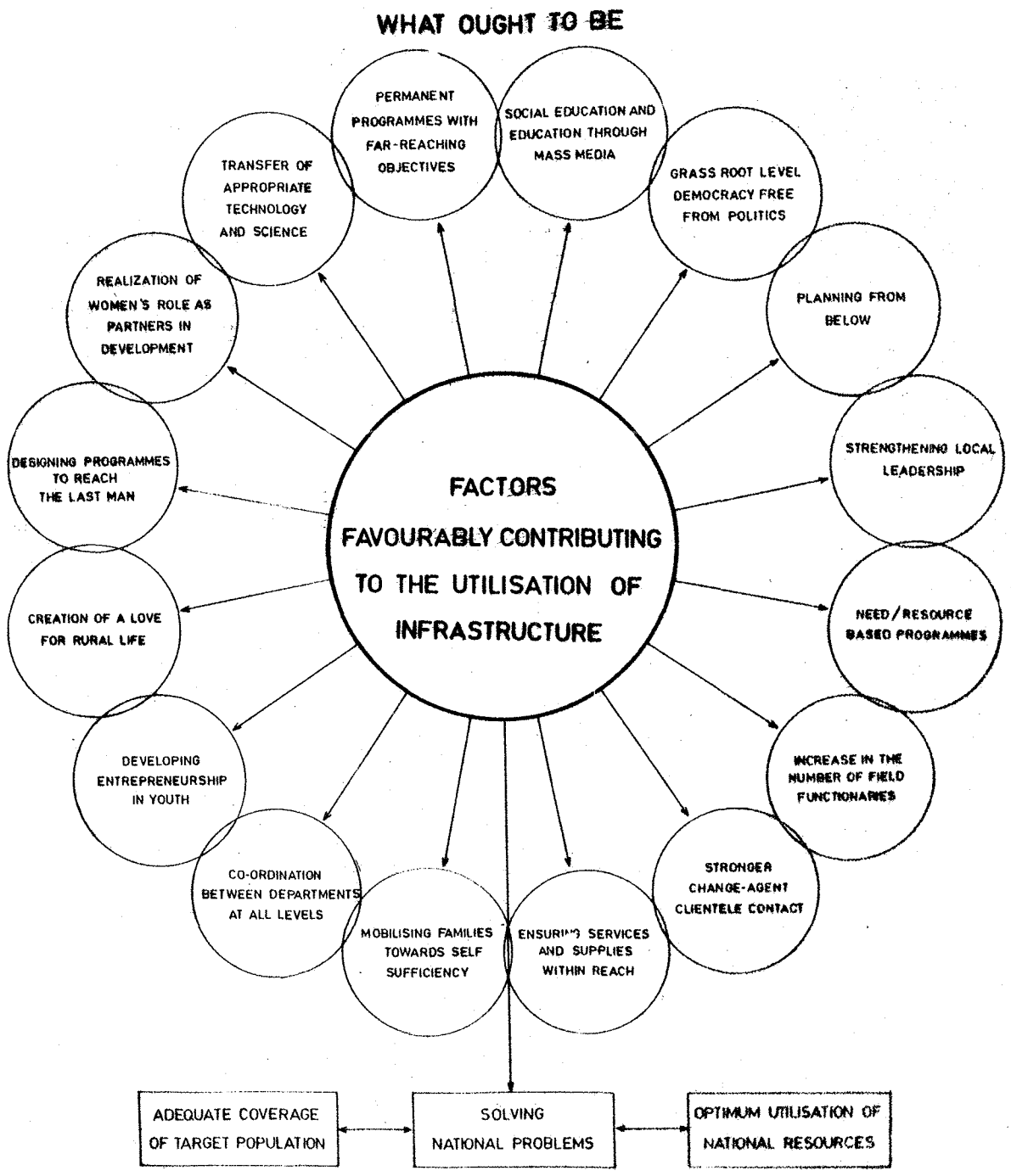
The Youth Clubs organized (boys as well as girls) functioned satisfactorily, giving great moral support to the investigator. The youth responded favourably to all programmes and sustained the spirit of adventure and exploration with the various infrastructure for development. They willingly continued the projects initiated.

The major bottlenecks experienced with boys' clubs were the rivalries among youth groups mainly backed by politicians from within and outside the villages, causing embarassment to the investigator when decisions about projects were made and delegation of responsibilities was essential. Another observation made was that the village youth prefered white collared jobs only and whenever efforts were made to put them in training programmes for self employment necessitating a great deal of manual work the response was not very great, resulting in absenteeism during training and dropping out. The village youth lacked entrapreneurship.

