

CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature relating to the “Assessment of MGNREGA in Enhancing Employment and Quality of Life of the Tribal People in selected blocks of Coimbatore District” is discussed under the following headings:

- I. Studies on meaning of tribes
- II. Studies on socio – economic and quality of life of tribal people
- III. Studies on participation of tribal people in MGNREGA
- IV. Studies on impact assessment of MGNREGA
- V. Other related studies

I. Meaning of Tribes:

Rivers (1906) describes tribe as a simple type of social group whose members speak a common dialect and work together at the time of war. (Cit. Nadeem Hasnain, 2007) According to Ralph Linton (1945) “In its simplest form, the tribe is a group of bands occupying a contiguous territory or territories and having a feeling of unity deriving from numerous similarities in culture, frequent contacts and a certain community of interest”. (Cit. Nadeem Hasnain, 2007)

Another definition of a tribe given by Majumdar (1953) is that “a tribe is a collection of families or group of families bearing a common name, members of which occupy the same territory, speak the same language and observe certain taboos regarding marriage, profession or occupation and have developed a well-assessed system of reciprocity and mutuality of obligations”. (Cit. Karmakar, 2002)

Bailey F.G. (1960), who has dealt with the tribal problem in his study of Kondhamal region of Orissa says that a tribal society consists in its, direct command over resources; access to the products of economy by an independent states and its population strength in total region.

Andre Beteille (1960) opines “In this country (India), groups which correspond close to the anthropologist’s conception of tribe, have lived in long association with communities of an entirely different type”. He opines that Indian tribals are no more isolated communities; thus they lack the basic character of a ‘tribe’. He further writes: “In today’s India, therefore, tribes which

answer to the anthropologist's conception of the ideal type are rarely to be found". It is thus clear that Indian tribals should not be compared with African, Australian or American (Red Indian) tribes. In other parts of the world the European people were different by religion, by race and by culture. In India the so - called tribal communities are integral part of Indian society, culture and religion. The Indian society had a long tradition of forest dwelling. Indian tribals racially belong to the same stock as the neighbouring non-tribals like Lodhis and Kurmis of rural eastern Madhya Pradesh. (Cit. Verma, 1996)

According to Naik (1960), "tribes to be a 'tribe' should have the least functional inter-dependence within the community. It should be economically backward, which means: the full import of monetary economics should not be understood by its members; primitive means of exploiting natural resources should be used; the tribe's economy should be at an underdeveloped stage; and it should have multifarious economic pursuits; there should be a comparative geographic isolation of its people from others; culturally, members of a tribe should have a common dialect which may be subject to regional variations; a tribe should be politically organized and its community Panchayat should be an influential institution; the tribe's members should have the least desire to change; they should have a sort of psychological conservatism making them stick to their age old customs; a tribe should have customary laws and its members might have to suffer in a law court because of these laws." He further elaborates that a community to be a 'tribe' must have all these attributes. It might be undergoing acculturation, but the degree of acculturation will have to be determined in the context of its customs, gods, language, etc.; a very high degree of acculturation will automatically debar it from being a tribe. (Cit. Nadeem Hasnain, 2007)

Tracing the origin of the word tribe Verrier Elwin (1963) observe that, "but let me turn to the history of the term and concept 'tribe'. Derived from a Latin root, the middle English term 'tribuz' "meaning the three divisions into which the early Romans were grouped, came to evolve into the modern English 'tribe', ". (Cit. Prakash Chandra Mehata, 2006)

According to Ghurye (1963), 'the common features possessed by all the tribal groups are as follows: they live away from the civilized world in the inaccessible parts in the forests and hills; they speak the same tribal dialect; they belong either to one of the three stocks- Negritos, Austroloid or Mongoloids; they profess primitive religion known as animism in which workshop of ghosts and spirits is the most important element; they follow primitive occupation such as gleaning, hunting and gathering of forest products; they are large carnivorous; they live either

naked or semi-naked; they have nomadic habits and love for drink and dance.” (Cit. Karmakar, 2002)

Majumdar and Madan (1967) stated that, in tribal India “a tribe is definitely a territorial group; a tribe has a traditional territory, and emigrants always refer to it as their home. The Santhals working in the Assam tea gardens refer to particular regions of Bihar (or Chattisgarh) or Bengal as their home. All members of a tribe are not kin of each other, but within every Indian tribe kinship operates as a strong, associative regulative and integrating principle. The consequence is tribal endogamy and the division of a tribe into clans and sub-clans and so on. These clans, etc., being kin groups, are exogamous. Members of an Indian tribe speak one common language, their own or/and that of their neighbours. Intra-tribal conflict on a group scale is not a feature of Indian tribes. Joint ownership of property, wherever present, as for instance among the Hos, is not exclusive. Politically, Indian tribes are under the control of the State governments, but within a tribe there may be a number of Panchayat s corresponding to the heterogeneity, racial and cultural, of the constituent population in a village or in adjacent villages. There are other distinguishing features of Indian tribes. Thus, there are their dormitory institutions; the absence of institutional schooling for boys and girls; distinctive customs regarding birth, marriage, and death; a moral code different from that of Hindus and Muslims; peculiarities of religious beliefs and rituals which may distinguish tribesmen even from the low caste Hindus.” (Cit. Nadeem Hasnain, 2007)

To Mukherjee (1971) a tribe is that human group, whose members have common interest, territory, language, social law and economic occupation. (Cit. Karmakar, 2002)

According to Stephen Fuchs (1973), ‘As far as Indian tribes go, the essentials seem to be only a comparatively simple and primitive economy combined with a certain degree of residential instability, a simple, though not always, classless social organization.

Bardhan (1973) defines the tribe as “course of socio-cultural entity at a definite historical stage of development. It is a single, endogamous community with a cultural and psychological makeup.”

Pathy (1976) was of opinion that ‘a tribe is a tribe which is included in the list of scheduled tribes’.

Kamala Devi Chatopadhyaya (1978) defines “a tribe ordinarily has an ancestor or patron deity. The families or groups composing the larger units are linked through religions and socio-economic functions.”

Majumdar (1980) defined tribe as “a social group with territorial affiliation, endogamous, with no specialization of functions, ruled by tribal officers, hereditary or otherwise, united in language or dialect, recognizing social distance with other tribes or castes, without any social obloquy attaching to them, as it does in the caste structure, followed tribal traditions, beliefs and customs, illiberal of naturalization of ideas from alien sources, above all conscious of homogeneity of ethnic and territorial integration”.

According to Vidyarthi (1981), “the tribe is a social group with definite territory, common name, common district, common culture, behaviour of an endogamous group, common taboos, and existence of distinctive social and political system, full faith in leaders and self-sufficiency in their distinct economy”.

According to Heyward (1991), economically these people occupy the lowest stratum in India. Their conditions of housing, feeding and clothing verge on animal conditions. They are hardly any better clad, fed or housed than cattle. Their children go about naked. Their villages are far away from towns, which are the centers of modern amenities and convenience of life. Their villages as well as their individual houses are built on unhygienic lines. The houses have neither space, nor windows for light and air. Cattle and goats sleep side by side with men. Mats, and some wooden blocks provide the only furniture.

According to Reader’s Digest Encyclopedia Dictionary the English word ‘tribe’ has five different meanings. They are: (i) Group of primitive clan under recognized chiefs, (ii) the word is related to Roman history (Clans of Romans were termed as Tribes), (iii) the word also refers to similar division, either natural or political, (iv) it relates to a unit of taxonomy, (v) the word is used for ‘large numbers’. (Tiwari 1995) Sociologists and anthropologists do not normally differentiate between the ‘aboriginals’ and ‘tribal’s’. For Americans, Red Indians in their own country are the tribal’s. The American Negroes or the Blacks who are still recognized as ‘tribal’s’ in their original African land are no more ‘tribal’s’ in their new homeland even if they are far backward. The new generation of anthropologists has realized the futility of the term tribe applied to Indian forest dwelling communities. (Tiwari, 1995)

A tribe is in an ideal state, a self-contained unit. It constitutes a society in itself. According to anthropologist Nadel, 'Societies are made up of people; societies have boundaries, people either belonging to them or not; and people belong to society in virtue of rules adapting themselves to local situations, with their crude technology.' As most of them are exposed to external situations, the occurrence of interaction and social intercourse is minimum. Thus, their life-style is less in tune with the vein of society. (Verma, 1996)

According to the ILO Convention (2005), "indigenous and tribal peoples are those peoples "whose social, cultural and economic conditions distinguish them from other sections of the national community, and whose status is regulated wholly or partially by their own customs or traditions or by special laws or regulations".

According to Vasudevachary (2006) the word tribe is taken to denote a primary aggregate of people living under primitive or barbarous condition under a head/men or chief. He observes that tribe is a group of families living as community under one or more chiefs, linked by language or customs. There are 427 types among the scheduled tribes dwelling all over India. The tribal population has been gradually increasing from 3.7 percent to 6.6 percent between 1961 and 2001.

The Draft National Tribal Policy (2006) divides the existing primitive tribes into two categories, depending upon their respective degrees of isolation. In the first category are included those which are "insulated from the surrounding populations and placed in isolated ecological environments." Its examples are Jarawa, Sentinelese, Shompass, Cholanaiden etc. The second category includes those tribes (such as Birhor, Chenchu, Jenu Kuruba) which are "located on the fringes of mainstream' population and have some contact with them." (Vinaykumar Srivastava, 2008)

According to Panda (2006); in India, the term 'tribe' has legal and administrative connotations. British Census officials-cum-anthropologists first used the term 'tribe' for the purpose of enumerating social groups in India and the term was used from 1881 to 1931 Censuses. The Government of India Act 1935 used the term 'backward tribe'. The Indian constitution has retained the terminology with slight modification using 'scheduled' in place of 'Backward'.

