Course Material for Rural Social Work

National Council of Rural Institutes
Department of Higher Education
Ministry of Human Resource Development
Government of India

Curriculum for Rural Social Work Course

Introduction

Higher Education is nestled in a pivotal position to transform society (McNall, Barnes-Najor, Brown, Doberneck & Fitzgerald, 2015; Weerts & Sandmann, 2008).

Community-University collaborative initiatives should intertwine research, teaching and service to address community-defined issues as such initiatives have the potential to improve the quality of life for those in greatest need (Fitzgerald et al., 2016).

Hence "students and faculty become the agents of social change by creating, learning, and by scholarly processes that explicitly address such problems with the intent of fixing them" (Marullo & Edwards, 2000).

The proposed Curriculum for Rural Social Work has been developed as part of a group discussion held by a group of Social Work Educators and Public Administration faculty from across nine Telangana State Universities. The objective calls for the development of students and the community through Community Service through the medium of social work.

Social work is an intense medium for community engagement and makes it a viable and apt form of engagement. Hence, development of Rural Community Engagement Curriculum on Social Work it is the need of the hour. The curriculum can be offered as a compulsory course to all the students. It has been discussed that in order to bridge the gap between the expectations and actual practices, there is a need to integrate the two important aspects viz., Living and Learning.

Characteristics

The following core characteristics form the basic frame work of the community based learning model which are prime factors that are considered while developing the Curriculum for Rural Social Work.

1. Flexibility
2. Creativity
3. Passion
4. Empathy
5. Trustworthiness
6. Competence
7. Sense of Humor

Curriculum Design

- Objectives
- Module Development
- Methodology
- Assessment
- Outcomes

Objectives

To instill interest and concern among the students about the dynamics of rural society, to develop community based learning, to help the students to identify and respond to community needs, to give students insights of broader social issues and its impact on rural communities, to inculcate values and multiple perspectives of problem solving and foster students' intellectual capabilities and development as citizens, the following objectives have been framed for the Curriculum for Rural Social Work:

1. Make use of effective communication to employ a planned change approach which supports client interventions for engagement
2. With diverse populations, use both ethnic- sensitive and socially-sensitive, generalist practical approaches for rural participation
3. Apply critical thinking skills in problem solving with social work values and ethics, on diverse human issues for rural solution engineering
4. Distinguish professional social work ethics, especially the values of self-determination, empowerment, and regard for diversity that enables community engagement
5. Conduct social research to evaluate the social work interventions, as well as to evaluate agency and community practice

Rationale

Community engagement can be a big game changer for rural communities. Though traditional extension and outreach programs are desperately trying to bring in the desired outcomes are just not sufficient to heal the rift between higher education and community engagement. The existing curriculum covers major aspects of community engagement, yet there still exists a vacuum in the learning methodologies and field work practices.

Social work is a profession with components of practice learning opportunities. As against the conventional learning practices, the thrust is on training through guest lectures and workshops from civic society experts. Exposure to varied interesting forms of community engagement techniques like role play, folk lore, theatre etc. should be part of the Curriculum for Rural Social Work. Inadequate communication and interpersonal skills hinder the progress in community engagement, which requires consistent training sessions to address the same. Audio-visual method is an effective form of teaching-learning process which is possible only with adequate infrastructure to facilitate the same.

Interaction with community engagement experts and practitioners is essential for the capacity building of students. Periodic engagement with the prominent community engagement members will ensure the varied dimensions of community living and engagement. Brainstorming sessions, Group Discussions, Assignments and Case Studies will ensure the students to get an empathetic view of the rural scenario and its consistent concerns. This calls for the conduction of systematic and periodic faculty development programmes in collaboration with the civic society experts and field practitioners.

There is a void created by the NGO sectors through unqualified social workers and lack of mentorship mechanism which needs intervention for effective community engagement. Lack of commitment from students with indifferent attitude has been a major cause for the decline of NGO support and guidance. In Social Work, there is a mandatory requirement for the awareness of interdisciplinary tools and

techniques for community engagement. Further, the Social Work students need the motivation and guidance through workshops which will throw light on the available career prospects in this arena.

The need of the hour, is an approach that extends beyond service and outreach to actual 'engagement'. Hence, higher education, which is generally organized into highly specialized disciplines, requires a paradigm shift towards a more systemic perspective, emphasizing collaboration, cooperation and partnership. This is a humble approach towards the long journey of community engagement through social work. The various forms of community engagement are: (PRIA, 2014):

1. *Linking 'formal' learning and the local community*
2. *Researching with the community*
3. *Sharing knowledge with the community*
4. *Designing new curriculum and courses*
5. *Involving local practitioners as teachers*
6. *Social Innovation by students*

Proposed Model of Curriculum

The curriculum is for four consequent semesters. It is interdisciplinary in nature and more practical oriented with one common paper for both the core and the elective course and one specialization paper with 2 credits for theory and 2 credits for practicum and carries a maximum of 100 marks.

Rural Community Engagement CORE PAPER

Sr. No.	Module Title	Module Content		Teaching /Learning Methodology	Number of Classes
		Theories and Concepts	**Practice and field work (Participatory Methods will be used for practice throughout the course)**		
1.	**Understanding The Rural Issues**	Understanding and studying Rural Development Issues: Land, water, Sustainable Agriculture, Health and Sanitation, education, micro-finance, Cooperatives, Disaster Risk management, issues concerning to weaker sections, Understanding Rural Governance etc.	Visiting field to understand the issues through the action-research tools understand and participatory methodology e.g. PRA and PLA, basically to understand the rural issues from people's perspective(s)	Lecture and discussion and field investigation	20 hours (10 hours theory and, 10 hours field work)
2.	**Intervention Strategies in Rural Area**	Development Discourse: What is Development; What are rural development Five Year Plans, Inclusive Growth, Convergence Models, Special focus on	Action Research mode will continue - Students will discuss and document the development projects and its failures and success, Students should also practice the monitoring	Lecture /Discussion /Field work with community	20 hours (10 hours theory and, 10 hours field work)

Sr. No.	Module Title	Module Content		Teaching /Learning Methodology	Number of Classes
		Theories and Concepts	**Practice and field work (Participatory Methods will be used for practice throughout the course)**		
		Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), Issues for Interventions	and evaluation of Government Programmes, students will learn to organize and mobilize community and groups, Identification of needs etc.		
3.	**Rural Social Work Skills and Techniques**	Understanding Rural Community: Concept of Community and Rural Community – Caste, Class and Gender; Power structure, Control and Conflict.	Preparation of community profile and understand the specific issues of marginalized sections, issues related women, farmers, landless labors and possible intervention strategies	Field Visit/ Group Discussion/ Field work	20 hours (10 hours theory and, 10 hours field work)
4.	**Community Resilience**	Community Resilience in disaster situation, how to deal with day to day issues e.g. Health, Hunger, Education, Disaster Management: Relief and Rehabilitation, Community Resilience : pre, post and during disaster, Vulnerabilities etc. Studying DFID livelihood models (5 capitals)	Formation of youth groups, women's groups and farmers groups etc. Take up the village development projects through Gram Panchayat, here the community initiatives are important aspects during the field work, identify the strengths and weakness of the community, Vulnerability and Risk Mapping and Plan for Resilience	Field Visit/ Group Discussion/ Field work	20 hours (10 hours theory and, 10 hours field work)
5.	**Finances and Planning**	Gram Panchayat Development Plan (Village micro planning), social audit and social accountability, skills in group formation, formation of Producer Groups, Participatory Research Tools.	At the end their course they will complete the Gram Panchayat Village Development Plans which will be the end product of the field work (on the basis of community resilience GPDP will be developed). Capacity Building : Documentation, Report writing Linkages with Govt. offices and Depts.	Field visit/ Discussion/ Exercise	20 hours

Content of Concurrent Field Work

1. Studying the Community set up in detail and developing an in-depth understanding of the field and documenting their study in the form of a special report.
2. Practicing social case works with a minimum of 2 individuals; identify the problem, study, assess and develop intervention strategies for all the cases and execute the plan of intervention.
3. Practicing social group work with a minimum of two groups (Children, Women, Youth, Adults, or Occupational groups, etc.) involving its steps and principles.
4. Working with the community by involving them on one or two issues/problems by confronting the concerned community.
5. Making a minor research study on any specific problem and submitting the report as part of field work.
6. Organizing a minimum of 3 special programmes (action programmes) by the team of students with clear division of work among themselves to meet the felt needs of the community or commemorating some International / National Days.
7. Visiting the agencies having relevance to their placement and act as resources for their clientele in promoting interaction between the agency and the community – such as MCH/NGO's, other such Government departments (with the prior permission of the Faculty Supervisor).
8. Taking part in the programmes, seminars, workshops, etc. related to community work for the enrichment of knowledge. (With the prior permission of the Faculty supervisor)

Rural Community Development Set-up

During this intensive field work training programme the students are expected to:
1. Study and report about the organization – history, aims, objectives and goals, administrative structure, operational area, target group, programmes, findings and problems of the organization
2. Study the magnitude of unemployment in the community and prepare a report on its migration pattern
3. Analyze the situation and problems of rural industries and suggest the plan for man power utilization.
4. Study, work and report on the functioning, models, monitoring of SHGs and Bank linkages.
5. Work for sustainable livelihood promotion of a family or group by using livelihood strategies.
6. Involve in the micro planning of any project with the target group and report the process.
7. Study the present status of any of the development programme implemented by the Government in the rural development arena.
8. Work on meeting the community needs by using the process of community development.
9. Involve in the micro planning of any project with the target group and report the process.
10. Engage in public relations and social advocacy activities in the organization/community.
11. Formulate pressure groups and take necessary action on particular issues in the communities.
12. Study the programmes of RCD covered in the communities and analyze the role of panchayats in Rural Community Development
13. Select any programme/service/of agency and evaluate it.
14. Plan and organize one/two day programmes to create awareness among the target population

on any specific social issue.

15. Assist the agency in fund raising and publicity campaigns.
16. Study and report the steps in community based planning, management and monitoring of water shed management
17. Study and report on different types, functioning activities, role and problems of cooperative societies in the community.
18. Attend the staff/target group meeting and record the minutes.
19. Prepare the case study of any successful / failure case/group.
20. Involve in networking, lobbying and advocacy of the concerned project.
21. Use audio-visual and theatre communication methods in the field.
22. Involve in participatory evaluation by using the criteria.

Methodology of Field Work

The following are some important methods/modes of learning in field work:
1. Observation
2. Informal interactions with community, SHGs and Governmental Organizations
3. Participatory Rural Appraisal and Participatory Learning Appraisal Methods
4. Case Discussions/Conferences
5. Sharing of experiences both among the team members and the teams
6. Additional field work, if necessary

Practicum details

Twice a week, students are engaged in the rural community to take up the following Field Work:
1. Rural Development Skills: Health, Education, Agriculture, Water and Sanitation
2. Facilitating and promoting activities relating to Village Adoption
3. Creation of model of Rural Community Organization
4. Documentation of Model Village Case Studies, Cooperative Societies

Assessment

This is a ten credit course, five for theory and five for practicum. The emphasis is to be more on the practical orientation of the student.

Outcomes

After completion of the course the student will be able to

1. Develop skills to understand the social, economic, political and cultural framework of the rural society
2. Develop skills to address the challenges with suitable responses for the identified rural issues
3. Develop skills to engage in the management of the rural community

Career Options

- Career in the Rural Community Organization and Development Activity
- Career in the Not-for-Profit Organization/Community Service Organizations and Corporate Social Responsibility Activities
- Career as a Rural Nodal Officer for supporting rural community organization/development and facilitation of rural reconstruction as well as resilience building programmes.
- Career in the facilitation of Rural Governance and Development

Rural Social Work

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I. UNDERSTANDING RURAL ISSUES

INTRODUCTION

India is a country of villages and its development is synonymous with the development of the people living in rural areas.

India is a vast and second most populous country of the world. (According to the 2011 census, 68.84 per cent population of our country reside in the countryside). But a big part of this population has been leading an uncertain economic life due to non-synchronization of employment opportunities in agriculture sector because of the fast growing population. Rural development has been receiving increasing attention of the governments across the world. In the Indian context rural development assumes special significance for two important reasons.

1. **First** about two thirds of the population still lives in villages and there cannot be any progress so long as rural areas remain backward.

2. **Second**, the backwardness of the rural sector would be a major impediment to the overall progress of the economy. India is predominately an agricultural country and farming is their main occupation. In terms of methods of production, social organisation and political mobilization, rural sector is extremely backward and weak. Moreover, technical developments in field of agriculture have increased the gap between the rich and poor, as the better off farmers adopted modern farm technology to a greater extent than the smaller one's.

WHAT IS RURAL DEVELOPMENT?

FIGURE: 1 - RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Rural development denotes overall development of the rural areas with a view to improve the quality of life of the rural people.

It encompasses

1. development of agriculture and its allied activities
2. development of cottage and small-scale industries & traditional crafts
3. creation of socio-economic infrastructure
4. proper use of rural manpower and
5. improvement in community services and facilities.

During the planning period, rural development strategy had shifted from the growth-oriented to empowerment-oriented.

The All - India Rural Credit Review Committee in its report warned "If the fruits of development continue to be denied to the large sections of rural community, while prosperity accrues to some, the tensions (social and economic) may not only upset the process of orderly and peaceful change in the rural economy but even frustrate the national affords to set up agricultural production.'' It is, therefore, necessary make arrangements for the distribution of fruits of development to the rural weak and backward section of society.

It is rightly pointed out that a purely agricultural country remains backward even in respect of agriculture. Most of the labour force in India depends on agriculture, not because it is remunerative but because there are no alternative employment opportunities.

This is a major cause for the backwardness of Indian agriculture. A part of the labour force now engaged in agriculture needs to be shifted to non-agricultural occupations. Literacy, another growth indicator, is more acute in rural than in the urban areas. It is 44 per cent in villages and 73 per cent in cities.

Again, more poor people live in the rural than the urban areas. Out of the estimated 210 million poor persons in the country, 168 million are located in villages and 42 million in urban areas. Out of 108 million rural household, 30 per cent are agricultural labour households.

Fifty eight per cent of households in the villages are marginal farmers, having less than I hectare of land and 18 per cent having less than 2 hectares. These figures show that there is wide degree of diversity in some of the basic socio indicators of development between the rural and urban areas and call for concerted action to alleviate this disparity.

The stress on rural development is also due to many constraints facing the rural areas, which generally suffer from inadequate infrastructure facilities and technological advancements. The rural areas are not well placed in terms of even minimum needs like safe drinking water, primary health and road transport. This apart, the rural population suffers from indigence, ignorance and illiteracy. Their traditional outlook towards development has been preventing them from taking full advantage of the incentives offered by the Government.

Also, the ownership of land and other assets has been heavily concentrated in hands of a few. It is precisely for this reason that the benefits of rural development programmes failed to reach the rural population targeted for these benefits to the extent expected.

Rural development requires a vast infrastructure. Provision of this is no easy task, because it has to be undertaken by the Government. Private investment in this area has been meagre and continues to be so. But the trend of meagre investment in the rural sector is gradually changing in terms of economic sustenance.

However, evolving an appropriate technology for rural development is not an easy task. Such a technology has to simultaneously achieve the thin objectives of raising growth rates and stepping up opportunities of employment.

The setting up of appropriate institutions and co-ordinating their activities are crucial to any rural development strategy The potential of self reliance in rural areas needs to be exploited in a planned manner. A single approach to rural development would not be effective.

In fact, rural development is the product of interaction between various physical, technological, economic, socio-cultural, institutional and environmental factors. Indeed, the rural sector should experience the required changes so that it can join the mainstream of national development and contribute its share for economic development. It has been rightly said, "In the end, however, rural development should not be seen as a package of specific needs but as a transformation of rural like and conditions.''

Concept of Rural Development:

The term is used to mean 'organizing things' so as to change existing conditions in favour of a better state. There may be many variants of development drawing their nomenclature from the sphere of activity where the change is managed or the type of change or the 'method' how the desired change is attained. For several decades the term was used, solely, for economic change, inclusive of the conditions which affect betterment.

The concept was later extended to its wider meaning to embrace 'changes' of political, social, cultural, technological, economic and also the psychological frame of society. In its current meaning 'development' is used to express animated change for reaping utmost human potential. Technically, development is the name of a 'Policy' and its 'Consequent programmes', designed to bring about a desired change' in social, economic, political, or technological spheres of life.

It is concerned with the promotion of human capacities: Physical or mental, to attain the cherished social goals. Development is potential-related, and it can be attained to the extent of the existing development potential, which is measured by then-exploited resources, talents, margin of sophistication and the 'will power' which implements development policy. Development is the conditioning of progress, and when efforts are laid towards the use of growth potentials in rural economy and society, it is rural development.

Rural development is not a charity programme and its objective is to raise the capacity of producing more crops, better crops, a variety of crops, greater output per unit of input and higher quality of output.

It is concerned with creation of increased incentives for putting more efforts and investments for raising efficiency per worker.

Therefore education, information, training, research, and application of research is within the range of rural development.

The term 'rural development' is of focal interest and is widely acclaimed in both the developed and the developing countries of the world.

There is however no universally acceptable definition of rural development and the term is used in different ways and in vastly divergent context.

1. As a concept, it connotes overall development of rural areas with a view to improve the quality of life of rural people.
2. As a **comprehensive and multidimensional concept**, it encompasses the development of agriculture and allied activities-village and cottage industries and crafts, socioeconomic infrastructure, community services and facilities, and above all, the human resources in rural areas.
3. As a **phenomenon**, it is the result of interactions between various physical, technological, economic, socio-cultural, and institutional factors.
4. As a **strategy**, it is designed to improve the economic and social well-being of a specific group of people the rural poor.
5. As a **discipline**, it is multidisciplinary in nature representing an intersection of agriculture social behavioural, engineering and management sciences.

In the words of **Robert Chambers**, "Rural Development is a strategy to enable a specific group of people poor rural women and men, to gain for themselves and their children more of what they want and need. It involves helping the poorest among these who seek a livelihood in the rural areas to demand and control more of the benefits of rural development.

The group includes small scale farmers, tenants and the landless.

Importance of Rural Development

Rural development is a dynamic process, which is mainly concerned with the rural areas. These include-

Agricultural growth, putting up of economic and social infrastructure, fair wages as also housing and house sites for the landless, village planning, public health, education and functional literacy, communication etc.

Rural development is a national necessity and has considerable importance in India

FIGURE: 2 – IMPORTANCE OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Definition of Rural Development

Thus, rural development may mean any one of these, depending upon our focus. To avoid ineffective floundering among the myriad definitions, we shall define *rural development as a process of developing and utilizing natural and human resources, technologies, infrastructure facilities, institutions and organisations, and government policies and programmes to encourage and speed up economic growth in rural areas, to provide jobs, and to improve the quality of rural life towards self sustenance.*

In addition to economic growth, this process typically involves changes in popular attitudes, and in many cases even in customs and beliefs.

In a nutshell, the process of *rural development must represent the entire gamut of change by which a social system moves away from a state of life perceived as 'unsatisfactory' towards a materially and spiritually better condition of life*.

 The process of rural development may be compared with a train in which each coach pushes the one ahead of it and is in turn pushed by the one behind, but it takes a powerful engine to make the whole train more. The secret of success in development lies in identifying and if needed developing a suitable engine to attach to the train. There are no universally valid guidelines to identify appropriate engines of growth, if at all they exist. It is a choice which is influenced by time, space, and culture.

Rural development has attracted the attention of the economists right from the Mercantilist era and Adam Smith down to Marse and Keynes, yet they were mainly interested in the problems which were essentially static in nature and largely related to a western European framework of social and cultural institutions. Their interest in the economics of development has been stimulated by the wave of political resurgence that swept the Asian and African nations after Second World War and thought to promote rapid economic development coupled with the realization on the part of the developed nations that 'poverty anywhere is a treat to prosperity everywhere'.

As **Meier and Baldwin** have remarked : "A study of the poverty of nations has even more urgency than a study of the wealth of Nations.'' The Economists differ on its definition as someone says increase in the economy's real national income over a long period and some says about the increase in the per capita real income of the economy which are not convincing as it lacks of Human welfare.
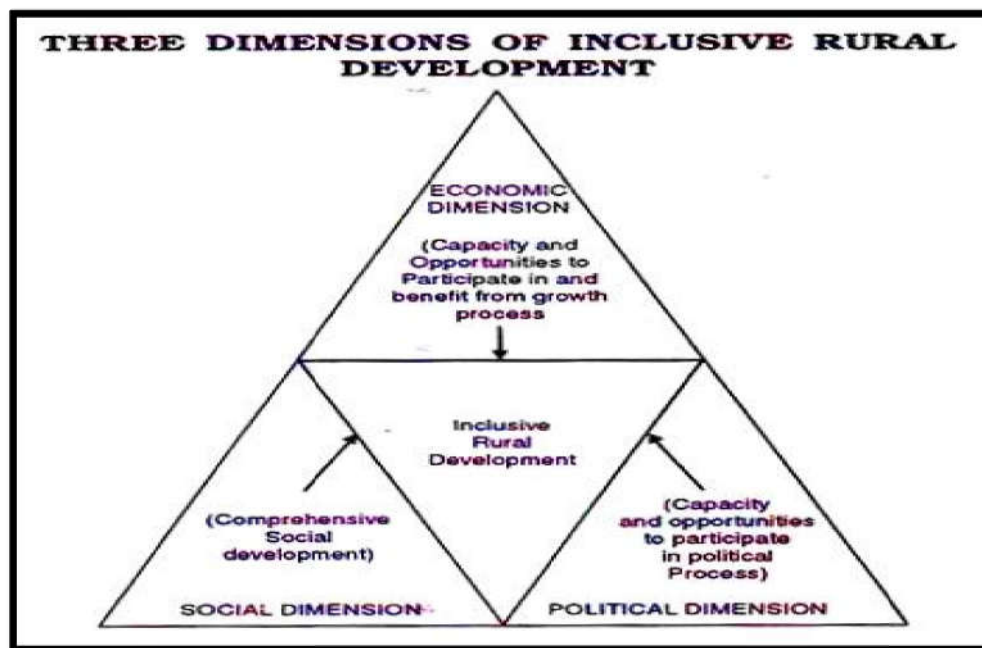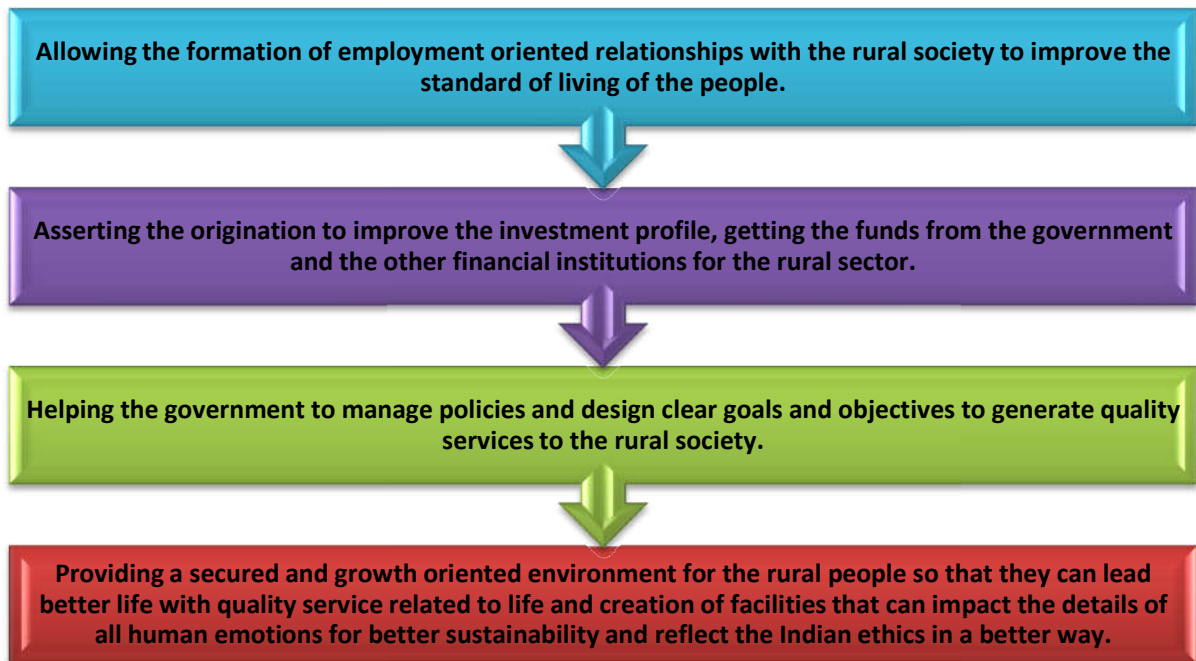

FIGURE: 3 – THE THREE DIMENSIONS OF INCLUSIVE RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The Positive Impact of Rural Development

Development is a way of doing economic activities in the modern era of technological connectivity in an organized manner to build a network of working relationships. Development and growth has many advantages and it supports the functions of the society in the following ways:

Allowing the formation of employment oriented relationships with the rural society to improve the standard of living of the people.

Asserting the origination to improve the investment profile, getting the funds from the government and the other financial institutions for the rural sector.

Helping the government to manage policies and design clear goals and objectives to generate quality services to the rural society.

Providing a secured and growth oriented environment for the rural people so that they can lead better life with quality service related to life and creation of facilities that can impact the details of all human emotions for better sustainability and reflect the Indian ethics in a better way.

Rural Economic Development

The rural economic development refers to the solutions and strategy for managing relationships with the rural people. With the advent of web, the government can connect the e-choupal to the people in villages to enhance trust and faith in the society with the better participation of the people. The economic development strategy involves process, technology and people issues. These inputs design the strategy to foster sustainable growth and development.

The current trend is towards development models which can control the communication and the interaction process. This new movement will challenge all three components of economic development - process, technology and rural people. Technology has stepped in and has created a new era of services; connectivity and growth. The government can now serve people in a standard way and can manage their relationship in an effective way.

Challenges of the Rural Environment

The business is facing massive challenges in today's highly competitive market and to acquire the maximum possible market share in an overcrowded market.
The following are the threats that force the business to design and implement better solutions and services to the customers:

The nature of competition has become global.	**The rate of change is accelerating out of control.**	**The rural people have been impacted by the changes through the media.**
The rural economy is expanding.	**The internet is transforming the business landscape.**	**Industry barriers are collapsing enabling major brands to enter new markets of rural sector through market penetration strategies.**

The Perspectives of the Rural Economic Development

The Indian rural economic development is an important part of the Indian economy where the government has to foster growth by providing employment and business opportunities to the people. The government is in pressure to provide high quality services in the global environment of high competition. The service providers on the part of government can design the package to form the value chain which generally governs the economies of the scale. The basic objectives of the rural economic development are as follows:

1. **Human Perspective:** The economic development of the rural sector has to look after the individual needs of the farmers because if he is given attention he will give better products and enhance the productivity and efficiency of the rural economy.
2. **Social Perspective:** For every sector of development, the social issues are important because we are existing in this society which is the web of human emotions and feelings. The rural people have to be respected, their social and cultural values are important and the government development policies have to incorporate the values of the rural society.
3. **Economic Perspective**: The society or any economy can only be successful if the design, implementation and feedback are according to the specific needs of a particular section of the society. Every policy related to the economic development requires a unique profit oriented strategy for growth and sustainability.
4. **National Perspective:** The government has the national objective for enhancing the gross domestic product of the country so as to increase the national income of the country through the rural and urban development.
5. **Global Perspective:** The government policy has to focus on the global issues because now we are connected to the world through the technological up gradation happening in the world. The economy is liberalized where global influence cannot be ignored.

Benefits of Economic Development to the Rural Society

Managing economic development has great impact on the rural society and economy. It helps in the better understanding of the people's requirements and helps them to understand where the government can form better policy issues to define prosperity and profits.

Economic Development through Public and Private Participation

Economic development is a comprehensive strategy of developing the agriculture and industries through the technology and education. Business is the establishment, development, maintenance and optimization of long term mutually valuable relationships between the society and the system.

The economic environment is changing every day, so the businesses have to be updated so to enhance the global connectivity through the standardized businesses practices. The changes are happening in a bigger way impacting all the dimensions of the rural development.

Rural Economy	Economic Development Strategies
1. Mass population of India in villages	1. Mass reach through e-governance
2. Uneducated	2. Provide quality education
3. Backward	3. Strategies development and growth
4. Lack of infrastructure	4. Focus on roads and railways
5. Lack of connectivity	5. Provide telephones and internet
6. Lack of awareness	6. Build awareness through media
7. Poverty	7. Develop financial institutions
8. Lack of development and business	8. Design policies for growth
9. Agriculture underdeveloped	9. Upgrade agricultural development

Some of the problems faced for rural development in India are as follows:

1. The financial, manpower and managerial resources devoted to the implementation of rural development programmes are utterly inadequate.
2. Better implementation of rural development programmes can be ensured only if those responsible for actual implementation are paid reasonably well, appropriately trained, and sufficiently motivated. But this has not been done as yet.
3. It is being increasingly observed that the objectives of one programme conflict with those of others, and there is no institutional mechanism for reconciling them. Consequently, many programmes utterly fail in fulfilling their objectives. In addition, they also affect other programmes.
4. In many cases, instruments of rural development are not properly selected, and their levels are not consistent with the objectives they seek to achieve. The is results in the wastage of valuable public resources, and unnecessary delays in achieving the objectives..

5. Honesty, hard work, helping others, thrift and such other virtues indirectly help in economic development. In the Indian context, not much attention has been paid to this aspect of development.

6. Observance of rituals, lack of rational decisions in economic matters, spending huge amounts of money on marriage, birth or death ceremonies, prevalence of the caste system and the joint family system in the rural areas and illiteracy are some of the factors which arrest the rural development in India.

7. The political parties have a vital role to play in rural development. But unfortunately this role has not been effectively realized by any democratic political party so far. The political parties, today, are guided more by party interests rather than by national interests.

The removal of these problems will accelerate the process of rural development in India. The role of governmental and non-governmental organizations in this regard is, indeed, commendable. But much remains to be done. If we all work together with undivided attention in this direction we can surely achieve success. The India of Gandhiji's dream would be a reality. We are living with that hope.

DEVELOPMENT ISSUES REGARDING LAND

There is increasing recognition that access to land is frequently critical if vulnerable households are to enjoy sustainable rural livelihoods. Secure access to land, whether through formal, informal, customary or other means, is necessary for rural households to enjoy sustainable livelihoods, and is an important part of sustainable development.

Land tenure problems are often an important contributor to food insecurity, to restricted livelihood opportunities, and therefore to poverty. Secure access to land should thus be considered when designing solutions to specific rural development or food insecurity situations. This requires recognizing and tackling land tenure related problems even in the earliest stages of a rural development project. Discussion of land tenure is not restricted to access to land alone, but also includes access to other natural resources, such as water and trees, which may be essential for people's livelihoods. For convenience, "access to land" is used here to include access to other natural resources as well.

Why Land Tenure Is Important

Land tenure is important in rural development interventions which place an emphasis on building people's endowments of assets so they can enjoy sustainable livelihoods. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with, and recover from stresses and shocks, and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base. In this context, a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. Property rights to land, together with labour, form the most common endowments used to produce food for home consumption as well as cash crops that allow the family or individual to pay for other needs such as health and education.

Property rights to land are thus one of the most powerful resources available to people to increase and extend their collection of assets beyond land and labour to the full portfolio necessary for sustainable livelihoods, i.e., natural resources, social, human, and financial capital as well as physical assets .

**FIGURE: 4 - SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD ASSETS**
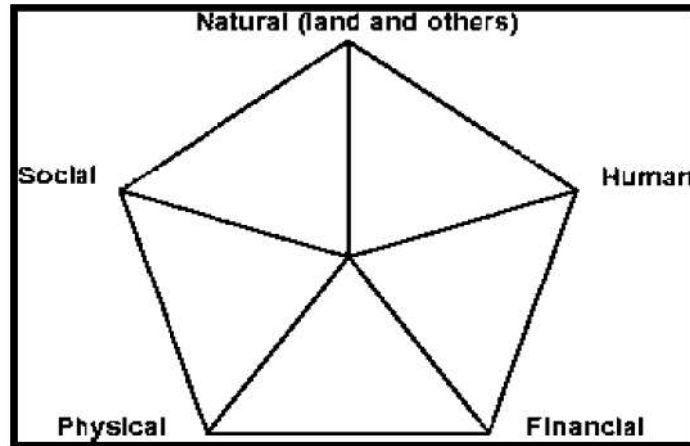
Land tenure is also important in rural development interventions that use a rights-based approach to programming. Such programming should ensure that causes which prevent people from enjoying their rights are eliminated or reduced. For example, the UN Commission on the Status of Women noted in 1998 that land rights discrimination against women is a violation of human rights.

A rights-based perspective should be undertaken to ensure that the support programme does not reinforce discrimination against women, minorities and other vulnerable groups, but instead helps to overcome it.

When dealing with aid and development in rural areas, a rights-based approach to programming should address the rights to land that the beneficiary groups in the project or programme have. It necessitates identifying what rights are recognized within the project area, how these rights are organised, and whether adequate institutional arrangements exist to determine who has rights to land, for how long, for what purposes, and under what conditions.

FIGURE: 5 – LAND SCARCITY IN RURAL HOUSEHOLDS
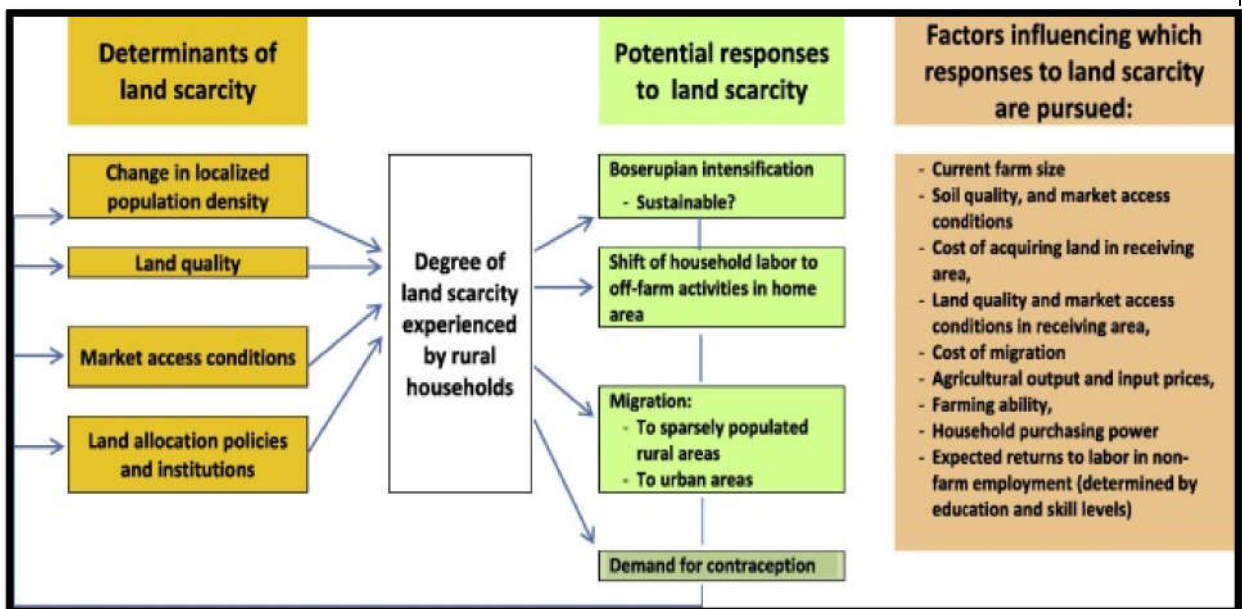
Land rights are often a vital element when rural households balance their capabilities and assets, and determine their resulting strategies to cope with their daily production and food security. However, rights to land are not just a source of economic production, but are also a basis of social relationships and cultural values, and a source of prestige and often power. The resulting social networks that are built up within a specific social and cultural group are a very important asset in ensuring sustainability of livelihoods of rural households.

Why Land Tenure should be considered in Design of Projects

Projects to promote rural development often have land tenure implications. In some cases, the design of a project may include improvements to land tenure arrangements in order to support its development goals. In other cases, activities of a project may have an impact on land tenure arrangements. Such potential impacts may not be always apparent at the design phase. However, failure to consider land tenure implications from the start may result in unanticipated consequences. Such failure might result in no overall improvements if the land tenure effects cancel out gains made elsewhere in the project, or it could cause the situation to become even worse.

Environmental Issues related to Land Tenure

- Land tenure and environmental conditions are closely related: land tenure can promote land use practices that harm the environment or it can serve to enhance the environment.
- Unsuitable rules (either formal or informal) for acquiring access to land can lead to environmental degradation. In many parts of the world, clearing the land has become an effective way to lay claim to it. For example, forests have traditionally been used for slash-and-burn agriculture by local people who had customary rights to those resources.
- In order to improve the sustainable use of natural resources, land tenure strategies should be linked with appropriate land management tools, such as agro-ecological zoning, to ensure that the land is put to a use that is suitable for its soil, land form and climatic characteristics. Increased participation and the empowerment of community structures are also required to ensure effective self-management of the natural resource base.

Gender issues related to Land Tenure

1. In most societies, women have unequal access to rural land and associated natural resources.
2. In many cases, societies may have protected the interests of women through customary law, religious law, and legislation in the past, but changing socio-economic conditions often result in the old rules failing to ensure that women have access to the resources needed to raise and care for families.
3. Communities that now experience land shortages or rapidly increasing land values may be unable or reluctant to prevent male relatives from claiming land over which women, particularly widowed or single women, have rights.

Conflict, Migration and Resolution Processes related to Land Tenure

1. There is typically a close link between tenure and conflict over land. Within a society, competing claims for control and use of land may provoke conflicts. Population growth and changing

economic factors can in turn increase competition for access to land. Competition is usually regulated by a society's tenure rules which are developed in response to dynamic social, economic and political relationships. When these tenure rules are unable to adjust sufficiently rapidly to changing circumstances, the chance of conflict arising is increased. For example, customary tenure systems usually originated in areas where resources were extensive compared with the population and, importantly, where there was a shared social consensus between the various holders of rights. When this social consensus breaks down, the door is open for possible conflicts.

2. The impacts of changes and uncertainties increase when there is confusion and conflict between customary rules and modern laws. Discrepancies provide ambiguities to be exploited. Parties in a "sale" of customary land may have differing views as to whether the transfer is permanent or temporary, or whether the "buyer" has the right to sell the land to another person. Such situations can become complicated when personal interests, arising for example through the "personalization" of power in a society, interact with competing group interests. Conflicts may arise because of the potential for an owner to "sell" the same piece of land to more than one buyer through duplicate sales. There may be conflicts between members of a family if the family head sells part of the lineage's patrimony without the agreement of other entitled members. State interventions can also increase insecurity and generate conflicts in some circumstances. Inadequate registration procedures or abusive expropriation may, for example, increase the risk of an owner being dispossessed of rights.

Rural Water Supply & Sanitation Services

Government of India (GOI) and States have expended more than $2billion per annum, providing adequate and potable water to more than 91 percent rural people in 1.5m habitations, a major accomplishment for Rural Water Supply & Sanitation (RWSS) infrastructure provision in the last few decades.

Sanitation coverage, defined as access to toilets by households, has also improved, covering about 70 percent rural households.

However, this expenditure does not necessarily translate into reliable, sustainable and affordable water and sanitation services. Continuing 'quality and quantity' problems along with poor operations and maintenance (O&M) standards and cost recovery are formidable constraints in achieving full coverage, resulting in 30-40% schemes periodically slipping back to "partially covered" or "not covered" status.

The main challenge is switching from a build-and-rebuild approach to a build-and-expand approach where the Gram Panchayats (GPs) maintain their facilities and States invest in expanding systems to meet growing population and increasing demand for better and sustainable services. The sector challenges are:

1. Decentralizing service delivery responsibilities, placing GPs and communities in the central role supported by higher levels of Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRI), the State government and the local private sector for facilitating, planning, monitoring and providing a range of O&M back-up services.

2. Implementing sustainable local government managed models for intra-GP RWSS schemes and using State-PRI partnership models for multi-GP schemes, whilst clarifying roles and responsibilities at all levels.
3. Moving the RWSS sector to recovery of O&M cost and an increasing contribution to capital costs over time.
4. Scaling up the reform program, towards uniform sector financing, institutional and implementation policies, across the State.
5. Integrating water supply and sanitation, with effective sanitation promotion programs for achieving 'open defecation free' clean villages.
6. Addressing issues of declining groundwater and quality problems, including increased community management of scarce resources.
7. Establishing M&E systems with independent reviews and social audits.
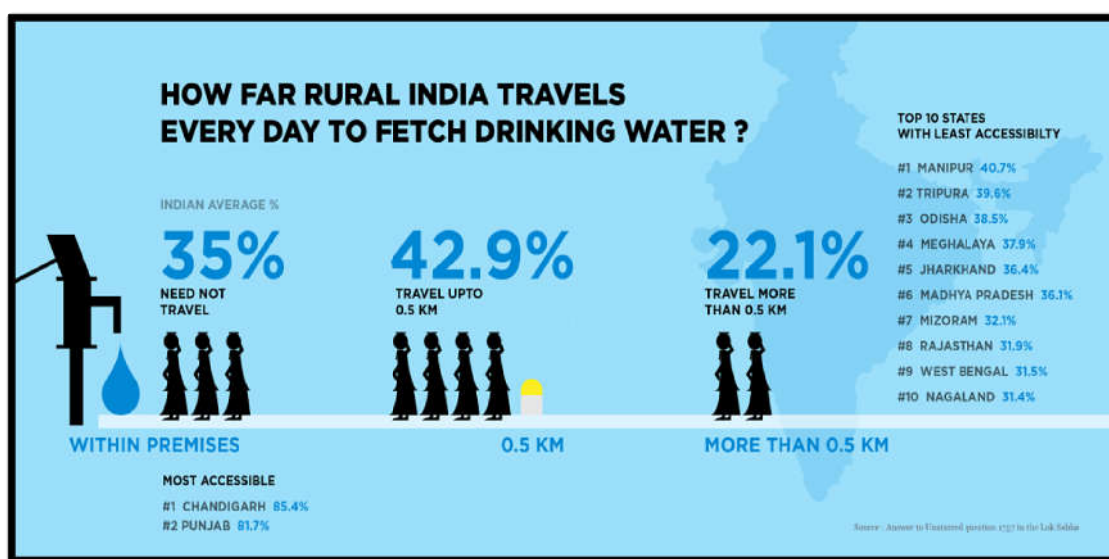
FIGURE: 6 – DISTANCE TRAVELLED FOR WATER IN RURAL AREAS

Government Program and Priorities

In order to address the sector challenges, mainly the slippages in habitations from 'fully covered' to 'partially' or 'not covered' status, the National Rural Drinking Water Program (NRDWP) guidelines emphasize the involvement of the PRIs and communities in planning, implementing and managing drinking water supply schemes, along with capacity building and M&E systems.