As for girls' clubs, the difficulty faced was that the girls, once married would leave the village and specially when the leaders move out, creation of a second line of leadership was a stupendous task.

7. Factors influencing the utilisation of infrastructure:

Experience in working with the various infrastructure revealed an array of factors which adversely affect their effective utilisation. Efforts were made to identify also the factors favourably contributing to the proper utilisation of infrastructure which would result in finding solution to national problems with adequate coverage of target, population, making optimum use of the national resources. An empirical model was designed as shown in Figure 35, to compare the situation that exists now and the one desired for.



THE UTILISATION OF INFRASTRUCTURE

Summary and Conclusion

V SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

A wide net work of infrastructural facilities is available in rural India under the auspices of various developmental programmes. However, their utilisation is far from satisfactory. Therefore, this action research project was undertaken to stimulate rural families to identify and utilise the available infrastructure towards better family living, with the following objectives: To

1. Create an awareness in the selected rural community, about the need to become self reliant;
2. Enable families to identify the available infrastructure for economic, health, educational and social improvement, which are the major areas of family living.
3. Stimulate them to utilise the infrastructure identified to fulfil their needs.
4. Evaluate the impact of the utilisation of the infrastructure identified on family living of the rural communities.
5. Identify the problems in the utilisation of the infrastructure and
6. Suggest suitable measures to make effective use of the infrastructure for development.

Kottaipalayam, Agrahara Samakulam and Vellamadai of Sarcar Samakulam Panchayat Union, Coimbatore District were the villages selected for the project. Two other villages

located nearby, namely Thottipalayam and Vaiyampalayam served as control. The profiles of the villages were studied through baseline surveys.

Community organisations, namely Village Welfare Committees, Madar Sangams (Women's Clubs) and Youth Clubs (for boys and girls) were set up in the project villages to involve all segments of the population from the planning stage through execution to evaluation of the programmes. The various infrastructure available for rural development were identified and linkages established with the authorities concerned. Thereafter specific programmes to bring about economic upliftment, educational improvement, health status improvement and social development were planned and carried out by the people - men, women and youth - in the project villages.

Built in evaluation helped to assess the quantitative and qualitative outcomes, using specific yardsticks. The following are the major findings of this action-research project :

A. Economic upliftment:

1. The total financial flow to the three project villages from the commercial bank was considerably higher (Rs.4.97 lakhs) as compared to that of the non project

villages (Rs. 1.35 lakhs), pointing out the positive impact of motivational efforts on people to utilise the services of the nationalised banks.

2. The per capita income in the project villages had risen by Rs. 227.39 (mean increase being 24.23 per cent) and the increase commensurated with the efforts taken to augment family income. On the otherhand, the control villages registered improvement in per capita income only by Rs. 26.49 and Rs. 96.01 respectively (mean increase being only eight per cent).

3. There was a fall in the percentage of families living below the poverty line in the project villages (mean decrease being 14.26 per cent), which is in tune with improvement in the percapita income of the households in these villages. This is also a pointer towards the positive impact of the efforts to raise family income of the lowest rung of the society. The data on the distribution of families according to annual income also confirmed this finding.

4. The percentage expenditure on food was found to decrease in a majority of the households in the project villages, which may be attributed to the impact of the efforts towards raising family income, home food production and

nutrition and health education. The saving effected in food budget was reported to be spent on children's education, clothing and acquisition of capital goods such as utensils.

5. There was a marked increase in domestic savings (41.8 per cent mean increase) in the project villages pointing out a greater propensity to save extra income. In contrast the control villages had a mean increase in savings by 9.1 per cent in this regard.

B. Educational Status Development:

There was a considerable increase in school enrolment in the project villages. The number of children in the school going age, admitted to the primary school, was 22-24 per cent higher in the case of boys and 15-23 per cent in respect of girls. The percentage increase was greater than the national average increase (12.1 per cent) over the project period.

2. During the project period, there was a note worthy decline in the percentage 'dropouts' from the primary schools, the range being 14.4 to 25.4 per cent for boys and 23.8 to 43 per cent for girls. The decline was more in respect of girls, pointing out the realisation on the part of the parents about the need for women's

education. As for control villages, there was not much change in the school enrolment or dropout rates over the reference period.

3. The increase in literacy rates was observed to be ranging from 12.5 to 18 per cent indicating the fruitful efforts made through the National Adult Education Programme and the combined efforts of Youth Clubs and Women's Clubs. The changes in the literacy rates in the control villages were rather negligible.