As per Oxford Dictionary “A tribe is a group of people in a primitive or barbarous stage of development acknowledging the authority of a chief and usually regarding themselves as descendants of a common ancestor”. (Nadeem Hasnain, 2007)

Indian anthropologists have been conscious of a certain lack of fit between what their discipline defines as ‘tribe’ and what they are obliged to define as ‘tribes’, but they have sought a way out of the muddle by calling them all ‘tribes in transition’. This does not settle the issue because in India tribes have always been in transition, at least since the beginning of recorded history. (Sukant Chaudhury et al, 2008)

For Godelier “the tribe is at one and the same time a type of society and a stage of evolution.” As he had put it, the link between the two uses of the term tribe, seen as a type of society and as stage of evolution, is characterized by a specific mode of social organization. (Sukant Chaudhury et al, 2008)

To Niranjana Pani et al (2008) “India is the home to a number of tribes i.e. groups of indigenous people. Their silent rich and varied cultures and identities have enriched and vibrated India’s plural culture. Simply the word ‘tribe’ means a group of families bound together by kinship, usually descending from a common mythical or legendary ancestor, living in a contiguous region, speaking a common language and having a common historical past.”

According to Sinha and Minaketan Behera (2009) the tribal population is identified as the aboriginal inhabitants of our country. They are most vulnerable section of our society living in natural and unpolluted surrounding far away from civilization with their traditional values, customs and beliefs. There has been a long and enduring debate among the social scientists to define a tribe. Notwithstanding the academic exercise, for the purpose of development and administration, the definition given by the Constitution serves our objective. The definition is practically an administrative definition.

According to the Constitution “Any tribe or tribal community or part of or group within any tribe or tribal community as deemed under article 342 are Scheduled Tribes for the purpose of the Constitution”. Thus, the groups which are in the Scheduled list of the President of India are defined as Scheduled Tribes. There is a procedure for including tribal groups in the Scheduled list. The President may, after consulting with the governor of a state, by public notification, specify the tribes which would deem to be Scheduled Tribes in relation to that State.

Communities are notified as Scheduled Tribe under Article 342 of the Constitution based on the characteristics such as -primitive traits, geographically isolated, distinct culture, and shyness of contact with community at large, and economically backward. (Vidya Bhushan et al, 2010)

According to Ramachandra Sahoo and Rajan Kumar Sahoo (2010) a tribe is a collection of families or groups of families bearing a common name, members of which occupy the same territory, speak the same language and observe certain taboos regarding marriage, profession or occupation and have developed a well assessed system of reciprocity and mutuality of obligations. It is an endogamous unit, the members of which confine their marriage within the tribe. They are designated by several popular names like Vanyajati (Castes of forest), Vanavasi, Pahari, Adimjati, Adivasi Janjati (folk people), Anusuchit Janjati (Scheduled Tribes) and so on. They live in the forest, hills and naturally isolated regions and are known by different names meaning either the people of forest and hill or the original inhabitants and so on.

II. Studies on Socio – Economic and Quality of Life of Tribal People

Mishra and Ngullie (2003) attempted to identify the determinant of quality of life of tribals in Dimapur, Nagaland. The study used factor analysis to resolve 113 indicators variables (representing various aspects of quality of life of the respondents in the study area) into fewer comprehensible measures. The study concluded that standard of living and consumption of public goods/services including negative spill - over determine quality of life (QOL) of the residents in the study area. The overall index of quality of life had only a weak relationship with the nature of employment of the residents.

Pattanaik and Kulwinder Singh (2005) studied the socio – economic conditions of Gaddi Tribals in Kangra District of Himachal Pradesh. The study found that about 93 percent of the households had access to piped drinking water, 92 percent had electricity and more than 90 percent were connected by roads. TV sets, newspapers and telephones were largely found in well to do families. The male literacy rate was found to be 80 percent and the female literacy rate was 63 percent. Women of this community are highly empowered and 90 percent of them spend money or go to receive health services without the provision of their men folk. Only 9 percent of the households were landless, about 63.5 percent were marginal holders. The study also found that the sub - tribes like the Gaddi Rajputs, Gaddi Kapoors and Gaddi Bhattas had larger holdings than other sub - tribes.

Muhammad Abu Shadeque Mullah et al (2007) attempted to study about the life style of the tribal people in Bangladesh. The study found that the Chakma was the leading race in terms of population both in urban and rural areas. Bamboo/straw was the most common roofing material of the tribal people and the most commonly used floor material was soil, followed by cement. Earthen flooring was almost universal in rural areas. Pond/Tank or Lake was the major source of water for household work whereas tube wells were the major source of drinking water. Overall only 35 percent of tribal households had hygienic toilet facilities. About 47 percent women and 32 percent of men were agriculture workers. Women were much more frequent than men in agriculture work in both urban and rural areas.

Planning Commission, Government of India (2007) conducted a study on 'Evaluation Study of Livelihood Options, Assets Creation out of Special Component Plan and Tribal Sub Plan schemes and programmes and its impact among Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the States of Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Orissa, Punjab, Haryana and Tamil Nadu' and identified the key socio-economic indicators of the SC and ST development both at present and over a period of time. A stratified sampling method for the selection of 20 districts of seven States was adopted. The study found that the average family size of STs in the Dangs district was 4.12 and in Sabarkantha district it was 4.17, whereas, the average family size was 3.45 in Vadodra and still lower of 2.45 in Junagadh district and 65 percent of the SC beneficiaries of Junagadh district have the land whereas it was only 7.14 percent among STs in Vadodra and 26 percent of STs in Dang beneficiaries have recorded some land. Even the land possessed by them was small (below 2 acres) and most of them are marginal farmers. A quarter of the SC and ST population in the State was still devoid of Pucca (permanent) houses, 18 percent of SC and ST beneficiaries are fetching water from far off places (beyond 50 meters). The position of STs in the State both in the case of land ownership and possession of live stock was still worse than the SCs in the State. The majority of the SC beneficiaries in the Nawanshahr district were agricultural labourers (53 percent), and the rest are non-agricultural labourers (30 percent), artisans (13 percent) and in small trade. But, in the case of Jalandhar district, the sampled beneficiaries are mostly in the category of artisans (27 percent) and petty shop owners (35 percent). All the sampled beneficiaries had electric facility in their homes but most of them have no drainage and sanitary facilities in a proper fashion.

Sinha and Minaketan Behera (2009) in their research study on Changing Socio-economic Condition and Livelihood of Geographically Isolated Tribal Community in Kandhamal and KBK Districts of Orissa found that the from the occupational classification of main workers,

cultivators decreased in both categories over a period of three decades from 1961 to 2001. Nearly 7.72 percent of the households have adopted shifting cultivation as their secondary occupation, which was only 1.83 percent in 2001. Besides less than 1 percent each depends on settled cultivation, Petty business and services. These three areas and wage earning accounted for 8.47 percent in 2001. Thus Dongria Kandha secondary occupation has diversified up to some extent, but concentrated around forest collection and wage earning.

Sundara Rao and Lakshmana Rao (2010) examined the socio economic characteristics of Kondh, Porja, Bagata and Konda Dora tribes with different relational aspects in the interior areas of Paderu and Chintapalle mandals in the Visakhapatnam district. The main focus of this study was to examine the factors influencing inter - tribe variations relating to the determinants of the relative socio-economic backwardness of the selected PTGs when compared to plain tribes. With the help of logistic regression model, the analysis reveals that the relatively higher extent of the social status of the selected PTGs households was determined by their poor levels of literacy (86 percent) and low level of calories intake which in turn determines their health status (30 percent) in the study area. The demographic factor family size did not influence their social status.

Anbazhagan (2010) assessed the socio – economic conditions of tribals in Pothigai hills of Tirunelveli District. The study revealed that the people in Pothigai hills were only settlers and they are called “Kanikars”. They lead a primitive life. They were Hindus by religion, having their own customs and social life and earn their livelihood mostly from agriculture and animal husbandry. They work in various fields such as, fishing, wood cutting, honey collecting, ayurvedic medicinal plants, goat farming and food gathering.

Sanzidur Rahman and Shaheen Akter (2010) analysed livelihood security using household survey data in two regions in Bangladesh. The study identified 33 security indicators identified from the data set and broadly grouped them under five security domains: economic security, food security, health security, educational security and empowerment for the construction of Household livelihood security index. For the study data were drawn from the SHAHAR (Supporting Household Activities for Health, Assets and Revenue) project implemented by CARE-Bangladesh for the purpose of intervention aiming to establish household livelihood security for vulnerable urban households. The SHAHAR Baseline Survey was conducted in slums and low-income settlements in August 2000 within the municipal areas of Jessore and Tongi districts (CARE 2001). In Jessore all security variables (economic, food,

health, education and empowerment) were highly significant determinants of household livelihoods security (HLS). The contribution of economic security at the margin was the highest to overall livelihoods security. In Tongi, the effect was lower relative to Jessore. The study revealed that the economic, health, education and empowerment enhancing programmes would produce slightly higher livelihood impact in Jessore than Tongi.

Pradeepta Kumar Mohanty (2010) analysed socio – economic and demographic trends of the scheduled tribes in Orissa. The study indicates that agriculture was the most dominant activity among the tribal population; in 1981 it shares 71.1 percent and in the year of 1991 and 2001 the percentages of agricultural labourers were 73.31 and 80.20 respectively.

Beck and Mishra (2010) in their study on Socio-Economic Profile and Quality of Life of Selected Oraon Tribal Living in and around Sambalpur Town, Orissa carried out during 2008-09 examined the quality of life led by this group of tribal population. The study revealed that most of the natives live in kaccha houses with khupar roof and more over many of these houses were made up of two rooms without kitchen. The hygienic conditions of the houses were poor and no toilet facility was available in the houses. There was no water supply from the government, they collect drinking water from the bore well of one household paying for it. They go to nearby river for bathing and washing clothes. All the native Oraons use wood collected and/or purchased as their fuel except few who uses kerosene stoves and electric heaters as cooking fuel. All of them have supply of electricity to their houses. None of the families own vehicles, only one family have an auto rickshaw which carry goods and 45 percent have a bicycle.