Recently, the Ministry of Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation has prepared its long term strategic plan (2011-2022) for ensuring drinking water security to all rural households. The strategic plan aims to cover 90% of households with piped water and at least 80% of households with tap connections during this period.

The strategy emphasizes achieving water security through decentralized governance with oversight and regulation, participatory planning and implementation of improved sources and schemes. Sustainable service delivery mechanisms are a central feature of the program, with State institutions or Zilla

Panchayats implementing and managing large multi-village schemes, delivering bulk water to villages in water stressed areas, and GPs implementing and managing in-village and intra-Panchayat schemes.

The strategy highlights source sustainability measures, water quality safety, monitoring and surveillance, convergence of different development programs, and building professional capacity at all levels. The main challenge now is the effective implementation and scaling-up of the proposed decentralized systems.

On the sanitation front, the Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC) and the Nirmal Gram Puraskar as an incentive program with awards for 'open defecation free' villages, is an effective step by GoI for promoting sanitation facilities as well as eradicating open defecation practices with information and awareness raising campaigns. However, the full potential of this campaign has yet to be realized.

FIGURE: 7 – SWAJALDHARA PROGRAMME

DEVELOPMENT ISSUES IN SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURE

Overview

While agriculture's share in India's economy has progressively declined to less than 15% due to the high growth rates of the industrial and services sectors, the sector's importance in India's economic and social fabric goes well beyond this indicator. First, nearly three-quarters of India's families depend on rural incomes. Second, the majority of India's poor (some 770 million people or about 70 percent) are found in rural areas. And third, India's food security depends on producing cereal crops, as well as increasing its production of fruits, vegetables and milk to meet the demands of a growing population with rising incomes. To do so, a productive, competitive, diversified and sustainable agricultural sector will need to emerge at an accelerated pace.

India is a global agricultural powerhouse. It is the world's largest producer of milk, pulses, and spices, and has the world's largest cattle herd (buffaloes), as well as the largest area under wheat, rice and cotton. It is the second largest producer of rice, wheat, cotton, sugarcane, farmed fish, sheep & goat meat, fruit, vegetables and tea. The country has some 195 m ha under cultivation of which some 63 percent are rainfed (roughly 125m ha) while 37 percent are irrigated (70m ha). In addition, forests cover some 65m ha of India's land.

Challenges

Three agriculture sector challenges will be important to India's overall development and the improved welfare of its rural poor:

1. **Raising agricultural productivity per unit of land**: Raising productivity per unit of land will need to be the main engine of agricultural growth as virtually all cultivable land is farmed. Water resources are also limited and water for irrigation must contend with increasing industrial and urban needs. All measures to increase productivity will need exploiting, amongst them: increasing yields, diversification to higher value crops, and developing value chains to reduce marketing costs.

2. **Reducing rural poverty through a socially inclusive strategy that comprises both agriculture as well as non-farm employment**: Rural development must also benefit the poor, landless, women, scheduled castes and tribes. Moreover, there are strong regional disparities: the majority of India's poor are in rain-fed areas or in the Eastern Indo-Gangetic plains. Reaching such groups has not been easy. While progress has been made - the rural population classified as poor fell from nearly 40% in the early 1990s to below 30% by the mid-2000s (about a 1% fall per year) – there is a clear need for a faster reduction. Hence, poverty alleviation is a central pillar of the rural development efforts of the Government and the World Bank.

3. **Ensuring that agricultural growth responds to food security needs**: The sharp rise in food-grain production during India's Green Revolution of the 1970s enabled the country to achieve self-sufficiency in food-grains and stave off the threat of famine. Agricultural intensification in the 1970s to 1980s saw an increased demand for rural labor that raised rural wages and, together with declining food prices, reduced rural poverty. However agricultural growth in the 1990s and 2000s slowed down, averaging about 3.5% per annum, and cereal yields have increased by only 1.4% per annum in the 2000s. The slow-down in agricultural growth has become a major cause for concern. India's rice yields are one-third of China's and about half of those in Vietnam and Indonesia. The same is true for most other agricultural commodities.

Policy makers will thus need to initiate and/or conclude policy actions and public programs to shift the sector away from the existing policy and institutional regime that appears to be no longer viable and build a solid foundation for a much more productive, internationally competitive, and diversified agricultural sector.

Priority Areas for Support

1. **Enhancing agricultural productivity, competitiveness, and rural growth**

   a. **Promoting new technologies and reforming agricultural research and extension:** Major reform and strengthening of India's agricultural research and extension systems is one of the most important needs for agricultural growth. These services have declined over time due to chronic underfunding of infrastructure and operations, no replacement of aging researchers or broad access to state-of-the-art technologies.

   b. **Improving Water Resources and Irrigation/Drainage Management:** Agriculture is India's largest user of water. However, increasing competition for water between industry, domestic use and agriculture has highlighted the need to plan and manage water on a river basin and multi-sectoral basis. As urban and other demands multiply, less water is likely to be available for irrigation. Ways to radically enhance the productivity of irrigation ("more crop per drop") need to be found. Piped conveyance, better on-farm management of water, and use of more efficient delivery mechanisms such as drip irrigation are among the actions that could be taken.

   Other key priorities include:

   > Modernizing Irrigation and Drainage Departments to integrate the participation of farmers and other agencies in managing irrigation water

   > Improving cost recovery

   > Rationalizing public expenditures, with priority to completing schemes with the highest returns

   > Allocating sufficient resources for operations and maintenance for the sustainability of investments

   c. **Facilitating agricultural diversification to higher-value commodities:** Encouraging farmers to diversify to higher value commodities will be a significant factor for higher agricultural growth, particularly in rain-fed areas where poverty is high.

   d. **Promoting high growth commodities:** Some agricultural sub-sectors have particularly high potential for expansion, notably dairy. The livestock sector, primarily due to dairy, contributes over a quarter of agricultural GDP and is a source of income for 70% of India's rural families, mostly those who are poor and headed by women

2. **Poverty alleviation and community actions**

   While agricultural growth will, in itself, provide the base for increasing incomes, for the 170 million or so rural persons that are below the poverty line, additional measures are required to make this growth inclusive. For instance, a rural livelihoods program that empowers communities to become self-reliant has been found to be particularly effective and well-suited for scaling-up. This program promotes the formation of self-help groups, increases community savings, and promotes local initiatives to increase incomes and employment.

3. **Sustaining the environment and future agricultural productivity**

   In parts of India, the over-pumping of water for agricultural use is leading to falling groundwater levels. Conversely, water-logging is leading to the build-up of salts in the soils of some irrigated areas. In rain-fed areas on the other hand, where the majority of the rural population live, agricultural practices need adapting to reduce soil erosion and increase the absorption of rainfall. Overexploited and degrading forest land need mitigation measures. There are proven solutions to nearly all of these problems. The most comprehensive is through watershed management programs, where communities engage in land planning and adopt agricultural practices that protect soils, increase water absorption and raise productivity through higher yields and crop diversification.

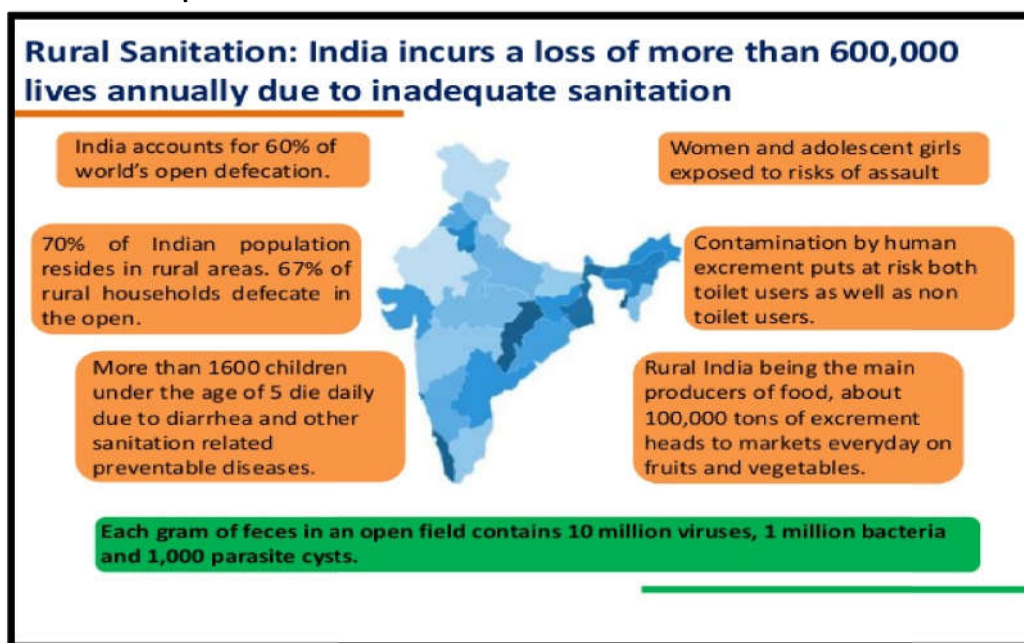4. **Rural Development issues in Health and Sanitation**

Rural Sanitation: India incurs a loss of more than 600,000 lives annually due to inadequate sanitation

India accounts for 60% of world's open defecation.

Women and adolescent girls exposed to risks of assault

70% of Indian population resides in rural areas. 67% of rural households defecate in the open.

Contamination by human excrement puts at risk both toilet users as well as non toilet users.

More than 1600 children under the age of 5 die daily due to diarrhea and other sanitation related preventable diseases.

Rural India being the main producers of food, about 100,000 tons of excrement heads to markets everyday on fruits and vegetables.

Each gram of feces in an open field contains 10 million viruses, 1 million bacteria and 1,000 parasite cysts.
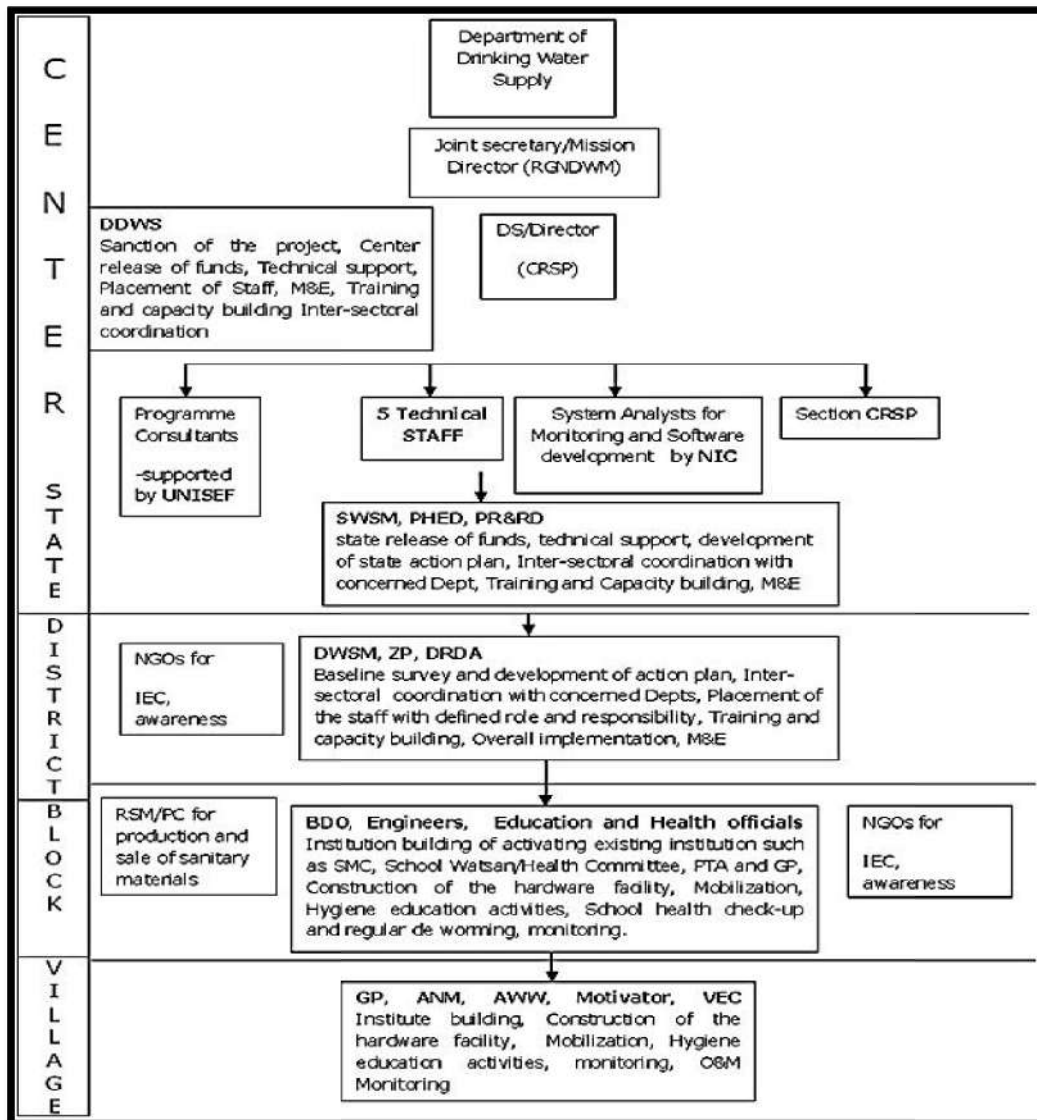
FIGURE: 8 - RURAL SANITATION

RURAL SANITATION: A STEP TOWARDS ACHIEVING THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOAL NO 6

If water is life, sanitation is surely a 'way of life' and access to such facilities has an impact on the quality of human life and health. A holistic definition of sanitation includes safe drinking water, liquid and solid waste management, environmental cleanliness and personal hygiene. Failing to ensure any one of these can have direct implications on the individual/family/community's health. Environmental cleanliness

and sanitation were subjects closest to Mahatma Gandhi's heart who proclaimed that "cleanliness is next only to godliness".

Lack of adequate sanitation is a pressing challenge in rural India. Every day, an estimated 1,000 children under five die in the country because of diarrhoea alone. Prevalence of child under-nutrition in India (47 per cent according to National Family Health Survey (NFHS) III, 2005-06) is among the highest in the world. Child under-nutrition is aggravated by the prevalence of diarrhoeal disease, and is responsible for 22 per cent of the country's burden of disease (World Bank 2005). Sanitation-related diseases take a heavy toll of lives, especially children's lives, and are a drain on productivity and incomes.

FIGURE: 9 – DELIVERY STRUCTURE OF TOTAL SANITATION CAMPAIGN

The first national program to increase access to rural sanitation on a large scale, the Central Rural Sanitation Program, was launched in 1986. Despite considerable investment, this approach failed to

motivate and sustain high levels of sanitation coverage as it was based on the erroneous assumption that provision of sanitary facilities would lead to increased coverage and usage. Recognizing the limitations of this approach, the **Total Sanitation Campaign** was launched in 1999. The TSC moves away from the infrastructure focussed approach of earlier programs and concentrates on promoting behaviour change.

The TSC is being implemented at scale in 590 districts of 30 States/Union Territories (UTs). Against a target of 108.5 million individual household toilets, the toilets reported 'completed' is about 57 million as of October 2008. In addition, about 0.68 million school toilets, 14,540 sanitary complexes for women, and 222,267 *anganwadi* (pre-school) toilets have been constructed.

Nirmal Gram Puraskar promotes the role of Gram Panchayats and local communities in achieving community-wide total sanitation status. Some key features of the TSC include:

1. A community led approach with focus on collective achievement of total sanitation
2. Focus on Information, Education and Communication (IEC) to mobilize and motivate communities towards safe sanitation
3. Minimum capital incentives only for BPL households, post construction and usage
4. Flexible menu of technology options
5. Development of supply chain to meet the demand stimulated at the community level
6. Fiscal incentive in the form of a cash prize – Nirmal Gram Puraskar (NGP) – to accelerate achievement of total sanitation outcomes.

The TSC strategy is to make the campaign community led through leadership by the local bodies, youth and women organizations, and schools in implementing the campaign. The community is sensitized by creating awareness about the impact of open defecation and lack of sanitation on health, dignity and security especially of women and children. In rural sanitation, 'encouraging cost-effective and appropriate technologies for ecologically safe and sustainable sanitation' has been one of the main objectives of the approach. The implication for technology is that this should be improvised to meet consumer preferences 'in an affordable and accessible manner by offering a range of technological choices.

Rural sanitation coverage has received a fillip under the TSC, increasing from just 22 per cent in 2001 to nearly 57 per cent in 2008. Several strategies adopted to scale up the TSC include community-driven approach, menu of technological options and service delivery mechanisms. The role and contribution of partnerships, civil society and media to the success of rural sanitation initiatives is equally important. While the TSC has been successful in scaling up rural sanitation, the program has also faced challenges in implementation. Some of the lessons learned from this implementation experience are outlined using the framework of 4i's i.e. Role of Institutions, Incentives, Information and Inclination.

While taking of sanitation Mahatma Gandhi was of the idea that 'no one should clean and carry human excreta of others just to earn one's livelihood. There must be some scientific method of human waste disposal." Low sanitation coverage is also coupled with lack of affordable sanitation technology! There are several designs and technologies available for installing a household type sanitary latrine. But several inter-related factors play important role in installing a sanitary latrine to a rural household.

- Affordability
- Space in the home
- Geographical conditions - soil/water table etc
- Cultural habits
- Availability of water/scarcity of water
- Availability of skilled or semi skilled manpower

Therefore, it is important to give several technological options or informed choices to the user to choose and own and maintain a sanitary latrine without much external support. These options must help users to select the most suitable to them in terms of cost as well as design without compromising the criteria of sanitary latrine. For example, between indiscriminate open defecation and water seal latrine, one can identify several options by applying the sanitation up-gradation approach -- a movement from one alternative to another alternative, which is better than the previous one.

This approach is takes into account the affordability of the community and at the same time it is flexible enough to allow for up-gradation e.g. a simple pit can be upgraded by lining the pit. A lined pit can be upgraded into a seat over the pit with a water seal. A single pit can be upgraded into a double pit. A suitable super structure can be built and upgraded.

Sustainable Development Goal 6: Clean Water and Sanitation

The Challenge

Every year millions of people, most of them children, die from diseases associated with inadequate water supply, sanitation, and hygiene. It is estimated that by 2050, a quarter of the world's population is likely to live in countries affected by chronic or recurring shortages of water. Two and a half billion people have gained access to improved drinking water sources since 1990, but 663 million people are still without. Between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of the global population using an improved drinking water source increased from 76-91%, however, each day, nearly 1,000 children die due to preventable water and sanitation-related diarrhoeal diseases.

Why is this important?

Clean water is critical to survival, and its absence can impact the health, food security, and livelihoods of families across the world. Although our planet has sufficient fresh water to achieve a regular and clean water supply for all, bad economics and poor infrastructure can skew supply unfavourably. Drought afflicts some of the world's poorest countries, worsening hunger and malnutrition. Floods and other water-related disasters account for 70% of all deaths related to natural disasters. Global goals and national priorities on reliable energy, economic growth, resilient infrastructure, sustainable industrialisation, consumption and production, and food security, are all inextricably linked to a sustainable supply of clean water. Hydropower is one of the most crucial and widely-used renewable sources of energy and as of 2011, represented 16% of total electricity production worldwide.
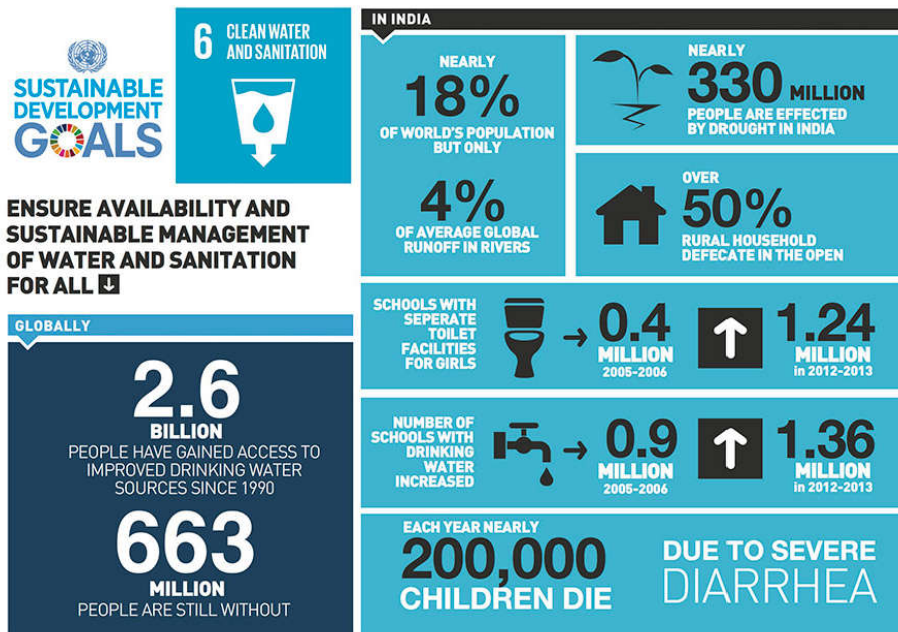
FIGURE: 10 SDG 6 CLEAN WATER & SANITATION

What can we do to address this?

The Sustainable Development Goals have committed the international community to expand international cooperation and capacity building on water and sanitation related activities and programmes, and also to support local communities

in improving water and sanitation management. Through Goal 6, the countries of the world have resolved to achieve universal access to safe drinking water and adequate sanitation and hygiene to all in the next fifteen years.

India and Sustainable Development Goal 6

The overall proportion of Indian households with access to improved water sources increased from 68% in 1992-93 to 90.6% in 2011-12. However, in 2012, 59% of rural households and 8% of urban households did not have access to improved sanitation facilities. Almost 600 million people in India defecate in the open – the highest number in the world. Improving sanitation is a key priority of the government which has introduced several flagship programmes including the **Swachh Bharat Abhiyan** to clean India, the **National Rural Drinking Water Programme**, and **Namami Gange**, which aims at the conservation of the River Ganga.

Targets

- By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all.
- By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations.
- By 2030, improve water quality by reducing pollution, eliminating dumping and minimising release of hazardous chemicals and materials, halving the proportion of untreated wastewater and substantially increasing recycling and safe reuse globally.
- By 2030, substantially increase water-use efficiency across all sectors and ensure sustainable withdrawals and supply of freshwater to address water scarcity and substantially reduce the number of people suffering from water scarcity.
- By 2030, implement integrated water resources management at all levels, including through transboundary co-operation as appropriate.
- By 2020, protect and restore water-related ecosystems, including mountains, forests, wetlands, rivers, aquifers and lakes.
- By 2030, expand international co-operation and capacity-building support to developing countries in water- and sanitation-related activities and programmes, including water harvesting, desalination, water efficiency, waste water treatment, recycling and reuse technologies.
- Support and strengthen the participation of local communities in improving water and sanitation management.

Health Practices and Problems in Rural India

Rural people in India in general and tribal populations in particular, have their own beliefs and practices regarding health. Some tribal groups still believe that a disease is always caused by hostile spirits or by the breach of some taboo. They therefore seek remedies through magic or religious practices.

On the other hand, some rural people have continued to follow rich, undocumented, traditional medicine systems, in addition to the recognised cultural systems of medicine such Ayurveda, Unani, Siddha and Naturopathy, to maintain positive health and to prevent disease.

However, the socioeconomic, cultural and political onslaughts, arising partly from the erratic exploitation of human and material resources, have endangered the naturally healthy environment (e.g. access to healthy and nutritious food, clean air and water, nutritious vegetation, healthy life styles, and advantageous value systems and community harmony).
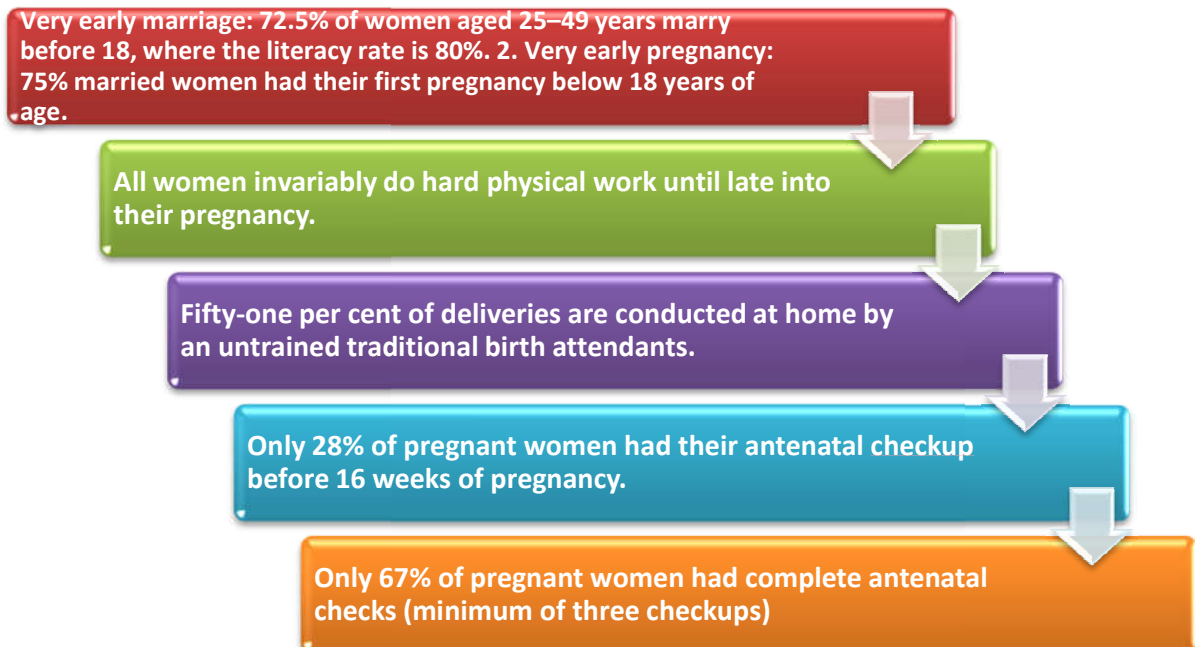
The basic nature of rural health problems is attributed also to lack of health literature and health consciousness, poor maternal and child health services and occupational hazards.

Three groups of infections are widespread in rural areas, as follows:

1. **Diseases that are carried in the gastrointestinal tract**, such as diarrhoea, amoebiasis, typhoid fever, infectious hepatitis, worm infestations and poliomyelitis. About 100 million suffer from diarrhoea and cholera every year.
2. **Diseases that are carried in the air** through coughing, sneezing or even breathing, such as measles, tuberculosis (TB), whooping cough and pneumonia. Today there are 12 million TB cases (an average of 70%). Over 1.2 million cases are added every year and 37 000 cases of measles are reported every year.
3. **Infections**, which are more difficult to deal with, include malaria, filariasis and kala-azar. These are often the result of development. Irrigation brings with it malaria and filariasis, pesticide use has produced a resistant strain of malaria, the ditches, gutters and culverts dug during the construction of roads, and expansion of cattle ranches, for example, are breeding places for snails and mosquitoes.

There is widespread prevalence of protein energy malnutrition (PEM), anaemia, vitamin A deficiency and iodine deficiency. Nearly 100 million children do not get two meals a day. More than 85% of rural children are undernourished (150 000 die every year). A recent survey by the Rural Medical College, Loni (unpublished data), in the villages of Maharashtra State, which is one of the progressive states, has revealed some alarming facts.

Illness and deaths related to pregnancy and childbirth are predominant in the rural areas, due to the following reasons:

Very early marriage: 72.5% of women aged 25–49 years marry before 18, where the literacy rate is 80%. 2. Very early pregnancy: 75% married women had their first pregnancy below 18 years of age.

All women invariably do hard physical work until late into their pregnancy.

Fifty-one per cent of deliveries are conducted at home by an untrained traditional birth attendants.

Only 28% of pregnant women had their antenatal checkup before 16 weeks of pregnancy.

Only 67% of pregnant women had complete antenatal checks (minimum of three checkups)

RURAL HEALTH SCHEME

Community Health Volunteer Scheme-Village Health Guides: Acceptance of the recommendations of the Shrivastav Committee report led to the launching of Rural Health Scheme in 1977, wherein training of community health workers, reorientation training of multipurpose workers and linking medical colleges to rural health was initiated. Also to initiate community participation, the Community Health Volunteer – **Village Health Guide** (VHG) scheme was launched on 2nd October 1977.

According to the VHG Scheme the village community selects a volunteer was to be a person from the village, mostly women, who was imparted short term training and small incentive for the work. VHG acts as a link between the community and the Government Health System. He / She mainly provides health education and creates awareness of Maternal and Child Health and Family Welfare Services. He / She has to keep a track of communicable and treat minor ailments and provide first aid to the patients.

Major milestones in evolution of Primary Health Care in India
Pre Alma Ata Declaration 1946- Bhore Committee Report on Health Survey and Development 1948 -Sokhey Committee Report on National Health 1952- Community Development Programme 1962 -Mudaliar Committee Report on Health Survey and Planning 1966- Mukheree Committee Reports on Basic Health Services 1967- Jungalwalla Committee Report on Integration of Health Services 1973- Kartar singh Committee report on Multipurpose Health Workers 1975- Shrivastav Committee Report on Medical Education and Support manpower 1977- Rural Health Scheme: Community Health Volunteer Scheme-Village Health guides
Alma Ata Declaration and beyond 1978- Alma Ata Declaration – Health For All by 2000 1980- ICSSR and ICMR Report – "Health for all- An alternate Strategy" 1983- Mehta Committee on Medical Education Review 1983- First National Health Policy 1987- Bajaj Committee on Health Manpower Planning, Production and Management 1996 Bajaj Committee on Public Health Systems 2000 -National Population Policy 2002- Second National Health Policy 2005 -National Rural Health Mission (NRHM)

Strengthening of Rural Health Infrastructure under National Rural Health Mission

The National Rural Health Mission seeks to provide effective healthcare to rural population throughout the country with special focus on 18 States, which have weak public health indicators and/or weak infrastructure. These 18 States are Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Jammu & Kashmir, Manipur, Mizoram, Meghalaya, Madhya Pradesh, Nagaland, Odisha, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tripura, Uttarakhand and Uttar Pradesh. The mission is an articulation of the commitment of the government to raise public spending on health from 0.9% of GDP to 2-3% of GDP.
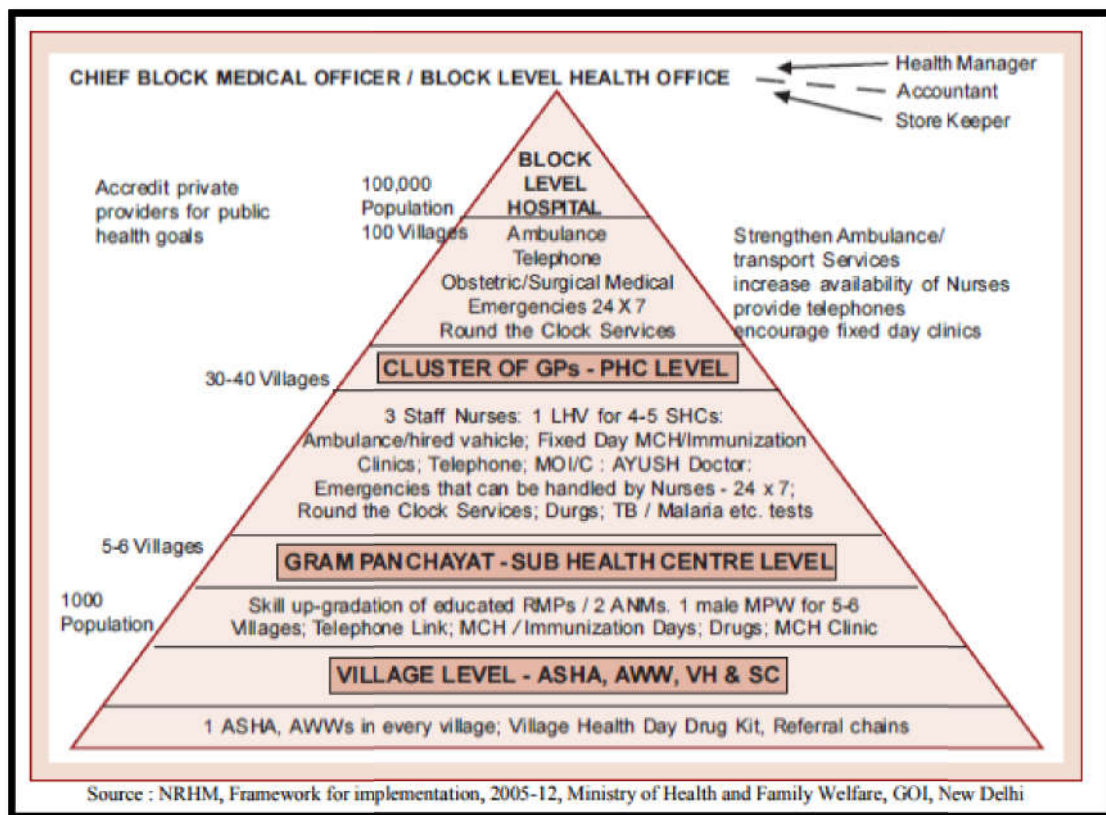
FIGURE: 11 PRIMARY HEALTH CARE IN INDIA

NRHM aims to undertake architectural correction of the health system to enable it to effectively handle increased allocations and promote policies that strengthen public health management and service delivery in the country. It has as its key components provision of a female health activist in each village; a village health plan prepared through a local team headed by the Village Health, Sanitation & Nutrition Committee(VHS&NC) of the Panchayat; strengthening of the rural hospital for effective curative care and made measurable and accountable to the community through Indian Public Health Standards (IPHS); integration of vertical health & family welfare programmes, optimal utilization of funds & infrastructure, and strengthening delivery of primary healthcare.

It seeks to revitalize local health traditions and mainstream AYUSH into the public health system. It further aims at effective integration of health concerns with determinants of health like sanitation & hygiene, nutrition, and safe drinking water through a District Plan for health. It seeks decentralization of programmes for district management of health and to address the inter-State and inter-district disparities, especially among the 18 high focus States, including unmet needs for public health

infrastructure. It also seeks to improve access of rural people, especially poor women and children, to equitable, affordable, accountable and effective primary healthcare.
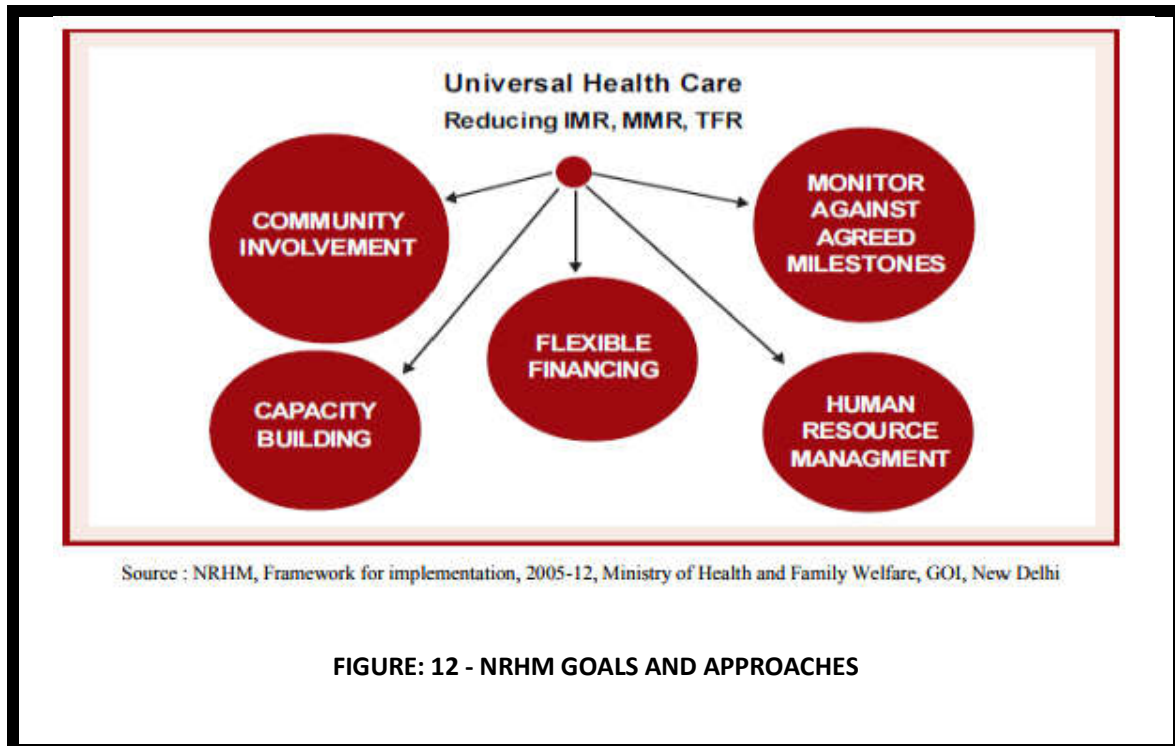

Source : NRHM, Framework for implementation, 2005-12, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, GOI, New Delhi

FIGURE: 12 - NRHM GOALS AND APPROACHES

RURAL EDUCATION IN INDIA

Majority of India still lives in villages and so the topic of rural education in India is of utmost importance. A survey named called the **Annual Status of Education Report** (ASER), shows that even though the number of rural students attending schools is rising, but more than half of the students in fifth grade are unable to read a second grade text book and are not able to solve simple mathematical problems. Not only this, the level of maths and reading is further declining. Though efforts are being made, they are not in the right direction. The reason cited for this problem in surveys is the increasing number of single classroom to educate students from more than one grade. In some states attendance of teachers and students is also declining. These are a few reasons why schools have failed to educate rural India.

1. Quality and access to education is the major concern in rural schools as there are fewer committed teachers, lack of proper text books and learning material in the schools. Though Government schools exist, but when compared to private schools then quality is a major issue.

2. Majority of people living in villages have understood the importance of education and know that it is the only way to get rid of poverty. But due to lack of money they are not able to send their children to private schools and hence depend upon government schools for education. Above that, in some of the government schools there is only one teacher for the entire school and if they don't show up at work, then it is a holiday.

3. If the quality along with number of teachers, that too committed teachers, can be improved in these schools, then aspiring rural children and India can fulfil their dreams of doing something great. Some government schools in rural India are overly packed with students, leading to a distorted teacher- student ratio. In one such remote village in Arunachal Pradesh there are more than 300 students in class X which makes nearly 100 students in each classroom. In such a situation it is impossible for teachers to pay full attention towards each and every student, even if they are willing to help.

4. Every village is not provided with school which means that students have to go to another village to get education. Owing to this parents usually do not send their daughters to school, leading to a failure in achieving rural education in India.

5. Poverty is another setback. Government schools are not as good and private schools are expensive. This results in a very low number of students actually clearing their secondary education and taking admission in colleges for further studies. So the drop-out-rate at the secondary level is extremely high in villages. Only parents who can afford college education send their kids to secondary schools. If parents are not able to send their wards for higher education then all their previous efforts get wasted as completing just secondary education means a low paying job and the person is again struck in the same never ending cycle of money, life and poverty.

6. The foundation to turn India into a strong nation has to be laid down at primary and rural levels and so the quality of education right from the beginning should be excellent. Education and text books should be made interesting. For rural students textbooks related to their culture, their traditions and values should also be there so as to create their interest in studies. The reasons behind so many drop-outs in spite of free education should be found out as this is a hurdle on the road to progress. Improvement in the condition of government schools, education quality, committed teachers and more salaries to these teachers should be part of development.

7. There is a difference between city and village student not in terms of brain or development but their initial environment, skills, learning ability, availability of infrastructure, and access to different facilities. All of these must be considered while making the curricula which should not be different but how it is going to be taught would make the difference. Encourage the genuine rural students who are interested in education and make them competent. There are many examples of success in rural education in India like the Barefoot College, 8 Day Academy and Gurukul School in Bihar. These are innovative and successful examples of schools running in rural India. It is the time to replicate such efforts as our country and its rural population is very vast which means one of two stories of these kinds won't make any difference. Instead of this large number of such schools are required in rural India.

Educational Programmes taken by the Indian Government in Rural Areas:

i. Non-formal Education Scheme

ii. Operation Blackboard

iii. Mahila Samakya (MS)

iv. District Primary Education Programme

v. National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education (School Meal Programme)

vi. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA)

vii. Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan

viii. Community Mobilization and Participation Schemes

ASER 2016 (Rural) Findings

ASER 2016 reached 589 rural districts across India. The survey was carried out in 17,473 villages, covering 350,232 households and 562,305 children in the age group 3-16.

At the All India level, enrolment increased for all age groups between 2014 and 2016:

1. Enrolment for the age group 6-14 has been 96% or above since 2009. This proportion increased from 96.7% in 2014 to 96.9% in 2016.
2. Enrolment for the age group 15-16 has also improved for both boys and girls, rising from 83.4% in 2014 to 84.7% in 2016.
3. However, in some states, the fraction of out of school children (age 6-14) has increased between 2014 and 2016. These include Madhya Pradesh (from 3.4% to 4.4%), Chhattisgarh (from 2% to 2.8%), and Uttar Pradesh (from 4.9% to 5.3%).
4. In some states the proportion of girls (age group 11-14) out of school remains greater than 8%. These states are Rajasthan (9.7%) and Uttar Pradesh (9.9%). Joining them in 2016 is Madhya Pradesh (8.5%).