4. The exposure to several non formal training programmes resulted in mobilisation and development of the human resources in the community, as reflected by the greater participation of men, women and youth in the community affairs and the chain reaction set in by the leaders.

5. The attempts to establish and maintain good school community relationships in the three project villages paid rich dividents in terms of parents' interest in the affairs of the school and their contributions in cash, kind and labour in bringing forth durable assets for the school such as construction of school lunch sheds, water tanks, tap connections, urinals etc.

C. Health Status Improvement in the Community:

1. The project villages made greater use of the health services available at the PHC. There was an increase in the number of persons benefiting from the specific health services. Verification of the records of the PHC pointed out great differences in the total number of beneficiaries of the various health services between the project and control villages.

2. The incidence of communicable diseases was considerably reduced in the project villages (by 17.1 to 23.4 per cent) which may be ascribed to the continuous health education programmes and the prophylactic measures undertaken by the PHC. The reduction in the incidence of communicable diseases in the control villages was as low as 1.6 to 1.9 per cent.

3. There was decrease in the death rates also. In the project villages it reduced by four or five cases as against reduction by only one or two cases in the control villages. This corresponds with the reduction in the incidence of communicable diseases.

4. The average number of persons per annum adopting the various population control measures increased considerably over the project period, pointing out the impact of non formal

education on the adoption of the small family norm. Consequently there was a decline in the birth rates also in the project villages. (10-13 after the project as against 18-19 prior to the project).

5. The attitudes of the families in the project villages were positive with regard to the health services offered and reflective of their concern for improving their health status.

D. Nutrition and Food Practices:

1. The balwadies established, resulted in improvement of the health status of the children attending them in terms of increments in heights, weights and other anthropometrict measurements and better clinical picture.

2. Due to the impact of community nutrition efforts there was a great improvement in the nutritional knowledge and dietary practices of the homemakers as reflected in their following the absorption method of cooking rice and vegetables, cutting vegetables after washing and cutting vegetables in big pieces.

3. The efforts taken in the direction of home food production resulted in 43 to 60.6 per cent more families taking to kitchen garden in the project villages.

E. Social Development:

1. The community organisations established gave continuous support to all the developmental effort put forth in this project.

2. The members of the Youth Clubs (both boys and girls) acquired leadership traits so essential to prepare them to shoulder responsibilities in future and to make them responsive citizens. Statistical analysis revealed that there was significant increase in the leadership scores obtained by the members of the clubs, as a result of their participation in the various activities.

3. There was an increase in the percentage of families who were aware of the development personnel at the block, as a result of closer linkages established through the project.

4. The responses of the people regarding the major changes they had observed in their villages, as outcomes of the project, were highly encouraging. Whether or not they were directly associated with or benefitted from the specific activities, they had been keenly observing the progress of the project. The programmes which attracted the people were those which generated gainful employment, adult education, health activities, provision of safe drinking water and social over heads in the villages.

5. As a result of exposure to several activities the respondents could give workable and specific suggestions for the betterment of their own villages, which reflected attitudional changes resulting from education and motivation.

Working with the infrastructure and the rural families offered rich experiences to the investigator. In the utilisation of infrastructure both positive and negative aspects were noted. Out of these experiences, the following specific suggestions are made:

a. Administrative machinery,

1. Bureaucratic ddays from the top level to the lowest level must be eliminated. There should be greater stress on planning from below. The government should have a political commitment to a strategy of rural development with a strong, low cost delivery system for supplying inputs, credit, extension and marketing.

2. The approach to rural development needs to be patterned after 'Antyodaya' with an aim to ensure the minimum living standards to the last of the community. Only such an approach will foster development with social justice.

3. The current sporadic, adhoc efforts towards rural development, with different ministries, development departments trying to push forth their priorities and programmes resulting in a plethora of plans and waste, must be replaced by a single

official planning team with responsibility for formulating an integrated area plan and its implementation at the micro level. In this team, there must be representatives from all the major departments, financial and educational institutions, business houses, non officials and voluntary agencies. The team must take a wholistic integrated view of the resources available on one hand and the needs of the people on the other. The dichotomy that is existing between the official and non official agencies should be eliminated.

4. As Dantwala (1979) suggests, there should be not only ex-post coordination but also exante integration between the various efforts on rural development, that is even prior to planning, the element of integration between various developmental departments must be accomplished instead of striving to achieve the same after the project had progressed considerably.