Chandra Sheaker and Subramanya (2011) explored different development aspects of tribes in Karnataka. The study reported that the tribal population in Karnataka increased from 19.16 lakh in 1991 to 34.64 lakh in 2001. The literacy rate among scheduled Tribes, which was 36.0 percent in 1991, increase to 48.3 percent in 2001. According to the 2001 census was around half the ST population were in the workforce. More than 85 percent of the working populations were in rural areas. Largest percentages of rural ST households (12.8) reported rent as a source of income followed by wages / salaried employment (9.7), cultivation (7.7), fishing and other agricultural enterprises (6.7).

Thomas (2011) attempted to study the life style, income and expenditure status of Nomadic Tribes in Vellore District of Tamil Nadu. The study found that out of 473 families based in 14 settlements the largest one was at Agaramcherry with 53 families. About 93.2 percent of

the respondents were illiterates, 98.3 percent of the respondents were hawkers (others like hunters, folk healers fortune tellers etc, and 98.5 percent were from nuclear family. Total monthly incomes of two years were Rs. 22820.02 and Rs. 2259.35 respectively.

Arulselvam and Maheswari (2011) conducted a study to observe the dynamics of demographic profile and living conditions of the Irula community. The study shows that majority of the tribals were in the age category of 22 – 35 years. Only around 2.69 percent of tribal were found in the age group of above 55 years. Majority of the Irula tribe in the study area (95.83 percent) live in nuclear family. None of the respondents had completed graduate level of education. Nearly less than half of the respondents were illiterate. Most of the tribals around 80.55 percent were depending on agriculture work. Around 50 percent of tribal families were living in thatched houses. About 26.52 had drinking water from Panchayat. Most of the tribal families (59.02 percent) used firewood for cooking purpose. About 53.47 percent of tribal families had electricity facility and some 45.19 percent of tribal families prefer to go government hospitals for the treatment.

Annapoorani and Krithiga (2011) studied the socio economic status of Irula tribals in Coonoor taluk of Nilgiris District in Tamil Nadu. The study reveals that majority of family members were doing the work of farming. About 44 percent of the families were getting the family income of below Rs. 5000, Of the total families covered 60 percent belonged to small family and 40 percent represents large family.

Godwin and Parthasarty (2011) analysed the socio – economic conditions among the Malayali tribe of Kolli Hills in Namakal District of TamilNadu. The study reveals that 49 percent of the respondents were in age group of 36 – 40 years; 53 percent of them were males. About 78 percent of the respondents were Hindus and were married. Regarding their educational status 40 percent of the tribal's were illiterate and the rest of them had secondary level of education. About 40 percent of the respondents were engaged in agriculture and the rest of them worked as daily wage earners in various areas.

Pathania (2011) attempted to study the socio - economic and livelihood pattern of Gaddi and Gujjar tribes of Himachal Pradesh. The study observed that the average family size of Gujjars and Gaddis was 6.26 and 5.72 respectively. In case of Gujjars above 50 percent of males and 82 percent females were illiterate. Average per annum total income of Gujjars was Rs. 101,133 out of which 98.96 percent was contributed by buffalo rearing. The contribution of

agriculture was only 1.64 percent in total income. The family income of Gaddi was noticed to be Rs. 82273. The average livestock holding in case of Gujjars was 13.76 animals per household. The number of sheep and goats per household was about 125 and 55 respectively by the Gaddi households.

Tidke and Pawar (2011) undertook a research study on living status of Banjara and Vanjari tribes in Aurangabad District. The study found based on comparative study of monthly expenditure of Banjara tribes and Vanjari community that Banjara families average more than Vanjari families in the group of expenses between Rs. 0 to 1000/- . On the contrary Vanjari family's average was more than Banjara families in the group of Rs. 2501 to Rs. 3500. Banjara families possess land between 1 to 7 acres than the Vanjar community. In Banjara community 57.9 percent families were educated and 42.1 percent were uneducated. In Vanjari community 70.11 percent families were educated and 29.89 percent were uneducated. Banjara families' annual income was between the range of Rs. 21000 and Rs. 30000 whereas Vanjar families were between Rs. 51000 to 75000.

Rajangam (2011) attempted to study the socio - economic condition of Kadar tribal's in Tamil Nadu. The study observed that about 54.28 percent of the respondents had studied up to primary level education and only 10 percent of respondents studied up to high school level. The occupation details of the respondents depicts that around 35.7 percent of respondents were estate workers, about 45.71 percent were daily wage workers and 18.57 percent were in other occupations. Regarding the annual income of the respondents, the study reveals that 45.71 percent belongs to the category of Rs. 10000 to Rs. 20000. More number of the respondents lived in the thatched type of houses and only 10 percent of the respondents lived in the pucca houses.

Chandrasheaker and Subramanya (2011) examined different developmental aspects of tribes in Karnataka. They observed that the tribal population of Karnataka increased to 34.64 lakh in 2001 from 19.16 lakh in 1991. The literacy rate among scheduled tribes was 36 percent in 1991 which increased to 48.3 percent in 2001. The annual per capita income of rural scheduled tribes was Rs. 4768 as compared with Rs. 10987 for urban scheduled tribes. About 7.65 percent of scheduled tribes were cultivators, 11.86 percent were agricultural labourers and 4.70 were engaged in household industry.

Bigi Thomas and Ruby Bhatia (2012) evaluated the impact of NREGA Scheme on the overall quality of its beneficiaries in Anand, Kheda and Panchmahal districts of Gujarat State. For the purpose of evaluating the impact of NREGA on improvement in the quality of life, the study assessed indicators such as economic condition, purchasing power and consumption of food and non - food items, health and nutrition, education of children, household and cultivable asset creation, social life of beneficiaries in terms of their participation in social and religious programmes and organizations. The study revealed that the positive impact of NREGA on quality of life in terms of non – food items like possession of vehicles and mobiles rather than food items like milk, milk products, rice, cereals etc., but at the same time no substantial change could be observed in the health and nutritional aspects, education and overall development of the beneficiaries and their families. The major changes reported by the beneficiaries were increase in income and improvement in debt clearance.

Sajeev et al., (2012) used Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) to analyse the poverty and its dimensions, also the ways in which poverty affects the daily sustenance of the poor in Chittorgarh district of Rajasthan. All the households were categorized into four categories such as rich, medium, poor and very poor based on wealth rank in the study area and the data was collected from each the categorised farmers. Livelihood analysis was used to find out the degrees to which the pattern of life differs from one social class to another social class in term of size of family, size of landholding, type of house, implements, annual income, source of income, expenditure pattern, crisis management pattern, indebtedness etc. The study found with respect to the size of land holdings the rich farmer had 50 percent more than the size of the medium and 9 times that of the poor farmers. The rich farmers received monthly income equally from agriculture and business, while the medium and poor farmers were solely depended on agriculture for their income. The very poor farmers depended on agriculture and other enterprises such as black smithy but with very poor returns. From the expenditure pattern the study observed that the rich farmers were more inclined to save nearly 25 percent of his monthly income, while the poor farmers was always in need of loan to meet his monthly needs since no saving pattern was observed. As a consequence the crises analysis indicated that the poor farmers as well as the medium farmers usually takes a loan of 50 percent towards meeting any calamities faced in their agricultural and livestock sectors as well as meeting day to day expenses which continue to make them poorer.

Pattanaik (2012) studied socio economic needs of the Gaddi tribals in Himachal Pradesh. The sample consists of 343 Gaddi households, comprising Gaddi Rajput, Gaddi

Brahmin, Gaddi Scheduled Castes, etc. The study found that more than 50 percent of Scheduled Tribes were landless, the main occupation was sheep rearing and more than 90 percent of Gaddi women were empowered to spend money independently.

Swati Gupta and Farhat Bano Beg (2012) attempted to study the socio economic conditions of Gujjar Tribe in Jammu and Kashmir. The study reveals that the maximum population of Gujjars reside in three tehsils namely Haveli, Mahendhar and Surnkote of Poonch district surrounded from three sides by Pakistan border. The local Gujjars are mostly inhabitants of this district which include various sub - tribes of Nomadic Bakerwals. The literacy rate among them was 31 percent. Gujjars are spread almost all the regions of Jammu & Kashmir. The state of Jammu & Kashmir had seen the advent of Gujjars during 9th and 10th century A.D. Known as one of the ancient races of India, they form distinct cultural background. They are milk selling community and economically very poor.

Mohanraj and Karthikeyan (2012) studied socio - economic impact of MGNREGA on beneficiaries in Coimbatore District. The study found that about 42.50 percent of the beneficiaries were belonged to older age group and 30.83 percent were in younger age group. About 55 percent of the beneficiaries had MGNREGA as their sole occupation and only 7.50 percent had agriculture as their main occupation. Nearly 45 percent of the beneficiary's food and non - food expenditure had increased after joining the MGNREGA. The additional employment under MGNREGA had increased the annual per capita income. About 72 percent of the beneficiarie's income had significantly increased and about 37 percent cleared their debts.

Chinnadurai et al., (2012) analysed the livelihood security status of the two dry – land taluks in the Bellary district of Karanataka. They have used components like income and assets, food and nutrition, education, participation, water, sanitation, primary health and reproductive health to estimate livelihood security status. The main objective of their study was to construct livelihood security index for 120 sample households based on existing agriculture and non – agricultural activities, classified into marginal, small and medium households. The study revealed that income from agriculture and allied activities formed the major share (86.7 percent) of the sample households with medium land – holdings, and lowest among marginal households (42.62 percent). During lean season the marginal households were able to fend themselves off better as they could switch to other non – agricultural options but small and medium households found it difficult to pursue options other than farming. The overall livelihood security index was

high among medium (53.65 percent) compared with small (46.43 percent) and marginal households (38.44 percent).

Sinu (2013) studied the living conditions of the Irular tribes in Villupuram District, Tamil Nadu. The results of the study show that majority (60 percent) of the respondents were less than 45 years, 70 percent were living as joint families, 66 percent were illiterate and only 5 percent of the Irular tribes studied up to higher secondary level. About 84 percent of the respondent's housing was inadequate and they live in mud and thatched house. Around 54 percent involved in agricultural and building construction work. Majority of the respondents (80 percent) did not have the habit of saving. The study concluded that the living conditions of Irular tribal community were poor.