No increase in private school enrolment between 2014 and 2016:

1. At the all India level, the proportion of children (age 6-14) enrolled in private schools is almost unchanged at 30.5% in 2016, as compared to 30.8% in 2014.
2. The gender gap in private school enrolment has decreased slightly in both the 7-10 and the 11-14 age group. In 2014, among children age 11-14, the gap between boys' and girls' enrolment in private school was 7.6 percentage points. In 2016, this gap had decreased to 6.9 percentage points.
3. Two states show significant increase in government school enrolment relative to 2014 levels. In Kerala, the proportion of children (age 11-14) enrolled in government school increased from 40.6% in 2014 to 49.9% in 2016. In Gujarat, this proportion increased from 79.2% in 2014 to 86% in 2016.

4. Three states show substantial increases since 2014 in private school enrolment among children in the elementary school age group (age 6-14): Uttarakhand (from 37.5% to 41.6%), Arunachal Pradesh (from 24.4% to 29.5%), and Assam (from 17.3% to 22%).

Nationally, reading ability has improved especially in early grades in government schools:

1. Nationally, the proportion of children in Std III who are able to read at least Std I level text has gone up slightly, from 40.2% in 2014 to 42.5% in 2016. This proportion shows substantial increases among children in government schools in many states: Punjab, Uttarakhand, Haryana, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Telangana. All these states show an improvement of more than 7 percentage points since 2014.
2. Overall reading levels in Std V are almost the same year on year from 2011 to 2016. However, the proportion of children in Std V who could read a Std II level text improved by more than 5 percentage points from 2014 to 2016 in Gujarat, Maharashtra, Tripura, Nagaland and Rajasthan. This improvement is driven by gains in learning levels in government schools in these states.
3. Nationally, reading levels in Std VIII show a slight decline since 2014 (from 74.7% to 73.1%). Then and now, three out of every four children enrolled in Std VIII can read at least Std II level (the highest level assessed in the ASER survey). The state-wise picture for Std VIII reading levels does not show much improvement except for government schools in Manipur, Rajasthan, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu.

Arithmetic shows improvement in government schools in primary grades:

1. Although low, the all India (rural) figures for basic arithmetic have improved slightly for Std III in 2016 as compared to 2014. This is the first year since 2010, that there is an upward trend in arithmetic figures.
2. In 2014, for the country 25.4% of Std III children could do a 2-digit subtraction. This number has risen slightly to 27.7% in 2016. This improvement has come primarily from government schools where the percentage of Std III children who could do a 2-digit subtraction increased from 17.2% in 2014 to 20.2% in 2016.
3. In almost all states there is some improvement in the arithmetic levels of children enrolled in government schools in Std III. States with an increase of 5 percentage points or more since 2014 include Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Odisha and Chhattisgarh.
4. From 2014 to 2016, for Std V children, the level of arithmetic as measured by children's ability to do simple division problems has remained almost the same at 26%. Only five major states show an improvement of more than 5 percentage points. These are Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha, Chhattisgarh and Uttarakhand.
5. However, the ability to do division among Std VIII students has continued to drop. This declining trend has been observed since 2010. The proportion of Std VIII students who could correctly do a 3-digit by 1-digit division problem was 68.4% in 2010. This number dropped to 44.2% in 2014, and has further declined to 43.3% in 2016. Only children in Manipur, Karnataka and Telangana show an increase of 5 percentage points or more.

Ability to read English is unchanged for lower primary grades:
Assessments of Basic English have been carried out in 2007, 2009, 2012, 2014 and 2016.

1. Children's ability to read English is slightly improved in Std III but relatively unchanged in Std V. In 2016, 32% children in Std III could read simple words in English as compared to 28.5% in 2009.
2. In comparison, in 2016, 24.5% of children enrolled in Std V could read simple English sentences. This number is virtually unchanged since 2009. However, a few states show improvements since 2014 for government school children enrolled in Std V. These states are Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Haryana, Maharashtra and Kerala (all with improvements of 5 percentage points or more). In nine states, the level of English reading of private schools has also improved. These are Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Assam, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Telangana.
3. However, the decline in upper primary grades continues. For example, in 2009, 60.2% of children in Std VIII could read simple sentences in English; in 2014, this figure was 46.7% and in 2016 this ability has further declined to 45.2%.
4. In 2016, of those who can read words (regardless of grade), roughly 60% could explain the meanings of the words read. Of those who can read sentences, 62.4% in Std V could explain the meaning of the sentences. Both these levels are virtually unchanged since 2014.

School Observations:

As part of the ASER survey, one government school with primary sections is visited in each sampled village.

ASER 2016 visited 15,630 government schools with primary sections. Of these 9,644 were primary schools and 5,986 were upper primary schools which also had primary sections.

Children's attendance shows no major change from 2014:

1. In 2016, ASER data indicates that 71.4% of enrolled children in primary schools and 73.2% of enrolled children in upper primary schools were present on the day of the visit. In 2014, these figures were 71.3% in primary schools and 71.1% in upper primary schools.
2. As in previous years, children's attendance varies considerably across the country. States like Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Uttarakhand, Haryana, Nagaland, Mizoram, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala and Tamil Nadu have attendance levels that are above 80%. But in states like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Manipur, West Bengal, and Madhya Pradesh, attendance rates range from 50 to 60%.
3. Trends over time show that children's attendance in both primary and upper primary schools was higher in 2009 as compared to 2016. In 2009, attendance was at 74.3% in primary schools. The figure for 2016 is 71.4%. Similar data for upper primary schools shows a decline from 77% in 2009 to 73.2% in 2016.

The proportion of "small schools" in the government primary school sector continues to grow. The percentage of multigrade classrooms has also increased:

1. Of the government primary schools visited in 2016, close to 40% are "small schools" with a total enrolment of 60 children or less. 8.9% of the upper primary schools visited had a total enrolment of 60 children or less.

2. In 2009, the percentage of government primary schools visited that were "small" was 26.1%. The corresponding number for upper primary schools was 4.5%.
3. ASER also notes the proportion of children enrolled in Std II and Std IV who are sitting with other grades. This proportion has been going up over time. In primary schools, in 2010, 55.2% of Std II classes sat with other grades. This figure has gone up to 63.7% in 2016. Similar trends are also visible for Std IV. The proportion of classes in which Std IV children are sitting with other grades increased from 49% in 2010 to 58% in 2016.

For the most part, improvement in school facilities continues:

1. ASER records whether toilets are available and useable on the day of the visit. Since 2010, there has been significant progress in the availability of useable toilets. Nationally in 2016, 68.7% of schools visited had toilet facilities that were useable as compared 47.2% in 2010. In 2016, only 3.5% of the schools visited had no toilet facility.
2. The proportion of schools visited where girls' toilets were available and useable has gone up from 32.9% in 2010 to 55.7% in 2014 to 61.9% in 2016. In four states, 80% or more schools visited had useable girls' toilets. These states are Gujarat, Rajasthan, Himachal Pradesh and Haryana.
3. Drinking water was available in 74.1% of the schools that were visited in 2016, down from 75.6% in 2014. In 2010, this figure was 72.7%. In four states (Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat and Himachal Pradesh), drinking water was available in 85% or more of schools.
4. There has been no change in the availability of computers in schools since 2014. The 2016 figure is 20% as compared to 19.6% in 2014. However, some states stand out in terms of high provision of computers. In Kerala, 89% of schools visited had computers; this number was 75.2% in Gujarat, 55.1% in Maharashtra and 57.3% in Tamil Nadu.
5. The proportion of schools with libraries has fallen from 78.1% in 2014 to 75.5% in 2016. However, children were seen using library books in more schools in 2016. In 42.6% of schools that were visited, children were seen using library books as compared to 40.7% in 2014.

MICRO FINANCE FOR SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL INDIA

Rural finance is a matter of great concern in an agrarian economy like India where 70 percent of the population depends upon agriculture for their livelihood. Moreover, 40 percent of our GDP is contributed by rural sector. Economic development of our country can be achieved only with the upliftment of the village folk consisting of poor households, artisans, agricultural labour, farmers etc. Finance being the life line of every commercial venture, availability of adequate funds at reasonable terms is a must to ensure speedy economic development in the rural areas.

The Commercial Banks, Cooperative Banks and Regional Rural Banks play a significant role in financing different segments of rural sector. But these rural credit institutions find themselves in a moribund state today. This is largely attributed to financial sector reforms introduced in 1990's as a part of liberalization and globalization of Indian economy. In recent past, the concept of micro finance is understood as providing poor families with very small loans to help them engage in productive activities or grow their tiny business.

Microfinance is not just a tool for poverty eradication but also for individual development, growth in entrepreneurial activities in the economically backward areas. Over the last few years the microfinance

services have been changing people's lives and revitalizing communities. The microfinance is a vehicle to reach SC/ST/OBC. The horizon is seen and can be touched upon to bring the neglected and oppressed poor rural people into the lit zones.

The micro finance service in India is amongst the largest in the world with 75 million poor households potentially requiring financial services. Estimate of household credit demand varies from a minimum of Rs. 2000 to Rs. 6000 in rural areas and Rs. 9000 in urban settings, given that 80 percent of poor household are located in rural areas.

Total credit demand ranges between Rs. 225 billion and Rs. 500 billion. Supply of microfinance services however fall significantly short of demand. .In India, access to credit remains a significant challenge for poor / low income household who live in remote regions and have hardly any asset and are viewed by formal institutions as being "unprofitable". This has a potential for microfinance institutions to explore. Thus; microfinance institutions have made the informal sector more advantageous and welcoming for the poor and low income people. In spite of their fact that India today has an extensive banking infrastructure, the importance of micro finance lies in the fact that the formal / institutional banking sector has not lived up to its social responsibility of meeting the financial needs of the poor due to various reasons such as:

a) Lack of adequate branch network in the rural areas.

b) The inability of the poor to offer satisfactory collaterals for the loan.

c) Lack of education and awareness among the poor.

d) Reluctance of banks to foray into microfinance is primarily reflective of their:

      High risk perception of the rural sector.

      High transaction cost of small loans

      Non-stipulation of any specific target for the poor sector.

The credit requirement of the poor in India has been estimated to the around Rs. 50,000 crore per annum. Against this requirement the credit outstanding of the poor with the formal banking sector is stated to be Rs. 5000 crore or ten percent of total demand. According to the sample survey conducted by the World Bank and NCAER in 2003 in Uttar Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh around 87 percent marginal farmers/landless laborers / poor do not access credit from the formal banking sector. Most of the benefits have gone to relatively better off people. It is therefore; as the banking sector is not able to meet the entire credit needs of the poor, it is necessary to encourage the growth of microfinance institutions for substantial scaling up of the microfinance to prevent exploitation of the poor from dominating money lenders in the rural credit sector and to magnifying the scope of employment opportunities and poverty eradication through micro finance creation.

To meet out this lacuna, the microfinance institutions have merged as key providers of financial services for the poor. The microfinance which includes the small credit, micro saving and micro-insurance is

gradually emerging as one of the most effective strategies to alleviate poverty. It effectively generates employment and sustains the income of the rural households by giving them often opportunity of work.

NATURE & IMPACT OF RISKS FACED BY THE RURAL PEOPLE

Poverty could result from transient phenomena and sudden shocks such as crop failure, untimely death etc. The impact of such shocks can be transient in the event of the household being able to sell assets or borrow or generate income from alternative employment opportunities that enable it to wait for income from the next harvest. However, if the household has no assets to sell or no access to credit, or is able to borrow at exploitative rates of interest and gets into a debt trap, shocks can have long duration ramifications in terms of pushing households below the poverty line. Baulch and Hoddinott (2000) distinguish between idiosyncratic and covariant shocks.

Covariant shocks could affect all households in this locality while an **idiosyncratic shock** may be restricted to only a given household. They point out that the "absence of detailed studies on the cumulative impact of shocks represents a particularly serious lacuna in our knowledge of processes of economic mobility" that there are a "myriad ways in which both positive and negative shocks – including pure bad luck, thefts loss of employment, and the cumulative effects of droughts – lead to impoverishment" and that households with greater endowments and greater returns will tend to be less vulnerable to shocks. Also children, women and the elderly are more vulnerable. Vulnerability also has caste and geographical dimensions. The poor adopt a mix of strategy depending on the severity and co-variability of the shocks.

The self-insurance or coping strategies include:

a)reduced consumption of food grains

b) taking children out of school

c) temporary migration

d) diversification of income sources.

Local Level Disaster Risk Management

India has been traditionally vulnerable to natural disasters on account of its unique geo-climatic conditions. Floods, droughts, cyclones, earthquakes and landslides are regular phenomena in India.

The multi-hazard scenario depicted in the Vulnerability Atlas of India (produced by Building Materials and Technology Promotion Council (BMTPC), New Delhi, India), shows that out of the total geographical area of 32, 87,263 sq. km, about 60% of the landmass is prone to earthquakes of various intensities; over 40 million hectares is prone to floods; about 8% of the total area is prone to cyclones and 68% of the area is susceptible to drought. During 1990-2000, on an average of about 4344 people lost their lives, about 30 million people were affected by various disasters every year and average annual damage has been estimated to be approximately 2700 million rupees.

As per the World Bank estimates, during 1996-2001 the total losses due to disasters, including the super cyclone of Orissa in October 1999 and the Bhuj earthquake in Gujarat in January, 2001, amounts to US$

13.8 billion. Over the past two decades, there has been an increase in disaster occurrences costing human and economic losses. This is due to the ever increasing vulnerabilities of people to natural disasters. The need is felt to reduce disaster risks by improving capabilities of people and ensuring preparedness, mitigation and response planning processes at various levels.
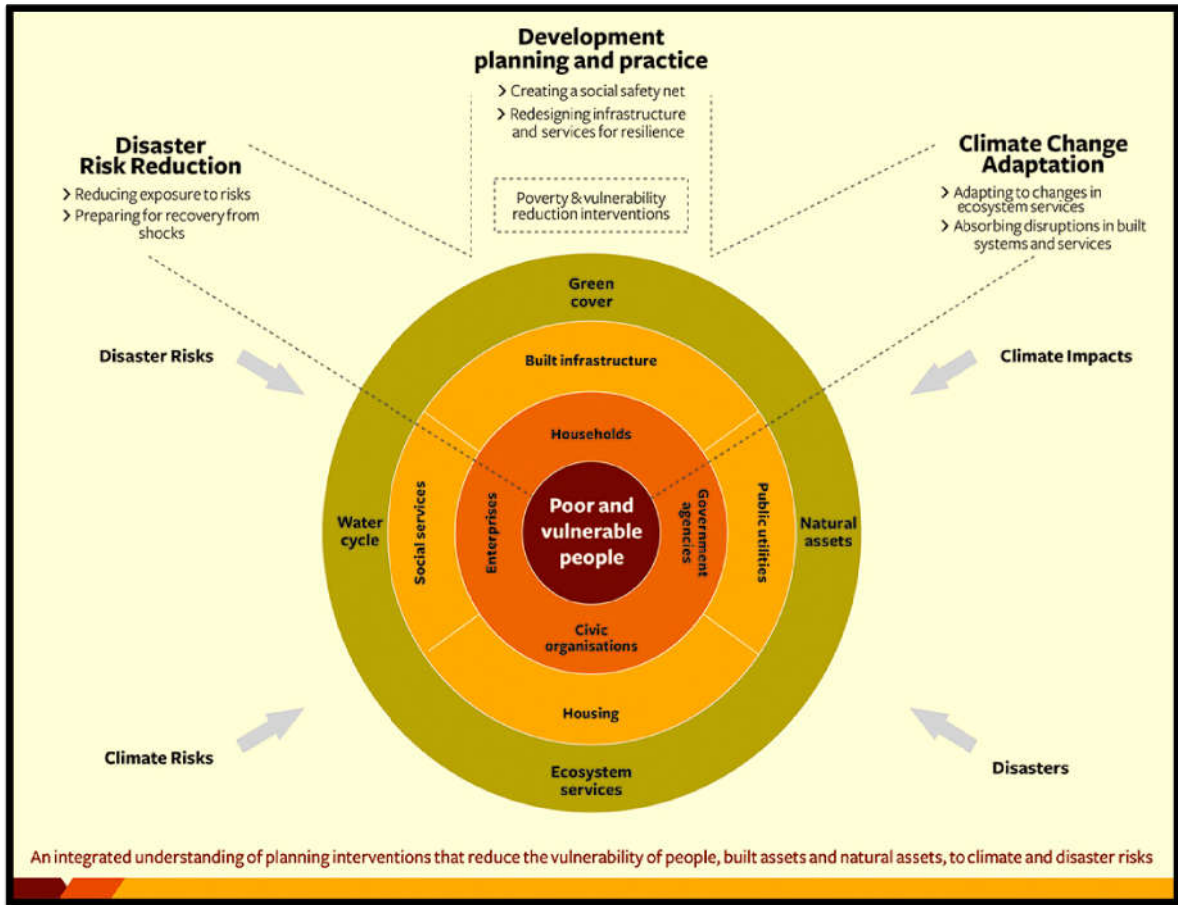

FIGURE: 13 – INTEGRATED DISASTER RISK REDUCTION PLANNING

The objective is to look at the entire cycle of disaster management in reducing risk and linking it to developmental planning process. In the past, disasters were viewed as isolated events, responded to by the Governments and various agencies without taking into account the social and economic causes and long term implications of these events. In short, disasters were considered as emergencies.

The recent disasters and its socio-economic impact on the country at large, and in particular the communities has underscored the need to adopt a multi dimensional approach involving diverse scientific, engineering, financial and social processes to reduce vulnerability in multi-hazard prone areas.

In view of this, the Government of India has brought about a paradigm shift in its approach to disaster management. The change is from "relief and emergency response" to a balanced approach covering all phases of the Disaster Management Cycle. This approach acknowledges disaster management as a part of the development process, and investments in mitigation are perceived to be much more cost effective than relief and rehabilitation expenditure. In this regard, Government of India has taken various initiatives in area of disaster preparedness, mitigation and response through networking of

various institutions, institutional capacity building, and policy interventions at all levels. Community participation and community ownership in disaster risk reduction is one of the key factors in reducing vulnerabilities of people and minimizing the loss.

The Government of India's focus Community Based Disaster Preparedness (CBDP) approach promotes community involvement and strengthening of their capacities for vulnerability reduction through decentralised planning process.

Community Based Disaster Preparedness (CBDP)

Analyses of response to past disasters have highlighted reaching out to the victims within the critical period during an emergency as a major requirement to protect people and assets. This has resulted in developing mechanisms to mitigate disasters at the grassroots level through participation of communities. Communities being the first responder and having more contextual familiarity with hazards and available resources are in better position in planning and executing immediate rescue and relief actions. In areas that have experienced repeated disasters, the communities are realizing that they need to work out a plan to prevent losses and at the same time enable faster recovery in the event of an emergency situation.

To convert this realization into an effective plan, they need guidelines which will help them to prepare their own Community Based Disaster Management plans to safeguard lives, livelihood and property. The Community Based Disaster Preparedness (CBDP) planning referred to in the following sections pertains to preparedness, mitigation and response plans. The primary goal of CBDP is to reduce vulnerability of the concerned community and strengthen its existing capacity to cope with disasters. The approach of preparing the CBDP plans considers people's participation a necessary pre-requisite for disaster management. By involving the community in the preparedness phase, it not only increases the likelihood of coordinated-action by the communities to help in mitigating disasters but also brings the community together to address the issue collectively. There are evidences of collective and coordinated action yielding good results and to a great extent it has been effective in lessening the impact of disaster. In view of the above, the Government of India and United Nations Development Programme reviewed various models of CBDP being conducted in the country. Several entities have been supporting communities in developing CBDP. The concept varies; for some, CBDP is getting the communities organised to maintain a cyclone structure and having a well developed evacuation plan. Similarly, the process followed also differs - some organisations have been developing the plan and explaining the components to the communities; others preferred to develop the plan with the involvement of the communities. Most of these processes remained outside the Government system and it has the inherent danger of communities forgetting the roles and responsibilities, especially if they did not have to use the plan over a period of time.

Preparation of CBDP plans are being promoted under the GOI-UNDP Disaster Risk Management programme in 169 districts in 17 states by institutionalising the process within the Government system, with the local authorities playing a dominant role in partnership with other key stakeholders. It is a scientific approach, tested in some pilot states and covers all aspects of disaster management through a process involving communities at risk. Recently the Government of India has decided to launch a project in the remaining multi-hazard regions of the country.
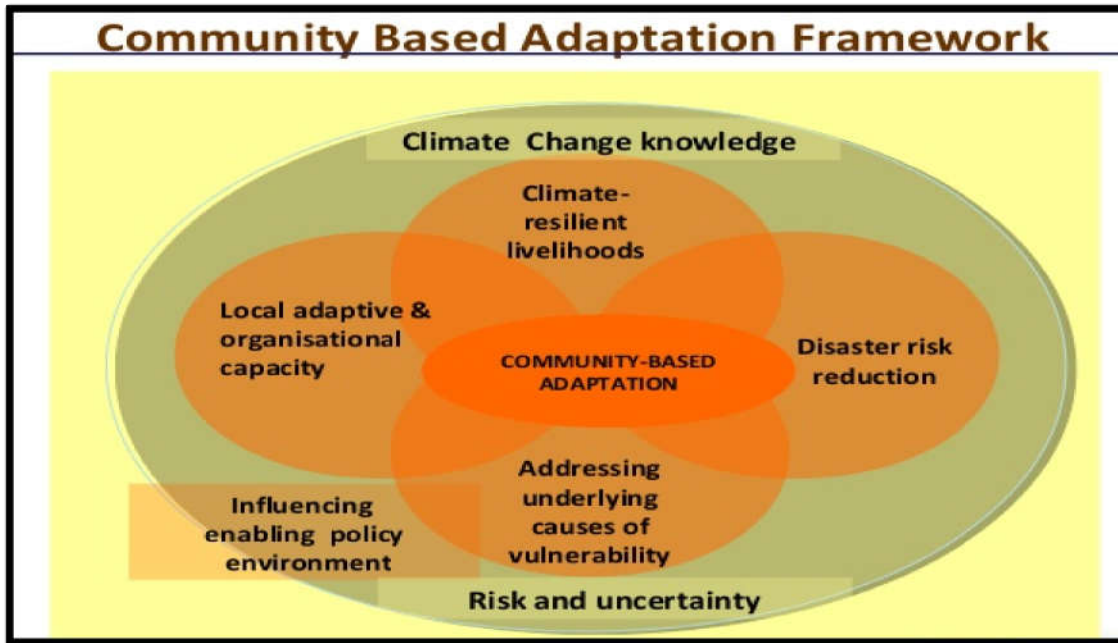
FIGURE: 14 – COMMUNITY BASED ADAPTATION FRAMEWORK

THE WEAKER SECTIONS IN INDIAN SOCIETY

Indian society is known for its unity in diversity. But one thing, it is infamous for social inequality which has given birth of weaker section of society which is as diverse as Indian society itself, women Scheduled caste, scheduled tribes, children, poor, landless farmers etc. who have faced socio-economic and political discrimination in hands of dominating section since antiquity.

And their fight for rights and access to justice is almost as old as the discrimination against these marginalized and weaker group, it is in form of emergence of Buddhism, Jainism, Bhakti movement, Gandhi Ji effort for Harihjan upliftment or Ambedkar's fierce effort to ensure socio-economic and political justice for weaker section by constitutional means.

FIGURE: 15 – RESERVATION SPLIT

But one question arises time to time : Is the weaker section is in better position to access their rights and access to justice?

Since Independence, there are lot of effort to strengthen the position of weaker section of society. Constitutional provisions like Article 14. 15 and 16 ensures that there is not discrimination against weaker section, and if possible, State can take help of positive discrimination to improve the politico-economic section of weaker section of society. And on this basis reservation for weaker class like SC/ST, women etc is provided in public employment, educational institutions, and legislature at different levels.

Simultaneously various constitutional and statutory bodies like Commission on Scheduled class, Commission on Scheduled tribe, women rights commission, and Human rights commission etc were constituted to ensure that no discrimination is done by dominated section of society and authorities against weaker section.

There is another improvement on social and economic level too. More access to information all around the world led to awareness about their rights and emergence of NGO give them courage to fight for their rights. With globalisation, role of women has increased above from household purpose and representation of historically marginalised has increased in politico-economic platforms.

Therefore, representatives from these sections have acquired top position in Indian polity and economic institution. India has witnessed a woman prime minister as well as president. 33 % reservation of seats in legislatures to SC and ST is made for their political empowerment.

But can we call it in betterment of position of weaker section to acquire justice and rights? Especially when, women are still in grip of domestic violence, social stigma, and honour killing. Their participation in economic activities and politics is very low. Same rings true with other weaker section either it is scheduled castes, or tribes, or differently abled people. Caste based discrimination and untouchability is still prevalent in societies. Tribes are snatched off their traditional rights and culture based on forest and its resources. Differently abled people are still fighting for a decent level of living in socio-economic frons. Child labour and human trafficking is still deteriorating conditions of vulnerable.

There is no doubt that efforts for empowerment of weaker section is made in terms in polices and Infrastructure. Some schemes like Sabla, Beti Bacho-Beti Padao, stand-up, self help groups, priority sector lending are some examples of these efforts. And these efforts have brought some desirable fruits in form of awareness of rights and demand of rights. But still there is more left to desire and accomplish before India can be called as equal society in terms of rights and access to justice.

Why is the weaker section still not able to preserve their rights and access to justice?

Though a smaller part of these weaker sections has achieved considerable success, but by and large, marginalised section is still marginalised and facing socio-economic deprivation. By looking at trends, it's easy to observe that social discrimination against women, scheduled caste, tribes and other marginalised section has led to their economic and political deprivation. And it can be proved that majority of poor in India belong to these sections itself.

On the other hand, discrimination against weaker section is widely accepted in Indian society even by these sections due to unawareness, cultural hegemony, apathy of police and various other instances, and length and costly judicial system of India, which discourage victims to take this route. Simultaneously training of police and other institutions should inculcate values of empathy and compassion and such institutions must be responsive and proactive to stop any crime against any marginalized group. And decentralised economic empowerment of these groups through various schemes like self help groups and stand up India mission is also a right step.

India can progress and develop only if every section of society has the equal right and equal access to justice. Equal right and equal access to justice is possible through equal status to all, which may be provided by means of empowerment. And empowerment of an individual or group starts from home or society. Hence, it is not only duty of our government but also our society to create opportunities for marginalized and weaker section so that everyone of them can preserve their rights and have access to justice.

RURAL GOVERNANCE

The history of legalized or institutionalized Panchayats (initiated by the British in different parts of India in the latter part of the 19th century) is not very old. However, the spirit, in which this is viewed in independent India, is believed to be ancient. In the early ages, when the emperors' rule hardly reached remote corners of the kingdom, villages were generally isolated and communication systems primitive, village residents gathered under the leadership of village elders or religious leaders to discuss and sort out their problems. This practice of finding solutions to local problems collectively, has found mention in ancient texts like Kautilya's "*Arthshastra*" and in subsequent years, in Abul Fazal's "*Ain-E-Akbari* and are still prevalent in different forms all over the country.

Rural local governments during the British rule were not given enough functions, authority, or resources. Those were not truly representative and often dominated by government functionaries.

Mention of local governments in the Indian Constitution, as it was adopted in 1950, can be found in the chapter on *Directive Principles of State Policy*, which stated that the states should enact appropriate laws for constituting Panchayats enabling them to function as local governments. In 1957 a committee headed by Balawant Rai Mehta was set up to assess the success of the Community Development Programmes and National Extension Services launched in 1951 and 1952 (as well as other programmes) during the first five year plan. One of the most significant recommendations of the Committee was the observation that in order to make various development initiatives meaningful by ensuring that the benefits reach the targeted beneficiaries, revival of Panchayats were necessary. The Committee felt that it was possible only for the Panchayats to involve the primary stakeholders, the people, with developmental activities.

In the wake of this recommendation many states enacted new Panchayat Acts thereby substituting the old ones inherited from the British. It is in such a manner that the first generation of Panchayats came into being in the country, with two tiers in some states, three tiers in many and even four tiers in a few. First generation Panchayats, which were apolitical, were not very successful for a variety of reasons. Most important of them were: ambiguous laws about exact roles, functions and authority, insufficient manpower and a general lack of resources.

However, on the recommendation of the Ashok Mehta Committee (1977), most of the states provided for political participation in Panchayat elections. This, coupled with decisions of several states' to involve Panchayats in the developmental initiatives and delivery of various services to the rural people, made the Panchayats somewhat active and vibrant. Examples of West Bengal, Kerala and Karnataka can be referred to in this respect.

Admittedly, even after this Panchayats did not evolve as people's institutions and largely failed to deliver what were expected of them. L.M. Singhvi Committee in 1985 opined that in order to make the Panchayats effective, such institutions should be declared as units of local governments and there should be Constitutional mandate on state governments to ensure that the Panchayats function as such.

FIGURE: 16 - RURAL GOVERNANCE
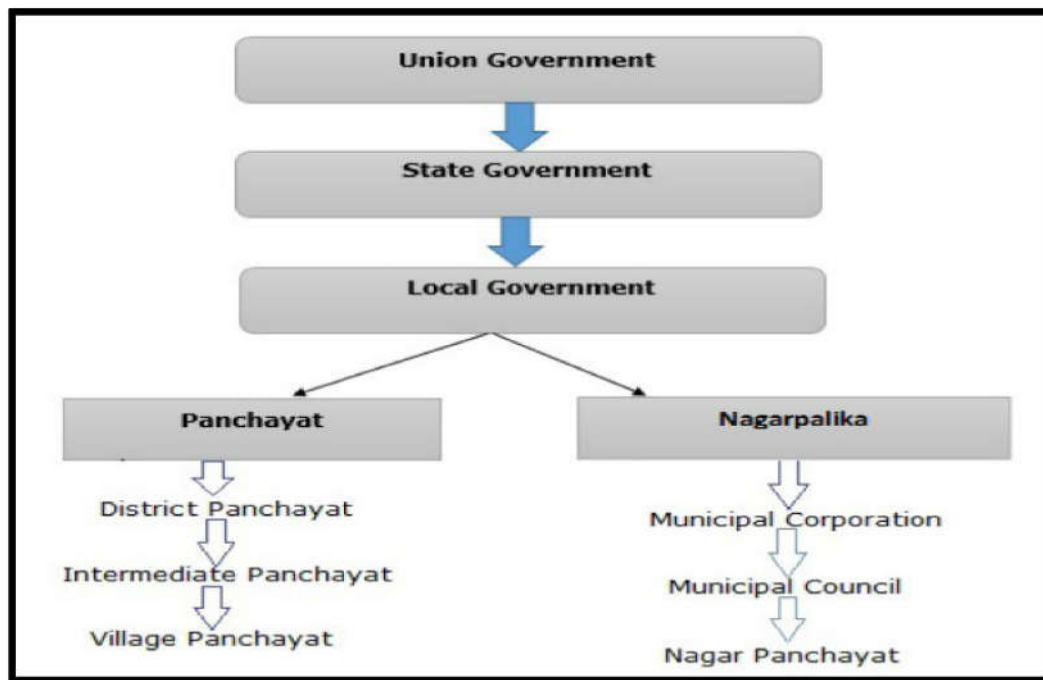
The 73rd Amendment of the Constitution, 1992

1992 was the most significant year in the history of Panchayats in India as the 73rd amendment of the Constitution (amendment of Article 243) was passed by the Indian Parliament that declared Panchayats as institutions of self government. (The 74th amendment done at the same time relate to urban local bodies). These amendments came into force from April 24 1993. The **major** features of the 73rd amendment can be enumerated as under:

- There should be three tiers of Panchayats (District Panchayats, Block Panchayats i.e. intermediary Panchayats and Village or *Gram Panchayats*) in states with over 25 lakh of population. States with less than this population will have only two tiers omitting the intermediary tier.
- Panchayats declared as institutions of self governments (signifying that the status of Panchayats is same in their respective areas, as that of the Union Government at the national and State Governments at the state level).
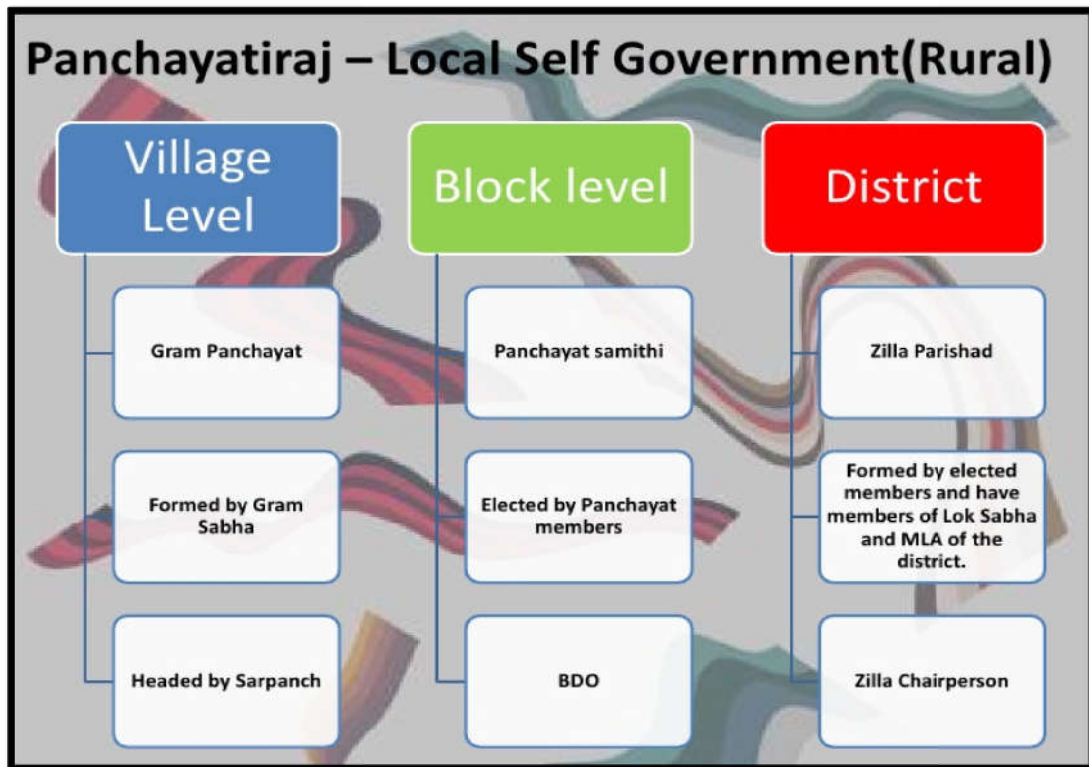
FIGURE: 17 – PANCHAYATI RAJ SET UP

1. States were mandated to devolve functions relating to 29 subjects (including agriculture, land reforms, minor irrigation, fisheries, cottage and small scale industries, rural communication, drinking water, poverty alleviation programmes etc.) to the Panchayats. (The local bodies grants are released to Gram Panchayats through their respective State Governments as per the recommendations and allocations made by respective Finance Commissions)

2. Panchayats were mandated to prepare plan(s) for economic development and social justice and implement them.

3. States were asked to constitute a *State Finance Commission* every five years to determine the Panchayats' share of state's financial resources as a matter of entitlement (just as the Central Finance Commission determines how resources of the Central government should be shared between the union and state governments).(The earmarked basic grants for gram panchayats is envisaged to be distributed, using the formula prescribed by the most recently approved State Finance Commission (SFC) for the distribution of resources. However, in case the SFC formula is not available, then the share of each gram panchayat is envisaged to be distributed across the entities using 2011 population with a weight of 90 per cent and area with a weight of 10 per cent.)

4. Panchayat bodies must have proportionate representation of Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribes and women. Such reservation should also apply in the cases of Chairpersons and Deputy Chairpersons of these bodies.

5. There shall be State Election Commission in each state which shall conduct elections to the local bodies in every five years.

(*Note:* This amendment is not applicable in some special areas and in the states like Nagaland, Mizoram, etc. and in areas where regional councils exist).

Amendment of the Constitution necessitated large scale amendments in the Panchayat Acts of individual states, though in states like West Bengal almost all the requirements of the Constitutional amendment were already provided for in the Panchayat Act.

Almost all the states are presently having three tiers of Panchayats.

1. At the lowest level is the Gram Panchayat (GP, headed by *Pradhan/Sarpanch/Mukhia*).
2. The intermediary level Panchayat is called Block Panchayat/*Panchayat Samiti/Taluka Panchayat* (PS, headed by President/*Sabhapati*).
3. At the district level there is the District Panchayat/*Zilla Parishad/Zilla Panchayat* (ZP headed by Chairman/ *Sabhadhipati*).

Major Governance-related Issues at the Village Level in India

Governance implies those institutions and processes through which government, civil society organizations and private sector interact in shaping public affairs and through which citizens articulate their interests, mediate their differences and exercise their political, social and economic rights.

To understand major governance related issues at village level, we should know how it can be measured. Governance at the village level can be measured against the benchmarks such as:

1. delivery of basic services
2. transparency in functioning of Gram Panchayat and local government department
3. level of corruption and opportunities for citizens to participate principally to ensure accountability .

Measured against these benchmarks, one can find that villagers have poor access to public distribution system, Indira Awas Yojana, Swachh Bharat Mission and Mahatma Gandhi National Employment Guarantee Act. Such problems are there in several government programmes. Villagers have to pay bribes to get benefits under the government programmes. Corruption hits people especially the poor in a big way in villages. Opportunities for citizen participation such as Gram Sabha, social audits and community monitoring are mostly absent in most parts of India. So participation of citizens has been limited to elections and different avenues of participation after elections are largely dormant in rural landscape.

Local bodies such as Gram Panchayats do not have enough funds, functions and functionaries except in four–five states of India, so people regard it as symbolic institution, a 'vehicle without engines'. Hence they do not take much interest in its functioning which is cause of serious concern in democracy. Greater participation of citizens in local affairs might strengthen their belief in democratic processes and inculcates a culture of solving issues democratically. However, motivating rural folks to participate in deliberations of local bodies or collectively influence decision-making is a bit challenging due to traditional marginalization and presence of strong power brokers.