5. Efforts must be taken to bring the developmental staff from block level and below, closer to the local self government to establish rapport between the delivery system and the target population in the rural areas.

6. While it is extremely difficult to protect the grass root level democracy against political interferences.

attempts should be made to educate the community, specially the key leaders to limit politics to planning of local developmental plans and their implementation.

b. Programmes for economic upliftment:

1. Employment is a function of so many variables such as presence and identification of raw materials, human resources, capital formation, growth in national income and distribution, availability of enterpreneurship, infrastructural facilities, organisational frame work and marketing. All these should be pooled together and brought within the reach of the rural community.

2. Efforts must be made to reach the benefits of co-operatives (one of the three basic institutions) to all villages. People must be given education on the principles of co-operation. Timeliness is an important factor and the co-operatives must arrange for loans, services and supplies to farmers and non-farmers in time. The cooperatives must emerge as a marketing agency not only for agricultural produce but also for products of cottage industries.

3. The present role of banks as mainly purveyors of credit should be altered. As the Thakker Committee had suggested, all the rural branches of commercial banks should have Multi Service Agency for coordinating, planning and

offering technical assistance to the selfemployed. Provision of such a technical consultancy service coupled with simplification of banking procedures would go a longway in educating the rural community on the value of institutional credit and instill in youth the much needed entrapreneurship.

4. The Khadi and Village Industries should function as a major instrument for rural & industrialization. They should extend their network of activities to all the rural areas and also strengthen their marketing structure to include products prepared by rural women's clubs. The training component of the KVIC also needs restructuring. The KVIC should plan also to spread the spirit of Khadi and Village Industries in the rural areas, by effectively making use of Women's Clubs, Youth Clubs, village schools and village co-operatives.

5. The programmes of the Central Social Welfare Board (both economic and social) should be disseminated to the rural community. In addition to the District Member of SSWB, there should be representation at the block and even at the village levels. The procedures for application for the projects should be simplified. Efforts should be made to minimise time lag between application for projects and actual sanctioning.

6. There should be coordination of efforts between KVIC, CSWB, banks and cooperatives at various levels.

7. The District Industries Centre should not only function as a consultancy service but also serve as a data bank for raw material availability. As Srivastava (1980) points out, the DIC should be vertically linked with the block level rural development organisation on the one hand (at lower level) and the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research and other Research and Development and Development Institutions at the higher level. The horizontal linkage will be with voluntary organisations, Khadi and Village Industries, Krishi Vidyan Kendras, Universities, Small Industries Service Institutes, Social Welfare machinery and so on.

C. Educational Status Improvement:

1. The school/s in the rural areas must be recognised as effective agents for ushering in changes in the minds of people. Now that even the primary schools have their administrative linkages directly to the District Education Department and the Block Development Officer, far more remote for them to fulfil their Social and developmental objectives as enunciated in the very objectives of the Community Development movement. Therefore, it is essential

on the part of policy makers and administrators to make it mandatory for the schools to work for the upliftment of the local for community.

2. Every village must have a Balwadi/creche, not only to serve the educational and social needs of pre school children but also to serve as vehicles of nutrition education both for children and their parents. The recent announcement of the Government of Tamil Nadu to initiate 4000 nursery schools in the rural areas is most welcome. However, care should be taken to see that these nursery schools are devoid of the ills of the urban oriented nursery schools as centres for teaching children only alphabets and rhymes specially in English. The nursery schools proposed should have all components of an ideal balwadi.

3. The role of institutions of higher learning in rural development should be recognised and integrated right from the planning stage. To avoid duplication of efforts by more than one institution in the same area, proper delegation of responsibilities is essential.

4. Adult education should be an integral part of all developmental efforts and find a place in the national policy framework which should not be sacrificed at the change of political structures. Local, educated youth should

be trained to conduct these programmes. While incentives in terms of priorities for loans etc should be extended to the beneficiaries of the programmes, adequate follow up in terms of libraries and provision of reading materials must be made for neoliterates. The services of the Local Library authorities must be extended immediately to the rural areas. Recognition in terms of timely sanction of economic ventures by CSWB, KVIC, Co-operatives, Banks etc., to the participants in the adult education programme itself would go a longway to sustain and promote the programme.

D. Primary Health Care:

1. It is a welcome gesture that the Minister of Health, Government of Tamilnadu has very recently announced the proposal to extend the services of PHCs so that they serve to a more limited population of 30000 per PHC, instead of the present coverage of 1,00,000 per PHC. While quantitative expansion is essential, constant education of the public is what is required to make use of all the services of the health centre both at headquarters or sub centres and through the mobile health team.