Emmanuel and Rajan (2013) assessed the social status of married women in the Irula community at Kunjapannai, Nilgris. The study framed the following hypothesis: age, monthly income and level of education might influence the social status of the married women. The researchers selected 60 respondents by using purposive sampling technique. The study observed that among the 60 respondents 33.4 percent belonged to the age group of 31 – 40, 23.3 percent belonged to the age group of 41 – 50, 23.3 percent belonged to the age group of 51 above and 20 percent belonged to the age group of less than 30. About 40 percent of the respondents earn less than Rs. 1000 per month, 36.7 percent of the respondents earn more than Rs. 2001 per month, 23.3 percent of the respondents earn between Rs. 1001 – Rs. 2000 per month. The respondent's education status indicated that 46.7 percent completed secondary level education, 33.3 percent primary level education and 20 percent higher secondary level of education. The analysis revealed that there was no significant association between age and social status of the married women, no significant association between monthly income and social status and no significant association between the level of education and social status.

Gopalasundar and Chithra (2013) assessed the socio – economic characteristics of tribals in terms of inequalities in income, expenditure, land holding and consumption pattern in Trichirappalli district. An analysis of income distribution of 300 sample households among three tribal areas reveals that 61 percent of the sample households earn annual income ranging from Rs. 3000 to Rs. 12000. About 69 percent of the tribal households hold land less than 3 acres. Small land holdings by the tribal households could be the major reason for poor cultivation that results in less income.

Shankar and Manimaran (2013) examined socio - economic conditions of Pachamalai tribe in Tiruchirappalli District of Tamil Nadu. The study indicates that about 36 percent of the respondents were in the age group of 35 -45 years. More than one fourth of the respondents belonged to the age group of 25 – 35 years; about 29 percent were in the age group of 45 and above. Around 57 percent were from nuclear family and 43 percent were from joint family. About 69 percent were educated and 31 percent were uneducated. The study also found that less than half (42 percent) of the respondents reside under roofs, 23 percent reside in tiled house and 17 percent of the respondents reside in hut and concrete house respectively.

Vijaykumar et al., (2014) studied the socio - economic condition of tribals in Maharashtra. The study observed that majority of the tribals in Thane District of Maharashtra belonged to Hindu religion. About 70 percent were literate while 30 percent had no formal education. Majority of them (64.6 percent) were housewives and 20.9 percent were skilled workers, and about 13.6 percent were engaged in unskilled type of work. Around 37.3 percent of the women belonged to the BPL category.

Seraphinus Kispotta (2014) studied socio - economic conditions of the tribals in Chhattisgarh. The study indicates that 51 percent of the head of the households were illiterate, while 24 percent had completed primary schools and only 1percent completed graduation. About 88 percent lived in pure kaccha house, whereas 10 percent lived in semi-kaccha houses and 2 percent had pacca houses.

Balin Hazarika et al., (2014) analysed the socio - economic status of SC/ST community. The study reveals that out of 50 respondents 24 percent of respondents were in the age group of less than 35 years, about 56 percent between 35 – 50 years and the rest 20 percent were above 50 years. Out of fifty respondents 8 percent were illiterate, 26 percent were matriculate, 36 percent had passed higher secondary, 20 percent completed graduate and the rest 10 percent were post – graduate. Over 90 percent of the respondents were educated. About 74 percent of the respondents were married while 26 percent of the respondents were unmarried. The study observed that out of fifty respondents, 74 percent of the respondents live in nuclear family and other 26 percent live in joint family. About 38 percent of respondents earn a monthly income in the range of Rs. 5001 – 10000 followed by 28 percent earning income in the range between Rs. 10001 – 20000 and 24 percent earning over Rs. 20000 per month.

Nisha and Asokhan (2015) evaluated the livelihood condition of tribal women in Nilgiris District. The study revealed that 56.67 percent of the tribal women were illiterates, followed by functionally literates (28.33 percent), middle education (10.83 percent) and primary education (4.17 percent). About 46.67 percent belonged to income category of Rs. 19,501 to Rs. 24,500 and 36.67 percent were earned annual income less than Rs. 19,500 and less than 16.66 percent were in income category of more than Rs. 24,500.

Arook Toppo et al., (2016) assessed the socio-economic condition of tribal people in Bangladesh. The study found that about 60.94 percent were involved in agricultural activities. Around 22.14 percent dependent on their own cultivable land for production, 5.99 percent were engaged in various formal and non-formal service sectors, 2.34 percent were involved in livestock rearing and 2.86 percent tribal households were involved in small business activities. The average monthly income of the households earned that about 50.2 percent of the households earned up to Rs. 4000.00 per month and only 3.13 percent earned income more than Rs. 6000.

Radhika (2016) studied the socio economic culture and quality life of tribal people in Visakhapatnam district. The study observes that the female literacy rate among Tribal's was far lower (34.76) percent as compared to overall female literacy for the country (53.67 percent). Agriculture was the main occupation of the Tribal's. Their income was supplemented by collection and sale of minor forest produce.

Jayakumar and Palaniyammal (2016) studied the socio economic condition of tribal people at Kalrayan Hills. The study indicates that 51 percent were in the age group of 21-30 years, 16 percent were in 31 to 40 years age category 12 percent below 20 years age category, 11 percent were 41-50 age group, and 10 percent were above 50 years. About 42 percent were illiterate, 30 percent completed their primary school level (SSLC), 19 percent completed SSLC, 7 percent completed HSC Level and only 2 percent completed Degree level. Majority (83 percent) depends on agriculture occupations and 10 percent were in daily wage category. Around 30 percent earned monthly income less than Rs. 5,000, 23 percent earned monthly income between Rs. 5001-10000 and only 10 percent earned a monthly income of above Rs. 15001.

Jayatra Mandal and Puspita Sengupta (2016) analysed the socio – economic status of tribal people in the state of West Bengal. About 34.75 percent of the males and 27.93 percent of

the females were literates. Illiteracy rate was more in female population than male. Around 55 percent were lived in kutcha and only 4 percent lived in concrete house. About 59 percent were engaged in agricultural activity. Around 97 percent of the family used fire wood for cooking.

Raimal Pappachan and Stanly Joseph (2017) in their study on Intra – Tribal disparities in Kerala found that the Paniyan was the most populous tribe with a population of 18.24 percent of the scheduled tribes in the State. The sex ratio was higher among the Paniya, Mavilan and Kuruman community. The literacy rate of STs in the state was 75.8 percent. The literacy rate of Malai Arayan community was the highest among the STs. About 70 percent were engaged in agricultural activities.

Ponnarasu and Madevan (2017) examined socio - economic conditions of the Tribal peoples of the Nilgiri District. The study found that the literacy rate of the tribal people was 85.20; poverty was found among 40 percent of the ST population.

III. Studies on Participation of Tribal People in MGNREGA:

Dhaliwal and Chahal (2007) analysed the determinants of rural non - farm employment in Punjab .The study was conducted in three broad agro climatic zones i.e. central zone , sub mountainous zone and south - western zone .The study observed that a higher number of earners were employed in the farm sector in Zone - I and III, and in non- farm sector in Zone II .The analysis of determinants of rural non- farm employment revealed that the number of persons in farm employment ,education ,herd size and age of the head of the household were the significant determinants of non- farm employment in the rural Punjab. Besides, total number of workers in a household was found to significantly influence the rural non- farm employment in Zones II, III and at the overall level. Further, the farm size and family size in Zone I and at the overall level only had a significant bearing on the rural non-farm employment.

Maja Milcevska and Dil Bahadur Rahut (2008) examined the individual, household and geographical determinants of participation in non – farm income generating activities in the states of Sikkim and West Bengal. The study concluded that the education of the household head increases income from skilled wage labour and has no effect on unskilled wages. In Sikkim, incomes derived from high – return non – farm activities and particularly from skilled wage employment were higher, whereas incomes from unskilled wage employment were lower, indicating the importance of regional opportunities for non – farm wage employment.

Sanjoy Roy (2010) evaluated the performance of the MGNREGA in Tripura. The study observed that in 2008-09 the average employment per household in Tripura was 64 days. The percentage of tribal participation was more than 45 and about 92 percent of total works were completed.

Venkataraman et al., (2011) assessed performance of MGNREGA in Keerapalayam Block in Cuddalore District of Tamil Nadu. The study found that the average employment generated was 119 person-days per annum, which earned an average wage of Rs. 89.23 per day. The beneficiaries were from both scheduled castes (45 percent) and other castes (55 percent). The block had also created assets like road connectivity (70 Nos), water conservations (11 Nos), renovation of water bodies (272 Nos) and irrigation channels (299 Nos) under MGNREGA works.

Joginder Singh Saklani (2012) studied the implementation of the transparency safeguards, worksite facilities and the various aspects of MGNREGA in Mandi District of Himachal Pradesh. The study found that the majority of the workers were aware of MGNREGA but they did not know about the different provisions or aspects of the scheme. The ward member was the main source of knowledge about MGNREGA and majority of them had knowledge of 100 days of job employment but they did not know about the provision. The study found that people as well as representatives of the Panchayat s were unaware of the process of social audit and it has never taken place in the study area.

Shibananda Nayak (2012) attempted to identify the factors that motivate participation of real stakeholders in the MGNREGA in India. The study was based on primary data. The study revealed that awareness, age, caste, years of education, household size, political affiliation and BPL card holding are positive predictors of participation in MGNREGA programmes, whereas gender, per capita land holding, off-farm opportunities and annual family income are negative predictors of participation in the programme.

Sivasankari and Bharathi (2012) analyzed the awareness of beneficiaries on Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) in Tirunelveli district of Tamil Nadu. The results of the study revealed that the beneficiaries have adequate awareness on registration for employment, employment, wage payment, facilities at the workplace and records in workplace. In addition, the beneficiaries who have studied higher secondary level have more awareness on MGNREGA than others.