Various Indicators of Socio-Economic Progress in India from the Rural-Urban Perspective:

The GDP Composition over time
It is noted that the agriculture and allied services contribution to the GDP of the nation has reduced considerably from 51.88% in 1950 to 13.94% in 2013. The World Bank data on value added by

agriculture (% of GDP) data does not seem to disagree. From a 42.56 in 1960 it has dropped to a meagre 16.95 in 2014. Given that almost 70% of the population lives in rural areas and about 50% of the overall labour force is still dependant on agriculture, this situation is definitely not sustainable.
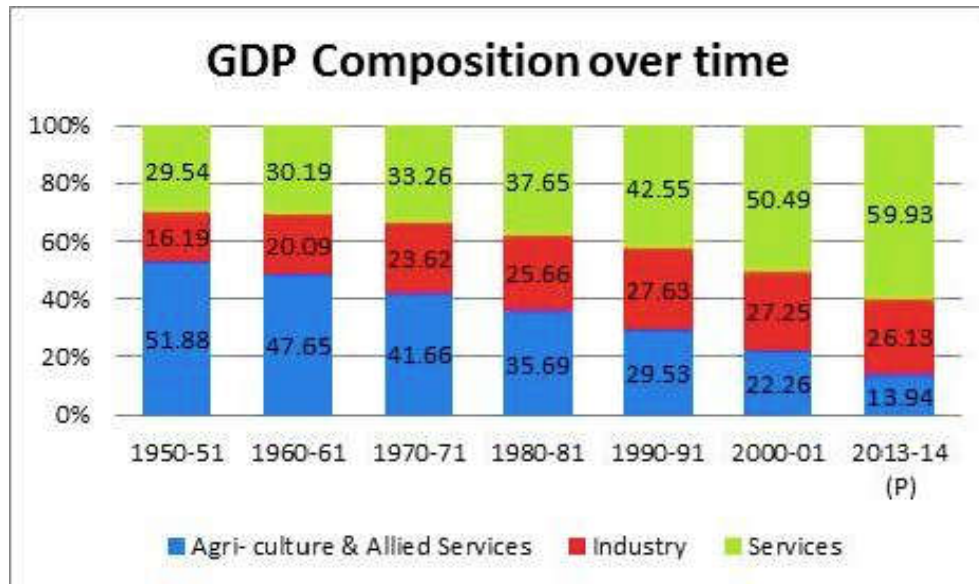

Rural Livelihood & Employment

A deeper look at the Socio-Economic Census (2011) data regarding rural livelihood and employment is scary. The chart below summarises some of the major findings of the SECC 2011. Almost three fourths of the rural households live with a monthly income of less than Rs 5000. More than half the rural households do not own land and more than half of them are casual labour.
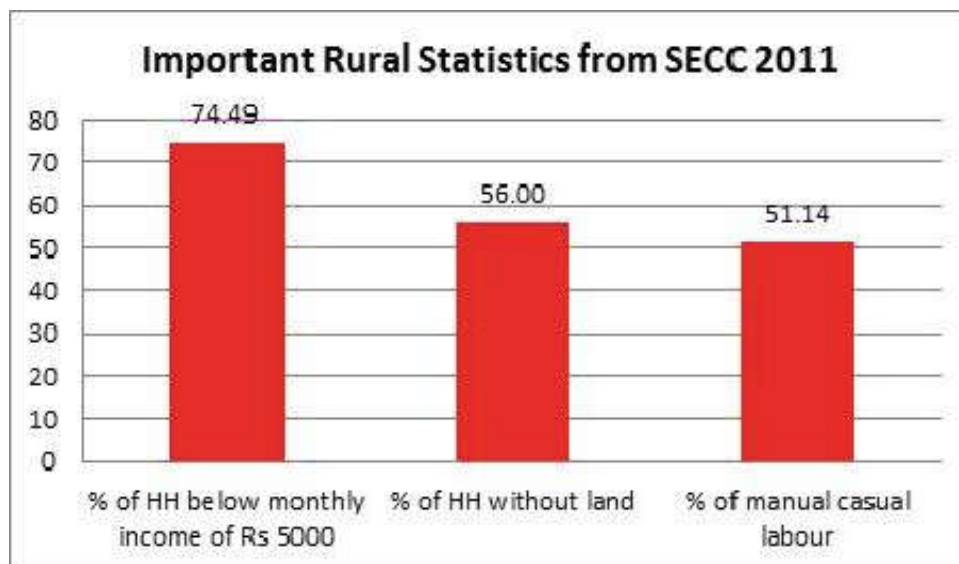
Poverty Estimates

The chart below summarises the poverty situation in India. Though poverty has been reducing over time, the rate of poverty reduction in urban areas has been higher than rural areas. Also today, nearly 26% of rural India is poor, compared to a meagre 13.7% in urban areas. The Rangarajan Committee estimates are also indicative of the fact that rural poverty is higher than urban and stands at approximately 31% in 2011-12.
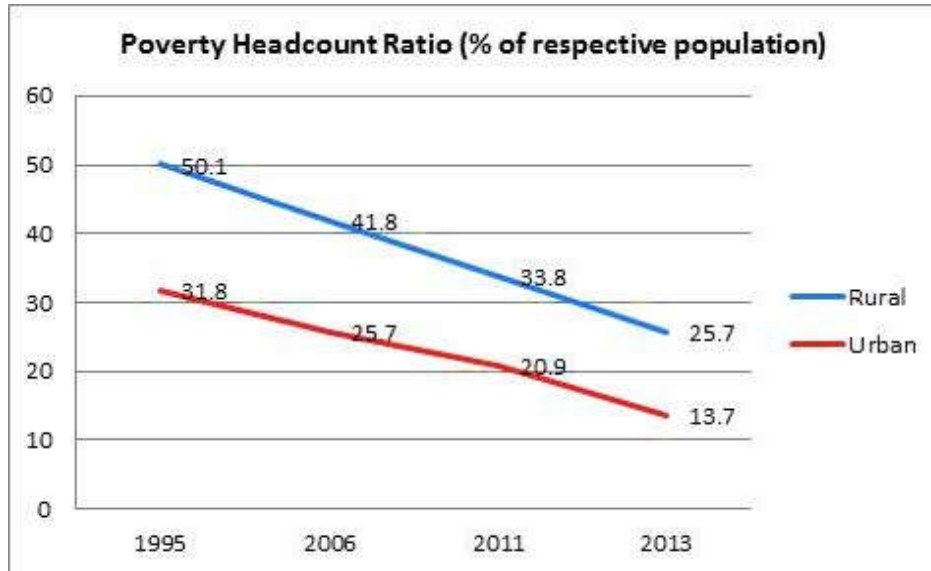

Literacy Levels

A look at the literacy levels in India over last 3 decades from the same rural urban lens gives us more or less similar numbers. Rural literacy rate is much lower than the urban literacy rate. The point to be noted is the gender disparity in this area, where the urban female literacy rate is almost higher by 20% than the rural female.
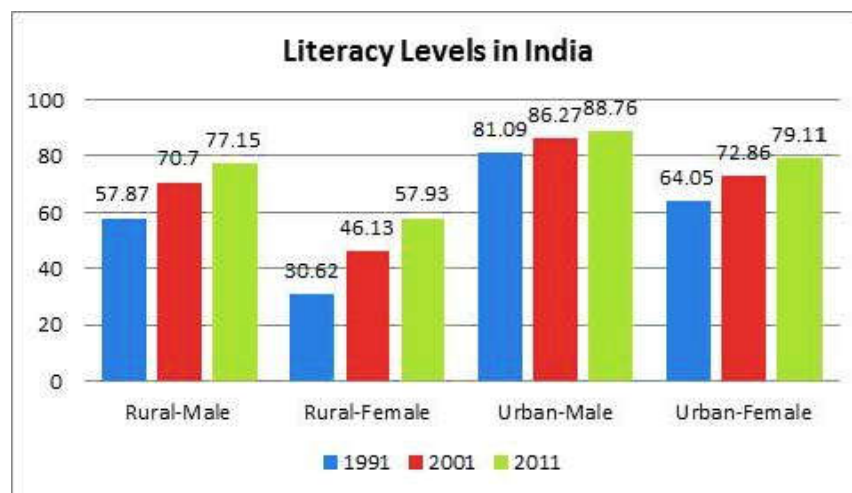
Literacy Rate of SCs & STs

Again here we can notice the same trend wherein the rural SC/STs lag behind their urban counterparts. The urban literacy rate of ST's seems to growing at a decreasing rate in the last decade of the data, which can be attributed to the lower number of ST's living in urban pockets.
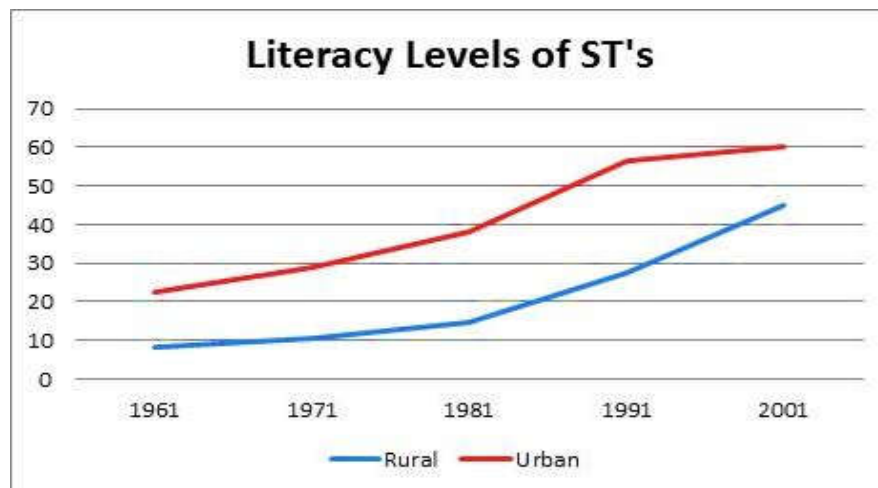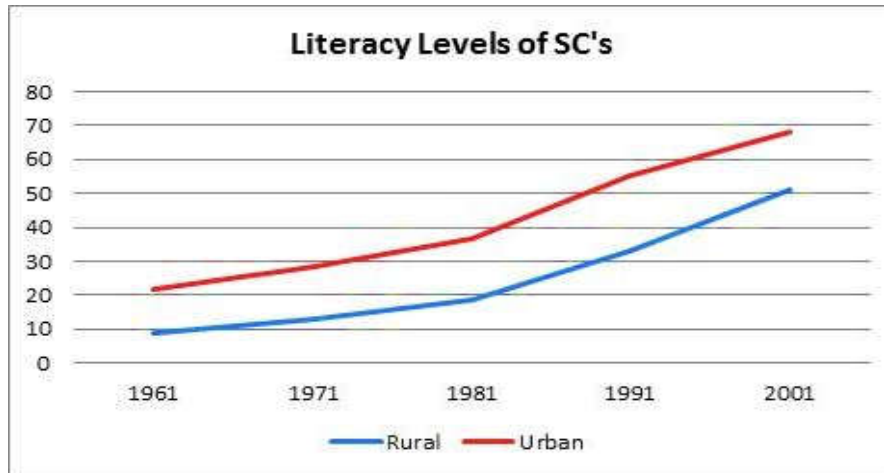
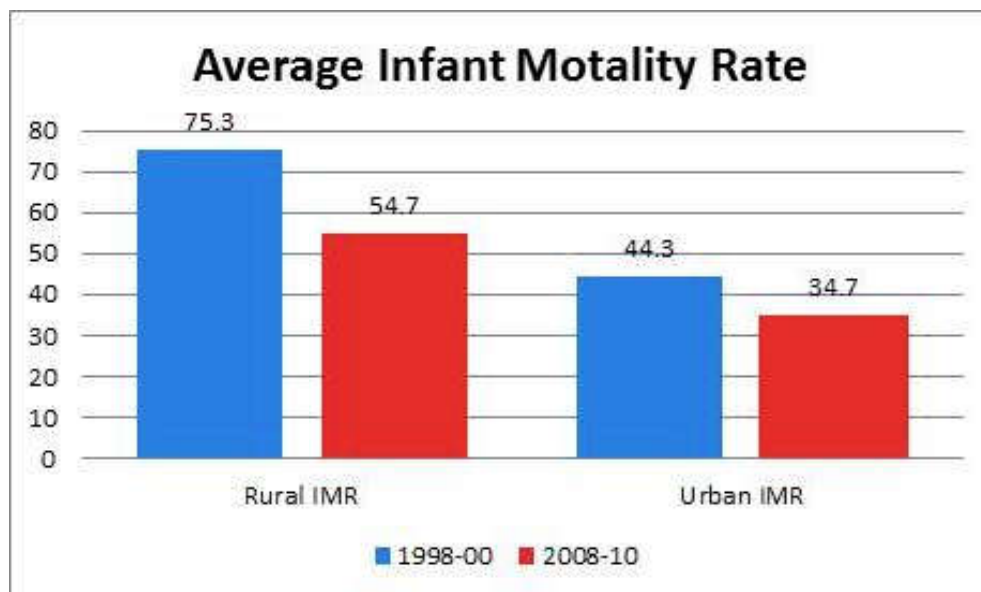**Net Attendance in Schools – Rural Vs Urban**

The chart below represents the net attendance rates of rural and urban India in 2006. The net attendance provides a deeper insight into the education dynamics of India. The rural again falls behind the urban centres here and it is to be noted that the rate of fall of net attendance from primary to secondary is much steeper in the rural areas. The widely cited reasons for the same are lack of familial commitment, migration, climate induced disasters, famine and poverty.
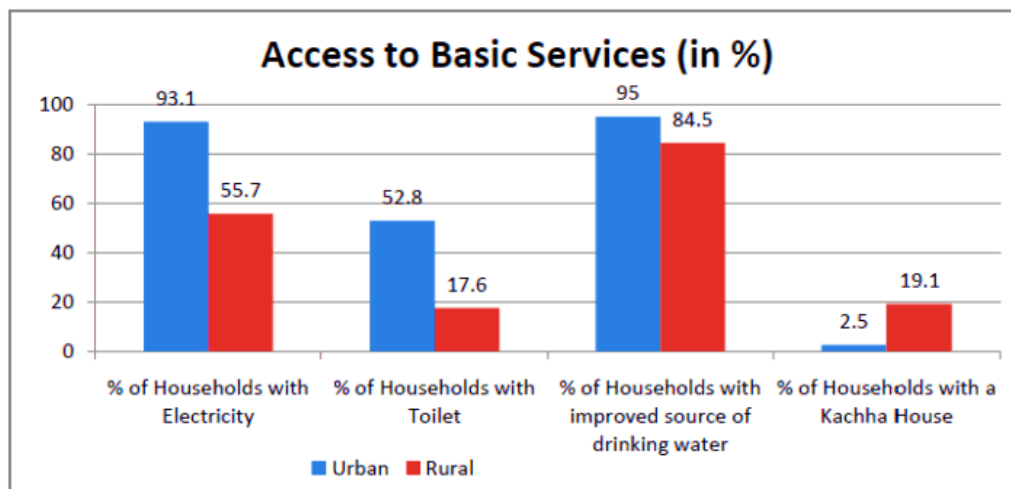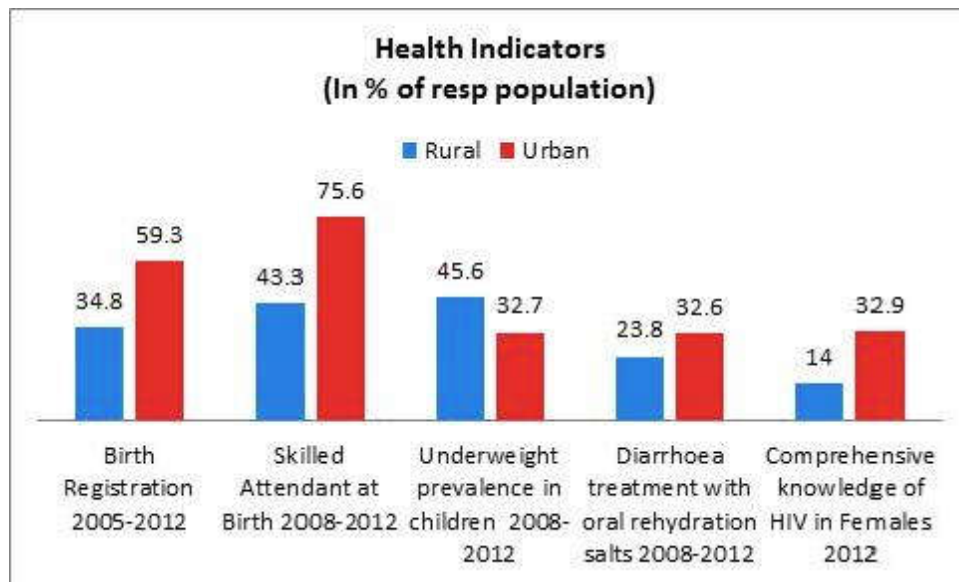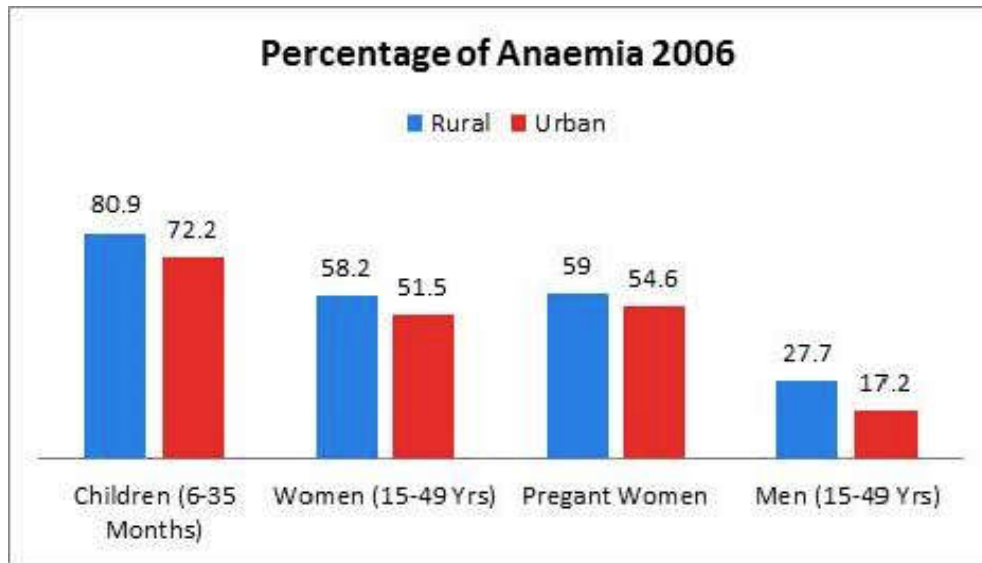
Net Attendance (in %)
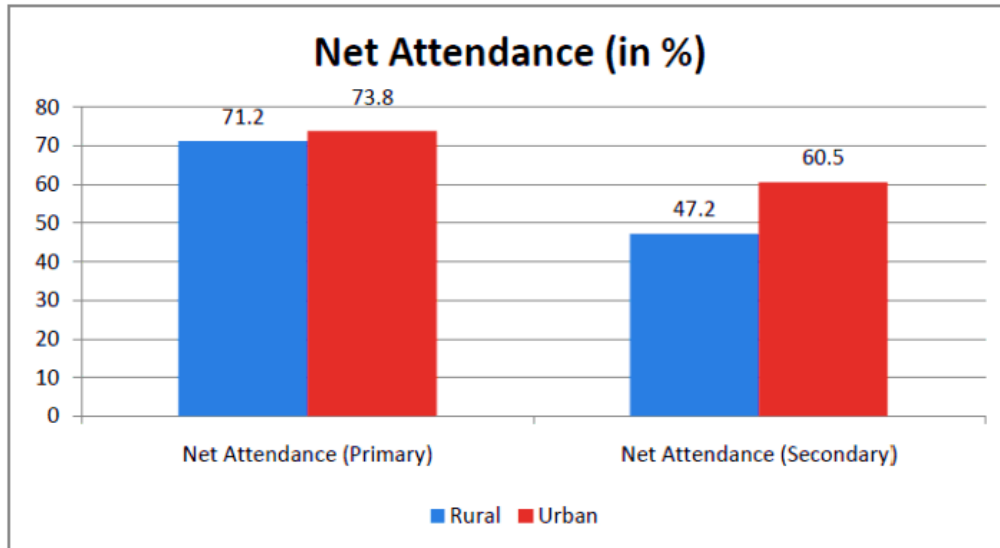
Health Indicators

Health is said to be the wealth of a society. Good health and adequate nutrition are the best indicators of the overall well-being of population and human resources development. They also form an important component of human capability. The following charts depict the rural urban health divide.

Rural India lags behind Urban India in all the indicator viz; Infant Mortality Rate, Percentage of Anemic Population, Various Health Indicators and Access to Basic Services (as of 2006).

Average Infant Motality Rate

Percentage of Anaemia 2006

Rural ■ Urban

- Children (6-35 Months): Rural 80.9, Urban 72.2
- Women (15-49 Yrs): Rural 58.2, Urban 51.5
- Pregant Women: Rural 59, Urban 54.6
- Men (15-49 Yrs): Rural 27.7, Urban 17.2

Health Indicators
(In % of resp population)

Rural ■ Urban

- Birth Registration 2005-2012: Rural 34.8, Urban 59.3
- Skilled Attendant at Birth 2008-2012: Rural 43.3, Urban 75.6
- Underweight prevalence in children 2008-2012: Rural 45.6, Urban 32.7
- Diarrhoea treatment with oral rehydration salts 2008-2012: Rural 23.8, Urban 32.6
- Comprehensive knowledge of HIV in Females 2012: Rural 14, Urban 32.9

Access to Basic Services (in %)

- % of Households with Electricity: Urban 93.1, Rural 55.7
- % of Households with Toilet: Urban 52.8, Rural 17.6
- % of Households with improved source of drinking water: Urban 95, Rural 84.5
- % of Households with a Kachha House: Urban 2.5, Rural 19.1

■ Urban ■ Rural

The NDA government in 2014 at the centre came to power with a thumping majority with its primary objective being "Sab Ka Saath Sab Ka Vikaas", which translates to "Taking everybody along and development for all". One is optimistic that this becomes a reality and for that to happen a balance between urban and rural development is a definite prerequisite.

CONCLUSION

Rural India is undergoing unprecedented transformations, which have a profound impact on the livelihoods of the rural poor by influencing the nature of their work, work related relationships, new opportunities, nature of rural-urban connect and household vulnerability. Understanding the nature of this transition in rural livelihoods is critical in order to design and participate in meaningful efforts to promote livelihoods security for rural households. Rural India is the future. Advancing technology is one tool that can bridge the gap between the Urban India and the Rural India. More than 60 % of India's population lives in the rural region. To empower India, this 60% of India's population needs empowerment.

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II.   INTERVENTION STRATEGIES IN RURAL AREAS

INTRODUCTION:

Development means different things to different people. It is important to first distinguish between:

1. Development as a state or condition – static
2. Development as a process or course of change – dynamic

MEANING OF DEVELOPMENT:

Development is not purely an economic phenomenon but rather a multi-dimensional process involving reorganization and reorientation of entire economic and social system. It is a process of improving the quality of human lives with three equally important aspects namely, Todaro's Three Objectives of Development:

1. Raising people's living levels, i.e. incomes and consumption levels of food, medical services, education through relevant growth processes.
2. Creating conditions conducive to the growth of people's self-esteem through the establishment of social, political and economic systems and institutions which promote human dignity and respect.
3. Increasing people's freedom to choose by enlarging the range of their choice variables, e.g. varieties of goods and services.

FLOW CHART: 1 PRO POOR GROWTH
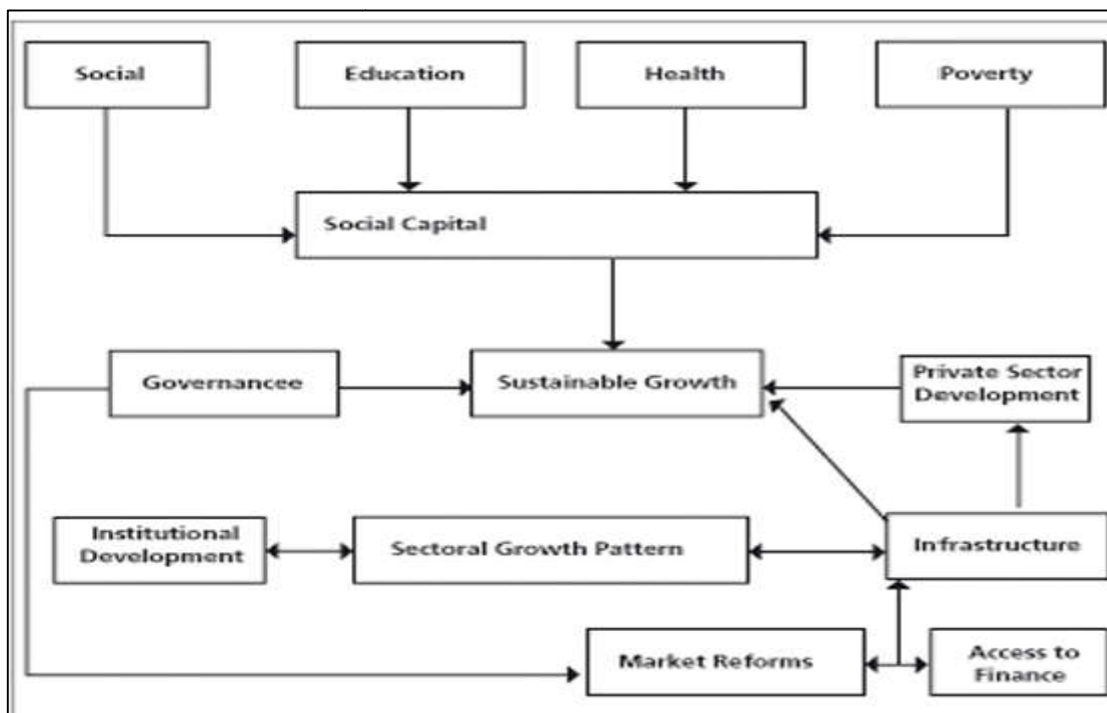
DEVELOPMENT AND MODERNIZATION:

It emphasises process of social change which is required to produce economic advancement, examines changes in social, psychological and political processes; it focuses on profit seeking behaviour rather than subsistence and self-sufficiency. There is a shift from commodity to human approach with investment in education and skill training.

FLOW CHART: 2 DIGITAL DIVIDE IN INDIA:

DEVELOPMENT AS DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE:

Development is viewed as improving basic needs. Interest in social justice raises three issues:

1. Nature of goods and services provided by government.
2. Matter of access of these public goods to different social classes.
3. How burden of development can be shared among these classes.
4. The target groups include small farmers, landless, underemployed and unemployed.

MARXIST VIEW OF DEVELOPMENT:

It emphasizes mode of Production i.e. elements and activities necessary to produce and reproduce real, material life.

Capitalist mode depends on wage labour whose labour power produces a surplus which is accumulated and appropriated by the employer – result is often class conflict in capitalist societies.

**FIGURE 3 : SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS**

It is defined as development that is likely to achieve lasting satisfaction of human needs and improvement of the quality of life and encompasses:

1. Help for the poorest who are left with no option but to destroy the environment for survival.
2. Idea of self-reliant development with natural resource constraints.
3. Cost effective development using different economic criteria to the traditional – i.e. development should not degrade environment.
4. Important issues of health control, appropriate technologies, food self-reliance, clean water and shelter for all.
5. People centered activities are necessary – human beings are the resources in the concept.

FLOW CHART:4 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT
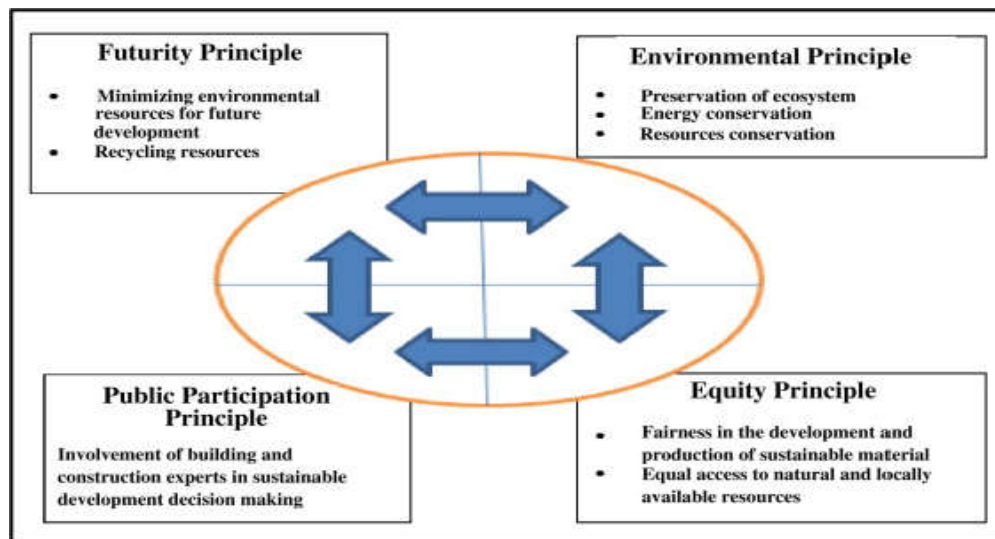
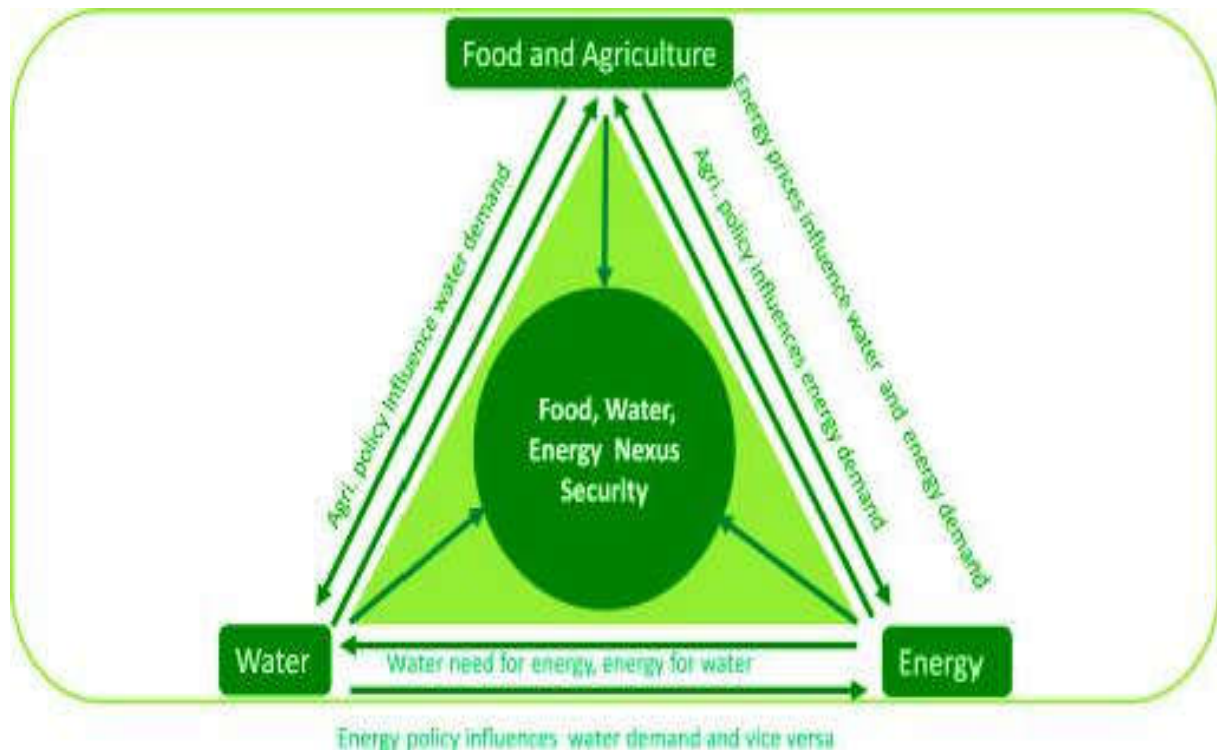**FLOW CHART:5 RURAL DEVELOPMENT ISSUES**
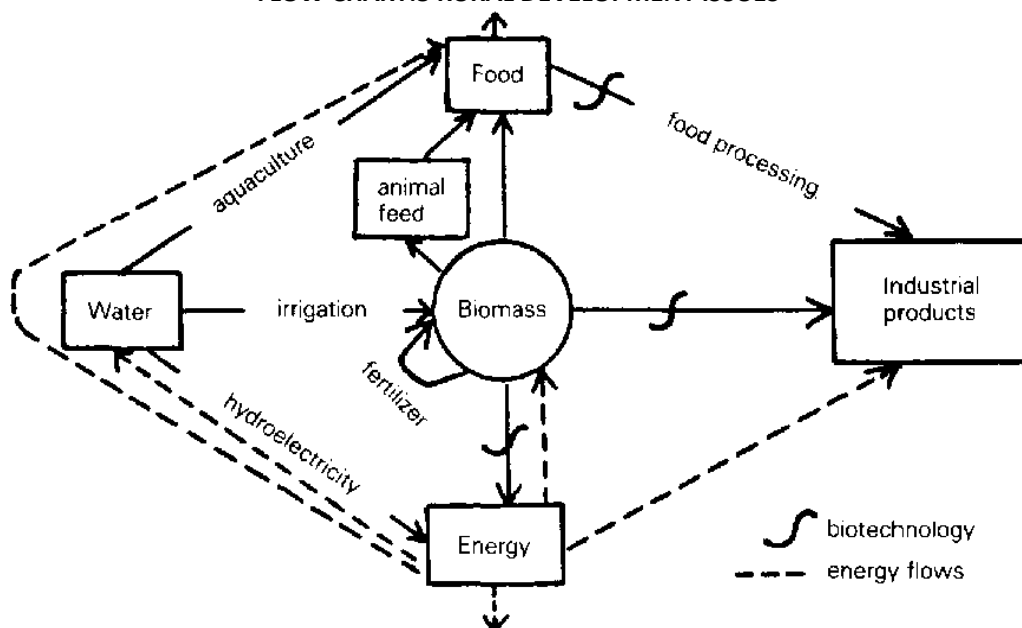
The concept of rural development has changed significantly during the last three decades. Up to 1970's rural development was synonymous with agricultural development and hence focussed on increasing agricultural production. This focus was primarily driven by the interest in industrialization to extract surplus from the agriculture sector to reinforce industrialization.

The establishment of the Sustainable Development Goals has significantly reinforced the concerns about non-income poverty. With the parading shifts in economic development from "growth" to broadly defined "development", the concept of rural development has begun to be used in a broader sense.

Today's concept of rural development is fundamentally different from that used about three or four decades ago. The concept now encompasses "concerns that go well beyond improvements in growth, income and output. The concern includes an assessment of changes in the quality of life, broadly defined to include improvement in health and nutrition, education, environmentally safe living conditions and reduction in gender and income inequalities.

Today there seems to be a universal consensus that the final objective of rural development is to improve the quality of life of rural people. This makes it essential to go beyond the income related factors such as prices, production and productivity to a range of non-income factors that influence quality of life and hence inclusiveness of rural development.

FLOW CHART:6 ENERGY POLICY AND WATER DEMAND
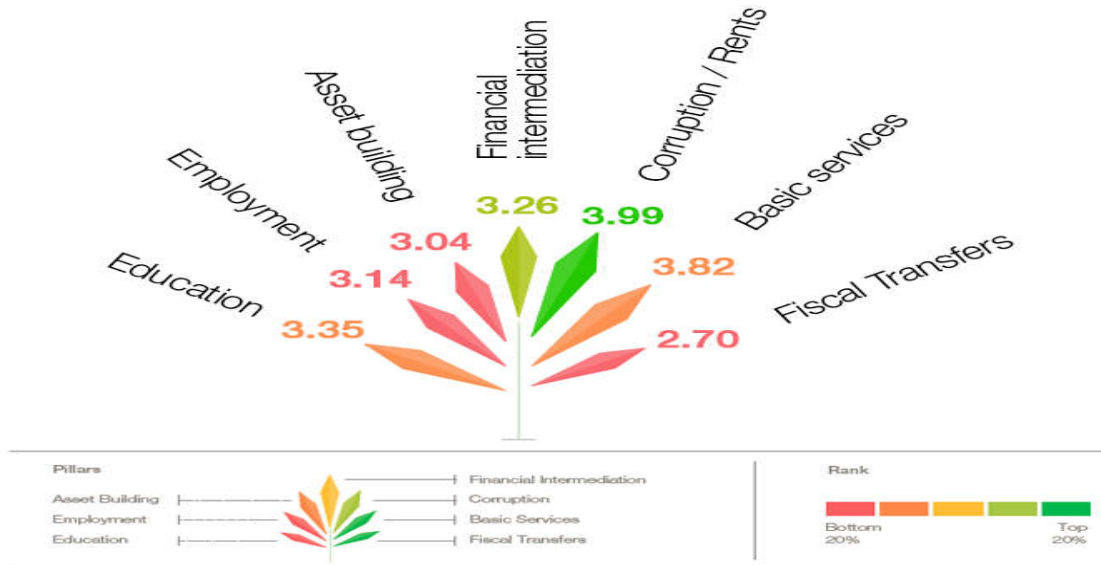
Inclusive rural development is a more specific concept than the concept of rural development. In broader terms, inclusive rural development is about improving the quality of life of all members of rural society.   More specifically, inclusive rural development covers three different but interrelated dimensions.
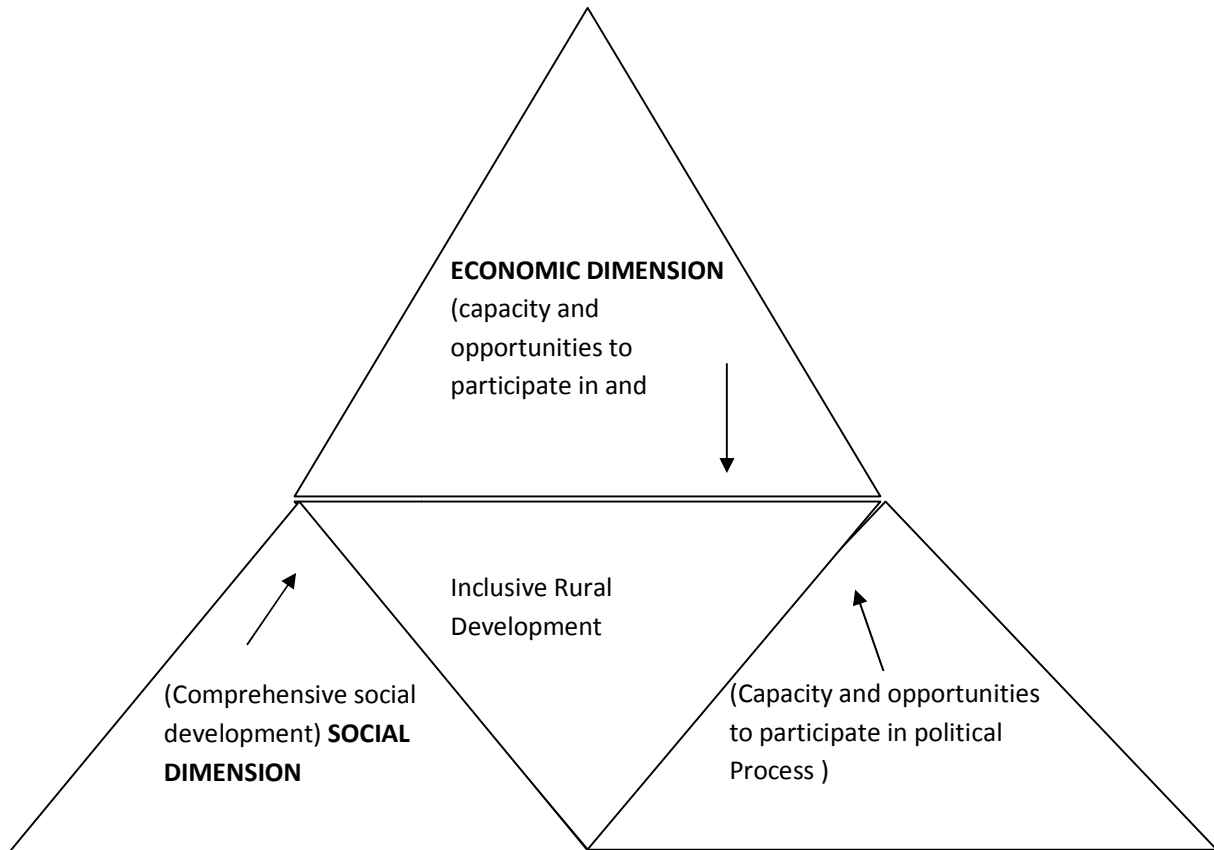
1. Economic dimension
2. Social dimension
3. Political dimension

1. **Economic dimension** encompasses providing both capacity and opportunities for the poor and low-income households in particular that benefit from the economic growth. Social dimension supports
2. **Social development** of poor and low-income households promotes gender equality and women's empowerment and provides social safety nets for vulnerable groups.
3. **Political dimension** improves the opportunities for the poor and low income people in rural areas to effectively and equally participate in the political processes at the village level.

The notion of rural development has been conceived in diverse ways by researchers, ranging from thinking of it as a set of goals and programmes to a well-knit strategy, approach or even an ideology. There is a widely shared view that its essence should be poverty alleviation and distributive justice oriented economic transformation.

FLOW CHART: 8 THREE DIMENSIONS OF INCLUSIVE RURAL DEVELOPMENT

ECONOMIC DIMENSION (capacity and opportunities to participate in and

Inclusive Rural Development

(Comprehensive social development) **SOCIAL DIMENSION**

(Capacity and opportunities to participate in political Process)

Objectives of Rural Development:

Following are the objectives of rural development:

1. To improve the living standards by providing food, shelter, clothing, employment and education.
2. To increase productivity in rural areas and reduce poverty.
3. To involve people in planning and development through their participation in decision making and through centralization of administration.
4. To ensure distributive justice and equalization of opportunities in the society.

Strategies in Rural Development:

A strategy consists of an ordering of various policy parameters to attain the desired goals. Different strategies emphasize and give importance to different mixes of agrarian relations, techniques of production and state policies in order to achieve the goals of rural development. To illustrate some of the relevant issues, there are various types of rural development strategies.

Various Types of Rural Development Strategies:

1. A strategy based on collectivization of resources.
2. A strategy based on regulated capitalist perspective.

3. A strategy based on peasant agrarian perspective.
4. A strategy based on Laissez-Faire or un-regulated free market capitalist perspective.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT UNDER THE FIVE YEAR PLANS:

According to 2011 census, the country's rural population is almost 83.25 crore (68.8% of total population). The gross budget for the twelfth five year plan (2012-17) is Rs.44,3261 crores (against Rs.29,1682 crores of eleventh plan).

Prior to the current ongoing 12th Plan, already 11 five year plans, three annual plans (1966-69) and one rolling plan (1978-80) were already implemented in our country. In all the plans schemes existed for rural development. Development of rural economy and improvement of the village life are the core concerns of the plans. It's a big challenge as majority of the rural population is living below the poverty line.

TABLE: 9 GROWTH RATE OF AGRICULTURAL AND ALLIED SECTORS

Five Year Plan	Share of Agriculture in the Economy (in %)	Growth Rate of Agriculture and Allied Sectors (in %) (All figures based on 2004-05 prices)	Growth Rate of Total Economy (in %)
Ninth Five year Plan	23.4	2.5	5.7
Tenth Five Year Plan	19.0	2.4	7.6
Eleventh Five Year Plan	16.8	5.8	9.3
2007-08	15.8	0.1	6.7
2008-09	14.6	0.8	8.6
2009-10	14.5	7.9	9.3
2010-11 (2nd RE)	14.1	3.6	6.2
2011-12 (Rev Est)	15.2	3.7	8.0

Source: Central Statistical office, New Delhi Press Release dated 7th Feb,2013

FIRST FIVE-YEAR PLAN (1951-56)

Agriculture was given the topmost priority in this plan. It was mainly directed towards increasing agricultural production and strengthening economic infrastructures like irrigation, power and transport after independence. There was an acute food shortage in the country and to solve the food problem priority was given to increase production of food grains. The abolition of zamindari system, launching of the community development programme, growing more food campaign along with improvement in other related spheres like marketing, fisheries, animal husbandry, soil conservation and forestry were

the notable features. The production of food grains increased from 54 million tonnes in 1950-51 to 65.8 million tones and production of all agricultural commodities increased by 22.2% to 32% at the end of the Plan. The total outlay during this plan was to be spent on agriculture and irrigation. The targets set for the plan were almost achieved and even in some cases, exceeded.

The 'Community Development Programme' (CDP) was launched on 2 October 1952, through which emphasis was given to the development of agriculture, irrigation, energy and power, industry and minerals, village small scale industry, transport, employment etc.

The National Extension Service Programme, Mettur Dam, Hirakud Dam, and Bhakra Nangal Dam were established as irrigation programme during the plan (GOI, 1952) The Government had taken steps providing fund for agriculture workers especially to rehabilitated families, discourage migration to urban areas and face the challenges arising out of economic liberalization and globalization (Joachim et al., 2005). According to 2011 census, the country's rural population is almost 83.25 crore (68.8% of total population). There has been wide consensus that the rural development should be inclusive and sustainable in order to alleviate the poverty. The tentative Gross Budgetary Support (GBS) for the Ministry of Rural Development for the Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-17) is Rs. 44,3261 crore (against the Rs. 29,1682 crores of Eleventh Plan period) which includes the major programs. Although agriculture now accounts for only 14% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), it is still the main source of livelihood for the majority of the rural population. As such rapid growth of agriculture is critical for inclusiveness. Important structural changes are taking place within the sector and there are definite signs of improved performance (Sarkar, 2014). Agricultural growth has accelerated compared to the Tenth Plan and diversification is proceeding (GOI, 2012).

According to MoA GOI (2014) as per the land use statistics 2011-12, the total geographical area of the country is 328.7 mha, of which 140.8 mha is reported as net sown area and 195.2 million hectares is the gross cropped area with a cropping intensity of 138.7%. The net irrigated area is 65.3 million hectares. Agriculture and Allied Sector contributed approximately 13.9% of India's GDP (at constant 2004-05 prices) during 2013-14. (CSO, MoSPI, 2014). There has been a continuous decline in the share of agriculture and allied sector in the GDP from 14.6% in 2010-11 to 13.9 % in 2012-13 (IDFCRDN, 2014). Falling share of Agriculture and Allied Sectors in GDP is an expected outcome in a fast growing and structurally changing economy.

SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN (1956-61)

In this plan, emphasis was shifted from agriculture to industry and only about 21% of the actual plan expenditure was spent for agricultural development. The food production rose from 65.8 million tonnes to 79.7 million tonnes as against the fixed target of 80.5 million tonnes. There was a shortfall in the production of all crops except sugarcane. The second plan was based on the Mahalanobis model, which is an economic development model developed by the Indian statistician P. C. Mahalanobis in 1953. The Khadi and Village Industries Programme, Intensive Agricultural District Programme, Tribal Area Development Programme, Village Housing Projects Scheme were the major programmes of rural reconstruction. The Intensive Agricultural District Program (IADP) was introduced in 1962 for increasing of production with the help of essential elements such as supply of fertilizers, pesticides, improve of seeds etc. The objectives of the plan were increase of national income, reduction of poverty, rapid industrialization, reduction of inequality in wealth, large expansion of employment opportunities etc. (GOI, 1956). Heavy industries were established like Hydro-electric power projects and five steel plants at

Bhilai, Dugapur and Rourkela were established in India. In 1958, the Atomic Energy Commission was formed under Homi J. Bhabha as the first Chairman. The Tata Institute of Fundamental Research was established as a research institute. The target growth of national income in this plan was 4.5% and achieved 3.6%.

THIRD FIVE-YEAR PLAN (1961-66)

The objective of this plan was to achieve self-sufficiency in food grains and to increase the agricultural production to meet the needs of industry and export. The plan accorded higher priority (20.5%) to agriculture and irrigation than to industrial development (20.1%). The plan targeted to increase overall agricultural production by 30%, but the achievements were disappointing. The actual output of food grains was 88.4 million tonnes in 1964-65 and 72.3 million tons in 1965-66, caused due to the drought condition of 1965-66. Food production was increased by 10% only as against the target of 30%. Consequently, the country has to import Rs. 1,100 crores worth of food grains to meet the domestic demand. Many cement and fertilizer plants were built. At the grass root level many schools have been started to improve primary education. During this period the State Electricity Boards and State Secondary Education Boards were formed. States were made responsible for secondary and higher education. State road transportation corporations were formed and local road building became a state responsibility. The target growth of national income was 5.6% and achieved 3.9%. Applied Nutrition Program, Tribal Development Block Programme, Rural Works Programme, Intensive Agricultural Area Programme, The Rural Industries Projects, High Yielding Variety Programme etc were started. The Applied Nutrition Programme was introduced in the rural areas in 1962 in collaboration with UNICEF (Arora, 1986). The objectives of the programme were production and distribution of nutritious food for pre-school children, pregnant and nursing mothers. In 1957, Balwant Rai Mahta Committee recommended to form the three tiers Panchayatiraj i.e. Gram Panchayatiraj at village level, Panchayats Samiti at Block level and Zila Parishad at District level. The three tier system of Panchayati Raj was first adopted by Rajasthan on 2 October, 1959.

THREE ANNUAL PLANS (1966-69)

From 1966-1969 the three interim annual plans were made for development. During this period, a high priority was given to minor irrigation and this was followed by adoption of a high yielding variety programme to increase agricultural production and productivity. Thus, this period is considered crucial for Indian agriculture as the green revolution took place during this period and the Government set up Agricultural Prices Commission to assure minimum support prices to farmers and the Food Corporation of India for maintaining buffer-stock to overcome fluctuation in the supplies of food grains and their prices. Due to implementation of HYV programme, here was a recorded food grain production of 95.6 million tonnes in 1968-69.

FOURTH FIVE-YEAR PLAN (1969-74)

The Fourth Plan had two objectives for the agricultural sector; (i) to provide the conditions necessary for a sustained increase of food production by about 5% per annum over the decade 1969-78 and (ii) to enable a large section of the rural population including small farmers, farmers in the dry areas and agricultural labourers to participate in the process of agricultural development and share its benefit. The Green Revolution introduced during the annual plans had a good result and the farmers particularly in the wheat-producing belt were here interested to adopt HYV cultivation. The actual production of food

grain was 104.7 million tonnes in 1973-74 as against the targeted increase of 129 million tonnes. The plan highlighted on the 'social justice' and 'Garibi hatao'. It emphasized on the improvement of poor and down-trodden classes. The Government emphasized on nationalization of banks and 14 major Indian banks recognized as national bank. Target growth of the national income was 5.7% and achieved 3.3%. The Crash Scheme for Rural Employment, Drought Prone Area Programme, Small Farmers Development Agency, Tribal Area Development Agency, and Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme were the major rural development programmes during this period. The restoration of ecological balance, soil and moisture conservation, development of small and marginal farmers and agricultural, management of irrigation resources etc. were the objectives of this plan (GOI, 1969). The Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme (PIREP), it was started and implemented in areas having different socio-economic conditions on a pilot basis. The Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA) and the Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers Development Agency (MFALDA) were launched to improve the socio-economic conditions of the small and marginal farmers by providing dug wells, pump sets, tube wells and proving loans for animal husbandry, diary, sheep and goat rearing, poultry etc. In 1970-1971 the Tribal Area Development programme (TADP) was started in tribal areas in four states Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa. The objectives of the programme was bringing the tribal areas in the mainstream of economic development of the country in the fields of agriculture, animal husbandry, irrigation development, construction road, land reform, etc. In 1974, the Minimum Needs Programme (MNP) introduced during the tenure of four plans to raise the standard of living below the poverty line. The objectives of the programme were the providing minimum elementary education for the children, public health facilities, family planning, preventive medicine, nutrition, improvement of urban slums areas, reconstruction of village roads etc.

FIFTH FIVE YEAR PLAN (1974-1979)

During the Fifth Plan, Rs. 8080 crores (nearly 21% of the plan outlay) was made for agricultural development and irrigation. The plan accorded priority for the spread of HYV cultivation, greater use of fertilizer, pesticides and insecticides to increase agricultural production.

The plan also provided special emphasis on:

(i)   small and marginal farmers,
(ii)   dry farming technique,
(iii)   evolving HYV seeds for other crops like paddy,
(iv)   social conservation measures on saline and alkaline soils and for desert land reclamation.

During this plan, the production of food grains increased substantially (232.5 million tonnes). But the output of pulses and oil-seeds, paddy remained stagnant and caused considerable hardship for the common man. The plan was terminated in 1978 instead of 1979.

The Hill Area Development Programme, Special Livestock Production Programme, Food for Work Programme, Desert Development Programme, Training of Youth for Self-employment were started. In 1975-1976 the GOI initiated a Special Livestock Production Programme (SLPP) on the basis of the recommendations of the National Commission on Agriculture for providing greater employment opportunities to the weaker sections of the rural mob. The Desert Development Programme (DDP) was started in 1977-1978 for raising the level of production, income, employment of people of the desert areas. The program started in 131 Blocks in 21 Districts in five states (Rajasthan, Haryana,

Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, and Jammu & Kashmir). On 15 August, 1979 the Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM) is launched by the Government. The programme is designed as an instrument for transforming the rural youth into a productive force. From 18-35 age groups of the rural youth belonging below the poverty line are eligible for training. Both males and females belonging to SCs/STs were eligible with general categories. The training are imparted through formal training institutions such as Industrial Training Institutes, Polytechnics, Krishi Vighan Kendras, Nehru Yuva Kendras, Khadi and Village Industries Centres, Voluntary Organisations and also through reputed master craftsmen (GOI, 1974). The target growth of national income was 4.4% and actual growth was 4.9%.

ROLLING PLAN (1978 - 80):

 There were two Sixth Plans. Government put forward a plan for 1978-1983. However, the government lasted for only 2 years. Congress Government returned to power in 1980 and launched a different plan.

SIXTH FIVE-YEAR PLAN (1980-85)

The Sixth Five-Year Plan recognized that the growth of the Indian economy depends significantly on a rapid growth in agriculture and rural development. The main objective of the plan was to increase agricultural production, generate employment and income opportunities in rural areas and strengthen the forces of modernization for achieving self-reliance. Further, the plan aimed at accelerating the pace of the implementation of the land reforms and institution building for beneficiaries.

The plan aimed at 3.8% annual growth in agricultural production. But, the actual growth-rate was 4.3%. This plan was officially held as a great success particularly due to its success on the agricultural fund. One-child policy adapted to birth control.

 Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) in 1980, replaced the erstwhile Food for Work and launched NREP. Creation of employment, creation of rural economy, livelihood improvement of rural poor etc. are the objectives of the NREP.

The major rural development programmes such as SFDA, MFALDA, NREP, IRDP, DPAP and the MNP have become too well known. They are part of the 20-point programme of 1982. In 1982, the Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) is formulated for the development of women and children especially belonging to the SCs and STs. The target group of the DWCRA is as IRDP.

The Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) was introduced in 1983 with the objectives of providing employment opportunities for at least one member of every landless household. The wages for workers paid under this programme partly in food and partly in cash. RLEGP merged with JRY programme. The target growth of the national income was 5.2% and actual growth was 5.3%.

SEVENTH FIVE-YEAR PLAN (1985-90)

The Seventh Plan aimed at an annual average increase of 4% in agricultural production. The plan allocated Rs. 39,770 crores for agricultural sector (22% of the total plan outlay).

The major programmes adopted during the plan were, a special rice production programme in the eastern region, national water-shed programme for rain-fed agriculture, national oil-seed development project and social forestry. Unfortunately enough, the first three years of this plan were poor monsoon

years. As a result, agricultural production received a set-back during these years. However, it increased sufficiently during the last two years for which the agricultural production recorded a commendable growth of 4.1%.

This plan was constituted with several anti-poverty programmes. On 1stApril, 1989, Jawahar Rozgar Yogana was launched with merged the earlier two employment schemes namely, RLEGP and NREP. Employment for the unemployed in rural areas, strengthening the rural economic infrastructure and improvement in the overall quality of life in rural areas were the objectives of the JRY. It was a centrally sponsored scheme and expenditure was shared by central government and state government in the ratio of 80:20.

The Million Wells Scheme (MSW) programme launched in 1988-1999 providing open imitation wells free of cost to rural poor, small and marginal farmers belonging to SCs/STs and free bonded labourers including scheme of Bhoodhan and land ceiling. Indira Awas Yojana (IAY) is an integrated part of RLEGP. The aim of the Yojana is providing dwelling house to the poorest of the poor of the rural masses belonging to

SCs/STs and bonded labourers. The houses should have a smokeless kitchen and sanitary latrine. The target of national growth income was 5.05% and its actual growth was 5.8%.

EIGHTH FIVE-YEAR PLAN (1992-97)

In 1989-1991 period was an economic instability in India and hence no five year plan was implemented. Between 1990 and 1992, there were only Annual Plans.

The basic objectives of the eighth five year plan were to consolidate the gains already achieved in agricultural productivity and production during the last 40 years; to sustain agricultural productivity and production in order to meet the increased demands of the growing population; to enlarge the income of the farmers; to create more-employment opportunities in the agricultural sector; and to step up agricultural exports. 22% of the total plan outlay amounting to Rs. 93,680 crores was allotted for agriculture and irrigation.

The Plan targets a growth rate of 4.1% per annum for the agricultural sector. Thus, during different plan periods, the Government has accorded vital importance to the agricultural sector and has tried to increase the agricultural production and productivity through different policy measures. In 1989-1991 period was an economic instability in India and hence no five year plan was implemented. Between 1990 and 1992, there were only Annual Plans.

The privatization and liberalization were started from this period of five year plan. Modernization of industries was target goal of the eighth Plan. During this plan India became as a member of the WTO on 1 January, 1995.

The major objectives of the eight plans were - control rapid population growth, poverty eradication, increase employment, strengthening the infrastructure, develop tourism management, human resource development, Involvement of Panchayatiraj in rural development, Nagar Palikas Law, NGO's and Decentralizations of power and people's participation in governmental policies. In this plan, target national growth income was 5.6% and achieved 6.78%. During this plan period the major programmes were IRDP, JRY, IAY and MWS.

NINTH FIVE-YEAR PLAN (1997-2002)

Ninth Five Year Plan was developed in the context of four important dimensions:

- (i)   Quality of life
- (ii)   generation of productive employment,
- (iii)   regional balance and
- (iv)   self-reliance.

Target growth was 6.5% but 5.35% actual growth achieved. It was formulated from 1997-2002 with the prime objectives like drastic industrialization human development, poverty eradication, self-reliance in economy, increase employment, to provide basic infrastructure of life like education for all, safe drinking water, provide primary health care, food security, women empowerment etc.

During 1999-2000 the IRDP, TRYSEM, DWCRA, SITRA, MWS were merged to form a new self-employment program called rename as Swarna Jayantri Gram Swarajgar Yojana (SJGSY) with effect from 1stApril, 1999. The eradication of poverty, security of nutritional food, water supply, empowerment of women and socially disadvantages groups, provide universal primary education, health, shelter etc. (GOI, 1997).

TENTH FIVE-YEAR PLAN (2002-2007)

During the tenth five year plan under Swarna Jayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SJGSY) emphasized to form 1.25 lakhs SHG benefiting 25 lakhs women, improvement of skill and capacity building, credit linkages vocational training for about 5 lakhs rural women, etc. The erstwhile wage employment Programmes. JGSY and EAs were merged and a new scheme namely Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana (SGRY) was launched from 15thAugust, 2001.

The Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) introduced in the year 2000-2001 for road connectivity in the rural areas. During this plan a new scheme viz, Rastriya Sam Vikas Yojana was introduced to investigate the real problems of high poverty, unemployment etc. which would remove barriers to growth and accelerate the development process. The scheme is founded by Central and State Government in the ratio of 75:25. The target growth was 8.1% of national income and achieved 7.7%.

ELEVENTH FIVE-YEAR PLAN (2007-2012)

The eleventh five year plan was constituted with two rural development program i.e. Bharat Nirman Programme and flagship program to provide opportunities to improve living conditions as well as livelihoods. The objective of the Bharat Nirman Programme is to impart a sense of urgency to create rural infrastructure by setting time-bound goals under various schemes, creation of average rate of irrigation, rural roads connectivity for rural development, poverty alleviation in India, rural electrification, pure drinking water etc. which form a part of the Bharat Nirman Program.

In order to roads connectivity for rural habitations Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) was launched as a hundred CSS in December, 2000. The flagship programs were included National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme (NREGP), National Rural Health Mission (NRHM),

Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), Mid-Day-Meal (MDM), National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP), Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC), Backward Regions Grant Fund (BRGF). The BRGF has replaced the Rastriya Sam Vikas Yojana (RSVY) in order to provide a more participative approach through the involvement of Panchayatiraj institutions (GOI, 2007).

TWELFTH FIVE-YEAR PLAN (2012-2017):

Twelfth Five Year plan is devoted to agricultural and rural development and committed to all round development of the country. The following seven major flagship programmes are operating in rural areas. MGNREGA, NFRLM, IAY, NRDWP, TSP, IWDP, PMGSY, RGGVY (GOI, 2012).

Besides these, the Government of India launched the other programmes for uplift of the poor classes like village self-sufficiency scheme, Member of Legislative Assembly Constituency Development Scheme, Integrated Sanitary Complex for Women, Clean Village Campaign and Rural Sanitation, Capital programme of Infrastructure Development by rural local Bodies, Construction of village Administrative Officers Office Buildings, Rejuvenation of water Bodies and Rain Water Harvesting in Rural Areas etc.

TABLE: 10 PERCENTAGE OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH NO. OF LATRINE FACILITIES IN RURAL INDIA, 2011

State	2001	2011
Jharkhand	92.4	93.4
Madhya Pradesh	86.9	91.1
Odisha	85.9	92.3
Chattisgarh	85.5	94.8
Bihar	82.4	86.1
Rajasthan	80.4	85.4
UP	78.2	80.8
Tamil Nadu	76.8	85.6
D & N Haveli	73.5	82.7
Karnataka	71.6	82.6
Andhra Pradesh	67.8	81.9
Gujarat	67	78.3
Maharashtra	62	81.8
J & K	61.4	58.2
Puducherry	61	78.6
West Bengal	53.3	73.1
Daman & Diu	48.6	68
Arunachal Pradesh	47.3	52.7
Meghalaya	46.2	59.9
Uttarakhand	45.9	68.4
Haryana	43.9	71.3
Assam	40.5	40.4
A & N Islands	39.8	57.7
H P	33.4	72.3
Nagaland	30.8	35.4

State	2001	2011
Punjab	29.6	59.1
Goa	29.1	51.8
NCT of Delhi	23.7	37.1
Tripura	18.5	22.1
Sikkim	15.9	40.6
Mizoram	15.4	20.3
Manipur	14	22.5
Chandigarh	12	31.5
Kerala	6.8	18.7
Lakshadweep	2	6.9
India	69.2	78.1

Source: Census of India , 2011

INCLUSIVE GROWTH :

India entered the Eleventh Plan period with an impressive record of economic growth. After a lacklustre performance in the Ninth Plan period (1997–98 to 2001– 02), when gross domestic product (GDP) grew at only 5.5% per annum, the economy accelerated in the Tenth Plan period (2002–03 to 2006–07) to record an average growth of 7.7%, the highest in any Plan period so far. Besides, there was acceleration even within the Tenth Plan period and the growth rate in the last four years of the Plan has averaged 8.7%, making India one of the fastest growing economies in the world.

This positive factor notwithstanding, a major weakness in the economy is that the growth is not perceived as being sufficiently inclusive for many groups, especially Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs), and minorities. Gender inequality also remains a pervasive problem and some of the structural changes taking place have an adverse effect on women. The lack of inclusiveness is borne out by data on several dimensions of performance

The percentage of the population below the official poverty line had come down from 36% in 1993–94 to 28% in 2004–05. Other indicators of deprivation suggested that the proportion of the population deprived of a minimum level of living was much higher. Indicators of human development such as literacy and education, and maternal and infant mortality rates, showed steady improvement, but they also suggested that the progress was slow and we continued to lag behind several other Asian countries. While the literacy rate went up from 18.3% in 1951 to 64.8% in 2001, the number of illiterate persons still exceeded 304 million, making India the country with the highest number of illiterate persons in the world. Life expectancy at birth had increased from approximately 32 years for both males and females in 1951 to 63.9 years for males and 66.9 years for females in 2001–06. Yet this was well below the life expectancy of around 80 years in industrialized countries and 72 years in China. Although Indian women had higher life expectancy than Indian men, as is the case in industrialized countries, India also had an adverse sex ratio with only 933 women per 1000 men. More disturbing, the child sex ratio (ages 0–6) had declined sharply from 962 in 1981 to 927 in 2001. India's maternal and infant mortality rates were much higher than those of countries in East Asia, showing poor access to essential health care services.

The central vision of the Eleventh Plan was to build on our strengths to trigger a development process which ensured broad-based improvement in the quality of life of the people, especially the poor, SCs/STs, other backward castes (OBCs), minorities and women. The National Development Council

(NDC), in approving the Approach to the Eleventh Plan, endorsed a target of 9% GDP growth for the country as a whole. This growth was to be achieved in an environment in which the economy was much more integrated into the global economy, an integration that yielded many benefits but also posed many challenges. If this would be achieved, it would mean that per capita GDP would grow at about 7.6% per year to double in less than ten years. However the target was not just faster growth but also inclusive growth, that is, a growth process which yields broad-based benefits and ensures equality of opportunity for all.

This broad vision of the Eleventh Plan included several inter-related components: rapid growth that would reduce poverty and create employment opportunities, access to essential services in health and education especially for the poor, equality of opportunity, empowerment through education and skill development, employment opportunities underpinned by the National Rural Employment Guarantee, environmental sustainability, recognition of women's agency and good governance.

STRATEGY FOR THE ELEVENTH PLAN: POLICIES FOR INCLUSIVE GROWTH

The strategy for inclusive growth in the Eleventh Plan is not just a conventional strategy for growth to which some elements aimed at inclusion were added. On the contrary, it is a strategy which aimed at achieving a particular type of growth process which would meet the objectives of inclusiveness and sustainability. This strategy was based on sound macroeconomic policies which established the macroeconomic preconditions for rapid growth and support key drivers of this growth. It also included sector-specific policies which would ensure that the structure of growth that is generated, and the institutional environment in which it occurs, achieves the objective of inclusiveness in all its many dimensions.

1. **Infrastructure Requirements of Inclusive Growth** :

   Good quality infrastructure is the most critical physical requirement for attaining faster growth in a competitive world and also for ensuring investment in backward regions. This includes all-weather roads; round-the-clock availability of power at a stable voltage and frequency; water for irrigation; railways that are not overcrowded, which run on time and do not overcharge for freight; ports with low turnaround time to reduce costs of imports and exports; airports to handle the growing traffic; air services that provide connectivity to all parts of the country; and telecommunications and broadband connectivity to provide the benefits of the Internet to people all over the country.

   The Eleventh Plan outlined a comprehensive programme for development of infrastructure, especially **Inclusive Growth in Rural Areas**, and in the remote and backward parts of the country, consistent with the requirements of inclusive growth at 9% per year. The total investment needed in infrastructure, defined to include electricity (including non-conventional energy), roads, bridges and railways (includes Mass Rapid Transit System, MRTS), ports, airports, telecommunications, irrigation (including watershed development), water supply and sanitation, storage and gas distribution would have to increase from an estimated 5.43% of GDP in 2006–07 to 9.34% by the terminal year of the Eleventh Plan. Though public investment has to be a large part of the solution, an increase of this magnitude cannot be achieved through public investment alone since there will be large demands on public sector resources from the health and education and agriculture sectors, and also from various programmes aimed at livelihood

support for the poor. The Eleventh Plan therefore proposed a strategy for infrastructure development which involves a combined response—an increase in public sector investment in infrastructure as a percentage of GDP, and also an increase in private sector investment through some form of public–private partnership (PPP) or directly, where feasible.

2. **Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) as Delivery Mechanisms**:

The Eleventh Plan sought to substantially empower the PRIs as the primary means of delivery of the essential services that are critical to inclusive growth. The 73rd and 74th Amendments to the Constitution have led to the establishment of about 2.5 lakh elected institutions of local self-government. (about 2.38 lakh in rural areas and the rests in urban areas). As against about 540 directly elected Members of Parliament and about 4500 directly elected members of our State assemblies, we had about 3.2 million elected representatives in the PRIs of which as many as 1.2 million are women. There were more elected women in India alone than in the rest of the world put together. It was absolutely critical for the inclusiveness of our growth process that these large numbers of elected representatives in our PRIs are fully involved in planning, implementing and supervising the delivery of the essential public services. The Eleventh Plan recognized that there was a need to build in incentives that will encourage the States to devolve functions, funds and functionaries to the PRIs. In order to capture the extent to which this process and empowerment of PRIs had actually progressed in each State, a suitable Devolution Index would be developed and would be called PRI-Empowerment Index.

3. **Monitorable Targets**

A key feature of the inclusive growth strategy in the Eleventh Plan was that growth of GDP should not be treated as an end in itself, but only as a means to an end. This would be best done by adopting monitorable targets which would reflect the multi-dimensional economic and social objectives of inclusive growth. Furthermore, to ensure efficient and timely implementation of the accompanying projects and programmes, these targets would need to be disaggregated at the level of the States which implement many of the programmes.

Following this approach, 27 monitorable targets were identified at the national level of which 13 could be disaggregated at the level of individual States. These targets were ambitious, but it was better to aim high and fail than to aim low. The Eleventh Plan laid great stress on attaining them.

The 27 National Targets:

Twenty-seven targets at the national level fall in six major categories. The six categories are:

(i)   Income and Poverty;
(ii)   Education;
(iii)   Health;
(iv)   Women and Children;
(v)   Infrastructure; and
(vi)   Environment.

The targets in each of these categories are given below:

(i)   Income and Poverty

   a.   Average GDP growth rate of 9% per year in the Eleventh Plan period.

   b.   Agricultural GDP growth rate at 4% per year on the average.

   c.   Generation of 58 million new work opportunities.

   d.   Reduction of unemployment among the educated to less than 5%.

   e.   20% rise in the real wage rate of unskilled workers.

   f.   Reduction in the head-count ratio of consumption poverty by 10 percentage points.

(ii)   Education

   a.   Reduction in the dropout rates of children at the elementary level from 52.2% in 2003–04 to 20% by 2011–12.

   b.   Developing minimum standards of educational attainment in elementary schools, to ensure quality education.

   c.   Increasing the literacy rate for persons of age 7 years or more to 85% by 2011–12.

   d.   Reducing the gender gap in literacy to 10 percentage points by 2011–12.

   e.   Increasing the percentage of each cohort going to higher education from the present 10% to 15% by 2011–12.

(iii) Health

   a.   Infant mortality rate (IMR) to be reduced to 28 and maternal mortality ratio (MMR) to 1 per 1000 live births by the end of the Eleventh Plan.

   b.   Total Fertility Rate to be reduced to 2.1 by the end of the Eleventh Plan.

   c.   Clean drinking water to be available for all by 2009, ensuring that there are no slip-backs by the end of the Eleventh Plan.

   d.   Malnutrition among children of age group 0–3 to be reduced to half its present level by the end of the Eleventh Plan.

   e.   Anaemia among women and girls to be reduced to half its present level by the end of the Eleventh Plan. 24 Eleventh Five Year Plan

(iv) Women and Children

   a.   Sex ratio for age group 0–6 to be raised to 935 by 2011– 12 and to 950 by 2016–17.

   b.   Ensuring that at least 33% of the direct and indirect beneficiaries of all government schemes are women and girl children.

   c.   Ensuring that all children enjoy a safe childhood, without any compulsion to work.

(v)   Infrastructure

   a.   To ensure electricity connection to all villages and BPL households by 2009 and reliable power by the end of the Plan.

   b.   To ensure all-weather road connection to all habitations with population 1000 and above (500 and above in hilly and tribal areas) by 2009, and all significant habitations by 2015.

   c.   To connect every village by telephone and provide broadband connectivity to all villages by 2012.

   d.   To provide homestead sites to all by 2012 and step up the pace of house construction for rural poor to cover all the poor by 2016–17.

(vi)   Environment

    a. To increase forest and tree cover by 5 percentage points.

    b. To attain WHO standards of air quality in all major cities by 2011–12.

    c. To treat all urban waste water by 2011–12 to clean river waters.

    d. To increase energy efficiency by 20% by 2016–17.

The 13 State-Specific Targets:

The Eleventh Plan has been formulated in a manner whereby 13 of the 27 monitorable national targets have been disaggregated into appropriate targets for individual States. These are:

(i)   GDP growth rate

(ii)   Agricultural growth rate

(iii)   New work opportunities

(iv)   Poverty ratio

(v)   Dropout rate in elementary schools

(vi)   Literacy rate

(vii)   Gender gap in literacy rate

(viii) Infant mortality rate (IMR)

(ix)   Maternal mortality ratio (MMR)

(x)   Total Fertility Rate (TFR)

(xi)   Child malnutrition

(xii)   Anaemia among women and girls

(xiii) Sex-ratio 1.153. Appropriate policies and programmes have to be identified both at the Central and State levels so as to ensure realization of these targets in the Eleventh Plan period.

Eleventh Plan Achievements on Inclusive Growth

The following are some important indicators showing the extent to which the Eleventh Plan succeeded in fulfilling the objective of inclusive growth. (In some cases, where the data relates to the NSSO surveys, the time period for comparison is before and after 2004–05.)

(i) GDP growth in the Eleventh Plan 2007–08 to 2011–12 was 8 per cent compared with 7.6 per cent in the Tenth Plan (2002–03 to 2006–07) and only 5.7 per cent in the Ninth Plan (1997–98 to 2001–02). The growth rate of 7.9 per cent in the Eleventh Plan period is one of the highest of any country in that period which saw two global crises.

(ii) Agricultural GDP growth accelerated in the Eleventh Plan, to an average rate of 3.7 per cent, compared with 2.4 per cent in the Tenth Plan, and 2.5 per cent in the Ninth Plan.

(iii) The percentage of the population below the poverty line declined at the rate of 1.5 percentage points (ppt) per year in the period 2004–05 to 2009–10, twice the rate at which it declined in the previous period 1993–94 to 2004–05. (When the data for the latest NSSO survey for 2011–12 become available, it is likely that the rate of decline may be close to 2 ppt per year.)

(iv) The rate of growth of real consumption per capita in rural areas in the period 2004–05 to 2011–12 was 3.4 per cent per year which was four times the rate in the previous period 1993–94 to 2004–05.

(v) The rate of unemployment declined from 8.2 per cent in 2004–05 to 6.6 per cent in 2009–10 reversing the trend observed in the earlier period when it had actually increased from 6.1 per cent in 1993–94 to 8.2 per cent in 2004–05.

(vi) Rural real wages increased 6.8 per cent per year in the Eleventh Plan (2007–08 to 2011–12) compared to an average 1.1 per cent per year in the previous decade, led largely by the government's rural policies and initiatives.

(vii) Complete immunization rate increased by 2.1 ppt per year between 2002–04 and 2007–08, compared to a 1.7 ppt fall per year between 1998–99 and 2002–04. Similarly, institutional deliveries increased by 1.6 ppt per year between 2002–04 and 2007–08 higher than the 1.3 ppt increase per year between 1998–99 and 2002–04.

(viii) Net enrolment rate at the primary level rose to a near universal 98.3 per cent in 2009–10. Dropout rate (classes I–VIII) also showed improvements, falling 1.7 ppt per year between 2003–04 and 2009–10, which was twice the 0.8 ppt fall between 1998–99 and 2003–04.

TWELFTH FIVE YEAR PLAN: FASTER, MORE INCLUSIVE & SUSTAINABLE GROWTH

The Twelfth Plan should aim at a growth process that preserves emphasis on inclusion and sustainability while minimising downside effects on growth. Plans are traditionally viewed as being about what governments should do, but that is a narrow view since most investment today is private, and much of that is corporate. The Twelfth Plan would provide a competitive environment in which the private sector, including the corporate sector but also all Indians, both as individuals and in the collective, are enable to reach their full potential. The objective must be to stimulate new entrepreneurship while enabling existing MSMEs, including in agriculture, to invest more and grow faster. For this, we need to meet their needs for infrastructure and for easier, cheaper and faster access to capital.

India is fortunate that it is richly endowed in entrepreneurial talent. At a rough estimate, the number of non-agricultural establishments in the country increases by about 8 million every 10 years. While many of these enterprises are very small, and reflect basic survival strategies, many are not. The past decade has shown the dynamism that is possible in this sector under the right circumstances. Many of the leading corporates today belonged to the MSME category at the turn of the century. In this context, the Twelfth Plan's overarching priority on developing human capital can, with the proper prioritisation of infrastructure and with innovative use of technology and finance, unleash a truly inclusive growth story.

This inclusive strategy involves a much greater role of the States, and closer coordination between the Centre and the States, than would be needed for a purely corporate-led growth strategy. This is because most of the policy measures and institutional support required for small and medium entrepreneur-led growth lie in the domain of State Governments and local bodies. The Centre's contributions would lie mainly in creating the appropriate macroeconomic framework, financial sector policies and national level infrastructure.

FIGURE: 11 – TWELFTH PLAN OBJECTIVES

The Meaning of Inclusiveness: Inclusiveness means many different things and each aspect of inclusiveness poses its own challenges for policy

(i) **Inclusiveness as Poverty Reduction**: Distributional concerns have traditionally been viewed as ensuring an adequate flow of benefits to the poor and the most marginalised. This must remain an important policy focus in the Twelfth Plan.

(ii) **Inclusiveness as Group Equality**: Inclusiveness is not just about bringing those below an official fixed poverty line to a level above it. It is also about a growth process which is seen to be 'fair' by different socio-economic groups that constitute our society. The poor are certainly one target group, but inclusiveness must also embrace the concern of other groups such as the Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs), Other Backward Classes (OBCs), Minorities, the differently abled and other marginalised groups. Women can also be viewed as a disadvantaged group for this purpose. These distinct 'identity groups' are sometimes correlated with income slabs—the SCs and STs, for example, are in the lower income category—and all poverty alleviation strategies help them directly. Women on the other hand span the entire income spectrum, but there are gender-based issues of inclusiveness that are relevant all along the spectrum.

(iii) **Inclusiveness as Regional Balance**: Another aspect of inclusiveness relates to whether all States, and indeed all regions, are seen to benefit from the growth process. The regional dimension has grown in importance in recent years. In the Twelfth Plan, we must pay special attention to the scope for accelerating growth in the States that are lagging behind. This will require strengthening of States' own capacities to plan, to implement and to bring greater

synergies within their own administration and with the Central Government. As a first step, the Planning Commission is working with its counterpart Planning Boards and Planning Departments in all State Governments to improve their capabilities. An important constraint on the growth of backward regions in the country is the poor state of infrastructure, especially road connectivity, schools and health facilities and the availability of electricity, all of which combine to hold back development. Improvement in infrastructure must therefore be an important component of any regionally inclusive development strategy.

(iv) **Inclusiveness and Inequality**: Inclusiveness also means greater attention to income inequality. The extent of inequality is measured by indices such as the Gini coefficient, which provide a measure of the inequality in the distribution on a whole, or by measures that focus on particular segments such as the ratio of consumption of the top 10 per cent or 20 per cent of the population to that of the bottom 10 per cent or 20 per cent of the population, or in terms of rural–urban, such as the ratio of mean consumption in urban versus rural areas. An aspect of inequality that has come sharply into focus in industrialised countries, in the wake of the financial crisis, is the problem of extreme concentration of income at the very top, that is, the top 1 per cent and this concern is also reflected in the public debate in India. Perfect equality is not found anywhere and there are many reasons why it may not even be a feasible objective. However, there can be no two opinions on the fact that inequality must be kept within tolerable limits. Some increase in inequality in a developing country during a period of rapid growth and transformation may be unavoidable and it may even be tolerated if it is accompanied by sufficiently rapid improvement in the living standards of the poor. However, an increase in inequality with little or no improvement in the living standards of the poor is a recipe for social tensions. Static measures of inequality do not capture the phenomenon of equality of opportunity which needs special attention. Any given level of inequality of outcomes is much more socially acceptable if it results from a system which provides greater equality of opportunity. As a society, we therefore need to move as rapidly as possible to the ideal of giving every child in India a fair opportunity in life, which means assuring every child access to good health and quality education. While this may not be possible to achieve in one Plan period, the Twelfth Plan should aim at making substantial progress in this dimension.

(v) **Inclusiveness as Empowerment**: Finally, inclusiveness is not just about ensuring a broad-based flow of benefits or economic opportunities; it is also about empowerment and participation. It is a measure of the success we have achieved in building a participatory democracy that people are no longer prepared to be passive recipients of benefits doled out by the Government. They are slowly beginning to demand these benefits and opportunities as rights and they also want a say in how they are administered. This brings to the fore issues of governance, accountability and peoples participation to much greater extent than before. This also covers areas like access to information about government schemes, knowledge of the relevant laws and how to access justice. The growing concern with governance has also focused attention on corruption. How to tackle corruption is now at the centre stage of policy debates.

(vi) **Inclusiveness through Employment Programmes**:. One of the most important interventions for fostering inclusion during Eleventh Plan was the MGNREGA. While its achievements in ameliorating poverty and preventing acute distress during times of drought have been recorded and appreciated, there are also some complaints against MGNREGA, primarily on the grounds that it is a dole, involving huge expenditures that could have been spent more productively. There are also complaints that it is leading to increase in wages of agricultural labour and

construction workers. The view that rising wages by themselves represent a problem is not credible since this is the only mechanism through which landless agricultural labour can benefit from economic growth. If rising wages squeeze farm profitability, the solution lies in raising farm productivity to accommodate higher wages. In any case, rural labour relations in large parts of the country continue to be feudal, and use of migrant labour for both agriculture and construction continues to be exploitative. These inequities would not get corrected by themselves. We should not be looking to perpetuate a situation where low-cost labour provides the necessary profit margins for farmers, removing incentives to invest in efficiency improvement.

PLAN-WISE GDP GROWTH RATES

Year	Five-year Plan	Actual growth in %
1951-56	First	3.6
1956-61	Second	4.2
1961-66	Third	2.8
1969-74	Fourth	3.3
1974-79	Fifth	4.7
1980-85	Sixth	5.7
1985-90	Seventh	5.8
1992-97	Eight	6.5
1997-02	Ninth	5.5
2002-07	Tenth	7.8
2007-12	Eleventh	7.9
2012-17*	Twelth	8.0

Note: From 1966-69, there was no Five-Year Plan but only annual plans. Similarly from 1979-80 and thereafter from 1990 to 1992 there were no Five-Year Plans. 1951 to 56 means April 1, 1951, to March 31, 1956, and likewise.
* Projection by the Planning Commission   Source: Planning Commission of India

FIGURE: 12 - PLAN WISE GDP GROWTH RATES

CONVERGENCE

Substantial public investments are being made for strengthening of the rural economy and the livelihood base of the poor, especially the marginalized groups like SC/STs and women. To effectively address the issue of poverty alleviation, there is need to optimize efforts through inter-sectoral approaches.

The convergence of different programmes like, Watershed Programmes, National Agriculture Development Programme(Rashtriya Krishi Vikas Yojana) NADP(RKVY), National Horticulture Mission (NHM), Scheme of Artificial Recharge of Ground Water through Dug well (ARGW), Accelerated Irrigation Benefit Programme (AIBP), Command Area Development and Water Management Programme (CAD & WM) and Scheme of Repair Renovation and Restoration of Water Bodies (RRR) of Water Resources Department, Backward Region Grant Fund (BRGF), with NREGA will enable better planning and effective investments in rural areas. Convergence also brings synergy between different government programme/schemes in term of planning, process and implementation of programmes/Schemes.
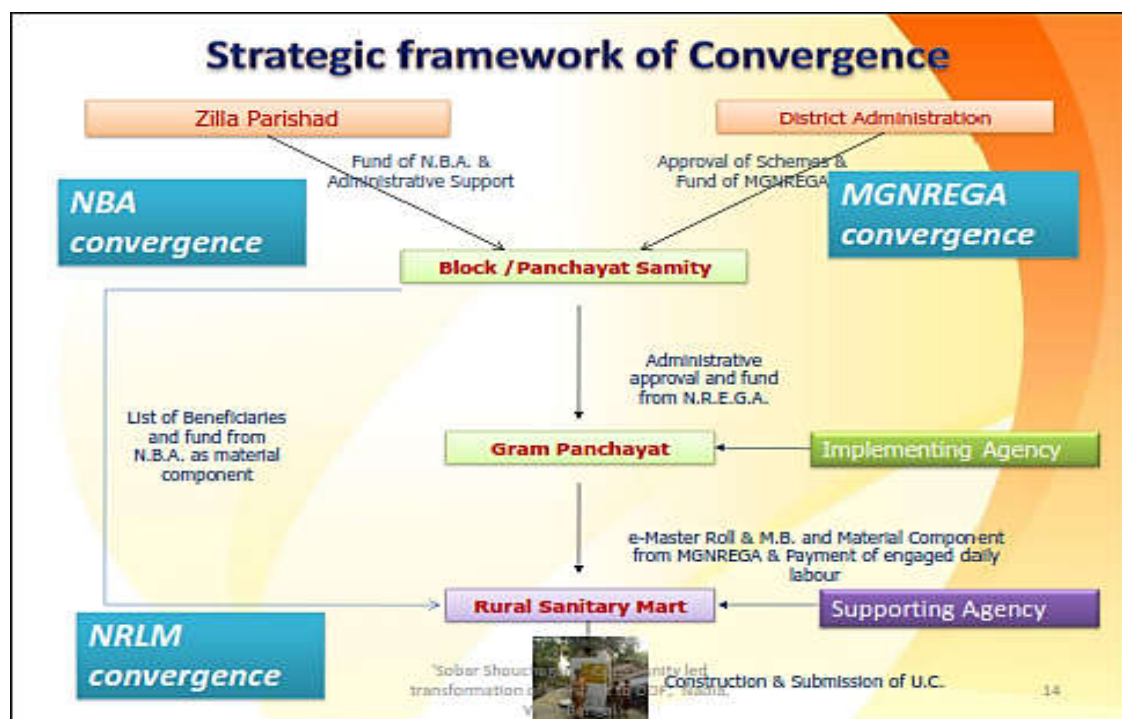
STEPS FOR CONVERGENCE

Convergence framework consists of three parameters:

1. **Formation of the Technical Consortium**: For Technical Support (Experts from different government departments) as well as strengthening technical inputs into NREGA works, a technical consortium in consultation with the various departments will be formed. Technical Consortium, which will be suitably strengthened by experts and technical personnel to advise, formulate, appraise and monitor the implementation of the convergence model

2. **Inclusion at Planning Level**: Planning is critical for effective implementation of schemes. Thus convergence should begin at the planning level by inclusion into the District Perspective Plan. The approach of plan should be to cover all aspects of natural resource management, socio-economic infrastructure requirements so as to identify all critical aspects of development in the local area.

3. **Implementation of Specific activities and works (Project Approach) Activity**-wise convergence with different programmes may be undertaken.
   a. Kachha to Pucca (Value addition), for example, kuchcha work for a pond may be taken under NREGA and the concrete structure/lining can be undertaken by BRGF or horticulture mission. A WBM road under NREGA, can be further covered under PMGSY to make it concrete
   b. Integrated area planning, for example, development of watershed/command area for natural resource regeneration and increasing agricultural productivity
   c. Infrastructure to Income (sustainable income to rural families) based on assets created under NREGA, for example, a pucca pond may be used for fishing to provide sustainable income opportunity for the local people.

d. Human Development Programmes, for example, NREGA and education through the development of Primers for functional literacy

Convergence in the Twelfth Five Year Plan:

A key deficiency of Plan programmes is that they continue to function within the confines of departmental silos without requisite convergence and with a high degree of duplication of effort.

The Twelfth Plan visualises a convergence of implementation across programmes to pool financial and physical resources across sectors to attain synergy to benefit the target group. For example:

(i) Rural drinking water and sanitation programmes should be converged so that the two objectives are attained in a mutually consistent manner.
(ii) Similarly, it is proposed that under the JNNURM, every water supply project will necessarily also be a sewage treatment project and green buildings will require linkages with the energy sector.
(iii) Creating common sanctioning authorities within districts for the IWMP and RKVY programmes so that the IWMP has a livelihoods focus and the RKVY based on watershed principles is another step in this direction.
(iv) Similarly convergence is required between Women and Child Development programmes, Public Health and Drinking Water; nutrition, mid-day meals (MDMs) and physical education in schools; and skill development programmes that will call for backward linkages with school programmes and forward linkages with industry and other service sectors who will be potential employers of skilled manpower.