2. Attempts must be made by the government to foster an integrated approach to Maternal and Child Health (MCH)

services, combining components of preventive care, family planning, nutrition and public health.

3. Efforts should be made to offer domiciliary care through a band of trained community health workers, who hail from the same communities and are confident to tackle local health programmes.

E. Social Development:

1. Great recognition should be given to the role of community organisations. Efforts must be taken to federate the local level organisation with block, district, state and central organisations concerned namely Youth Clubs or Mahila Mandals, through registrations.

2. The scheme of incentive awards for successful functioning of these organisations must be continued and widened. These organisations should be encouraged to initiate economic programmes too.

Reference missing

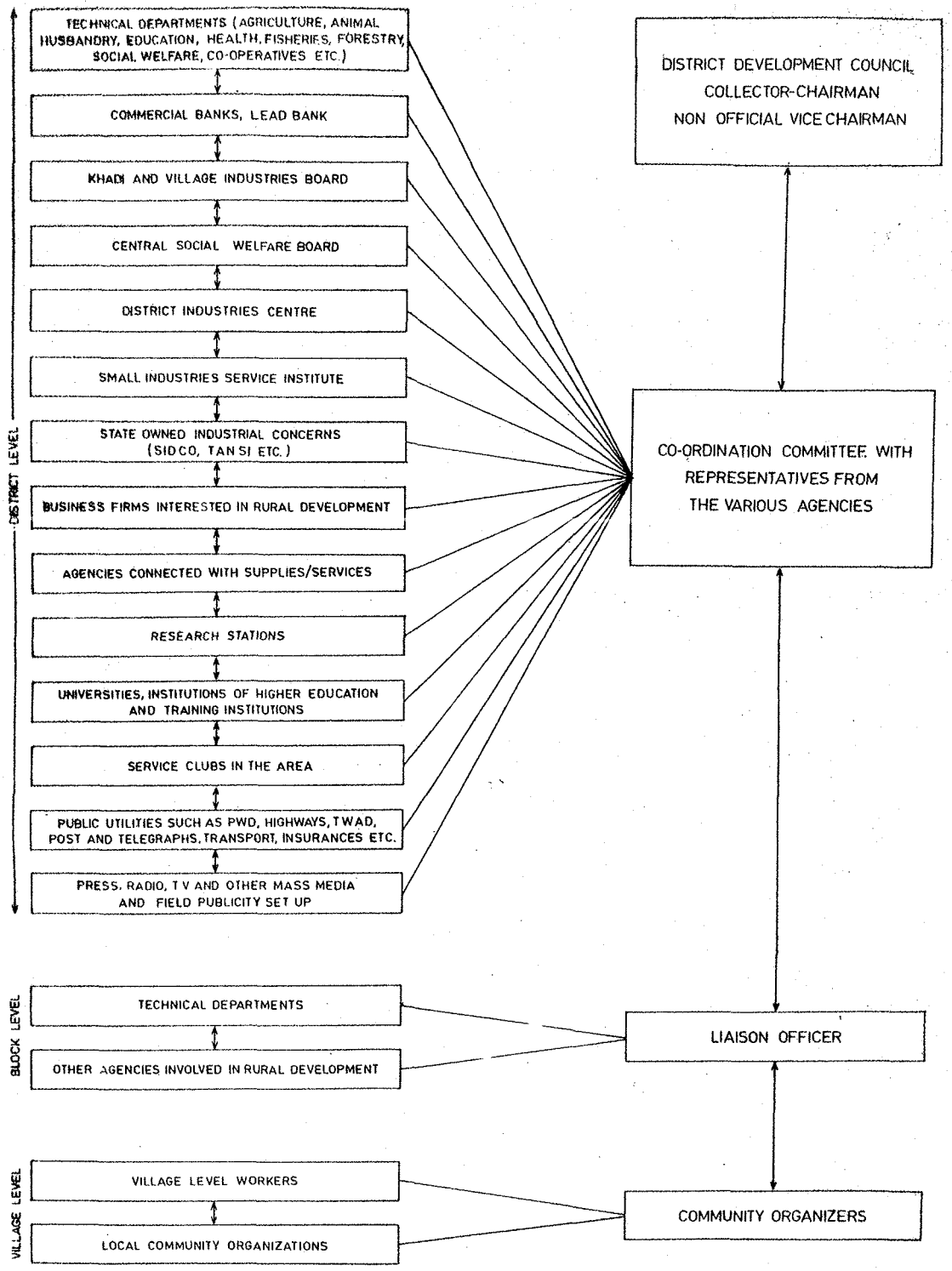
The following suggestions of Devadas and Mithalakshmi (1981) are worthy of consideration:

1. The District continues to be the nodal point or area of administration. It is largely at this level that all the agencies of government converge and the policies and programmes find concrete shape. Coordination at this level

is very essential to integrate all the components of IRD. It is here that plans and programmes should emerge so that a package of inputs and services is made available to the target groups in a wholistic manner, at the time and place they require them.