Rosemary Varkey (2012) studied awareness level of beneficiaries in Malappuram District of Kerala. The study revealed that 90 percent of NREGS workers in the study area were aware of the provisions related to 100 days of work, 74.2 percent were aware about provision of work within 15 days of demand; 81.7 percent of the beneficiaries aware about Gram Sabha approval for work and about 92.5 percent were aware about facilities available at worksites. Nearly half of the participants aware about the norms related to unemployment allowance and the responsibility of Gram Panchayat in providing the work. Only 6.7 percent of the participants aware about issues related to social audit and toll free number available for them to register their complaints.

Chinnadurai (2012) studied awareness among the beneficiaries and participation in programme in Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. The study reported that about 37.1 percent were illiterates. About 52.2 mainly depended on agriculture work. Only 33 percent were aware about the functioning of various committees in social audit. Regarding the number of members allowed to work under MGNREGA in a day reveals that about 74 percent of beneficiaries said only one member in a family can participate in the programme.

John and George (2012) studied the implementation of MGNREGA in the southern States of India of Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Kerala and Andhra Pradesh based on people's perception, social audit reports and media focus on MGNREGA. The study was conducted in one successful and one not so successful Panchayat s of each of the four States. The study observed that the wages received before MGNREGA in rupees per day in Panchayat area of southern States was Rs. 125 and above, wages received after joining the MGNREGA was in the range of Rs. 80 – 125 approximately. The researcher observed that Andhra Pradesh has more number of Gram Panchayat s (21860) whereas Tamil Nadu has the least 540 among the four States of India. Female workforce was highest in Kerala and Andhra Pradesh. The study also found that there was no adequate awareness on MGNREGA scheme among the people in not so successful Panchayat.

Smita Nayak (2013) attempted to examine the potencies and loopholes in the existing MGNREGA and its impact on tribal women in Rajgangpur Block of Odisha. From the survey of general awareness about the MGNREGA the study found that out of 40 respondents 42.5 percent of them got information through Panchayat office, 25 percent of them came to know from Sarpanch, whereas 15 percent of them were informed by their neighbours and 10 percent and 7.5 percent respectively by Grama Sathi and Panchayat officials. Regarding the

employment days of work, it was found that a great majority (92.5 percent) of them were aware of 100 guaranteed days. The study observed regarding the participation level in Gram Sabha meetings, about 57.5 percent of them have participated and rest of the respondents were not aware about the importance of their presence and hence were engaged in household activities.

Bipul De and Sebak Jana (2013) identified the socio economic determinants of participation in MGNREGA in Bamkur district of rural West Bengal. The study used regression analysis to identify the determinants of participation of households in MGNREGA programme. The variables included in the study were annual employment days from MGNREGA, family size, monthly expenditure of the household, maximum number of days waited by the household for payment, number of days of employment in a year other than MGNREGA, distance from village to main road, land holding of the household, and ownership pattern of mobile phones. The study reveals that significant positive factors affecting the participation in MGNREGA were family size, land holding, economic status and the regional difference of MGNREGA activity in the same district. Similarly the significant negative factors affecting the participation in MGNREGA were expenditure per month, waiting days to collect the payment, other employment days and distance. The study also found that the lack of awareness of the respondents about the scheme with only 55 percent being aware about implementation of the programme. Less than 50 percent were aware about the right to apply for work at any time. Only 21 percent of them know the application procedure and 87.5 percent was unaware about the right to get unemployment allowance.

Soumyendra Kishore Datta and Krishna Singh (2014) in their study on “Job participation in NREGA programme and perceived livelihood benefits: case study in Burdwan District in West Bengal” analysed the major determinants of participation in MGNREGA scheme. The study revealed that household size had positive significant impact on employment days and education had negative impact on the employment days. Regarding the perception level about MGNREGA the study found that about 70 percent of sample households were aware of the provision of 100 days of employment and the awareness about entitlement to receive payment within 15 days was very poor (39 percent).

Bushra Mateen (2015) assessed performance of MGNREGA in Uttarakhand. The study observes that out of the total job card issued in 2010-2011, 213266 were issued to SC; in 2013-2014, it rose to 224307. Total job card issued to ST in 2010-11 was 37444 which rose to 39948 and to Non SC / ST from 781231, 2010 - 2011 to 848970 in 2013 - 2014. The difference in

number of job card issued in different category was due to variations in population and due to their economic conditions.

Saleem Akhtar Farooqi and Imran Saleem (2015) assessed the participation rate of women in MGNREGA. The analysis reveals that participation of women in MGNREGA activities was very low in the surveyed region and religion, income of family from other sources and profession of the respondents has significant impact on their participation in MGNREGA. On an average 35 percent women were aware about minimum wage payment in MGNREGA. About 75 percent were aware about payment of wages within 15 days, none of them aware about unemployment allowance. The level of awareness about worksite facilities and provision of guaranteed 100 days employment was very poor (20 percent).

Ashok Kumar (2016) studied the performance and progress of MGNREGA in Mysore District, Karnataka. The study observed that the overall total fund available to Mysuru District was 10798.73 lakhs and the actual expenditure incurred was 10030.05 lakhs. In the years 2014-15, 2015-16 and 2016-17, the actual expenditure was Rs. 4378.16, Rs. 3696.79 and 1955.10 respectively. In the financial year 2014-15 out of 1,90,797 job cards issued about 35881 cards were issued to SCs beneficiaries, 20567 Cards to STs beneficiaries and 1,34,349 cards issued to others category beneficiaries in the period of 2014-15. In 2015-16, out of total cards issued (2,03,387), 39,349 cards were issued SC, 22,979 cards to STs and 1,41,059 cards to other beneficiaries and 2016-17 out of 2,04,645 cards issued, 39,636, 23,026 and 1,41,983 were used to SCs, STs and other category beneficiaries respectively. The overall employment provided was 24, 27,854. In the year 2015-16 maximum numbers of people got employed and the number stood at 14, 10,319. The minimum number of members got employment in the year 2016-17 and the number stood at 2, 14,809, of which 5, 08,193 were under SC category, 3, 12,742 were under ST category, 16, 06,919 belong to others category and 11, 12,612 were women got employed under MGNREGA in Mysuru district. In 2014-15 total works generated was 22,825, 8,476 in 2015-16 and 2,183 in 2016-17, of which the highest works under taken was rural sanitation among three financial year, followed by provision of irrigation facility, other works, rural connectivity, land development, flood control and protection and water conservation and water harvesting etc.,

Kumar Amaresh and Rajiv Ranjan (2016) examined the implementation of Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) in rural areas of Madhubani District. The study observed that wide inter-district variation in the performance of MGNREGS.

In 2012-13, the maximum number of job cards was issued in Madhubani (6.91 lakhs), followed by Muzaffarpur (6.4 lakhs). Less than one lakh job cards were issued in small districts of Sheohar (0.88 lakhs), Sheikhpura (0.95 lakhs) and Arwal (0.95 lakhs). The SC households represent 38.52 percent of the households with job cards. The rural connectivity project had dominated the scheme, accounting for nearly 40 percent of the total projects. The second most important category was water conservation.

Garima Dikshit and Seema Sharma (2017) assessed the participation rate of scheduled tribes in MGNREGA in Rajasthan. The study indicates that about 15 percent of scheduled tribes participated in MGNREGA and also the study found that the person day's generation for scheduled tribe account for 37 percent.

IV. Studies on Impact Assessment of MGNREGA:

Kareemulla et al., (2010) besides focusing on the use of soil and water conservation structures for agriculture, studied the impact of livelihoods on the beneficiaries in four major States namely Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Maharashtra. Anantapur, Udaipur, Yevatmal and Bellary districts represented selected districts in the sample States. The study revealed that water conservation and water harvesting followed by land development were the major work categories in Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Maharashtra, whereas provision of irrigation followed by rural connectivity comprised the major work categories in Rajasthan. In almost all the study districts, the migration level had come down due to the implementation of MGNREGA. The reduction in migration was the highest in Anantapur. Majority of the works taken up under MGNREGS are related to NRM and are mostly soil and water conservation works. The works basically resulted in assets for the agricultural community which in a way add to the capital formation in agriculture.

Mani and Manikandan (2010) assessed the working of rural employment guarantee scheme in a village Panchayat in Tamil Nadu. They found that out of those who availed employment opportunity, the female form a majority (57 percent). Half of the respondents were educated at primary level and another half were educated at middle level and above. A vast majority of the respondents (73 percent) were basically landless agricultural labourers and the rest were marginal famers and non-farmers. Only 26 percent of the respondents had completed 100 days of employment and rest lie between 50 to 70 days of employment. Most of the beneficiaries were not fully aware of the Act and the scheme. The study reveals that no

discrimination was seen while selecting the beneficiaries, gender-wise and caste-wise. The scheme has really contributed to increase employment opportunity and income, in creating facilities and assets for the community as a whole and in promoting people's participation in decision-making through bottom-up plan.

Channaveer et al., (2011) examined the farm labour migration in the Gulbarga district of Karnataka based on the primary data obtained from 120 samples farmers belonging to five village Panchayat s. It has been observed that in the MGNREGA-implemented villages, the extent of migration of male labourers has been considerably higher (19.7 percent) in comparison with female labourers (12.5 percent). The wage rate received by women in the market has been found to be less (Rs. 80 / day) than the wage rates under MGNREGA works (Rs. 100 / day) while the market wage rate of male was higher (Rs. 145 / day) than the wage rate under the scheme. The majority of the migrant labourers from the MGNREGA-implemented villages are reported to migrate for a period of 90–180 days and work as construction workers and helpers in factories. Non-availability of jobs in the village and provision of better employment opportunities have been found as the main reasons for out-migration of labour in the MGNREGA-implemented villages in the district of Gulbarga.