Effective Design and Implementation:
While formulating schemes, it is important to ensure that they are well-designed for the objective at hand and also that the guidelines and procedures help in effective implementation. Some of the areas which will need focus in ensuring good architecture of the schemes will be:

1. While preparing the schemes, the central ministries role would be to act as a knowledge partner and enabler to the project implementation, which will be typically in the states. For this, ministries will prepare capabilities in preparing for scheme design and creation of learning systems and networks from which the states and local implementers can learn.
2. These schemes would have specific strategic outcomes. For example, it could result in improved number of patents, employment generation, providing learning support to the disabled or improved energy efficiency.
3. While, capabilities are prepared in the ministries, time should be devoted to preparation of good scheme, as mentioned earlier. The Ministry would use funds to design schemes which might require higher consultation experts/expertise or reaching out to numerous stake holders. There has been so far very little investment made in this area. Often, not enough time and energy is devoted to this. The schemes after a proposed design have a good chance of delivering the desired outcomes.
4. The consultation with the stakeholders is one of the key requirements for ensuing that the architecture of these schemes meet the objectives. Often, the consultation process is not mandatory. The schemes which may require formulation of laws or guidelines would need to have extensive consultative machinery. Resources would need to be provided to improve the quality of consultations.

5. The architecture of this scheme must have evaluation and feedback mechanisms. It is important to evaluate the schemes against the strategic outcomes to ensure effective use of money being spent. Not enough attention is devoted to this aspect. Often this is left to the audit function. It is not a good use of public money and resources. An effective evaluation can lead to improved versions of these schemes, leading to better outcomes and more efficient use of public resources.

Some of the areas which will need to be kept in mind for effective implementation are:

1. Developing flexibility and its effective use during the implementation of these schemes for improving their outcomes would need collective action. It is important to have learning and feedback mechanisms in place to ensure that implementation effectiveness improves. This would help in diagnosis of issues during implementation and rectifying problems identified, using flexibility components of the scheme.
2. It is important to prioritize, sequence and create momentum through results. Often it takes time for results of policy recommendation to become visible. To ensure that the implementation process does not lose momentum, it is important to have some early wins. These would help build confidence and commitment to the policy.
3. Public programmes must have clear outcomes. It is imperative that time is spent upfront to find outcomes in consultation with stakeholders. Failure to do this causes the system to adopt simplistic measures of performance against the targets.

ISSUES IN INTERVENTIONS:

The real scenario is that rural India is faced with multiple developmental challenges. The critical ones include:

1. **Policy and Planning Level Issues:**
   a. Union and State laws are not reviewed and suitably amended in accordance with the 73rd constitutional amendment. And even if the acts are amended there are dual approaches of implementation wherein the people are supposed to plan for their own affairs but on other hand there are specific guidelines which indicates detailed outline of planning which makes the planning exercise mechanical and left nothing to be decided by the people in the real sense, the constitutionally recognized bodies have just to pass the readymade resolutions given in prescribed proforma.
   b. Lack of Linkages among Components is a major policy level issue of rural development policy. For e.g. a key element for sustainable project outcomes is a design that is based on a holistic consideration of livelihoods systems, needs and opportunities but narrow, sector-focused interventions proves to be a risk to sustainability in a variety of ways. Gains made in household food security can easily be lost due to disease outbreaks or adult mortality. Improved economic status can be compromised by shocks – natural or man-made –that deplete household assets and destroy community assets. In short, if households and communities lack resilience in the face of natural, social or economic shocks, project impacts can quickly be lost.
   c. There are several Interventions which are technically inappropriate, culturally insensitive and institutionally ineffective. Many a times a policy itself is technically inappropriate for e.g. the activity of cattle farming is offered to SHG in desert area it is said technically not

suitable. Sometimes culturally unacceptable activity is offered to a group is likely to be failed.

d. The programmes (guidelines of the programmes) are not flexible enough to be amended during implementation period. Sometimes it is found at state level or at district level that a particular clause is hindrance in smooth implementation of a program but since the guideline is prepared at certain level there is no scope left out to amend or improve the particular clause of it. Monitoring is so long-term that it provides "too little too late" in terms of useful course correction. Plan laid out in a step-by-step fashion cannot possibly allow for the flexibility required to overcome the complex challenges of human development.

e. Poor Backward and forward linkages results in least avenues for sustainability. Several policies are prepared in isolation without any provision of sustaining the occurrence of development. In such cases development occurs but fails to get replicated and even fails to get sustained.

2. **Management Related Issues:**
   a. **Poor Strategy for Institutional Development and Partnership**: For the success of any program Institutional development is very important component wherein institutions who are engaged in implementation are equipped with all required resources including manpower, financial, technical knowhow, sensitivity and preparedness. Poor institutions always give poor results. One of the other major management level functions is to do partnership with organizations, groups and institutions which is to be done in a very strategic way as this can be proved to be the accelerating component. But improper partnerships result in overlapping, delays, wastages and conflicts.

   b. **Impractical formats of Reporting**: Formats are meant to monitor the adherence of the program at each and every stage of a program implementation but making it impractical leads to overlapping of work as well as unfruitful data collection. Many a times, hectic data collection in terms of progress is rather a more lengthy process than that of development process itself. In such cases the implementing agencies devote their 75% time and energy in filling the formats of what that did under those 25% efforts.

   c. Rural development project activities are highly dependent for their successful performance on integration, or the coordination of a set of mutually complementary, interdependent activities. For example, the success of a credit activity may be dependent on the availability of an improved agronomic package, or the success of a rural road may be dependent on the existence of agricultural marketing opportunities. So if any single link is missing there is a problem. This is one of the major issues of rural development policy planning.

   d. Projects with multi sectoral components implemented by a lead department have had considerable difficulty achieving the required coordination with other compartmentalized departments. For e.g. DRDA is implementing agency for SGSY but the projects under SGSY are to be prepared in consultation and coordination of departments like Forest, Roads and Building, Women and Child Development Department, Livelihood Corporation, Women's economic Development Corporation, Water and Sanitation, Education, Banks etc. The line departments have their own basic mandatory functions for which they give propriety and consider such collaboration and support as voluntary or to say optional low priority nature kind of work. In short they are not answerable to anyone especially their role in SGSY.

e. People are not aware about their rights, duties, roles, benefits, remedies, grievance redressal mechanism, decision making system, responsible and questionable authorities with regard to a particular scheme in general and rural development affairs in particular.

f. **Capacity Building of Stakeholders** in terms of developing knowledge, skills and attitudes required for the success of a program. The component of capacity building is a missing or inadequate link of most of the rural development programs since the stakeholders are not being equipped with knowledge, skills and attitudes required for a successful implementation of a programme.

g. The performance and qualitative changes are not being evaluated prior to commencement of further work.

h. **Grant Flows are irregular:** Financial management is one of the integral part of rural development management but the flow of grant is irregular which is a major management level issue of rural development.

i. **Exit/Sustainability Strategy** is one of the major elements of management of rural development management and administration but several rural development programmes are managed in isolation without integrating it with the future of occurred event.

j. Many a times the Implementation cost is higher than the cost of actual benefit given to poor or the beneficiary. Except in some exceptional cases such situation indicates the poor management system.

3. **Implementation Level Issues:**

a. Selection of wrong set of beneficiaries is a major problem where real poor or to say the deserving beneficiaries are not selected but the different set of beneficiaries are selected. Although the prescribed method of beneficiary selection i.e. the method and criterion mentioned in the guidelines is correct but in practice different method is being practiced.

b. Selection of beneficiaries within communities was largely outside of the project's control. This is a condition where the guidelines are not violated but the real beneficiaries are not selected. For example if the scheme is meant for schedule caste hence as per the criteria the beneficiaries should be from schedule caste but here within schedule caste there elite class and most of the beneficiaries are being selected from this elite class of schedule caste.

c. The programmes are least understood even amongst the stakeholders who are going to implement the program.

d. The programmes are least understood amongst the beneficiaries.

e. The real objective is getting lost in the target oriented approach.

f. Rural development programmes are not able to sustain against unscrupulous elements and vested interest.

g. Culture of silence and non-performance is a major hurdle in success of a program.

h. Many of the physical constructions are not technically sound and not even in accordance with the proposed one.

i. Unfavourable socio-political climate

j. Weak enforcement machinery

k. Under financing, delay in disbursement

l. Corruption and malpractices

m. Delays

n. Overlapping

o. Leakages

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS (SDGS)

SDG's are a collection of 17 global **goals** set by the United Nations. The broad **goals** are interrelated though each has its own targets to achieve. The SDGs are also known as "Transforming our World: the 2030 Agenda for **Sustainable Development**" or Agenda 2030 in short.

The 17 sustainable development goals (SDGs) to transform our world:

GOAL 1: No Poverty.

GOAL 2: Zero Hunger.

GOAL 3: Good Health and Well-being.

GOAL 4: Quality Education.

GOAL 5: Gender Equality.

GOAL 6: Clean Water and Sanitation.

GOAL 7: Affordable and Clean Energy.

GOAL 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth.

GOAL 9: Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure.

GOAL 10: Reduced Inequality

GOAL 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities

GOAL 12: Responsible consumption and production

GOAL 13: Climate Action

GOAL 14: Life Below Water

GOAL 15: Life On land

GOAL 16: Peace and Justice strong institutions

GOAL 17: Partnerships to achieve the goal

Sustainable Development Goal 1: No Poverty

The Challenge

Around the world today, a staggering 800 million people still live in conditions of extreme poverty. With one in five people living on less than USD 1.25 a day, extreme poverty presents one of the most urgent crises of our times. While the number of people living in extreme poverty has declined by more than half since 1990, a great deal more needs to be done. Millions subsist on just over USD 1.25 a day, and many more remain at risk of slipping back into poverty. Young people are especially vulnerable. While 10.2% of all working adults live below the global poverty line of USD 1.9 a day as of 2015, this number rises to 16% when we consider the age group of 15-24 years. Children, too, are victims of global poverty, with 18,000 children dying every single day from poverty related causes.

Why is this important?

Poverty is more than just the lack of income or access to resources – it manifests itself in diminished opportunities for education, social discrimination and the inability to participate in decision-making processes. For instance, in developing countries, children in the poorest households are four times less likely to be in school than those of the richest. But extreme deprivation is not just about wellbeing and opportunity; it is a question of survival itself. In Latin America and East Asia, the poorest children are three times more likely to die by age 5 than the richest.
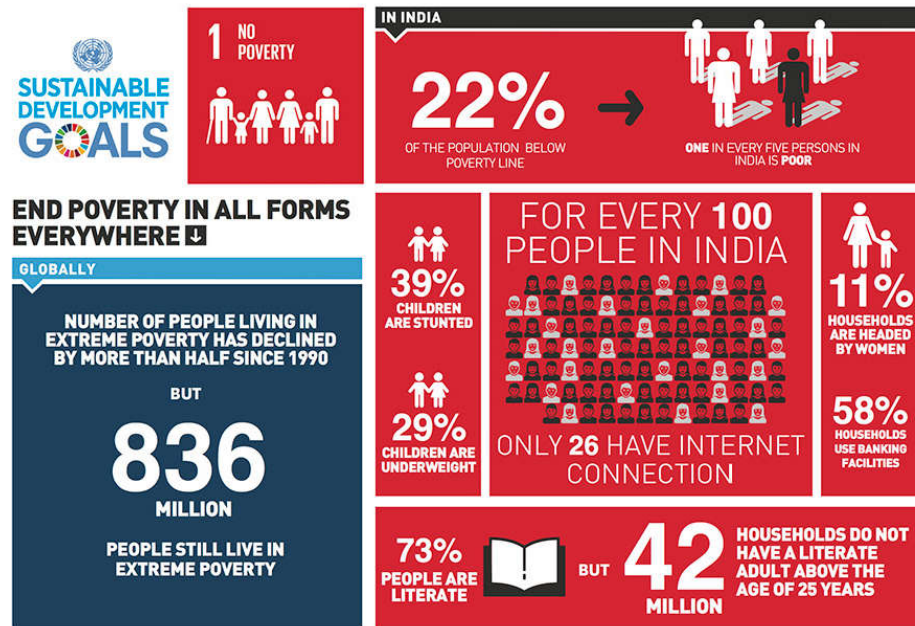
How can we address this?

Ending poverty in all its forms everywhere forms the first goal of the 2030 Sustainable Development agenda. It calls for ensuring social protection, enhancing access to basic services, and building resilience against the impacts of natural disasters which can cause severe damage to people's resources and livelihoods. The international community agrees, through the Sustainable Development agenda for 2030, that economic growth must be inclusive, especially of the most poor and vulnerable, and aims to eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere in the next 15 years.

India and Goal 1

Between 2012-2013, global reduction in extreme poverty was driven mainly by Asia – notably China and India. Despite the fact that India made tremendous progress in halving its poverty head count ratio by 2011-2012, it still remains at 21% of the population. Nearly 80% of these poor live in rural areas and eradicating poverty is at the core of India's national priorities. The Government of India has many progressive schemes, including the world's largest employment guarantee scheme, the **Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme**, and the **National Social Assistance Programme**.

Targets

- By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than USD1.25 a day.
- By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions.

- Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable.
- By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance.
- By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate- related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters.
- Ensure significant mobilization of resources from a variety of sources, including through enhanced development cooperation, in order to provide adequate and predictable means for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, to implement programmes and policies to end poverty in all its dimensions.
- Create sound policy frameworks at the national, regional and international levels, based on pro-poor and gender-sensitive development strategies, to support accelerated investment in poverty eradication actions.

Sustainable Development Goal 2: No Hunger

The Challenge

One in every nine individuals around the world today experiences hunger, despite the fact that enough food exists to feed every individual. Two-thirds of this vulnerable group live in Asia. Unless we profoundly rethink global food and agricultural systems, it is estimated that the number of hungry people worldwide could climb to two billion by 2050. Globally, the proportion of undernourished people in developing regions has fallen by almost half since 1990, from 23.3% in 1990-1992 to 12.9% in 2014-2016. However, 795 million are still undernourished.

Why is this important?

Working to improve food and agriculture can have a substantial impact on the attainment of the other 16 Sustainable Development Goals, as it can help combat climate change, bolster economic growth, and contribute to peace and stability in societies around the world. Currently our soils, fresh water, oceans, forests, and biodiversity are being rapidly degraded. Climate change is putting greater pressure on the resources we

depend on, and increasing risks associated with natural disasters. Rural women and men who can no longer make ends meet on their land, are being forced to migrate to cities in search of opportunities. Building resilience against natural disasters will be an important part of the global fight against hunger, as crises exacerbate food insecurity issues in countries affected by them.

How can we address this?

Goal 2 of the 2030 Sustainable Development agenda seeks to end hunger and all forms of malnutrition, and double agricultural productivity in the next 15 years. Ensuring this sustainable access to nutritious food universally will require sustainable food production and agricultural practices.

India and Goal 2

South Asia still faces the greatest hunger burden, with over 281 million undernourished people, including 40% of India's population. How we grow and consume our food has a significant impact on levels of hunger, but it doesn't end there. If done right, agriculture and forests can become sources of decent incomes for the global population, the engines of rural development, and our vanguard against climate change. The agricultural sector is the single largest employer in the world, employing 40% of the global population, and in India, 54.6% of its total workforce. Even with more than half of the country's population employed in the sector, agriculture contributes only 15% of India's GDP. The Government of India has prioritised strengthening agriculture through measures in irrigation, crop insurance, and improved varieties. The government has also taken critical steps to enhance food security, including through an India-wide targeted public distribution system, a **National Nutrition Mission** and the **National Food Security Act**. The **Rashtriya Krishi Vikas Yojana**, the **National Mission on Sustainable Agriculture** and many national schemes on horticulture, agricultural technology and livestock are leading the way in improving India's agriculture.

Targets

- By 2030, end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round.
- By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women and older persons.
- By 2030, double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers, in particular women, indigenous peoples, family farmers, pastoralists and fishers, including through secure and equal access to land, other productive resources and inputs, knowledge, financial services, markets and opportunities for value addition and non-farm employment.
- By 2030, ensure sustainable food production systems and implement resilient agricultural practices that increase productivity and production, that help maintain ecosystems, that strengthen capacity for adaptation to climate change, extreme weather, drought, flooding and other disasters and that progressively improve land and soil quality.
- By 2020, maintain the genetic diversity of seeds, cultivated plants and farmed and domesticated animals and their related wild species, including through soundly managed and diversified seed and plant banks at the national, regional and international levels, and promote access to and fair and

equitable sharing of benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources and associated traditional knowledge, as internationally agreed.

• Increase investment, including through enhanced international cooperation, in rural infrastructure, agricultural research and extension services, technology development and plant and livestock gene banks in order to enhance agricultural productive capacity in developing countries, in particular least developed countries.

• Correct and prevent trade restrictions and distortions in world agricultural markets, including through the parallel elimination of all forms of agricultural export subsidies and all export measures with equivalent effect, in accordance with the mandate of the Doha Development Round.

• Adopt measures to ensure the proper functioning of food commodity markets and their derivatives and facilitate timely access to market information, including on food reserves, in order to help limit extreme food price volatility.

Sustainable Development Goal 3: Good Health and Well-Being

The Challenge

Poor health constitutes suffering and deprivation of the most fundamental kind. Over the years, significant strides have been made in increasing life expectancy and reducing some of the common killers associated with child and maternal mortality. Despite global progress, an increasing proportion of child deaths occur in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia. Globally, the incidence of major infectious diseases has declined since 2000, including HIV/AIDS, malaria, and TB, but the challenge of these and new pandemics remains in many regions of the world. We have made immense progress globally in finding newer treatments, vaccines, and technologies for healthcare, but universal affordable access to healthcare remains a challenge

Why is this important?

Not only does disease impact the well-being of an individual, it burdens family and public resources, weakens societies, and squanders potential. The health and well-being of people at all ages therefore lies at the heart of sustainable development. Protection from disease is not only fundamental to survival, but it enables opportunity for everyone and strengthens economic growth and prosperity.
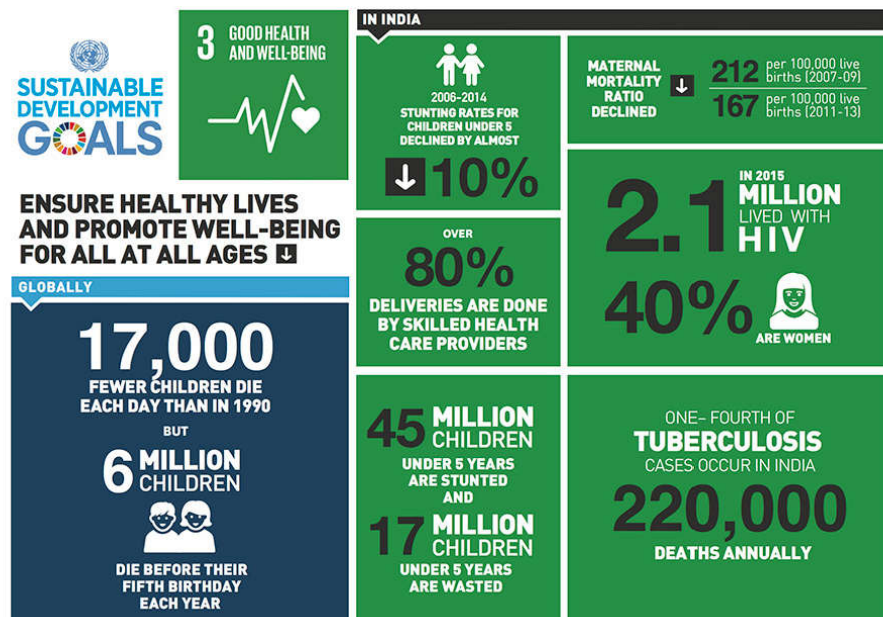
How can we address this?

The international community, through SDG Goal 3, has committed itself to a global effort to eradicate disease, strengthen treatment and healthcare, and address new and emerging health issues. It calls for innovation, and research in these areas to further enhance public policy efforts.

A holistic approach to better health will require ensuring universal access to healthcare and to making medicine and vaccines affordable.

It also calls for a renewed focus on mental health issues. Suicide is the second leading cause of death globally between the ages of 19 to 25.

And finally, health and wellbeing are closely linked with the quality of our environment, and SDG Goal 3 also aims to substantially reduce the numbers of deaths and illnesses caused by air, water, and soil pollution and contamination.

India and SDG Goal 3

India has made some progress in reducing its under-five mortality rate, which declined from 125 per 1,000 live births in 1990 to 49 per 1,000 live births in 2013, and its maternal mortality rate, which declined from 437 per 100,000 live births in 1990-91 to 167 in 2009. India has also made significant strides in reducing the prevalence of HIV and AIDS across different types of high-risk categories, with adult prevalence reducing from 0.45% in 2002 to 0.27% in 2011.

However, a quarter of global TB cases occur in India where nearly 2.2 million people are diagnosed with the disease annually, and an estimated 220,000 die as a result.

The Indian government's National Health Mission prioritises national wellbeing and is leading change in this area, in addition to targeted national programmes against HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted diseases.

Targets for SDG Goal 3

- By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births.
- By 2030, end preventable deaths of newborns and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births
- By 2030, end the epidemics of AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria and neglected tropical diseases and combat hepatitis, water-borne diseases and other communicable diseases.
- By 2030, reduce by one third premature mortality from non-communicable diseases through prevention and treatment and promote mental health and well-being.
- Strengthen the prevention and treatment of substance abuse, including narcotic drug abuse and harmful use of alcohol.
- By 2020, halve the number of global deaths and injuries from road traffic accidents.
- By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes.
- Achieve universal health coverage, including financial risk protection, access to quality essential health-care services and access to safe, effective, quality and affordable essential medicines and vaccines for all.

- By 2030, substantially reduce the number of deaths and illnesses from hazardous chemicals and air, water and soil pollution and contamination.
- Strengthen the implementation of the World Health Organization Framework Convention on Tobacco Control in all countries, as appropriate.
- Support the research and development of vaccines and medicines for the communicable and non-communicable diseases that primarily affect developing countries, provide access to affordable essential medicines and vaccines, in accordance with the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health, which affirms the right of developing countries to use to the full the provisions in the Agreement on Trade Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights regarding flexibilities to protect public health, and, in particular, provide access to medicines for all.
- Substantially increase health financing and the recruitment, development, training and retention of the health workforce in developing countries, especially in least developed countries and small island developing states.
- Strengthen the capacity of all countries, in particular developing countries, for early warning, risk reduction and management of national and global health risks

Sustainable Development Goal 4: Quality Education

The Challenge

The world today has more knowledge than ever before, but not everyone can benefit from it. Globally, countries have made major strides in increasing access to education at all levels and increasing enrolment rates in schools, and basic literacy skills have improved tremendously. Among youth aged 15-24, the literacy rate improved globally between 1990 and 2015, increasing from 83% to 91%. Completion rates in primary school had also exceeded 90% by 2013. Despite these successes, several gaps remain. Few countries have achieved gender equality at all levels of education. In addition, 57 million children remain out of school and half of them live in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Why is this important?

A quality education is the foundation of sustainable development, and therefore of the Sustainable Development Goals. As a policy intervention, education is a force multiplier which enables

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

4 QUALITY EDUCATION

ENSURE INCLUSIVE AND EQUITABLE QUALITY EDUCATION AND PROMOTE LIFELONG LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES FOR ALL

GLOBALLY

THE GLOBAL LITERACY RATE IS **91%** BUT **57 MILLION** CHILDREN REMAIN OUT OF SCHOOL

IN INDIA

73% ADULTS ARE LITERATE

58% IN RURAL AREAS

54% OF PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES ARE LITERATE

34% CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS ARE OUT OF SCHOOL

100% ENROLMENT OF GIRLS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION BUT ONLY **22.7%** IN HIGHER EDUCATION

360 MILLION LARGEST YOUTH POPULATION IN THE WORLD

23% TOTAL ENROLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

92% FEMALE & **94%** MALE YOUTH ARE LITERATE

self-reliance, boosts economic growth by enhancing skills, and improves people's lives by opening up opportunities for better livelihoods.

The Sustainable Development targets for 2030 call for ensuring the completion of primary and secondary education by all boys and girls, and guaranteeing equal access to opportunities for access to quality technical and vocational education for everyone. Policy interventions will require improving access and improving quality, as well addressing relevant obstacles which include gender inequalities, food insecurity, and armed conflict.

India and Goal 4

In India, significant progress had been made in universalising primary education, with improvement in the enrolment and completion rates of girls in both primary and elementary school. As of 2013-14, the net enrolment ratio in primary education for boys and girls was 88%, while at the national level, the youth literacy rate was 94% for males and 92% for females. The new national Education Policy and Sustainable Development Goal 4 share the goals of universal quality education and lifelong learning. The flagship government scheme, **Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan**, is aimed at achieving universal quality education for all Indians, and is complemented in this effort by targeted schemes on nutritional support, higher education, and teacher training.

Targets

- By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and Goal-4 effective learning outcomes.
- By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education.
- By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university.
- By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship.
- By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations.
- By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy.
- By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development.
- Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, nonviolent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all.
- By 2020, substantially expand globally the number of scholarships available to developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing states and African countries, for enrolment in higher education, including vocational training and information and communications

technology, technical, engineering and scientific programmes, in developed countries and other developing countries.

• By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international co-operation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing states.

Sustainable Development Goal 5: Gender Equality

The Challenge

Since gender inequality constitutes one of the history's most persistent and widespread forms of injustice, eliminating it will call for one of history's biggest movements for change. Women and girls continue to suffer discrimination and violence in every part of the world. Gaps in gender equality exist in every sector. In South Asia, only 74 girls were enrolled in primary school for every 100 boys in 1990. However, by 2012, the enrolment ratios were the same. In 155 countries, at least one law exists which impedes women's economic opportunities. Women in most countries on average earn only 60% to 75% of wages paid to men. Only 22.8% of all national parliamentarians are women. One in three women experience some form of physical or sexual violence in their lifetimes.
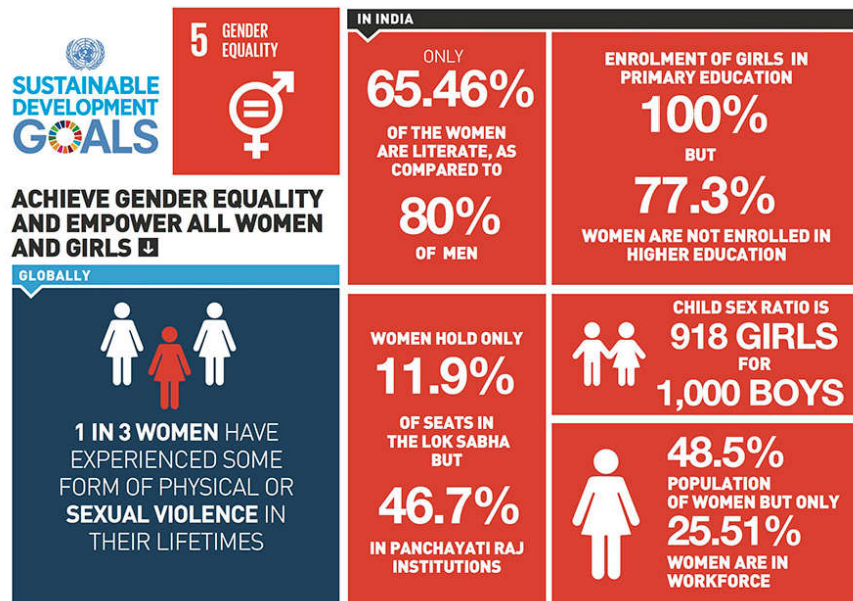
Why is this important?

Gender equality is not only a fundamental human right, but a necessary foundation for a peaceful and sustainable world. The exclusion of women places half of the world's population outside the realm of opportunity to partner in building prosperous societies and economies. Equal access to education, decent work, and representation in political and economic decision making processes are not only rights women should have, they benefit humanity at large. By investing in the empowerment of women, we not only make progress on Goal 5 of the Sustainable Development Goals, we also make gains on the alleviation of poverty and fuel sustainable economic growth.

What can we do to address this?

Goal 5 aims to eliminate all forms of discrimination and violence against women in the public and private spheres and to undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources and access to ownership of property.

Goal 5 and India

Although India has achieved gender parity at the primary education level and is on track to achieve parity at all education levels, as of August 2015, the proportion of seats in Parliament held by women had only reached 12% against the target of 50%. India is also confronting the challenge of violence against women. As an example, a baseline study revealed that in New Delhi, 92% of women had experienced some form of sexual violence in public spaces during their lifetime. The Government of India has identified ending violence against women as a key national priority, which resonates with the Sustainable Development targets of the United Nations on gender equality. The prime minister's **Beti Bachao Beti Padhao** initiative aims at equal opportunity and education for girls in India. In addition, specific interventions on female employment, programmes on the empowerment of adolescent girls, the **Sukanya Samridhi Yojana** on girl child prosperity and the **Janani Suraksha Yojana** for mothers advance India's commitment to gender equality, and the targets of Goal 4.

Targets

- End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere.
- Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation.
- Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.
- Recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.
- Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life.
- Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences.
- Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.
- Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women.
- Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels.

Sustainable Development Goal 6: Clean Water and Sanitation

The Challenge

Every year millions of people, most of them children, die from diseases associated with inadequate water supply, sanitation, and hygiene. It is estimated that by 2050, a quarter of the world's population is likely to live in countries affected by chronic or recurring shortages of water. Two and a half billion people have gained access to improved drinking water sources since 1990, but 663 million people are still without. Between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of the global population using an improved drinking water source increased from 76-91%, however, each day, nearly 1,000 children die due to preventable water and sanitation-related diarrhoeal diseases.

Why is this important?

Clean water is critical to survival, and its absence can impact the health, food security, and livelihoods of families across the world. Although our planet has sufficient fresh water to achieve a regular and clean water supply for all, bad economics and poor infrastructure can skew supply unfavourably. Drought afflicts some of the world's poorest countries, worsening hunger and malnutrition. Floods and other water-related disasters account for 70% of all deaths related to natural disasters. Global goals and national priorities on reliable energy, economic growth, resilient infrastructure, sustainable industrialisation, consumption and production, and food security, are all inextricably linked to a sustainable supply of clean water. Hydropower is one of the most crucial and widely-used renewable sources of energy and as of 2011, represented 16% of total electricity production worldwide.

What can we do to address this?

The Sustainable Development Goals have committed the international community to expand international cooperation and capacity building on water and sanitation related activities and programmes, and also to support local communities in improving water and sanitation management. Through Goal 6, the countries of the world have resolved to achieve universal access to safe drinking water and adequate sanitation and hygiene to all in the next fifteen years.

India and Sustainable Development Goal 6

The overall proportion of Indian households with access to improved water sources increased from 68% in 1992-93 to 90.6% in 2011-12. However, in 2012, 59% of rural households and 8% of urban households did not have access to improved sanitation facilities. Almost 600 million people in India defecate in the open – the highest number in the world. Improving sanitation is a key priority of the government which has introduced several flagship programmes including the Swachh Bharat Abhiyan to clean India, the National Rural Drinking Water Programme, and Namami Gange, which aims at the conservation of the River Ganga.

Targets

- By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all.
- By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations.
- By 2030, improve water quality by reducing pollution, eliminating dumping and minimising release of hazardous chemicals and materials, halving the proportion of untreated wastewater and substantially increasing recycling and safe reuse globally.
- By 2030, substantially increase water-use efficiency across all sectors and ensure sustainable withdrawals and supply of freshwater to address water scarcity and substantially reduce the number of people suffering from water scarcity.
- By 2030, implement integrated water resources management at all levels, including through transboundary co-operation as appropriate.
- By 2020, protect and restore water-related ecosystems, including mountains, forests, wetlands, rivers, aquifers and lakes.
- By 2030, expand international co-operation and capacity-building support to developing countries in water- and sanitation-related activities and programmes, including water harvesting, desalination, water efficiency, waste water treatment, recycling and reuse technologies.
- Support and strengthen the participation of local communities in improving water and sanitation management.

Sustainable Development Goal 7: Affordable and Clean Energy

The Challenge

There is no development without fuelling the engine of growth. Energy is critical and people with no sustainable access to energy are deprived of the opportunity to become part of national and global progress. And yet, one billion people around the world live without access to energy. Almost three billion people, 41% of the world's population, do not have access to clean fuels and technologies for cooking.

Why is this important?

The Secretary-General of the United Nations, Ban Ki-moon, has said, "Energy is the golden thread that connects economic growth, social equity, and environmental sustainability. With access to energy,

people can study, go to university, get a job, start a business – and reach their full potential." Energy is central to nearly every major challenge and opportunity the world faces today – security, climate change, food production, jobs or increasing incomes. Sustainable energy generates opportunity – it transforms lives, economies and the planet. There are tangible health benefits to having access to electricity, and a demonstrable improvement in wellbeing. Energy access therefore constitutes a core component of the sustainable development agenda for energy. The production of useable energy can also be a source for climate change – accounting for around 60% of total global greenhouse gas emissions.

How can we address this?

Goal 7 of the SDGs aims to correct this enormous imbalance by ensuring everyone has access to affordable, reliable, and modern energy services by the year 2030. To expand energy access, it is crucial to enhance energy efficiency and to invest in renewable energy. Asia has been the driver of progress in this area, expanding access at the twice the rate of demographic growth. 72% of the increase in energy consumption from modern renewable sources between 2010 and 2012 came from developing regions,
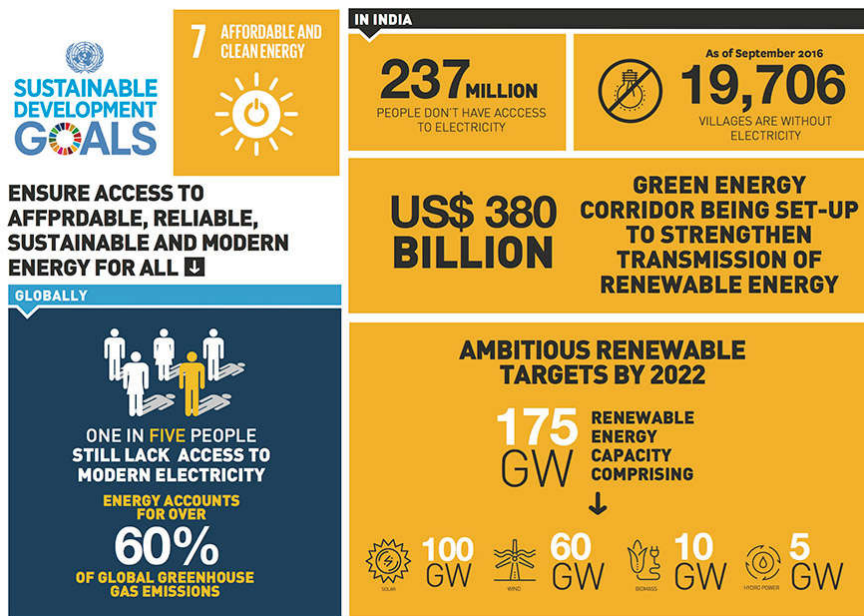
including parts of Asia. Energy from renewable resources – wind, water, solar, biomass and geothermal energy – is inexhaustible and clean. Although the solution to energy's climate crisis lies off-grid, renewable energy currently constitutes only 15% of the global energy mix. It is time for a new global partnership on sustainable energy for all, guided by Sustainable Development Goal 7 on universally accessible, efficient, clean, and reliable energy sources and services.

India and Goal 7

India is projected to be a significant contributor to the rise in global energy demand, around one-quarter of the total. According to 2013-14 figures, the total installed capacity for electricity generation in India registered a compound annual growth rate of 7%. However, as of 2015, 237 million people in India do not have access to electricity. The government's **National Solar Mission** is playing an important role in the work towards renewable energy, and interventions in rural electrification and new ultra-mega power projects are moving India towards achieving universal energy access.

Targets for Goal 7

- By 2030, ensure universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services.
- By 2030, increase substantially the share of renewable energy in the global energy mix.
- By 2030, double the global rate of improvement in energy efficiency.
- By 2030, enhance international co-operation to facilitate access to clean energy research and technology, including renewable energy, energy efficiency and advanced and cleaner fossil-fuel technology, and promote investment in energy infrastructure and clean energy technology.
- By 2030, expand infrastructure and upgrade technology for supplying modern and sustainable energy services for all in developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing states and land-locked developing countries, in accordance with their respective programmes of support.

Sustainable Development Goal 8: Decent Work And Economic Growth

The Challenge

Globally, annual economic growth declined from 3% in 2000 to 1.3% in 2014. Roughly half the world's population still lives on the equivalent of about USD 2 a day and in too many places, having a job doesn't guarantee the ability to escape from poverty. This slow and uneven progress requires us to rethink and retool our economic and social policies aimed at eradicating poverty. Global unemployment increased from 170 million in 2007 to nearly 202 million in 2012, of which about 75 million are young women and men. A continued lack of decent work opportunities, insufficient investments and under-consumption has led to an erosion of the basic social contract underlying democratic societies: that all must share in progress. The creation of quality jobs will remain a major challenge for almost all economies well beyond 2015. But inclusive growth must also be cognisant of the needs of the most vulnerable – children, youth, and women. In 2012, 85 million children world over were engaged in hazardous forms of work.

Why is this important?

While developing countries have grown at a rate faster than developed regions, sustained economic growth everywhere will be critical to fulfilling our international developmental targets over the next 15 years. Economic growth – making our world more prosperous – is inextricably linked to all our other priorities. Stronger economies will afford us more opportunities to build a more resilient and sustainable world. And economic growth must be inclusive: growth that does not improve the wellbeing of all sections of society, especially the most vulnerable, is unequal and unfair.

How can we address this?

'No one left behind' is at the core of the sustainable development agenda for 2030 and if economic growth is to build a fairer world, it must be inclusive. This is the idea behind Goal 8, which aims to sustain an economic growth rate of 7% for the least developed countries by 2030, and achieve full and productive employment for all men and women everywhere in the next 15 years. Nearly 2.2 billion people live below the USD 2 poverty line and that poverty eradication is only possible through stable and well-paid jobs.

It is estimated that 470 million jobs will be needed globally for the new entrants to the labour market between 2016 and 2030.

India and Goal 8

While the global economy sluggishly recovers, according to the International Monetary Fund, India is experiencing strong growth and rising real incomes. The dividends of this growth will be sustained by its people. With over 360 million young people between 10 and 24, India has the largest youth population in the world. Harnessing this demographic dividend holds the

key to building a prosperous and resilient future for the country. However, India's gross enrolment ratio in higher education is only 23%, amongst the lowest in the world. India's labour force is set to grow by more than eight million each year, and the country will need to generate 280 million jobs between now and 2050, a one-third increase above current levels. The government's **National Skill Development Mission** and **Deendayal Upadhyaya Antodaya Yojana**, as well as the **National Service Scheme** and the **Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme** are some flagship programmes aimed at bringing decent work to all.

Targets

- Sustain per capita economic growth in accordance with national circumstances and, in particular, at least 7% gross domestic product growth per annum in the least developed countries.
- Achieve higher levels of economic productivity through diversification, technological upgrading and innovation, including through a focus on high-value added and labour-intensive sectors.
- Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services.
- Improve progressively, through 2030, global resource efficiency in consumption and production and endeavour to decouple economic growth from environmental degradation, in accordance with the 10-year framework of programmes on sustainable consumption and production, with developed countries taking the lead.

- By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value.
- By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training.
- Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms.
- Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment.
- By 2030, devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products.
- Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to encourage and expand access to banking, insurance and financial services for all.
- Increase aid for trade support for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, including through the Enhanced Integrated Framework for Trade-Related Technical Assistance to Least Developed Countries.
- By 2020, develop and operationalise a global strategy for youth employment and implement the Global Jobs Pact of the International Labour Organization.

Sustainable Development Goal 9: Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure

The Challenge

The story of industrial development has been an important determinant of the course of our history as a community of nations. From the first steam engines to the first assembly lines, to today's truly global production chains and processes, industry has changed our economies and helped drive major changes in our societies. But without sustainable practices and infrastructure in place, our growth has left vast sections of people behind. About 2.6 billion people in the developing world face difficulties in accessing electricity throughout the day. Additionally, 2.5 billion people worldwide lack access to basic sanitation and almost 800 million people lack access to water, many hundreds of millions of them in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. For many lower-income countries, the existent infrastructure constraints affect firm productivity by around 40%.

Why is this important?

Investments in transport, irrigation, energy and information and communications technology have been crucial to driving economic growth and empowering communities in many countries. The job multiplication effect of industrialisation has a positive impact on society, as every one job in manufacturing creates 2.2 jobs in other sectors. The manufacturing sector is an important employer, accounting for around 470 million jobs worldwide in 2009 – or around 16% of the world's workforce of 2.9 billion. It has long been recognised that a strong physical network of industry and communication can enhance productivity and incomes, and improve health, wellbeing and education. Technological progress similarly enhances our wellbeing as countries, and can also improve the state of the planet through increased resource and energy efficiency.

How can we address this?