The District Collector is the administrative head at the District and the Chairman of the District Development Council. He is in charge of all developmental tasks in the District. However, since the collector is overburdened with administrative tasks, real coordination of efforts of the developmental tasks of different departments is not possible. The collector more or less serves as a public relations man and there are numerous problems demanding the attention of the Collector to maintain law and order, taking him farther away from development side.

Therefore, a Coordination Committee should be set up with representatives of the various departments and agencies, voluntary organisations, educational institutions and credit institutions (Figure 36). A few officials from the existing administrative structure should be designated to do this task or a nucleus of workers should be created to monitor the programme. This committee should have functional linkages with the existing District Development Council and should



MODEL DEPICTING CO-ORDINATION AND INTEGRATION BETWEEN VARIOUS INFRASTRUCTURE

concretise the specific activities of IRD and evolve strategies for implementing them. Allocation of responsibilities should be done so that all concerned are partners in development. They should be responsible also for continuous evaluation of the activities and for social reporting. This unit should necessarily be in charge of arranging for supplies and services in time.

2. The Blocks in the District should also have a Liaison Officer who should act in the same manner as the District Coordinator in integrating all the inputs available and must have a very close watch over the implementation of the programme in the respective villages. The Liaison Officer should work in close cooperation with the existing Block team and he/she should be given facilities such as conveyance to supervise and guide the programme on the spot. The Liaison Officer should be in charge of scientific evaluation and reporting of the IRD in his Block, on quantitative and qualitative terms.

3. While it is difficult to create a cadre of staff for the implementation of the IRD at the village levels, some one must be made in charge of the delivery of the package of services at the local grass root level and the corresponding feedback. This task must be entrusted to

a local education unemployed a person with certain amount of honorarium. Those volunteers must be given training at the Block level to orient them to the various aspects of development and the services and inputs at their disposal. They must be trained also in the methods of evaluation and record keeping. They must be given time bound targets and act as links between the organisers of the programme and the needy people. These volunteers, who may be termed as 'community organisers' must hail from the local areas and be well versed with the problems and situations in the area. They should have leadership qualities and be free from political interventions. Their main job would be to communicat continuously to rural families theavailability of the various infrastructure and enable them to utilise them to the fullest extent.

The goal of rural development is the development of the people, of the human beings living in the rural communities. The development of infrastructure is only a means to this end, and not the end in itself. The current massive awakening in the rural areas, is highly encouraging. It must be utilised to uplift the masses who have so far been out of the various national development programmes.

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Appendices

APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE TO ELICIT THE LIVING CONDITIONS IN THE VILLAGES SELECTED

-oOo-

Date:

I. General Details

Name of the village :

Panchayat :

Panchayat Union :

District :

Name of the interviewer :

Name of the interviewee :

Address :

Name of the Head of the Household:

Relation to the interviewee :

Type of family : Nuclear ☐; Joint ☐

Religion :

Caste :

Family occupation :

Mother Tongue :

Own house or rented :

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I. General Details

Name of the village :

Panchayat :

Panchayat Union :

District :

Name of the interviewer :

Name of the interviewee :

Address :

Name of the Head of the Household:

Relation to the interviewee :

Type of family : Nuclear ☐; Joint ☐

Religion :

Caste :

Family occupation :

Mother Tongue :

Own house or rented :

2. Family Details:

S. No.	Name of the members	Relation to the head of the family	Whether living with the family	Sex	Age	Marital status	Educational Status: Standard completed	Educational Status: Standard studying	Main Occupation	Subsidiary occupation	Income (Rs): From main occupation	Income (Rs): From others

3. Family Income and Expenditure:

a. Income from (a) Major source : Rs.

(b) Land : Rs.

(c) House rent : Rs.

(d) Subsidiary occupation : Rs.

(e) Others : Rs.

Total : Rs.

b. Expenditure (per month):

S. No.	Items	Quantity purchased	Cost	State whether the items are produced at home
1.	Food: (specify items)			
2.	Clothing:			
3.	Housing:			
	Rent			
	Tax if (owned)			
4.	Education			
5.	Health & Medicine			
6.	Transport			
7.	Social expenses (festival etc.)			
8.	Personal			
9.	Savings.			