Shobha and Vinitha (2011) analysed the socio – economic conditions of women beneficiaries of SC / ST community in two Panchayat s Peedampalli and Pattanam in Suler block of Coimbatore District. The study used direct judgment method and variant of quantitative judgment method to measure the benefits, awareness and problems. The study found that the number of married women beneficiaries was 78 percent in Pattanam village Panchayat and about 88 percent of the women beneficiaries came from nuclear family. In Peedampalli about 48 percent of the women beneficiaries belonged to the age group of 40 – 60 years. More than 60 percent of the women beneficiaries were illiterate. Before joining MGNREGA the average family income of the women beneficiaries in the Peedampalli Panchayat was Rs. 666, but in Pattanam it was slightly more (Rs. 726). The total average family income was Rs. 696. After joining MGNREGA the average family income for the women beneficiaries in the Peedampalli Panchayat was Rs. 1558, this was slightly more when compared to the women beneficiaries in Pattanam (Rs.1414) and the total average family income was Rs. 1486. Based on 't' test the study concluded that there was significant difference in the income earned and monthly family expenditure incurred by the women beneficiaries after joining MGNREGA. The authors found that in both the village Panchayats were aware about the rules and regulations of MGNREGA. Kruskal Wallis H test was used to find out whether there exists any significant difference in their

opinion on the benefits received by the beneficiaries from MGNREGA. The opinion of the women beneficiaries significantly varied for a particular benefits namely education of children (9.058).

Vanitha et al., (2011) in their study observed that among the total number of works executed under MGNREGS in the sample villages, 96.8 percent have been natural resource management works and 74.2 percent community works. Among the total participants and non-participants of MGNREGS, 70 percent in each case were agricultural labourers. Of the total income earned by participants and non participants, a major proportion was from agricultural labour work (60.55 percent and 52.59 percent, respectively), followed by crop cultivation (24.95 percent and 47.41 percent, respectively) and MGNREGS (14.50 percent in case of participants). Average annual person-days of employment generated from MGNREGS works was 57. About 68 percent of landless participants derived 28 percent of their household income from MGNREGS compared to only 6 percent in case of participants with land. The study found that, there has been reduction in the supply of labour to agriculture to the extent of 40.67 person - days per year on an average after the implementation of MGNREGS. Hence, MGNREGS works need to be executed only during offseason.

Shubhadeep Roy (2011) assessed the before and after impact of MNREGA on the livelihood security of the beneficiaries in two districts, Burdwan and South Dinajpur of West Bengal. To measure the livelihood security of the respondent's household, a livelihood security index (LSI) was computed. The components included in the LSI were food security, income security, habitat security, educational security, health security, social security and environmental security. The analysis revealed that, the mean livelihood security score for the respondents before MNREGA was 34.03 with a standard deviation of 6.979. The livelihood security score before MNREGA varied from a range of 10.63 to 53.54. The mean livelihood security score for the respondents after MNREGA was 47.12 with a standard deviation of 6.721. The livelihood security score after MNREGA varied from a range of 32.58 to 67.34. Changes had been found on livelihood security of the respondents before and after implementation of MNREGA in the study area. Majority of the respondents (80.5percent) were found to be fallen under low livelihood security category before MNREGA. But after working under MNREGA, majority (82.5 percent) of them were found to be fallen under medium livelihood security category.

Palanichamy (2011) studied the socio – economic conditions of MGNREGA beneficiaries from Thuinjapuram block Thiruvannamalai district in Tamilnadu. The study found

that the male percentage was 51 and female respondents were 49 percentages in the sample area. The percentage of male population was more than the female population in the sample respondents. About sixty five percent of the respondents were doing agriculture work, thirty four percent of the respondents were working in labour works like daily wage, construction, coolies etc., The expenditure on food was increased from 8 percent to 16 percent after joining the scheme in the expenditure range Rs. 701 - 800.

Hadke Pradeep (2011) studied the impact of MGNREGS on reducing rural poverty. The study found that under MGNREGS in 2007–08, about 3.39 crores households were provided employment and 143.5 crores person day employment was generated in 330 districts. In 2008–09 (up to July), 253 crores households were provided employment and 85.3 crores person days were generated. The scheme had enhanced wage earnings, leading to strengthening of the livelihood resource-base of the rural poor in India. The programme has depicted high work participation of marginalized groups like SC/ST (57 percent) and women (43 percent) in 2007–08.

Krishnan and Balakrishnan (2012), attempted to study the impact of MGNREGA on poverty alleviation in Madurai district, Tamil Nadu. The study observed that during the year 2009-10 there were 397 households registered for employment under MGNREGA which constitutes 61.0 percent of the total households of the village and reveals that more than half of the 16, (52.8 percent) respondents out of the 30 sample households interviewed have earned more than Rs. 8000 during the year 2009-10 and it was 14 (46.7 percent) in the year 2010-11 pertaining to nine months. The major portions of the downtrodden people's income were spent on food consumption and the impact of the programme has improved level of food consumption among the respondents in the study area.

Samik Shome et al., (2012) analysed the effectiveness of implementation of the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act 2005 in India and its impact on quality of life in the Anekal taluk in Bangalore district in the Indian State of Karnataka. To measure the quality of life, they have used two dimensions, the household-level quality of life and village-level infrastructural development. The study found that there was a widespread variation in the effectiveness of implementation of NREGA among different Panchayat s in Anekal taluk. The results suggested that the NREGA has a significant impact in both village-level infrastructural development and also in household quality of life.

Merin Thadathil and Vineeth Mohandas (2012) examined the impact of MGNREGS on the labour supply in the agricultural sector in the agrarian district of Wayanad in Kerala. The study found that MGNREGS did have an impact on the agricultural sector at the time of its introduction, and does have a role in the hike in the labour wages. The study revealed that the workers who had left agriculture and joined MGNREGS constituted only 16 percent of the sample population, out of which 30 percent workers were in the age group of 50-70 years. This provides a fairly good idea that MGNREGS was not responsible for the shifting of labour from agricultural sector; rather it has only supported those who had given up agriculture owing to their age. The study also revealed that the majority of the workers in MGNREGS are women, because women get a wage equivalent to a male worker.

Rosemary Varkey (2012) attempted to study the effects of MGNREGA on the lives of beneficiaries in Malappuram District. The study indicates that about 76.66 percent of the beneficiaries were spending their wages to meet daily requirements. Among the selected respondents 85 percent of the respondents had stated that MGNREGA implementation improved their living standards by adding an additional income to the family. The scheme had improved their lives and some part of wages spent on productive purposes like getting treatment for long term diseases, sending children to the school, repaying the loans taken earlier, acquiring household goods like TV, mobile phones etc., and saving small amounts in cooperatives and banks.

Charlas and Velmurugan (2012) highlighted the issues and challenges being faced by Government while implementing the world's largest employment generating programme and the issues among the people covered under the MGNREGA scheme. The article observed that some states such as Kerala and Andhra Pradesh have registered high percentage of women workers getting enrolled in the scheme whereas others have registered a very low percentage of women availing benefit under MGNREGA. It had been reported that in some regions only a few job cards were issued when the applicants were women, or there were delays in the issue of cards. In some states, the powerful groups among the work force get large number of job cards. There were several cases of fake muster roll entries, over writing, false names and irregularities in job cards. Even the names of dead people who have not registered often feature in the muster rolls.

Neha Tiwari and Rajshree Upadhyay (2012) attempted to study the constraints faced by the beneficiaries of MGNREGA in Faizabad district of Uttar Pradesh. The study revealed that

too much family work load and non-cooperation of family members were the main problems reported by the respondents with 99.66 mean percent score closely followed by domestic work neglected (98.66 MPS) and children left uncared (92.33). No extra work can be taken due to fatigue and debility (86.66 MPS) which was another constraints faced by beneficiarie's of the programme. The other constraints like delay in issuing job card, wages not provided according to MGNREGA, huge delay in work payment and non registration of families below poverty line were also reported to a lesser extent by beneficiaries with MPS ranging between 0.33 to 5.33 and the other constraints like lack of safe drinking water and lack of shade for rest were faced by beneficiaries with MPS ranging from 57 to 61.

Kotresha et al., (2012) studied the perception regarding functioning of MGNREGA, influence of MGNREGA on migration pattern, assets created under scheme and problems encountered by the gram Panchayat members. They found that majority (65 percent) of the members expressed dissatisfaction over the minimum duration of employment provided. About 37.05 percent of the members stated that health care facilities were provided sometimes to the beneficiaries. However when villages did not have primary health centre it was difficult to provide health care facilities to all the beneficiaries at the worksite. Majority (60 percent) of the members responded that MGNREGS had positive influence on reduction in migration and remaining 40 percent of the respondents opined that MGNREGS had no impact on migration in their villages. Nearly 80 percent of the respondents reported the works under the scheme had facilitated conservation of natural resources and was of great use to rural community. The major problem faced by gram Panchayat members was delay in sanctioning of funds.

Ajay Kumar Singh et al., (2012) examined the issues, challenges and significance of MGNREGA particularly in the context of rural India. The analysis found that for the FY 2010-11, the average person days per household for the first five best performing States was 76.37 days followed by 58.24 days for the average performing States. Moreover, for poor performing States the average person days per household was very low with an average of 38.5 days. They also found that there was a huge variation in the participation of SC's, ST's and Women under the best, average and poor performing States. For the best performing States the average participation of SC's was a mere 8.9 percent and for the poor performing States it was 13.8 percent. Similarly, women's participation was highest in the average performing States with 54.01 percent and lowest in the best performing States with just 39.9 percent.