Through SDG 9, countries have determined that investing in more resilient infrastructure, cooperating across borders, and encouraging small enterprises will all be critical to ensuring sustainable industrial development. We will also have to improve our existing industrial infrastructure, and here, technological innovation will be key. Governments and businesses will have to contribute to creating a hospitable policy environment for innovation, encourage scientific research, and improve access to information technology universally.
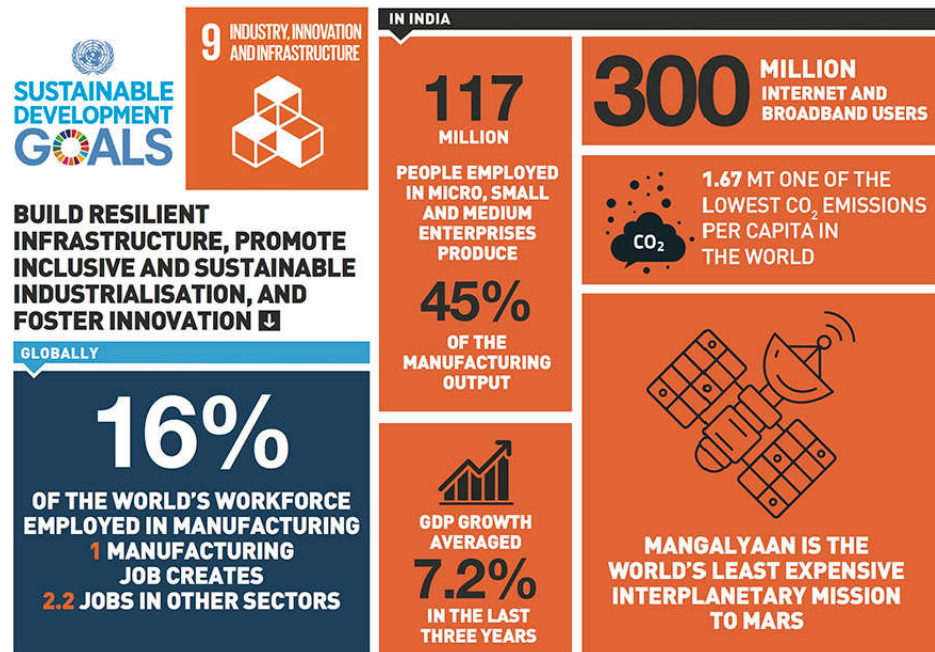
India and Goal 9

The government's flagship interventions like **Make in India** and **Start Up India** as well as **Pandit Deendayal Upadhyay Shramev Jayate Karyakram** are fuelling innovation and sustainable industrial and economic development.

Targets

- Develop quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure, including regional and trans-border infrastructure, to support economic development and human well-being, with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all.
- Promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and, by 2030, significantly raise industry's share of employment and gross domestic product, in line with national circumstances, and double its share in least developed countries.
- Increase the access of small-scale industrial and other enterprises, in particular in developing countries, to financial services, including affordable credit, and their integration into value chains and markets.
- By 2030, upgrade infrastructure and retrofit industries to make them sustainable, with increased resource-use efficiency and greater adoption of clean and environmentally sound technologies and industrial processes, with all countries taking action in accordance with their respective capabilities.

- Enhance scientific research, upgrade the technological capabilities of industrial sectors in all countries, in particular developing countries, including, by 2030, encouraging innovation and substantially increasing the number of research and development workers per 1 million people and public and private research and development spending.
- Facilitate sustainable and resilient infrastructure development in developing countries through enhanced financial, technological and technical support to African countries, least developed countries, land-locked developing countries and small island developing states.
- Support domestic technology development, research and innovation in developing countries, including by ensuring a conducive policy environment for, inter alia, industrial diversification and value addition to commodities.
- Significantly increase access to information and communications technology and strive to provide universal and affordable access to the Internet in least developed countries by 2020.

Sustainable Development Goal 10: Reduced Inequalities

The Challenge

Inequalities are rising. In 2014, the richest 1% of the world's population held 48% of the world's wealth in 2014, while the bottom 80% of the people together hold only 6% of the global wealth. The imbalance is put into stark relief when one considers that only 80 individuals have as much wealth as the 3.5 billion people worldwide with the lowest incomes. On average, income inequality increased by 11% in developing countries between 1990 and 2010. A significant majority of households in developing countries – more than 75% of the population – live in societies where income is more unequally distributed than it was in the 1990s. The international community has made significant strides towards lifting people out of poverty. The most vulnerable nations – the least developed countries, the landlocked developing countries and the small island developing states – continue to make inroads into poverty reduction. However, large disparities remain in access to health and education services and other assets within these countries. While income inequality between countries may have been reduced, inequality within countries has risen.

Why is this important?

Inequality is a roadblock to progress when it deprives people of opportunity, and subjects many to conditions of extreme poverty. For instance, in the late 2000s in children in the wealthiest quintile of South Asia were two times more likely to complete primary school than those in the poorest. In Latin America and East Asia, children in the poorest asset quintile are three times more likely to die before the age of 5 than those in the richest. There is growing consensus that economic growth is not sufficient to reduce poverty if it is not inclusive and if it does not involve the three dimensions of sustainable development – economic, social and environmental. Rising inequalities adversely impact human development. According to the inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (HDI), Sub-Saharan Africa loses 33% of its HDI to inequality and South Asia by 25%.

What can we do to address this?
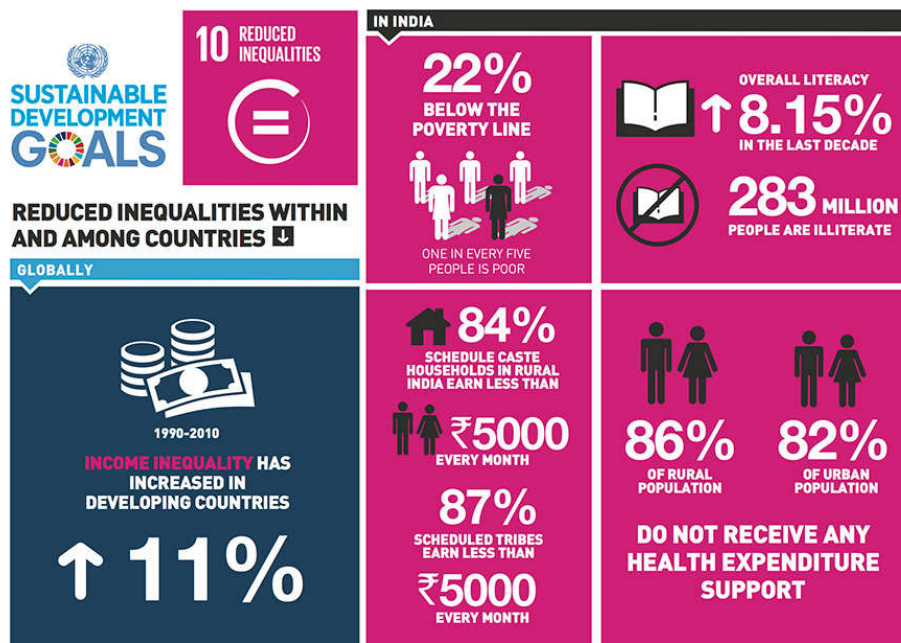
Goal 10 presents to the international community the following task: ensure that the income growth of the bottom 40% of their population is higher than the national average by the year 2030. To reduce inequality, policies should be universal in principle, paying attention to the needs of disadvantaged and marginalised populations. Inclusion has to be promoted actively, in social as well as political spheres, for all ages, sexes, races, religions and ethnicities to create conditions of equity within countries. To create a fairer international system globally, global financial markets will require improved regulation, and developing countries will have to have a greater voice in international decision making.India and Goal 10

The **Gini coefficient** of income inequality for India fell from 36.8% in 2010 to 33.6% in 2015. The Government of India's emphasis on the three pronged **Jan Dhan-Aadhaar-Mobile** programmes are aimed at a comprehensive strategy of inclusion, financial empowerment and social security. These priorities are in line with the Sustainable Development targets aimed at achieving greater equality and promoting the social, economic, and political inclusion of all by 2030.

Targets

- By 2030, progressively achieve and sustain income growth of the bottom 40% of the population at a rate higher than the national average.
- By 2030, empower and promote the social, economic and political inclusion of all, irrespective of age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion or economic or other status.
- Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action in this regard.
- Adopt policies, especially fiscal, wage and social protection policies, and progressively achieve greater equality.
- Improve the regulation and monitoring of global financial markets and institutions and strengthen the implementation of such regulations.

- Ensure enhanced representation and voice for developing countries in decision-making in global international economic and financial institutions in order to deliver more effective, credible, accountable and legitimate institutions.
- Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.
- Implement the principle of special and differential treatment for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, in accordance with World Trade Organization agreements.
- Encourage official development assistance and financial flows, including foreign direct investment, to states where the need is greatest, in particular least developed countries, African countries, small island developing states and land-locked developing countries, in accordance with their national plans and programmes.
- By 2030, reduce to less than 3% the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5%.

Sustainable Development Goal 11: Sustainable Cities And Communities

The Challenge

Half of humanity – 3.5 billion people – lives in cities today and by 2030, it is estimated that six out of 10 people will be city dwellers. The world's cities occupy just 3% of the planet's land but account for 60-80% of all energy consumption and 75% of the planet's carbon emissions. Close to 95% of urban expansion in the coming decades will take place in the developing world. Rapid urbanisation is exerting pressure on fresh water supplies, sewage, the living environment and public health. Our rapidly growing urban world is experiencing congestion, a lack of basic services, a shortage of adequate housing, and declining infrastructure. Thirty percent of the world's urban population lives in slums, and in Sub-Saharan Africa, over half of all city dwellers are slum dwellers.

Why is this important?

Cities are engines for sustainable development. It is where ideas, commerce, culture, science, and productivity thrives. Urban spaces offer opportunities for people to prosper economically and socially, but this is only possible in prosperous cities that can accommodate people in decent jobs and where land resources are not overwhelmed by growth. Unplanned urban sprawl, as cities spill beyond their formal boundaries, can be detrimental to national developmental planning and to the global goals for sustainable development. Our urban areas are also emitters of greenhouse gases and contribute to climate change. Half of the global urban population breathes air that is 2.5 times more polluted than standards deemed acceptable by the World Health Organization.

What can we do to address this?

These challenges to urban spaces can be overcome by improving resource use and focusing on reducing pollution and poverty. The future we want includes cities that offer opportunities for all, and which provide access to basic services, energy, housing, transportation and more. Cities can either dissipate energy or optimise efficiency by reducing energy consumption and adopting green energy systems. For instance, Rizhao, China has become a solar-powered city; in its central districts, 99% of households already use solar water heaters

.India and Goal 11

India is urbanising rapidly. Between 2001 and 2011, the country's urban population had increased by 91 million. By 2030, India is expected to be home to six mega-cities with populations above 10 million. According to 2013 14 figures, 68% of the country's total population live in rural areas, while 17% of the country's urban population live in slums. The Government of India's **Smart Cities Mission**, the **Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission,** and the **Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation(AMRUT)** are working to address the challenge of improving urban spaces. The prime minister's **Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana** aims to achieve housing for all by 2022.
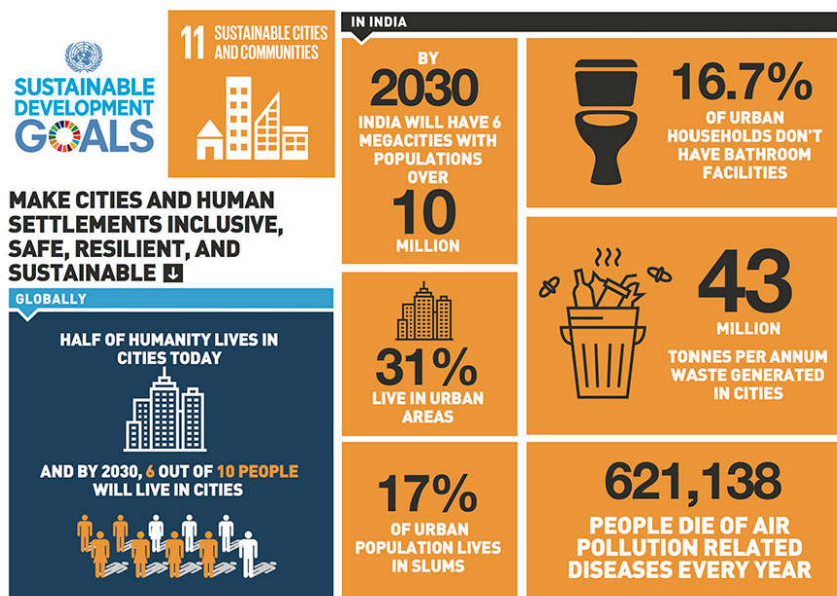
Targets

- By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums.
- By 2030, provide access to safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable transport systems for all, improving road safety, notably by expanding public transport, with special attention given to the needs of those in vulnerable situations, women, children, persons with disabilities and older persons.
- By 2030, enhance inclusive and sustainable urbanisation and capacity for participatory, integrated and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries.
- Strengthen efforts to protect and safeguard the world's cultural and natural heritage.
- By 2030, significantly reduce the number of deaths and the number of people affected and substantially decrease the direct economic losses relative to global gross domestic product caused by disasters, including water-related disasters, with a focus on protecting the poor and people in vulnerable situations.
- By 2030, reduce the adverse per capita environmental impact of cities, including by paying special attention to air quality and municipal and other waste management.
- By 2030, provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities.
- Support positive economic, social and environmental links between urban, peri-urban and rural areas by strengthening national and regional development planning.

- By 2020, substantially increase the number of cities and human settlements adopting and implementing integrated policies and plans towards inclusion, resource efficiency, mitigation and adaptation to climate change, resilience to disasters, and develop and implement, in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030, holistic disaster risk management at all levels.
- Support least developed countries, including through financial and technical assistance, in building sustainable and resilient buildings utilising local materials.

Sustainable Development Goal 12: Sustainable Consumption and Production

The Challenge

Our planet is under massive strain. Should the global population push the figure of 9.6 billion by 2050, we will need three Earths to sustain current lifestyles for everyone. Each year, an estimated one-third of all food produced – equivalent to 1.3 billion tonnes worth around USD 1 trillion – ends up rotting in the bins of consumers and retailers, or spoiling due to poor transportation and harvesting practices. More than one billion people still do not have access to fresh water. Less than 3% of the world's water is fresh (drinkable), of which 2.5% is frozen in Antarctica, the Arctic and glaciers. Humanity must therefore rely on 0.5% for all man's ecosystem's and fresh water needs. Despite technological advances that have promoted energy efficiency gains, energy use in OECD countries will increase a further 35% by 2020.

Why is this important?

Sustainable consumption and production aims at "doing more and better with less," increasing net welfare gains from economic activities by reducing resource use, degradation, and pollution, while increasing the quality of life. Sustainable development will be achieved not only by growing our economies, but minimising waste in the process of doing so. Growth that contaminates the environment sets development back.
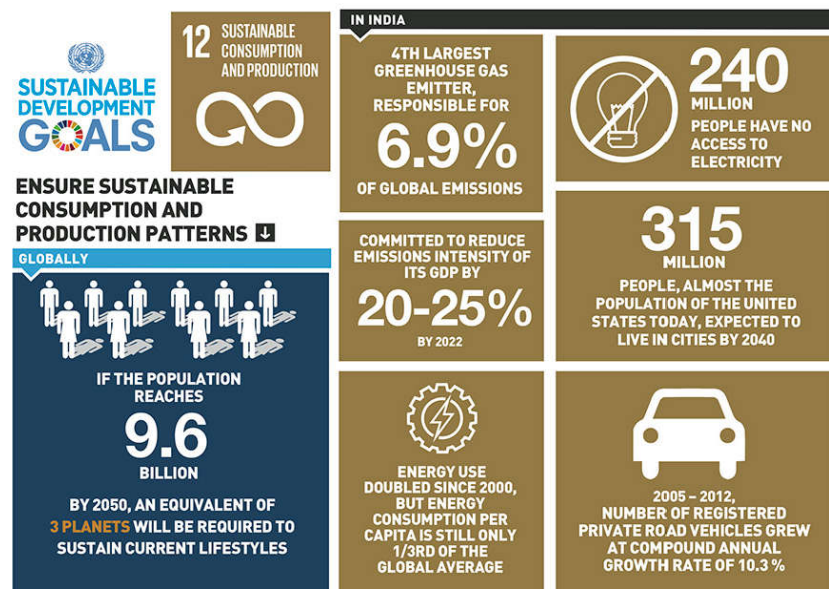
How can we address this?

Sustainable consumption and production is about promoting resource and energy efficiency, sustainable infrastructure, and providing access to basic services, green and decent jobs and a better quality of life for all. Its implementation helps to achieve overall development plans, reduce future

economic, environmental and social costs, strengthen economic competitiveness and reduce poverty. It also requires a systemic approach and co-operation among actors operating in the supply chain, from producer to final consumer. It involves engaging consumers through awareness-raising and education on sustainable consumption and lifestyles, providing consumers with adequate information through standards and labelling and engagement in sustainable public procurement. This will involve a new global partnership between business, consumers, policy makers, researchers, scientists, retailers, the media, and development co-operation agencies.

India and Goal 12

The issue of resource use is vital for the country. While the country is home to 17.5% of the world's population, it has only 4% of global water resources. The generation of waste and pollutants also poses a challenge. India is the fourth largest emitter of greenhouse gases and is responsible for 5.3% of global emissions. However, in October 2015, India made a commitment to reduce the emissions intensity of its GDP by 20-25% from its 2005 levels by 2020 and by 33-35% by 2030. On 2 October 2016 India formally ratified the historic **Paris Agreement**. **The National Policy on Biofuels** and the **National Clean Energy Fund** are some of the government's flagship schemes aimed at achieving sustainable consumption and production, and managing the efficient use of natural resources.

Targets

- Implement the 10-year framework of programmes on sustainable consumption and production, all countries taking action, with developed countries taking the lead, taking into account the development and capabilities of developing countries.
- By 2030, achieve the sustainable management and efficient use of natural resources.
- By 2030, halve per capita global food waste at the retail and consumer levels and reduce food losses along production and supply chains, including post-harvest losses.
- By 2020, achieve the environmentally sound management of chemicals and all wastes throughout their life cycle, in accordance with agreed international frameworks, and significantly reduce their release to air, water and soil in order to minimise their adverse impacts on human health and the environment.
- By 2030, substantially reduce waste generation through prevention, reduction, recycling and reuse.
- Encourage companies, especially large and transnational companies, to adopt sustainable practices and to integrate sustainability information into their reporting cycle.
- Promote public procurement practices that are sustainable, in accordance with national policies and priorities.
- By 2030, ensure that people everywhere have the relevant information and awareness for sustainable development and lifestyles in harmony with nature.
- Support developing countries to strengthen their scientific and technological capacity to move towards more sustainable patterns of consumption and production.
- Develop and implement tools to monitor sustainable development impacts for sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products.
- Rationalise inefficient fossil-fuel subsidies that encourage wasteful consumption by removing market distortions, in accordance with national circumstances, including by restructuring taxation and phasing out those harmful subsidies, where they exist, to reflect their environmental impacts, taking

fully into account the specific needs and conditions of developing countries and minimising the possible adverse impacts on their development in a manner that protects the poor and the affected communities.

Sustainable Development Goal 13: Climate Change

The Challenge

The Earth's climate is changing, with severe consequences for our daily lives and the resilience of our countries. Climate change is disrupting national economies, People are experiencing changing weather patterns, rising sea levels, and extreme weather events. Greenhouse gas emissions from human activities driving this change continue to rise. They are now at their highest levels in history. From 1880 to 2012, the average global temperature increased by 0.85 degrees C. To put this into perspective, for each one degree of temperature increase, grain yields decline by about 5%. Between 1981 and 2002, maize, wheat and other major crops experienced significant yield reductions at the global level of 40 mega tonnes per year due to the warmer climate. From 1901 to 2010, the global average sea level rose by 19 cm as oceans expanded due to warming and ice melt. Global emissions of carbon dioxide (CO2) have increased by almost 50% since 1990 with emissions increasing more quickly between 2000 and 2010 than in each of the three previous decades.

Why is this important?

Without action, the world's average surface temperature is projected to rise over the 21st century and is likely to surpass 3 degrees Celsius this century – with some areas of the world expected to warm even more. The poorest and most vulnerable people are being affected the most. Climate change also exacerbates disasters and combating it is absolutely vital to guaranteeing our survival and the wellbeing of future generations.

How can we address this?

It is still possible, using a wide array of technological measures and changes in behaviour, to limit the increase in global mean temperature to 2 degrees Celsius above pre-industrial levels. Affordable, scalable solutions are now available to enable countries to leapfrog to cleaner, more resilient economies. The pace of change is quickening as more people are turning to renewable energy and a range of other measures that will reduce emissions and increase adaptation efforts. But climate change is a global challenge that does not respect national borders. Emissions anywhere affect people everywhere. It is an issue that requires solutions that need to be co-ordinated at the international level and it requires international co-operation to help developing countries move toward a low-carbon economy. To address climate change, countries adopted the **Paris Agreement** at the COP21 in Paris on 12 December 2015. In the agreement, all countries agreed to work to limit global temperature rise to well below 2 degrees Celsius, and given the grave risks, to strive for 1.5 degrees Celsius. Implementation of the Paris Agreement is essential for the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals, and provides a roadmap for climate actions that will reduce emissions and build climate resilience. The Paris Agreement enters into force on 4 November 2016.
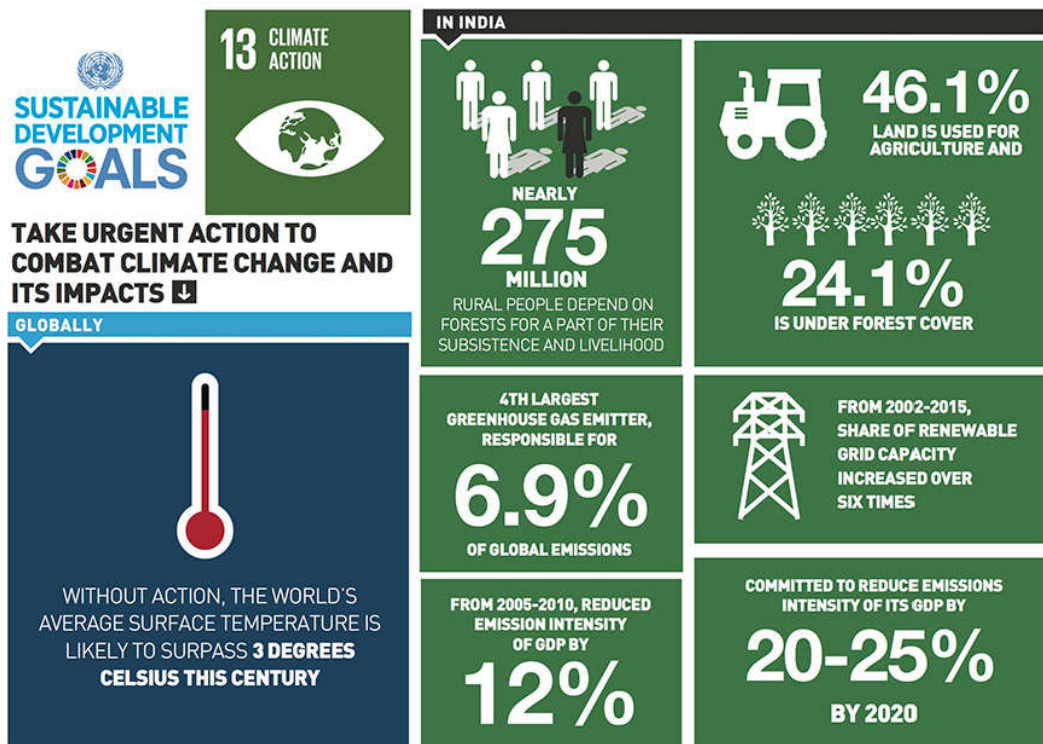
India and Goal 13

India is the fourth largest emitter of greenhouse gases and is responsible for 5.3% of global emissions. However, the emissions intensity of India's GDP reduced by 12% between 2005 and 2010. In October 2015, India made a commitment to reduce the emissions intensity of its GDP by 20-25% from its 2005 levels by 2020 and by 33-35% by 2030. On 2 October 2016 India formally ratified the historic Paris Agreement. India has committed to reduce the emissions intensity of its GDP by 20-25% by 2020. The Government of India has also adopted a **National Action Plan on Climate Change** to address this issue directly, as well as a **National Mission for Green India**. These national schemes are complemented by a host of specific programmes on solar energy, enhanced energy efficiency, sustainable habitats, water, sustaining the Himalayan ecosystem, and to encourage strategic knowledge for climate change.

Targets

- Strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters in all countries.
- Integrate climate change measures into national policies, strategies and planning.
- Improve education, awareness-raising and human and institutional capacity on climate change mitigation, adaptation, impact reduction and early warning.
- Implement the commitment undertaken by developed-country parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change to a goal of mobilising jointly USD 100 billion annually by 2020 from all sources to address the needs of developing countries in the context of meaningful mitigation actions and transparency on implementation and fully operationalise the Green Climate Fund through its capitalisation as soon as possible.

- Promote mechanisms for raising capacity for effective climate change-related planning and management in least developed countries and small island developing states, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalised communities.
- Acknowledging that the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change is the primary international, intergovernmental forum for negotiating the global response to climate change.

Sustainable Development Goal 14: Life below Water

The Challenge

We are a land dwelling species, but we depend more on our oceans than we can imagine. Oceans cover three quarters of the Earth's surface, contain 97% of the Earth's water, and represent 99% of the living space on the planet by volume. Over three billion people depend on marine and coastal biodiversity for their livelihoods. Globally, the market value of marine and coastal resources and industries is estimated at USD 3 trillion per year or about 5% of global GDP. Oceans contain nearly 200,000 identified species, but actual numbers may lie in the millions. Oceans absorb about 30% of the carbon dioxide produced by humans, buffering the impact of global warming. They also serve as the world's largest source of protein, with more than three billion people depending on the oceans as their primary source of protein. Unmonitored fishing is also contributing to the rapid depletion of many fish species and are preventing efforts to save and restore global fisheries and related jobs, causing ocean fisheries to generate USD 50 billion less per year than they could. As much as 40% of the world's oceans are heavily affected by human activities, including pollution, depleted fisheries, and loss of coastal habitats.

Why is this important?

Coastal and marine resources contribute USD 28 trillion to the global economy every year. But this is only a small part of why they are so important to our planet. The world's oceans – their temperature, chemistry, currents and life – drive global systems that make the Earth habitable for humankind. Our rainwater, drinking water, weather, climate, coastlines, much of our food, and even the oxygen in the air we breathe, are all ultimately provided and regulated by the sea. Throughout history, oceans and seas have been vital conduits for trade and transportation. Careful management of this essential global resource is a key feature of a sustainable future.

How can we address this?

Sustainable Development Goal 14 commits countries to united over what is a truly global responsibility – the protection of our oceans and the lives that depend on it. By 2020, countries commit to achieving the sustainable management of marine ecosystems, and in another five years, significantly reduce marine pollution of all kinds. This will require an international scientific partnership, regulation of harvesting and fishing, and enhance our research and knowledge on issues critical to the survival of life below water.

India and Goal 14

Over a third of India's population – 35% — lives along its vast coastline and nearly half of this coast experiences erosion. More than one million people in 3,651 villages in India situated along the coast are employed in marine capture fisheries

. According to India's **Fourth National Report to the Convention of Biological Diversity, 2009,** India is endowed with vast inland and marine bio-resources, and is the third largest producer of fish in the world and the second largest producer of inland fish. The Indian government's **Sagar mala Project**, also known as the Blue Revolution, is working to improve the state of India's ports and coastlines. To conserve marine ecosystems, the government has undertaken a **National Plan for the Conservation of Aquatic Eco-systems**.
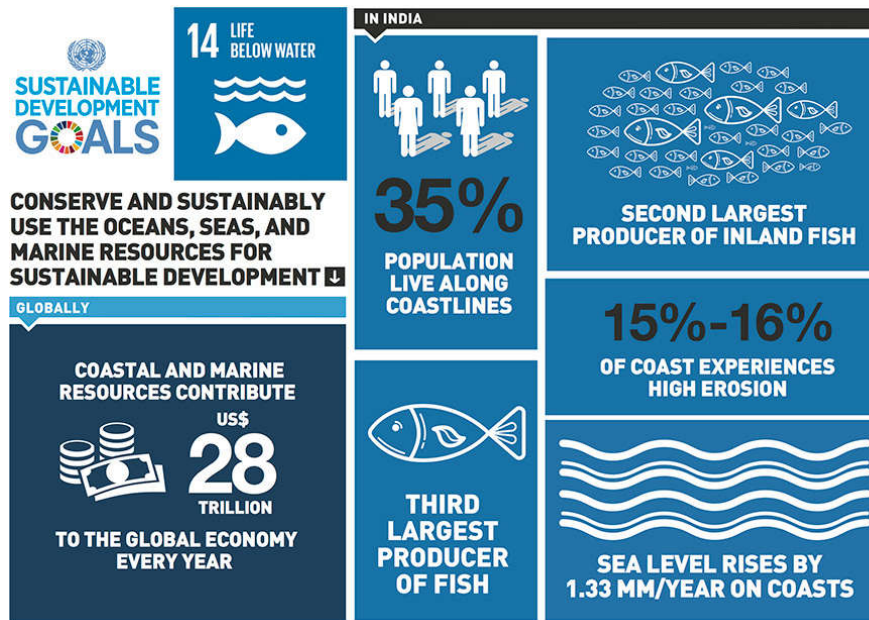
Coastal and marine biodiversity protection is a key area of focus for India.

Targets

- By 2025, prevent and significantly reduce marine pollution of all kinds, in particular from land-based activities, including marine debris and nutrient pollution.
- By 2020, sustainably manage and protect marine and coastal ecosystems to avoid significant adverse impacts, including by strengthening their resilience, and take action for their restoration in order to achieve healthy and productive oceans.
- Minimise and address the impacts of ocean acidification, including through enhanced scientific cooperation at all levels.
- By 2020, effectively regulate harvesting and end overfishing, illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing and destructive fishing practices and implement science-based management plans, in order to restore fish stocks in the shortest time feasible, at least to levels that can produce maximum sustainable yield as determined by their biological characteristics.
- By 2020, conserve at least 10% of coastal and marine areas, consistent with national and international law and based on the best available scientific information.
- By 2020, prohibit certain forms of fisheries subsidies which contribute to overcapacity and overfishing, eliminate subsidies that contribute to illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing and refrain from introducing new such subsidies, recognising that appropriate and effective special and differential treatment for developing and least developed countries should be an integral part of the World Trade Organization fisheries subsidies negotiation.
- By 2030, increase the economic benefits to small island developing states and least developed countries from the sustainable use of marine resources, including through sustainable management of fisheries, aquaculture and tourism.

- Increase scientific knowledge, develop research capacity and transfer marine technology, taking into account the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission Criteria and Guidelines on the Transfer of Marine Technology, in order to improve ocean health and to enhance the contribution of marine biodiversity to the development of developing countries, in particular small island developing states and least developed countries.
- Enhance the conservation and sustainable use of oceans and their resources by implementing international law as reflected in UNCLOS, which provides the legal framework for the conservation and sustainable use of oceans and their resources, as recalled in paragraph 158 of The Future We Want.

Sustainable Development Goal 15: Life on Land

The Challenge

Our fate as a species depends on the state of our most important habitat – land. Our future is linked to the survival of land ecosystems, and yet, of the 8,300 animal breeds known, 8% have become extinct and 22% are at risk of extinction. Thirteen million hectares of forest are lost every year while the persistent degradation of drylands has led to the desertification of 3.6 billion hectares. Currently, 2.6 billion people depend directly on agriculture, however 52% of the land used for agriculture is moderately or severely affected by soil degradation. Deforestation and desertification – caused by human activities and climate change – pose major challenges to sustainable development and have affected the lives and livelihoods of millions of people in the fight against poverty.

Why is this important?

Land and forests are the foundation of sustainable development. Forests cover 30% of the Earth's surface and, in addition to providing food security and shelter, are key to combating climate change, protecting biodiversity and are home to the indigenous population. Forests are home to more than 80% of all terrestrial species of animals, plants and insects. At the same time, around 1.6 billion people also depend on forests for their livelihood, including some 70 million indigenous people. Over 80% of the human diet is provided by plants, with rice, maize and wheat providing 60% of energy intake. In addition, 80% of people living in rural areas in developing countries rely on traditional plant-based medicines to provide their basic healthcare.

How can we address this?

Preserving life on land requires concerted action not only to protect terrestrial ecosystems, but to restore them, and promote their sustainable use for the future. Goal 15 calls for urgent action to halt the degradation of natural habitats, to end the poaching and trafficking of animals, and to integrate ecosystem and biodiversity values into local planning and development processes. Safeguarding places which are important from the point of view of biodiversity is another effective tool, and as of 2014, 15.2% of the earth's terrestrial and freshwater environments had been protected.

India and Goal 15

In India, forest cover is now 21% and protected areas cover nearly 5% of the country's total land area. As India is home to 8% of the world's biodiversity, which includes many species found nowhere else in the world, the country is committed to achieving the **Aichi targets of the Convention on Biological Diversity** and is also an active participant in the implementation of

the **Nagoya Protocol**. India's **National Afforestation Programme** and a national programme on the **Integrated Development of Wildlife Habitats** are core projects aimed at the conservation of land ecosystems. Two specific schemes – **Project Tiger** and **Project Elephant** – are being undertaken to conserve two of the country's most majestic species of animals.
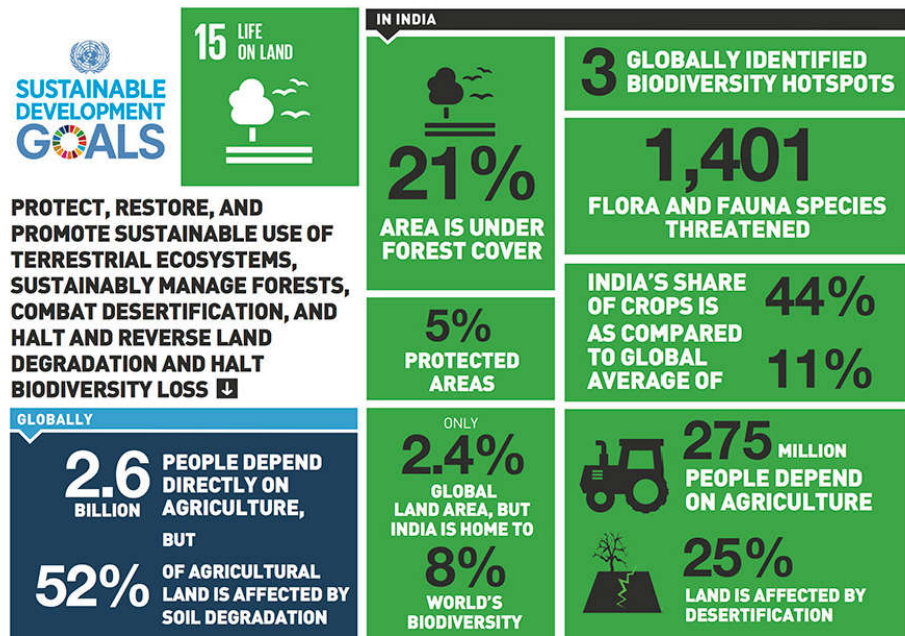
Targets

• By 2020, ensure the conservation, restoration and sustainable use of terrestrial and inland freshwater ecosystems and their services, in particular forests, wetlands, mountains and drylands, in line with obligations under international agreements.

• By 2020, promote the implementation of sustainable management of all types of forests, halt deforestation, restore degraded forests and substantially increase afforestation and reforestation globally.

• By 2030, combat desertification, restore degraded land and soil, including land affected by desertification, drought and floods, and strive to achieve a land degradation-neutral world.

• By 2030, ensure the conservation of mountain ecosystems, including their biodiversity, in order to enhance their capacity to provide benefits that are essential for sustainable development.

• Take urgent and significant action to reduce the degradation of natural habitats, halt the loss of biodiversity and, by 2020, protect and prevent the extinction of threatened species.

• Promote fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising from the utilisation of genetic resources and promote appropriate access to such resources, as internationally agreed.

• Take urgent action to end poaching and trafficking of protected species of flora and fauna and address both demand and supply of illegal wildlife products.

• By 2020, introduce measures to prevent the introduction and significantly reduce the impact of invasive alien species on land and water ecosystems and control or eradicate the priority species.

- By 2020, integrate ecosystem and biodiversity values into national and local planning, development processes, poverty reduction strategies and accounts.
- Mobilise and significantly increase financial resources from all sources to conserve and sustainably use biodiversity and ecosystems.
- Mobilise significant resources from all sources and at all levels to finance sustainable forest management and provide adequate. incentives to developing countries to advance such management, including for conservation and reforestation.
- Enhance global support for efforts to combat poaching and trafficking of protected species, including by increasing the capacity of local communities to pursue sustainable livelihood opportunities.

Sustainable Development Goal 16: Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions

The Challenge

Violence is perhaps the most significant and destructive challenge to the development, growth, wellbeing, and the very survival of countries around the world. Fatalities resulting from armed conflict are rising in some parts of the world, causing mass displacement within countries and across borders, and resulting in massive humanitarian crises
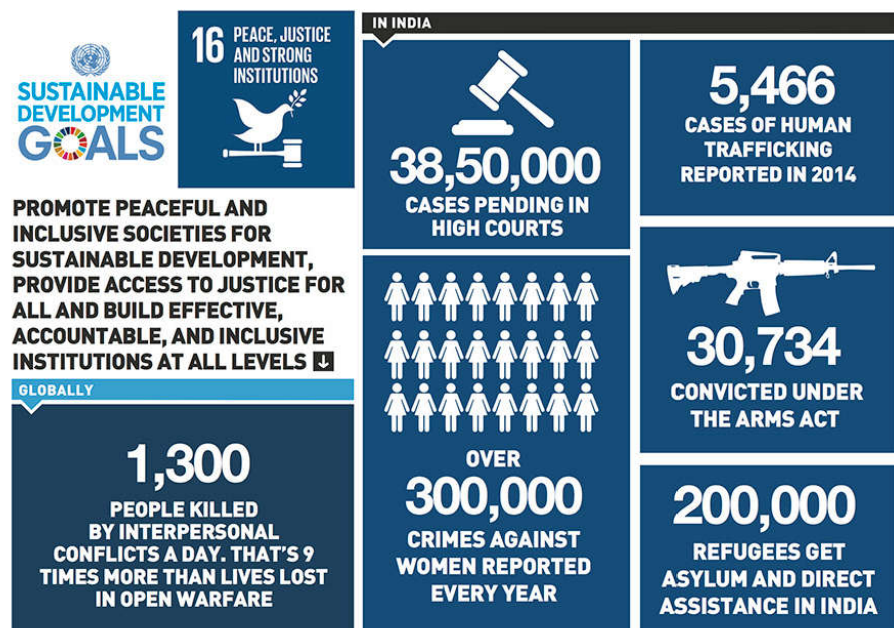
that adversely impact every aspect of our developmental efforts. Other forms of violence – crime and sexual and gender based violence – also remain a global challenge. Young people are especially vulnerable; 43% of all homicides globally involve young people between 10 and 29 years of age, and 70% of all human trafficking victims in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2010-2012 were children. But violence can also take more insidious forms. The institutional violence of unaccountable legal and judicial systems, and depriving people of their human rights and fundamental freedoms all constitute forms of violence and injustice. Corruption, bribery, theft and tax evasion cost developing countries around USD1.26 trillion per year; money that could be used to lift many above the international poverty threshold of USD 1.90 a day for at least six years.

Why is this important?

The first step to fulfilling any aspect of the global sustainable development agenda for 2030 will begin with restoring security and human rights to individuals whose very lives and basic freedoms are under threat either due to direct violence or through institutional restrictions to justice. Many of the countries

that did not achieve their Millennium Development Goal targets by 2015 were countries experiencing armed conflict and instability.

How can we address this?

Goal 16 is dedicated to the promotion of peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, the provision of access to justice for all, and building accountable institutions at all levels. National and global institutions have to be more transparent and effective, including local governance and judicial systems which are critical to the guarantee of human rights, law and order, and security.

India and Goal 16

In India, the judiciary is overburdened due to the large number of pending cases, though the caseload has declined slightly – from 41.5 lakh in 2014 to 38.5 lakh in 2015. India has prioritised the strengthening of justice through government initiatives including **Pragati Platform**, a public grievance redressal system, and the **Development of Infrastructure Facilities for the Judiciary** including **Gram Nyayalays** for villages.

Targets

- Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere.
- End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children.
- Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all.
- By 2030, significantly reduce illicit financial and arms flows, strengthen the recovery and return of stolen assets and combat all forms of organised crime.
- Substantially reduce corruption and bribery in all their forms.
- Develop effective, accountable and transparent institutions at all levels.
- Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels.
- Broaden and strengthen the participation of developing countries in the institutions of global governance.
- By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration.
- Ensure public access to information and protect fundamental freedoms, in accordance with national legislation and international agreements.
- Strengthen relevant national institutions, including through international co-operation, for building capacity at all levels, in particular in developing countries, to prevent violence and combat terrorism and crime.
- Promote and enforce non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development.

Sustainable Development Goal 17: Partnerships for The Goals

The Challenge

This is the challenge that brings our efforts on all the other 16 goals together. An ambitious and interconnected global development agenda requires a new global partnership – this includes financing development, connecting people through information technology networks, international trade flows,

and strengthening data collection and analysis. Even as the world comes together to unite for global development – in 2014, official development assistance stood at USD 135.2 billion, the highest level ever recorded – only seven countries have so far met the UN target of providing official development assistance to the tune of 0.7% of their gross national income. While people around the world come closer together through physical and digital networks, more than four billion people do not use the Internet, and 90% of them are from the developing world. The gender gap in internet use reaches up to 29% in the least developed countries.

Why is this important?

A successful sustainable development agenda requires partnerships between governments, the private sector and civil society. These 17 ambitious goals and the complex challenges they seek to address fit neither neatly demarcated sectors, nor national borders. Climate change is global, and businesses are just as important to fighting it as governments. Innovation can't happen without universities and scientists, and certainly not without exchange of knowledge across continents. Gender equality is as much about communities as it is about legal instruments. If our epidemics are global, their solutions are too. Inclusive partnerships built upon a shared vision and shared goals that place people and the planet at the centre, are needed at the global, regional, national and local level.
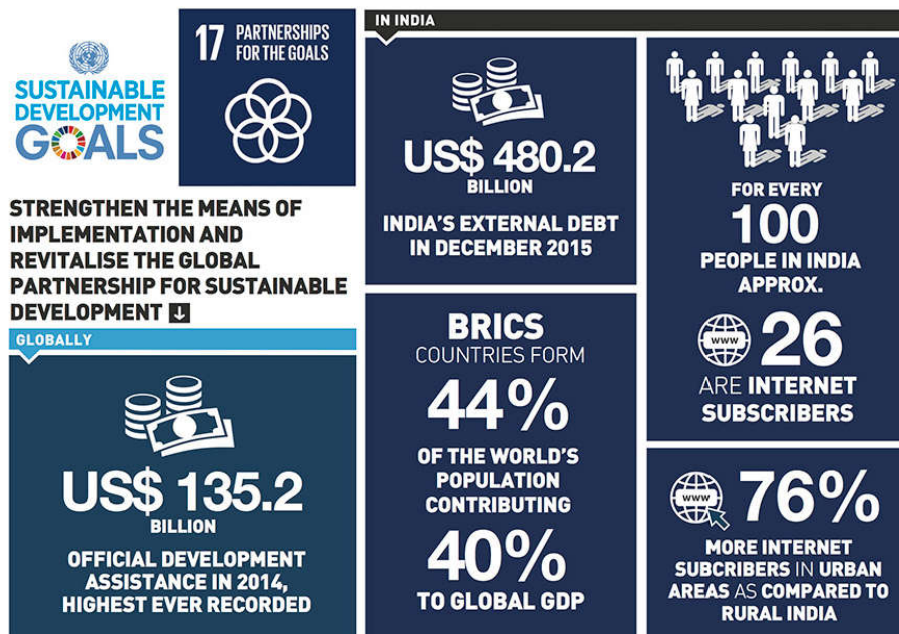
How can we address this?