3. c. Savings Pattern

Do You have a savings?

Details

S.No.	Method of Savings	Amount Rs.	Frequency	Reasons for Savings.

D. Indebtedness:

Are you in debts? Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, give details

S. No.	Amount outstanding	Sources	Reasons for indebtedness	Method of repaying

4. Education:

a) Position of droponts

S. No.	Names	Standard completed	Age when dropped out	Reasons	Future Plans

b) Adult Education:

Do the elder members in your family show interest in ~~xxx~~ literacy?

Will they be joining adult education classes?

5. Details of unemployment (above 15 years constituting the workforce)

S. No.	Name of the unemployed	Educational qualification	Name of unemployment: Temporary	Seasonal	Permanent	Reasons for not getting job	Details of training	JOB PREFERRED

b. Diseases (Morbidity)

Was anyone in your family affected by any of the following disease?

S. No.	Name of the member	Age	Name of the disease	Whether affected Yes	No

c. Prophylactic Measures:

Are all children in your family under five years immunized (DPT)?

Is vaccination for small pox done frequently?

Are the following habits observed?

Brushing teeth everday

Bathing

Combing hair

Changing dress

Washing clothes.

d. Nutrition

Menu followed everyday

Methods of Cooking followed

Cereals

Pulses

Vegetables

Methods of cutting vegetables

Washing before cutting

Washing after cutting

Cutting in big pieces

Cutting in small pieces

Methods of preservation followed:

Foods preserved	Methods followed

Special foods for vulnerable groups

Pregnant women

Lactating women

Preschool children.

8. Participation in Social activities

a. Membership in Associations:

S. No.	Membership	Position held	Opinions
1.	Co-operative Societies		
2.	Panchayat		
3.	Youth Clubs		
4.	Welfare Committees		
5.	Rura Radio Forum		
6.	Mahila Mandal		
7.	Caste Association		
8.	PTA		
9.	Farmers Association		
10.	Others(specify)		

b. Awareness about development personnel

S.No.	Personnel	Whether known	Help resorted
1.	BDO		
2.	Dy.Agricultural Officer		
3.	Educational Officer		
4.	Mukhya Sevika		
5.	Gram Sevak		
6.	Gram Sevika		

9. Agriculture (only for landholders)

S.No.	Land	Acre / hectares	Worth Rs.	Crops cultivated
1.	Wet land			
2.	Dry land			
3.	Garden			
4.	Total			

Type of irrigation:

Equipment used :

Role of women

S. No.	Activities	Type of participation		
		Direct participation	Supervision	Decision making

Cattle owned

10. What are the problems of your village?

11. What changes do you desire in your village?

12. What should be your role?

APPENDIX II

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE USED FOR MID-TERM AND FINAL SURVEYS.

Name of the Interviewee : Village:

Name of the head of the family :

Address :

1. Family details

S. No.	Name of the members	Relationship to the head of the family	Sex	Age	Marital status	Education		Occupation				Income
						Std. completed	Std. studying	Main	Subsidiary	Main occupation	Subsidiary occupation	

Since how long have you been residing in the village?

Own house ☐; Rented house ☐

Where did you live four years back?

If you had changed residence during the past four years, please give the earlier address.

2. Income:

a. Income from occupation:

Major + Subsidiary	Rs.
Land	Rs.
House rent	Rs.
Dairy	Rs.
Others	Rs.
Total	Rs.

b. Has your family income risen during the past four years?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Reasons?

If yes, how much is the rise per month?

c. What help have you received for augmenting income?

S.No.	Nature of help	Worth in Rs (if possible)	Source of help	Source of income	Was it adequate Yes	No	Reasons

d. Give details of family expenditure:

S. No.	Items of Expenditure	Amount spent	Reduction if any over the past four years	Reasons for reduction

What do you do with the extra income (if any) you have been getting?

e. Details of saving:

Do you have the habit of saving money?

If yes, when did you start saving?

Methods of savings	Frequency	Amount

What are the reasons for your saving money?

3. Employment position:

What were the employment opportunities you had obtained during the past four years?

S. No.	Person in your family newly employed	Relationship to the head	Age	Educational status	Type of employment	Income added per month	Type of training	Who helped to get this employment

What are the job opportunities created in your own village?

for men

for women

Please give your opinions on the above.