Asha Sharma (2012) assessed the impact of NREGA on women. The basic objective of study was to measure the tangible benefits that women received from the implementation of the NREGA over a period of two years. Another aim of the study was to shed light on possible improvements that can be introduced to make NREGA more effective and responsive to the needs of women, particularly given its extension to all of rural India from April 2008. The survey was carried out in one district each of four states where the NREGA had been in force since February 2006: Rajnandgoan (Chhattisgarh), Jhabua (Madhya Pradesh), Mayurbhanj (Orissa) and Cuddalore (Tamil Nadu). The study found, in Cuddalore district, that most women workers were receiving the stipulated minimum wage, i.e. Rs. 80 per day. In the other three districts, however, the average wage was generally around Rs. 60 per day (as compared to a minimum wage of Rs. 69 in Madhya Pradesh, Rs. 70 in Orissa and Rs. 66.70 in Chhattisgarh) in the financial year 2007-08. Nevertheless, even the full minimum wages was not being received. More than half of the respondents felt that the NREGA has brought a significant change in their village as well as in their own lives. Women's NREGA earnings increased their contribution to household income. A large majority (72 percent) of the respondents said that they spent wages earned at NREGA works on regular food and consumer goods. Only 18 percent of the surveyed women were aware of the work application process and had applied for work themselves and only 68 percent of worksites had drinking water facility. The survey found that women workers did not generally take part in Gram Sabhas.

Kareemulla et al., (2013) in their study found that the seasonal migration of rural labor has come down significantly due to the opportunities of employment provided under the scheme. The share of NREGS employment was up to one-third of wage days in some of the study districts. Similarly the contributions of income to the family from the wages of participation in the scheme were in the range of 12 to 33 percent across the districts. These additional income was used by the rural households primarily for food security, education of dependents, healthcare and debt repayment.

Smita Nayak (2013) examined the impact of MGNREGA on tribal women in Odisha. The study found that about 70 percent of the tribal women have benefited from MGNREGA. It has improved their economic conditions and also reduced their social distance and promoted gender equity. Nearly 94percent of the respondents were opined that money earned by them was not spend by them independently. Only 6 percent spent independently the money they earned from their work. It has empowered tribal women economically which have enabled them to take care of their personal expenditure and even support the family financial position.

Chithra and Ganesan (2013) studied the perceptions of the beneficiaries about the execution of the MGNREGA activities in Thethupatti village of Dindigul district. The study revealed that about 80 percent of beneficiaries were dissatisfied with wage rate, wage distribution, type of employment, job security, unemployment allowance and performance of Panchayat officials.

Chhanda Saha Roy (2013) highlighted the characteristics of MGNREGA as a right based approach and evaluates how far this right based programme was able to give scope in accessing social services to the beneficiaries in India with special reference to North East. Based on secondary sources of data the study stated that at the national level participation of women has increased significantly from 46.41 percent in 2010-11 to 48.81 percent in 2011-12. Among the north-east States, Assam and Mizoram could not reach the stipulated 33 percent shares in three consecutive years. The total employment generated under MGNREGA in 2009-10 was 5,25,30,453, in 2010-11 it was 5,49,54,225 and in 2011-12 4,98,62,775. It had come to light that in the three consecutive years among north-east region Arunachal Pradesh was the lowest employment generator state while Assam was highest in 2009 and 2010 and Tripura was highest in 2011-12. The assets created in north in states were not satisfactory except in Tripura. In case of assets creation water based works were given priority and among water based works water conservation and water harvesting was ranked in the first position.

Kumar Pradumana and Joshi (2013) examined the changes in household food consumption and nutritional security of poor rural households and assessed the impact of Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) on the dietary pattern and nutritional status of these households using the data from 66th round of National Sample Survey (NSS) pertaining to the year 2009. The study revealed that MGNREGA has benefitted 22.5 percent of the rural households by providing, on an average, wage employment for about 43 days. It increased the income of rural households and has been successful in reducing the poverty level by 4 percent. The MGNREGA has provided almost equal employment benefits to all the categories of farm sizes, household-types and income-groups. The state-wise study has revealed that though all the states have benefitted, wide variations do exist. It is observed that the economically weaker states of the country have benefitted maximum and have implemented the MGNREGA more vigorously. The study shows that the rise in income could lead to increase in food consumption — both of cereals and non-cereals by all the categories of households. A diversification in the dietary pattern of households was also observed, which was again a strong indicator of better food consumption. These developments

have resulted in a substantial increase in calorie-intake as well as protein-intake by different categories of households, leading to a decrease in the undernourished and nutrition-deficit households by 8 – 9 percent.

Srinivasa Rao Didde and Muthaiyan (2013) examined the extent to which the intended programme has reached the tribal people in terms of employment generation, asset creation and wage accruals through MGNREGA works for the last five years of the programme at the village level in Parvathipuram Integrated Tribal Development Agency (ITDA), in Vizianagaram district, Andhra Pradesh. The study observed that no households in tribal village completed 100 days employment in first three years of the programme, even though this village was covered in the first phase of NREGA and person days per households i.e. work provided was below 50 days every year except in 2009-10; during this period average number of person days per household was 135.89. Number of households participation per work gradually increased from 1.2 percent to 1.9 percent from 2006-07 to 2007-08. During 2009-10 the share of households per work was 4.1. There was no awareness among the tribal people about the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act. Tribal people were guaranteed 25-45 days of employment in every financial year (except 2009-10) for the first five years of the programme and also wage rate varied between Rs. 50 to Rs. 90 which was below the minimum wage prescribed under the act.

Pankaj Bora (2013) investigated how the Act has contributed towards improvement of livelihood conditions in Assam. The employment generation under MGNREGA shows that 3.61 million job cards have been issued in Assam and out of those 21.39111 million households have demanded employment under MGNREGA and employments were provided to 21.37270 million households constituting 99.91 percent. It means demand supply ratio was almost equal. But state was able to provide 100 days of employment to only to 0.130457 million households. Out of the total job cards issued only 3.61 percent of households have enjoyed 100 days of employment under MGNREGA. Per capita income has increased from Rs. 18993 in 2004-05 to Rs. 24687/- in 2010 - 11. Before MGNREGA, the average daily wage rate was Rs. 73 for women. Now, under MGNREGA the wage rate was Rs. 136 for both men and women. The number of livestock (Cattle, Goats and Ducks) decreased in Assam to 14143412 in 2009 - 10 from 18295239 of 2003. In Assam, percentage of below poverty line (BPL) population increased to 37.9 percent in 2009-10 from 34.4 percent in 2004 - 05.

Shenbagaraj and Arockiasamy (2013) analyzed the impact of MGNREGA in increasing the employment and earnings of households in Thoothukudi district. The study had used only secondary data available through the DRDA section of the target district. An analysis of the employment generated by MGNREGA in Ottapidaram block shows that number households who have registered for getting employment was very less. The data on the number of days of employment received by 7268 MGNREGA beneficiaries in 38 Panchayat s of Ottapidaram block reveal that a greater percentage (76.95 percent) of the beneficiaries received employment for less than 20 days in a year. Further the data on the earning of the 7268 beneficiaries in 38 Panchayat s of Ottapidaram block reveal that almost 80 percent of the beneficiaries earned less than Rs. 2000/- per year through MGNREGA.

Balbir Singh (2013) analysed the effectiveness of MNREGA in uplifting people from below the poverty line in Punjab. It was found that on the whole programme was quite successful in meeting the aspiration of the poor beneficiaries. The study revealed that although labourers were getting economic benefit from MNREGA, they were unhappy regarding two issues: (i) they were not getting sufficient number of days to work under this scheme and (ii) there was delay in payment which affects their day to day activities. The programme encouraged greater female work participation and was found to have contributed to the socio-economic empowerment of the rural poor, especially women.

Biju Paul Abragam et al., (2013) studied the impact of MGNREGS on the beneficiaries and analysed potential management problems of implementing agencies in Bardhaman, a relatively prosperous district of West Bengal. The study found that supplementary income from MGNREGS was high among families who have comparatively lesser annual income from other sources. They found three specific institutional challenges in implementing MGNREGA scheme; namely 1) lack of professional personnel, 2) problems associated with huge cash handling, and 3) problems of data management.

Chanchal Charan (2013) assessed the impact of MGNREGA scheme on rural residents in Bihar. The study was based on both primary and secondary data. It reveals that at national level performance the participation of women had increased significantly from 40.65 percent in 2006-07 to 47.72 percent in 2010-11 and reported that the MGNREGA in Bihar was very-very far from reaching the goal of poverty alleviation as it was not been able to provide even 5 percent of households 100 days of employment in most of the district of Bihar and the overall

fund utilisation in 2010-2011 had declined to 53.47 percent in different zones of Bihar. The major hurdle in its performance was corruption.

Bipul De and Sebak Jana (2013) assessed the impact of the MGNREGA scheme on the targeted beneficiaries in Sonamukhi block of Bankura district, West Bengal. The study found that out of 100 households surveyed 67 households are observed to be in BPL category. The NREGA employment days per household in the surveyed area varied from 0 to 40 days with the mean value of 14.22. The total expenditure per month ranged from Rs. 1200 to Rs.6800. Around 95 percent of the surveyed beneficiaries revealed that the job cards were issued to them within 15 days after applying. Majority of households expressed that they got their job cards without waiting for much time and without money spent.

Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore in collaboration with Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India and Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) (2013) aimed at quantifying and generating empirical evidence on the potential of MGNREGS to generate environmental benefits, and reduce vulnerability to climate risks. According to beneficiaries in all the selected villages, the additional direct employment created due to MGNREGS work implementation has increased in the range of 27 to 37 days per year. Further, household incomes have increased on an average by 30 percent due to employment provided under MGNREGS. Normal wage rates have been reported to have increased by Rs. 50 per day in all the 5 study villages. All the study villages showed lower vulnerability in the post-MGNREGS scenario as compared to pre- MGNREGS in the range of 20 to 41 percent. This reduction in vulnerability was largely due to land development and water related MGNREGS works implemented which contributed to increased water availability for irrigation, improved soil fertility and increased employment.

Vikas Saharan (2014) analysed how MGNREGA has brought changes in the selected seven villages in Bikaner district in Rajasthan by the primary survey in terms of creation of useful assets, connectivity and economic situations and also the study focused on how MGNREGA impacted life of villagers in terms of reduced migration, hunger avoidance, increased wages, repayment of debts, daily consumption, domestic purchase, health, child education, purchase / repair of land / house, purchase of animals, purchase and maintenance of productive assets. The study concluded that more than fifty percent of respondents in surveyed villages stated that MGNREGA was very important for the family and brought significant change in life. More than forty percent of respondents stated MGNREGA has helped them in avoiding

going hungry. Less than forty percent of respondents stated that MGNREGA has helped them in avoiding migration. The study also found that there had been significant changes in the villages due to MGNREGA on employment, road connectivity and water level improvement and also improvement in economic situation, soil erosion and drinking water for animals.

Shaveta Kaushal (2014) evaluated the socio – economic impact of MGNREGA in Punjab. The study found that about 18 percent were of the view that the employment scheme has reduced migration but 46 percent the beneficiaries reported that MGNREGA has not so beneficial in reducing distress migration. More than 91 percent of the MGNREGA workers reported that their economic condition has improved a lot with 100 days of employment.

Yogesh Kumar and Awasthi (2014) assessed the effectiveness of MGNREGA on food and non – food expenditure in Karauli district of Rajasthan. The study found that percentage rise in the expenditure on food items was found to be fluctuating across less income classes and a more noticeable rise was observed in non – food consumption expenditure among the low income classes. The study concluded that higher income groups have better substituted their consumptions patterns, while lowest and low income people had no choice except spending their income on food items only.

Sunil and Anupriya (2015) examined the impact of MGNREGA at both the individual level and community level. The study found that about 73 percent household's income increased. The level of implementation was not equal in all the villages. In some villages the scheme was working well and works undertaken were according to the need of village.

Ashok Kumar and Mahesh Kumar (2016) studied the satisfaction level of women beneficiaries through MGNREGA in Coimbatore of Tamil Nadu. The study revealed that majority of 68 (56.7 percent) of the beneficiaries were dissatisfied about the working days. About 57.5 percent of the respondents were highly dissatisfied with wage provided under MGNREGA. Around 50 percent were satisfied by the working condition.

Harikumar and Nirosha Joseph (2016) analysed the impact of MGNREGA on standard of living of the beneficiaries in Kottayam District of Kerala. The study revealed that about 78 percent have used their earning for meeting their household expenses. Around 48 percent were dissatisfied with earnings from MGNREGA and about 72 percent expressed that their standard of living has not improved.

Beena George (2017) assessed the effectiveness of MGNREGA in empowering rural women in Kerala. About 20 percent of the beneficiaries earned between Rs. 30000 to Rs. 40000 and only five percent earned more than Rs. 50000. Savings and expenditure pattern of the women had shown improvement after joining the MGNREGA. The decisions were taken jointly by the husbands and the wives.

Rajesh Prasad Tiwari (2017) examined the impact of MGNREGA among the rural poor in Rewa district of Madhya Pradesh. The study found that most of the households had spent maximum amount of their earnings on food, clothing and health. In very few cases, money has been spent on education, and debt repayment. There has also been no case of capital formation in agriculture or any other income generating activities.

V. Other Related Studies:

Purusottam Nayak (2002) evaluated the impact of IRDP in Silchar Development Block of South Assam. The study revealed that out of a total of 46 beneficiaries selected for the purpose of analysis 34 beneficiaries belonged to the period of assistance provided in the VIIIth five year plan and the rest 12 in the IXth five year plan. In both the plan periods it was observed that the government functionaries have grossly violated the IRDP guidelines while identifying the poor people for providing assistance. In the VIIth five year plan surprisingly only 13 poor people have been selected as against a total selection of 34 beneficiaries. Thus 61.8 percent of the selected beneficiaries were found to be non-poor during VIIIth five year plan as against 41.7 percent in the IXth five year plan.

Mahendra Dev and Padmanabha Rao (2002) evaluated the impact of antipoverty programmes at two levels: macro-level and micro-level. The study observed that, a higher proportion of IRDP beneficiaries (57.18 percent), SHG beneficiaries (56.88 percent), IAY beneficiaries (51.83 percent), old age pensioners (55 percent), and widow pensioners (52.83 percent) were from developed mandals. However, people from backward mandals utilized JFM programme (80.39 percent), JRY/ EAS (63.88 percent) and DWCRA (57.11 percent) in a higher proportion. Together, they account for more than 70 percent of beneficiaries in all the programmes. Overall, cultivators form 46.2 percent of IRDP beneficiaries, as against only 31.8 percent of agricultural labourers. However, JRY/EAS, IAY and JFM were utilised mainly by agricultural labourers and they formed 57.4, 59.0 and 88.3 percent of beneficiaries, respectively.

Hari Singh (2006) examined the impact of SGSY in employment levels of the beneficiary families over that of non - beneficiary families. The study revealed that SGSY assistance given for camel cart generated the maximum number of employment days ranging from 130 to 143 man - days followed by carpentry (107 man - days per annum) and buffalo rearing activities (72 to 92 man days per annum). Sheep, goat rearing and rope making activities generated additional employment opportunities ranging from 13 man -days to 35 man - days per annum in the study area.

Papiya et al., (2009) studied the impact of watershed management on the environment and the socio – economic aspect of the rural community through participatory NRM in Gurguripal Village of West Bengal. The study revealed that the WSMP (Water Shed Management Project) has resulted in ‘ Ecological Sustainability’ with respect to increased irrigation potential by ground water recharge, forest cover and biomass regeneration, preservation of soil moisture and its nutrient arresting soil erosion and also WSM had contributed to positive social relation / behavior with respect to the dimension of ‘ equity’ in distribution of generated resources through the benefits of the development like water, biomass, forest produce and fish production. The WSM has ensured active involvement of the beneficiary and non – beneficiary groups with respect to caste, class and gender in decision making and empowerment process.

Sanjay Kumar Lenka and Amaresh Samantaraya (2010) evaluated the impact of Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) on various economic indicators of tribal households in Koraput District of Orissa; it was observed that the sample beneficiaries have marginally gained in terms of better employment opportunities, while benefits in terms of real income and expenditure were very modest.

Veera Raghavalu (2010) analysed the performance of employment generating programmes in India and also the study discussed about the performance of the major anti – poverty and employment generating programmes in India. The study concluded that JGSY / SGRY programmes generate the highest employment man - days than other selected programmes in the study area.

Prasenjit Bujar Baruah (2012) examined the impact of micro finance on poverty in Nalbari district of Assam. About twenty SHGs were selected using stratified random sampling. The study observed that many members of the SHGs took loan from outside the SHG. It was seen that the members went to the SHGs when they needed smaller amount of loans; but for

higher amount of loans, still they go either to the money lenders or to the banks. The loans taken from outside the SHG seemed to be taken for some specialized purposes while most of the loans from the SHGs were for current consumption expenditure. The study revealed that altogether 55 loans from SHG were taken for current consumption purposes, i.e., 35.7 percent of total loans were meant for this purpose. Out of 154 loans, 44 were taken for current expenditure on production. Out of the total number of loans, 42 were taken for the expenditure on consumer durables. Thus, this head accounts for 27.27 percent of the total loans provided by the SHGs. The study concluded that the amount of loans provided by SHGs to their members was so small that it can't help the members to fight against poverty.

Anju Rani (2013) examined the impact of SGSY on employment generation and increase in income in rural Haryana. The study was based on mainly on primary data and found that average number of working days was 120.05 days before joining SGSY and it increased to 132.05 days after joining SGSY. The study reveals that there was significant increase in average income across all the social groups. SC had benefited more than backward class and general category and the persons those who have BPL ration card got the significant benefit from SGSY.

Samir Ghosh (2015) assessed the change in living standard of Indira Awaas Yojana in Nabadwip and Ranaghat Block of Nadia district. The study observed that about 15 scheduled caste, 8 scheduled tribes, 4 minorities and 4 other beneficiaries expressed that the permanent shelter provided by the Indira Awaas Yojana has brought gradual changes in their life.

Vijaya Kumar (2015) examined the progress achieved by the tribal groups through the implementation of various tribal developmental programmes initiated and implemented by Tribal Corporation in the district of Anantapur. The study used Chi – square test to know the income difference of the households between lambada and non–lambada tribes before and after implementation the Tribal Developmental Schemes in the study area. The calculated Chi–square calculated value (7.757) was less than Chi–square table value (9.488) implies that there was a little difference in the income levels between lambada and non–lambada households before implementation of the economic support schemes. More than 72 percent of beneficiaries felt that tribal developmental schemes were not asset-creating in nature.

Pallabi Gogoi (2015) examined the efficacy of the implementing machinery of the National Social Assistance Programme in Jorhat District of Assam. The study found that, under

National Social Assistance Programme, Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension is a dominant one. It was observed that approximately 50 percent of applicant got the benefit between 6 to 12 months. Benefits from the schemes were received in time and beneficiaries have stated their satisfaction with the timely payment, again satisfaction levels are at appreciating level (100 percent). Pensions from IGNOAPS and IGWPS were given half yearly. However, food grain under Annapurna scheme was given on monthly basis.

Samir Ghosh (2016) assessed the change in living standard of the Indhira Awaas Yojana beneficiaries in Kolkatta. The study indicates that there had been improvement in living standard of about 70 percent beneficiaries of IAY. About 30 percent of the beneficiaries stated that the permanent shelter provided by the Indhira Awass Yojana was brought gradual changes in their life.

Milan Banik (2016) evaluated economic empowerment of the SHG members in Assam. The study observed that after joining the SHG about 42 percent had experienced gradual improvement in employment days from 180 to 240 and also for about 23 percent of the beneficiary's income level increased to above Rs. 3000.

Conclusions:

To conclude, the study of tribal households has occupied a pre-eminent position in social sciences. The interest envisaged by social scientists in explaining the origin and behaviour of the tribal population is centuries old. The economic status of the tribal population is determined by a complex set of socio-economic, cultural, religious and ecological factors. There have been various attempts at empirical levels to explain the nature and behaviour of tribal population and to measure the nature of changes in their life style behaviour. While studies abounds in explaining the socio-economic conditions of tribal population and the impact of governmental measures in improving their economic status, very few studies have been done at the micro level in the state of Tamil Nadu. The present study, a modest attempt to explain the employment status and quality of life of tribal population in Coimbatore district, is an effort to collect research and evidence on their present conditions at the micro level.