4. General Improvements made in the village over the past four years.

S.No.	Improvements	Advantages got	Suggestions for betterment

5. Improvements in health:

What help have you obtained from the PHC?

S.No.	for the village as a whole	for your family

What are your suggestions for improving the services of the PHC?

Give details of the following:

(i) Death occured in the family with details of age and cause of death.

(ii) Communicable diseases affected with details of person affected nature of disease.

What are your suggestions to improve the sanitation conditions of your village?

How do you use waste water from your house?

6. Improvements in Nutrition

Do you have kitchen garden?

If yes, when did your start?

What are the vegetables/fruits grown in the Kitchengarden?

What do you do with the produce?

Do you have the following in your house?

S.No.	Details	Number	Since when?	Who helped you to have these	Income Added By Sale	by Use	Opinions
1.	Milch cattle						
2.	Sheep/goat						
3.	Heifer						
4.	Poultry						

Are you a member of the milk society?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Reasons

What are the benefits you obtain from the milk co-operative?

What are your suggestions for improving the same?

What are the methods of cooking?

Cereals

Pulses

Vegetables

Others

Have you participated in nutrition education programmes?

If Yes,

S. No.	Items learnt	Who taught	Items followed	Your opinions

7. Awareness about the developmental personnel:

Give details of the developmental personnel

S.No.	Developmental personnel	Whether knowing	Help received	Help needed
1.	B.D.O.			
2.	Dy. Agricultural Officer			
3.	Asst. Educational Officer			
4.	Extension officer (social welfare)			
5.	Rural Welfare Officer (men)			
6.	Rural Welfare officer (women)			
7.	Others			

8. Social participation:

Give details of your participation in social affairs.

S. No.	Membership in	Type of Participation	Benefits	Opinions

9. General opinions:

What are your suggestions to improve your own village?

What should be your contribution to the betterment of your village?

APPENDIX III

RATING SCALE TO JUDGE THE LEADERSHIP QUALITIES OF THE YOUTH CLUB MEMBERS

Name of the member:

Village :

S.No.	Qualities	Scores				
		5	4	3	2	1
1.	Honesty and Integrity					
2.	Vigour					
3.	Intelligence					
4.	Harmony					
5.	Obedience					
6.	Sympathy					
7.	Enthusiasm					
8.	Cooperation					
9.	Cheerfulness					
10.	Self confidence					
11.	Courage					
12.	Sociability					
13.	Courtesy					
14.	Friendliness					

S.No.	Qualities	Scores 5	4	3	2	1
15.	Responsibility					
16.	Service mindedness					
17.	Initiative					
18.	Punctuality					
19.	Organization					
20.	Activeness					
21.	Orginality					
22.	Patience and perseverence					
23.	Participation					

APPENDIX IV

CHECK LIST FOR SELF EVALUATION TO ASSESS THE LEADERSHIP POTENTIALITIES IN THE YOUTH CLUB MEMBERS

(Please tick (√) in relevent columns)

S. No.		Yes	No
1.	Can I take responsibility togather people for a public function?	☐	☐
2.	Do I want to be a leader for a group?	☐	☐
3.	Do I have the ability to address a public meeting?	☐	☐
4.	Do I have the capacity to get help from others in doing a task?	☐	☐
5.	Am I willing to accept my mistakes?	☐	☐
6.	Do I respect the customs of the society?	☐	☐
7.	Do I have the ability to motivate the members in my group to work?	☐	☐
8.	Am I interested in the problems of my fellow beings?	☐	☐
9.	Do I like to share responsibilities with others?	☐	☐
10.	Do I have the capacity to contact local leaders and officials?	☐	☐
11.	Do I have the ability to express my ideas to to others?	☐	☐
12.	Am I steadfast till the completion of an activity?	☐	☐

		YES	NO
13.	Do I consider public work as my own?	☐	☐
14.	Am I confident enough to undertake any task?	☐	☐
15.	Do I set a good example to others in my group?	☐	☐
16.	Do I like to make friends with others?	☐	☐
17.	Do I value the suggestions of others?	☐	☐
18.	Do I have the capacity to plan work ahead?	☐	☐
19.	Do I like all people irrespective of their economic and social status?	☐	☐
20.	Do I agree to follow the rules of the club?	☐	☐
21.	Am I regular to meetings and other activities taken up by the club?	☐	☐
22.	Do I want to improve my general knowledge?	☐	☐
23.	Am I willing to sparetime for others?	☐	☐
24.	Am I punctual in my habits?	☐	☐
25.	Do I have the ability to manage people and materials?	☐	☐