Urgent action is needed to mobilise, redirect and unlock the transformative power of trillions of dollars of private resources to deliver on sustainable development objectives. Long-term investments, including foreign direct investment, are needed in critical sectors, especially in developing countries. These include sustainable energy, infrastructure and transport, as well as information and communications technologies. The public sector will need to set a clear direction. Review and monitoring frameworks, regulations and incentive structures that enable such investments must be retooled to attract investments and reinforce sustainable development. National oversight mechanisms such as supreme audit institutions and oversight functions by legislatures should be strengthened.

India and Goal 17

The Government of India is an important part of this new global partnership, and it has been strengthened by the country's efforts to build networks within the region and with the world. South-South co-operation has been a crucial part of this, as is India's membership and leadership in institutions like the **Shanghai Cooperation Organization, BRICS** and its **New Development Bank**, and **the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation**, as well as with UN agencies and programmes around the world.

Targets

Finance

- Strengthen domestic resource mobilisation, including through international support to developing countries, to improve domestic capacity for tax and other revenue collection.
- Developed countries to implement fully their official development assistance commitments, including the commitment by many developed countries to achieve the target of 0.7% of ODA/GNI to developing countries and 0.15% to 0.20% of ODA/GNI to least developed countries. ODA providers are encouraged to consider setting a target to provide at least 0.20% of ODA/GNI to least developed countries.
- Mobilise additional financial resources for developing countries from multiple sources.
- Assist developing countries in attaining long-term debt sustainability through coordinated policies aimed at fostering debt financing, debt relief and debt restructuring, as appropriate, and address the external debt of highly indebted poor countries to reduce debt distress.
- Adopt and implement investment promotion regimes for least developed countries.

Technology

- Enhance North-South, South-South and triangular regional and international co-operation on and access to science, technology and innovation and enhance knowledge sharing on mutually agreed terms, including through improved co-ordination among existing mechanisms, in particular at the UN level, and through a global technology facilitation mechanism.
- Promote the development, transfer, dissemination and diffusion of environmentally sound technologies to developing countries on favourable terms, including on concessional and preferential terms, as mutually agreed.
- Fully operationalise the technology bank and science, technology and innovation capacity-building mechanism for least developed countries by 2017 and enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology.

Capacity building

- Enhance international support for implementing effective and targeted capacity-building in developing countries to support national plans to implement all the sustainable development goals, including through North-South, South-South and triangular co-operation.

Trade

- Promote a universal, rules-based, open, non-discriminatory and equitable multilateral trading system under the World Trade Organization, including through the conclusion of negotiations under its Doha Development Agenda.
- Significantly increase the exports of developing countries, in particular with a view to doubling the least developed countries' share of global exports by 2020.
- Realise timely implementation of duty-free and quota-free market access on a lasting basis for all least developed countries, consistent with World Trade Organization decisions, including by ensuring that preferential rules of origin applicable to imports from least developed countries are transparent and simple, and contribute to facilitating market access.

Systemic issues

- **Policy and institutional coherence**
  1. Enhance global macroeconomic stability, including through policy co-ordination and policy coherence.
  2. Enhance policy coherence for sustainable development.
  3. Respect each country's policy space and leadership to establish and implement policies for poverty eradication and sustainable development.
- **Multi-stakeholder partnerships**
  1. Enhance the global partnership for sustainable development, complemented by multi-stakeholder partnerships that mobilise and share knowledge, expertise, technology and financial resources, to support the achievement of the sustainable development goals in all countries, in particular developing countries.
  2. Encourage and promote effective public, public-private and civil society partnerships, building on the experience and resourcing strategies of partnerships.
- **Data, monitoring and accountability**
  1. By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries, including for least developed countries and small island developing States, to increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts.
  2. By 2030, build on existing initiatives to develop measurements of progress on sustainable development that complement gross domestic product, and support statistical capacity-building in developing countries.

CONCLUSION

Agriculture is an integral part of rural life and agricultural and rural development programmes should be devised in order to meet the needs of the rural community. Efforts should be made during planning the next five year plan to bring science and technology closer to the farmers in order to utilize the limited available resources efficiently to increase the productivity of the land. The other important aspects like supply of agricultural inputs, farm machinery, irrigation facilities, cropping pattern, agricultural processing and general aspects like health, housing facilities, sanitation, welfare programmes for people should be given due importance.

Agricultural and rural development is a continuous process for which Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Rural Development both are primarily responsible for planning, implementation and monitoring of various centrally sponsored programmes and schemes designed by the planning commission of India for rural poverty alleviation. The creation of self-employment opportunities for the people of below poverty line with improving the overall quality of life in the rural areas and empowerment of women in socio-economic and politics are important issues of the five year plans in India.

To improve the rural areas, it is necessary to popularise participation in policy making. Rural development would be "time-bound oriented, participatory orientated, decentralized oriented, collective oriented, improvement oriented, equity oriented, institutional oriented".

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III.   RURAL SOCIAL WORK : SKILLS AND TECHNIQUES

INTRODUCTION

WHAT IS COMMUNITY?
We can define community as a group of individuals living together for a long time in a locality having common interest, goals, ways of life and norms etc. and meeting most of their needs from local social institutions. The examples of community are village mohallah in rural urban area.

Community may be defined as: "Community is a collection of people who share a common territory and meet their basic physical and social needs through daily interaction with one another" (Allan Johnson, 1986).

FIGURE: 1 COMPONENTS OF COMMUNITY
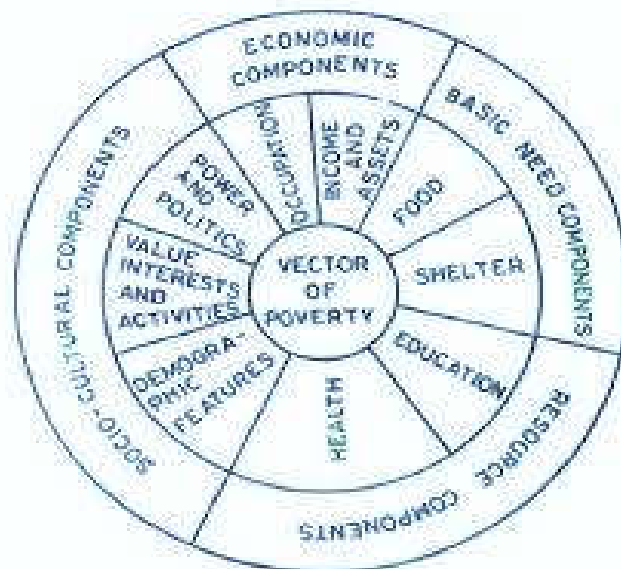
Characteristics Rural Community

Rural community is an area which is under developed and not civilized, based on geographical conditions. The characteristics of rural community are following:

1. Rural area is sparsely populated because many people leave rural areas and settle in the urban areas for more facilities.
2. These communities have homogeneity in its profession that is their only source of earning is agriculture and this is passed on from generation to generation.
3. There is homogeneity in dress, language and customs. It means all of them remain same because their culture is same and they belong to the same area.
4. These areas have got slow means of communication.
5. Rural areas have very slow rate of change because of lack of education and less access to modern technology.

6. Areas have got simple culture transmitted from generation to generation.

7. Rural areas have got informal social life that is they spent their life in a. simple way.

8. Rural communities have got strong relationships and interactions among the people. They help each other in distress and share the happiness.

9. In rural areas there is less rate of pollution because there are no factories and mills and the number of automobiles is less.

10. In rural areas people show great hospitality to their guests and treat them as a member of the family.

CASTE, CLASS AND POWER

Indian society is marked by multiplicity of languages, customs and cultural practices. Within the broad social hierarchy of caste and class, gender cuts across caste and class. In contemporary India gender, caste and class are dynamic phenomena, which vary between different regions and communities.

FIGURE: 2 CASTE SYSTEM IN INDIA
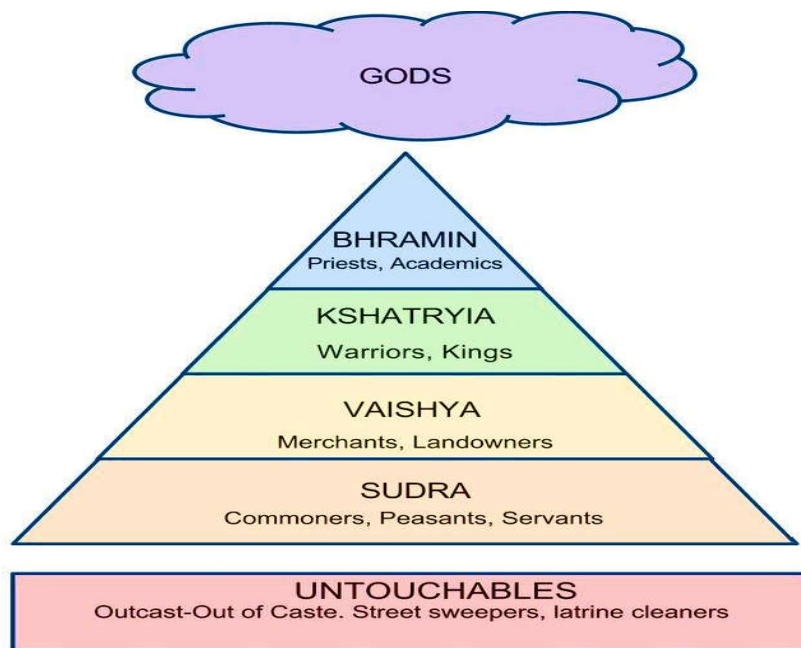
Caste as a system of social stratification is said to have subsumed class in India. In the traditional Indian society, the upper castes were generally having all the resources and power, social, political and economic in their favor. The lower castes were generally landless laborers or service castes that were low in status, economically poor and politically powerless. It was only later that this harmony was disturbed during the colonial rule in India when land became a marketable commodity.

The traditional power structure was disturbed and social mobility rate increased multifold due to the colonial impact and opening up of different occupational avenues, economic betterment of middle castes and some lower castes as well, such as the Jatavs of Agra (OM Lynch 1968 in Milton Singer (ed.) 1968).

There are various theories of the origin of caste in India, such as the theory of racial origin, origin in terms of occupational specialization etc. But none of the writings on caste has looked at it in politically conscious or gendered terms and they do not address the issues of power, dominance and hegemonies key issues in caste society throughout its history. Kalpana Kannaviran (in IGNOU FWE-01, Block 1: pp. 16) writes that any analysis of caste by Indians is by definition political. It either consciously chooses or unconsciously identifies with one of the two positions:

a. supporting the status quo by proposing a case for the concentration of power in the hands of those who already have it, or
b. engaging critically with the status quo by developing a critique of Indian tradition.

Telangana was divided along caste, class and religious lines. In fact 90% of the people in Telangana belonged to socially disadvantaged sections: Dalits, Adivasis, Muslims and other backward classes (Hanumanth Rao, 2014). The local dominant castes, mostly Reddy and Velma, were historically associated with the feudal regime of the Nizam of Hyderabad as revenue-collecting landlords, even though the middle farmers among them joined the Telangana armed struggle in the 1940s, one of the most radical peasant rebellions in the history of rural India. The communist led rebels fought for a society free of bonded labor and other forms of economic exploitation and political oppression. Though they succeeded in liberating thousands of villages where land was redistributed, the five year long insurrection was violently crushed by the state and ultimately defeated in 1951. The spirit of this revolt on the other hand, refused to die and went on to inspire rebellion again in the 1970s, when a Maoist-led Naxalite guerrilla struggle based on a militant agrarian agenda started spreading across the forest of Telangana (Sinha, 1989).

GENDER
Gender is perhaps the oldest and the most enduring source of social differentiation.

Gender and Sex
Gender does not replace the term sex, which refers exclusively to biological difference between men and women. Gender identities are plural, divided and potentially unstable, gender always includes the dynamics of ethnicity and class.

Gender refers to the socially constructed and culturally determined roles that women and men play in their daily lives. It is used to highlight various structural relationships of inequality between men and women.

Sex on the other hand, refers to the biological differences between male and female, which are much the same across space and time. Gender, the socially constructed differences and relations between males and females, varies greatly from place to place and from time to time. Gender can therefore be defined as a notion that offers a set of frameworks within which the social and ideological construction and representation of differences between the sexes are explained. (Masefield. A. 1991).

FIGURE: 3 GENDER AND AGE AT MARRIAGE
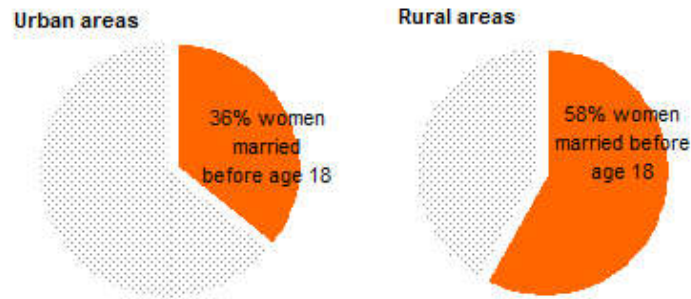
Urban areas

36% women married before age 18

Rural areas

58% women married before age 18

Rural India is faced with **multiple developmental challenges**. The critical ones include:

1. **Population**: Increasing population which causes severe pressure on natural resources and the environment.
2. **Natural Resources**: Depleting natural resources, resulting in insecurity of food and employment, compelling about 40% of the rural population to live in poverty.
3. **Pollution**: Pollution of the environment and climate change, are causing shortage of clean drinking water and creating adverse impact on agricultural production.

FIGURE: 4 POLLUTION

Water Pollution

Air Pollution

Land Pollution

Noise Pollution

Common types of pollution

Light Pollution
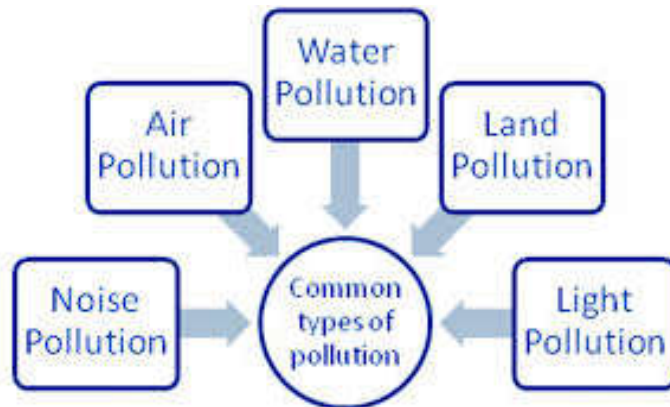
4. **Education**: Poor access to education, resulting in low literacy and unemployment of the youth. While the average literacy rate in rural areas is around 50-65%, it is as low as 20-25% among women in backward areas. Education of girls was felt to be unnecessary in the past and this has seriously affected their quality of life. Illiteracy has also hindered their development due to lack of communication with the outside world. They are slow in adopting new practices, which are essential with the changing times Low literacy rate, particularly among women having adverse effect on their skills development, employment productivity, family welfare and education of their children

5. **Health**: Poor health status due to lack of clean drinking water, hygiene, sanitation and drainage facilities; inadequate health care facilities, leading to high child mortality and morbidity; loss of labour productivity, economic loss, indebtedness and poor quality of life; The rate of infant mortality in rural India is marginally higher than in the cities on account of poorer access to safe drinking water, sanitation and health care support. Urban India has 15 times the number of beds and four times the number of doctors per capita compared to rural India. Not only is there an acute shortage of medical personnel, but doctors and medical workers are absent 40 per cent of the time in rural public health facilities.

6. **Infrastructure**: Poor infrastructure for receiving timely information on development opportunities, market demand and prices for agricultural commodities, new technologies, forward and backward linkages, credit facilities and development policies of the government.

7. **Globalization**: Liberalized trade regimes as well as more integrated and consumer driven agricultural and food markets are globalizing rapidly and driving innovations, forcing farmers to adapt or lose out. Poor farmers do not have the capacity face the cut throat competition and hence they are bound to perish.

8. **Problems of Livelihood**:
   1. In India, although the contribution of agriculture to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is around 19%, in the absence of employment opportunities in industrial and service sectors, over 85% of the rural income is generated from agriculture. 75% - 80% of this earning is spent on food.
   2. Agriculture is the major source of livelihood but most of the illiterate farmers have not been successful in cultivating their land economically. They have been treating agriculture as a family tradition.
   3. Over 12-15% of the rural families are landless and among the land holders, 69% are marginal farmers with less than 1 ha holding (17% of the total land) and about 21% are small farmers with 1-2 ha holdings (34% of the land). Thus about 90% families own less than 51% lands, with a per capita holding of 0.19 ha.
   4. Out of the 147 million ha agricultural lands, about 60 million ha are located in arid zones, which are mostly owned by the poor families. As the chances of crop failure on these lands is very high, the farmers generally do not invest in external inputs like improved seeds, fertilisers and plant protection measures and end up with poor crop yields, even during normal years.
   5. Rainfall is the main source of water for agricultural production in India. However, in the absence of adequate soil and water conservation practices, it is estimated that over 65% rainwater runs off, flooding the rivers.
   6. About 30% of the total cropping area in the country is under irrigation, where farmers have a tendency to use excessive water. In the absence of adequate training and demonstration, they believe that excess water can enhance their crop yields.
   7. Moreover, as the water charges are fixed on the basis of the area covered under irrigation instead of on the quantity of water supplied, farmers do not want to restrict the use of water.
   8. As a result of poor soil and water conservation measures, the average yield of food crops in India is only 1.9 tons/ha as compared to 4.0 tons/ha in China.
   9. Due to excessive use of water for irrigation, over 9.00 million ha fertile lands have turned into sodic and saline wastelands, thereby posing a serious threat not only to

food security and employment generation but also to community health, biodiversity and the environment.

10. Small farmers have work only for 100-120 days for growing one crop in a year, which is not adequate to sustain their livelihood. Hence, they have to struggle to earn additional wages by working in irrigated areas or migrate to urban areas. The migration pattern varies with the region, opportunities and socio-economic status of the families.

11. The poorest families, particularly the landless and marginal holders owning poor quality land tend to migrate with the entire family. Many tribal families migrate to cities as construction workers and return at the onset of the rains.

12. Such migrations severely affect the quality of life, due to poor health, lack of education and social pressures leading to erosion of moral values.

13. Thus, the poor continued to live in the clutches of the powerful, accepting it as their destiny. They avoid confrontation and prefer to live a voiceless and suppressed life.

FIGURE: 5 VICIOUS CYCLE OF POVERTY
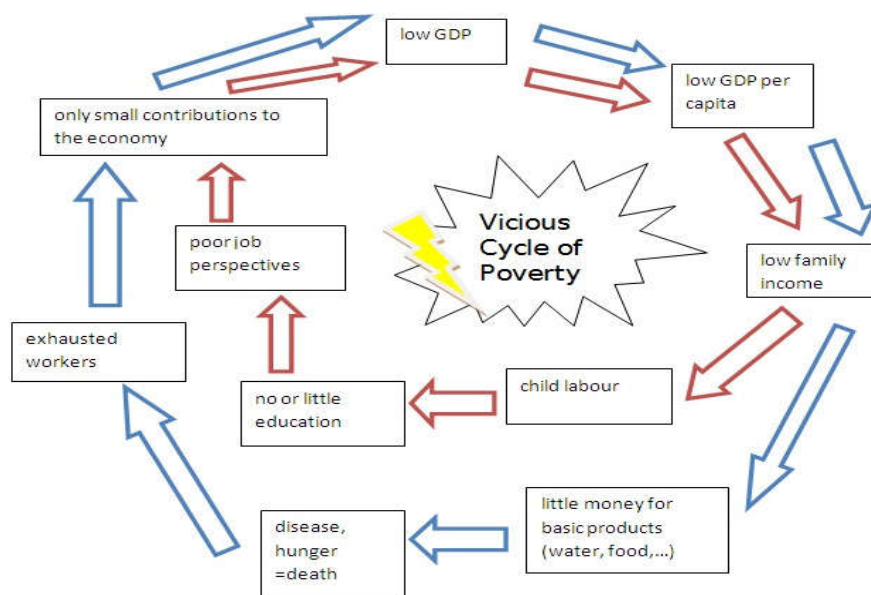
RURAL SOCIAL WORK TECHNIQUES

There are no universally accepted approaches to rural development. It is a choice influenced by time, space and culture. The term rural development connotes overall development of rural areas to improve the quality of life of rural people. It is a comprehensive and multidimensional concept, and encompasses the development of agriculture and allied activities, village and cottage industries and crafts, socio-economic infrastructure, community services and facilities and, above all, human resources in rural areas. Rural development is the end-result of interactions between various physical, technological, economic, social, cultural and institutional factors.

The social work techniques are designed to improve the economic and social well-being of a specific group of people – the rural poor. Social work is multi-disciplinary in nature, representing an intersection of agricultural, social, behavioral, engineering and management sciences. Some of the techniques and methods of social work for rural development are as follows:

1. **Assured Livelihood:**
   While promoting various development programmes, the main objective is to help the target family to come out of poverty, with in a shortest period. The dairy development programme has a gestation period of 3-4 years, till the newly born calf comes into milk production. In land based development programmes the gestation period may vary from 2 to 6 years, depending on the type of farming systems practiced by the farmers. In case of crop production, the gestation period is short due to short rotation crops while the fruit and tree crops take 5-6 years to generate income.
   While promoting this income generation activities there are two critical factors which affect the success of the programmes. Firstly the programme should be well planned to generate substantial income to enable the participating families to come out of poverty. Generally small farmers having poor quality land and livestock may not be able to earn substantial income with only one intervention. Hence multi-disciplinary programmes have the advantage. Similarly, small interventions such as kitchen garden, vermi-composting, homestead horticulture in isolation will not help the poor. These interventions can be helpful as a part of an integrated programme. The other important aspect is to provide support during the gestation period.
   Many of the poor who do not have any resources even to procure their daily ration, are likely to neglect their development work, if no support is available in the form of assistance or wages to ensure their food security.
   Hence different short term income generation activities need to be designed till the income starts generating from the major interventions.

2. **Women Empowerment**:
   Involvement of women in all the development programmes right from the stage of project planning is essential. Although women represent 50% of the population, they also have the major responsibility of grooming children and procuring the basic needs required for food, fuel and fodder securities. Active participation of women in development programmes will help to identify their problems and reduce their drudgery.

3. **Environmental Protection**:
   In all the development programmes conservation of the natural resources and protection of the environment are essential, as these are critical for sustainable development. This is particularly important, while dealing with the poor as their primary objective is to earn their livelihood and the development organizations have the obligation to carefully design the programme to ensure environmental protection with income generation activities.

   For effective implementation of various development programmes, the development programmes should be supported by applied research and training activities. The development programme without research back up is outdated and any research programme without development and extension outlets is academic. Training of the field functionaries and farmers is essential for effective transferring of technologies from laboratories to the field.

4. **Water Resource Development:**
   Development of water resources and wastelands are other important activities, having good potential for supporting the livelihood. However, with watershed development alone particularly the small farmers owning poor quality land cannot take advantage as they do not have the capacity to invest in land development and critical agricultural inputs. Hence they do not take active part in such programmes.

   Therefore the strategy should be to combine watershed management with development of low productive agricultural lands and wastelands owned by the weaker sections of the society. In all the watershed development programmes, involvement of the community right from the stage of planning will be a critical factor, for the success.

   Mobilizing the community through entry point activities and establishing effective communication through SHGs and village level planning committees, participation of the community in resource identification and development should be the important elements of the rural social work practice. With watershed development, introduction of the improved agricultural practices such as use of certified seeds, promotion of timely tillage operations, integrated pest management, supply of micro- credit to procure inputs, setting up of grain bank to meet the emergency needs of the poor etc. can play a very significant role in building the confidence of the community and sustain their interest.

FIGURE: 6 WATER RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
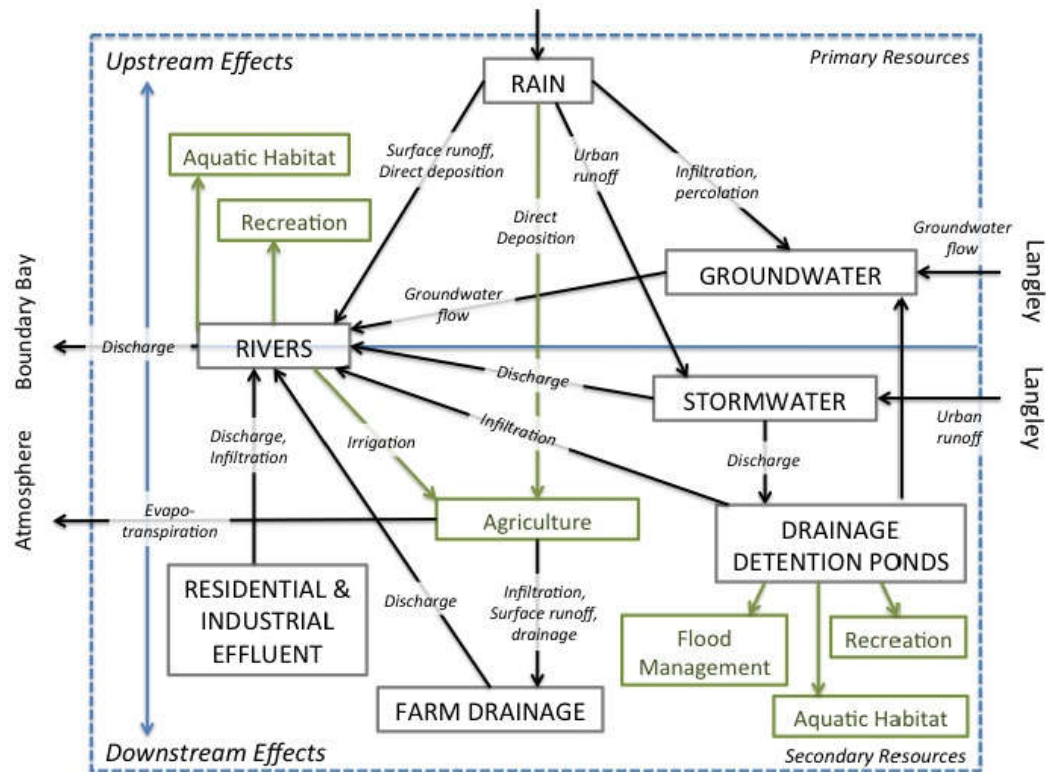
5. **Level of Infrastructure Development**:
   Development of physical as well as social infrastructure plays an important role in the overall advancement of the rural economy by directly contributing to employment generation and asset creation. Improved network of physical infrastructure facilities such as well-built roads, irrigation, rail links, power and telecommunications, information technology, food storage, cold chains, market-growth centres, processing of produce and social infrastructure support, viz., health and education, water and sanitation, and veterinary services and co-operatives are essential for the development of the rural economy, especially in the era of liberalization, privatization and globalization (LPG).

6. **Model Village:**
   A model village is perceived as a village having all modern physical and social infrastructure facilities. A model village will facilitate human resource development through better education, health and training and generate employment avenues both in secondary and tertiary sectors.
   According to the concept of a globalized village, each village will be connected with modern information technology for better dissemination of information. This type of a village will have the potential of producing human resources catering to national as well as international requirements.

ROLE OF NGOs AND SELF HELP GROUPS (SHGs):

Voluntary social services have been an integral part of the socio-cultural and religious ethos of our society from ancient times. The objective has been to increase human capacities by promoting non-economic factors such as education, health and nutrition, which in turn would speed up the process of economic development. The role of NGOs is both co-operative and complementary to the state.

The existence of NGOs assumes importance in the context of rural settings, as living conditions have deteriorated. State-NGO partnership alone cannot resolve all the socio-economic problems; hence it has to be in co-ordination with all agents of social change, i.e., the state, local self-governments, the corporate sector, academics and civil society groups. NGOs can play a significant role in strengthening local self-government by facilitating interaction and co-operation with state departments and also acting as catalysts to effectively implement various departmental schemes.

The role of voluntary agencies in the development of rural areas can be to supplement efforts of government for the upliftment of the poor and needy disseminate information about development schemes and programmes of the government to rural people; make people aware of the consequences of female feticides and imbalance in sex ratio; mobilize financial resources from the community; help in up gradation of skills of rural youths for self-employment opportunities; facilitate the formation of self-help groups and micro-finance; ensure protection of women and children's rights and abolish ills of child labor; and, make available technologies in a simpler form to the rural poor. SHGs: When individuals, on their own initiative, act in a conglomeration to meet their individual and common needs with the primary focus on self-reliance, it can be called a Self Help Group (SHG).

The benefits of self-help groups are based on cooperation rather than competition. They provide benefits of economies of scale, cost effective alternatives for different financial services, collective learning, democratic and participatory culture and a firm base and platform for dialogue and co-

operation. SHGs develop from a common binding force, common need, interest and concern, especially for the rural poor. It is this common binding force, which makes SHGs function more efficiently. The effectiveness of SHGs would be considerably enhanced if a symbiosis could be worked out between them and Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs). The key to this is the integration of SHGs with the democratically elected and empowered panchayats. There is urgent need to work out a mechanism that will allow the SHGs and the PRIs to work in coordination and establish a system of supporting each other's work.

CONFLICTS IN RURAL SETTINGS

Conflict affects rural communities in multiple ways. Disagreements over rights to land, water access, and water quality can act as flashpoints, and in the aftermath of conflict those who return, may create further conflict by increasing demand and thus stress on community's economic and social capacity.

Extension agents can help to prevent or reduce conflict. They can play potential roles in conflicts over land in rural settings, challenges associated with post conflict reintegration and experiences providing training for mediating disputes of land reintegration and experiences providing training for mediating disputes of land. They can also act as honest brokers between groups or between a group and the government. Agents can provide information – or access to information or other resources – that, directly or indirectly, reduces conflict. Through these and other means, extension personnel can promote peace building, with the understanding that transparency and accountability are essential in all activities to avoid the appearance of favouritism and to foster trust.

FIGURE: 7 CONFLICT IN RURAL AREAS
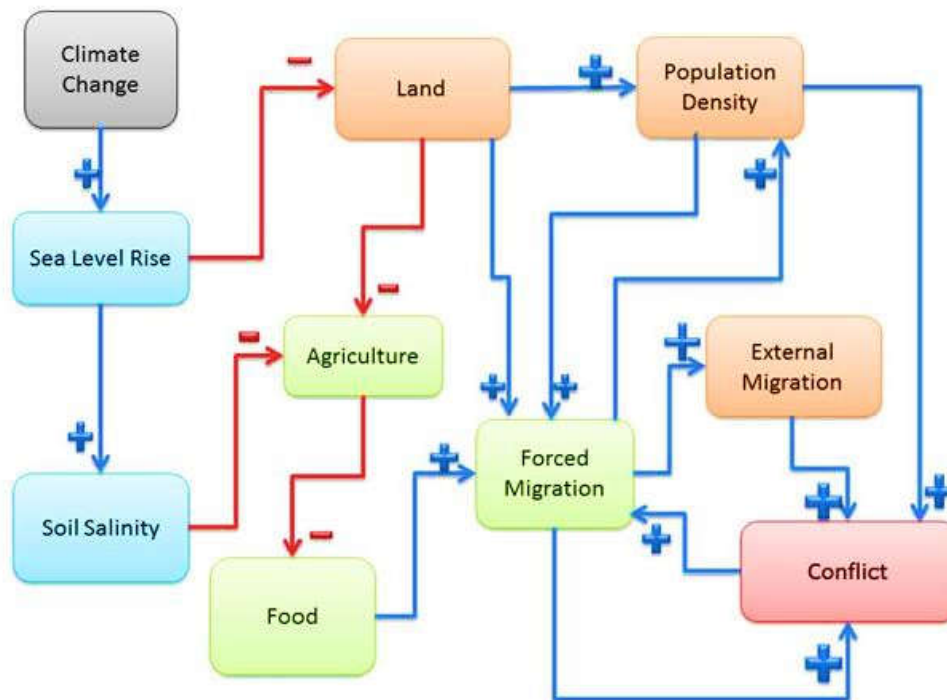
1. **Casteism as a Major contributor for Rural Conflicts**:

Casteism is one of the rural social problems, which is very peculiar to the Indian society. Indian society is a country of various religions. Each religion is sub-divided into different castes and these castes again into sub-castes. The culture of each caste varies though they all belong to one religion. Among these castes, certain are given a high status and others a low status, depending upon their caste occupation.

In such a society, there is every possibility for caste conflicts to occur. These conflicts have their origin in casteism, which refers to the hatred of one caste by the other, or the attempts made by the members of one caste to gain personal advantages to the detriment of interests of the other caste members. In brief, casteism refers to one-sided loyalty in favour of a particular caste.

Casteism leads the members of one caste to exploit the members of other caste for their own vested interest in the name of superiority or inferiority. According to R. N. Sharma, 'casteism is a blind group loyalty towards one's own caste or sub-caste, which does not care for the interests of other castes, and seeks to realize the social, economic, political and other interests of its own group'.

FIGURE: 8 CAUSES OF CASTEISM
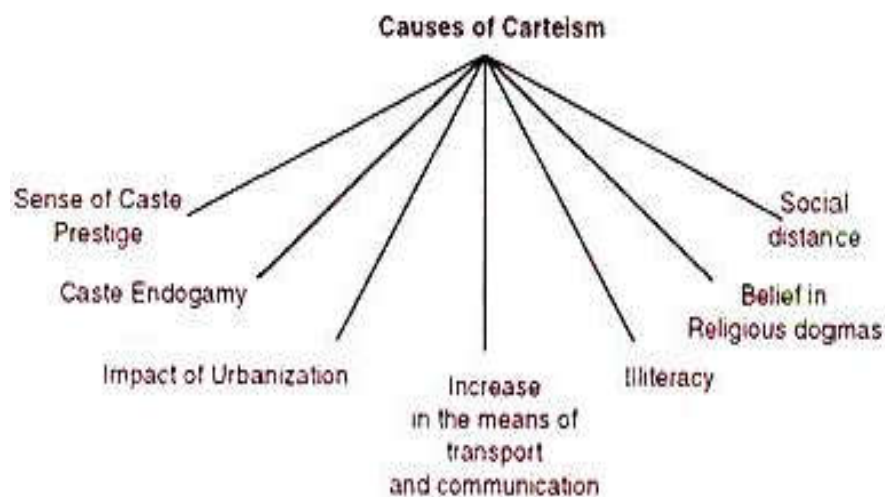
Some of the ill-effects of casteism are as follows:
(i) Casteism perpetuates the practice of untouchability and becomes an obstacle in providing social equality and justice.
(ii) Casteism proves to be a threat to social order, stability, peace and harmony, in the society.
(iii) Prevalence of casteism shows that the people are tradition-bound, conservative and orthodox in thinking. It may cause a hurdle to the upliftment of women because of lack of encouragement from caste-conscious groups.

(iv) Casteism divides society into different segments and results in conflicts and tensions in and between these segments. These continuous conflicts and tensions between various segments hinder the development of the nation and growth of nationalism

(v) Casteism results in political disunity and affects the smooth and successful functioning of multi-party democracy like India.

(vi) Casteism, indirectly, can be the cause of corruption. Members of a caste try to give all facilities to the persons, who are from their own caste and in doing so, they do not hesitate to involve in the most corrupt activities.

(vii) Casteism has become an instrument in the hands of political leaders. Many political leaders, during elections, try to procure votes on communal and caste basis, rather than their own capacities and capabilities. This results in election of under-serving candidates, who do not hesitate to promote their own caste interest at the cost of common good. Thus, casteism proves to be a hindrance to democracy.

(viii) Merit and efficiency may not be given importance, if appointments to various positions both in the public and private sectors are based on caste considerations. This results in hindering the technology and industrial efficiency.

(ix) It also becomes an obstacle in achieving social mobility.

(x) Casteism sometimes leads to religious conversions, especially among the low caste groups, who are not financially sound. Another cause for such conversions is that certain unbearable exploited conditions arise out of dominance of certain caste groups over other caste groups.

Some of the solutions for the problems arising out of casteism are as follows:

(i) Providing value-based education to children from childhood can solve the problem of casteism to some extent.

(ii) Various social agencies like family, school, and Mass media must be given the responsibility to develop a proper, broad outlook among children, which will negate the feelings of casteism, for example, creating awareness about the ill-effects of perpetuating the traditional caste system.

(iii) Literary programmes must be taken up in rural areas as the caste feelings, which further perpetuate casteism, are more in rural areas. These feelings of casteism can be minimized by the provision of social education among rural population.

(iv) By encouraging inter-caste marriages, the feelings arising out of casteism can be minimized as these marriages bring two families of different castes closer to each other.

(v) Provision of cultural and economic equality among different sections of the society reduces the chances of jealousy and competition. Thus, economic and cultural equality is important in eliminating casteism.

2. **Land Conflicts:**

Land conflicts affect over 3.2 million people in India.

How land conflicts affect people

Infrastructure projects account for almost half of all of the land-related conflicts documented by the study. Airports, townships, roads, railways, multipurpose dams, canals and SEZs, industrial corridors,

and investment zones fall under the infrastructure sector. Around 48 per cent of all conflicts were due to infrastructure sector, accounting for 56 per cent of all the people affected.

Mining sector is second largest cause of land conflicts, responsible for 19 per cent of them. Power sector stands third, causing 15 per cent of all the conflicts studied.

The report states that 60 per cent of the conflict-ridden land studied, was acquired by the government.

Almost three-quarters of the land-related conflicts involved common lands while 26 per cent was only on private land. The report also claims that more than 40 per cent of all land-related conflicts involve forest lands, mostly concentrated in regions where customary rights of tribal communities are not recognized.

The analysis found that the intensity of conflicts is higher in Schedule V Areas—tribal districts in Andhra Pradesh, Jharkhand, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Odisha and Rajasthan—which constitute 12 per cent of total districts in India, but are the site of 18 per cent of all land conflicts. Schedule V Areas also account for 30 per cent of the total people affected by land conflicts in the country.

"The status-quo is not sustainable–neither for the affected communities, nor for potential investors," says Ashwini Chhatre, senior research fellow, Bharti Institute of Public Policy.

"A part of the solution would be recognising the rights of people over common land that is under conflict," says Kundan Kumar, Asia program director at Rights and Resources Initiative. Adequate compensations for private lands will also reduce chances of conflict, he adds.

"The government must provide India's tribal and rural communities with the protections they are entitled to under our Constitution by vigorously enforcing the provisions of existing laws like the right to free, prior, and informed consent," he says.

Economic implications

The study, "Land Disputes and Stalled Investments in India", used data from the Center for Monitoring Indian Economy's (CMIE) CapEx database to better understand the causes and spatial distribution of stalled investment projects in India. Its analysis found that 5,780 or 14 per cent of the over 40,000 projects announced between January 2000 and October 2016 were stalled due to land acquisition conflicts.

The research also found the CapEx database, intended as a planning tool for business and governments, to be grossly underestimating the risk associated with land-related disputes. Looking at a subsample of 80 high-value stalled projects, the researchers found more than a quarter of the projects and investment is at risk due to land-related disputes, which is 300 per cent higher than CapEx estimate. The value of the projects at risk due to land related disputes examined in the subsample exceeds Rs. 1.9 trillion (US $29 billion).

The report was released on November 16 in a workshop jointly organized by Rights and Resources Initiative, Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations, Bharti Institute of Public Policy, Indian School of Business and Tata Institute of Social Sciences.

POWER STRUCTURE IN RURAL INDIA:

In the traditional power system, the main dimensions of power system were: the zamindari system, the caste system, and the village panchayat. The villagers referred their social, economic and other problems either to the zamindar or to their caste leader or to the village panchayat. In a state like Rajasthan, traditional power structure was feudalistic.

FIGURE: 9 POWER STRUCTURE IN RURAL INDIA
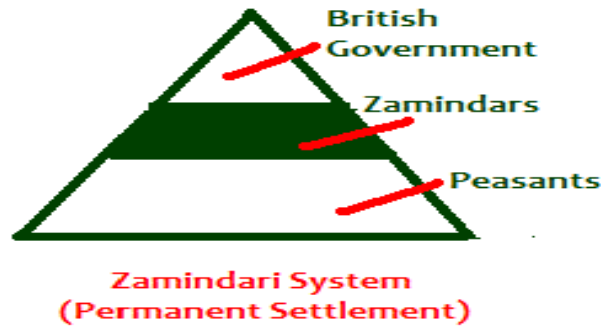
In other states also, zamindari was hereditary. The jagirdari and zamindari systems were in fact land revenue systems. The kings granted lands to their favourite chosen men like ministers, courtiers and military commanders, etc.

The jagirs were bigger estates than the zamindaris. The jagirdar was an intermediary between the tiller of the soil and the state but he behaved practically as the owner of the land in respect of peasants. He collected revenue from peasants for their support and also of the military force which he maintained. The zamindars were big landlords but possessed no title.

The jagirdars levied number of taxes and took a great portion of the produce as land revenue. They discouraged reforms and social awakening. The zamindars were those who were assigned land by the feudal chiefs and had to pay tribute to the ruler. They used to give their land to tenants whom they exploited in every respect. Thus, ownership of land and their economic status were the fundamental sources of jagirdars' and zamindars' power in a village.

The caste leaders had social status in a village. Since caste councils were very powerful through severest sanctions, they could even ostracize defaulters from the caste. The leaders enjoyed great power over members. The village panchayats consisted of village elders from amongst all the major castes in the village. These were informal organizations. The members gathered whenever issues involving the interests of the village were to be decided.

After independence, the jagirdari and zamindari systems were abolished and many land reforms were introduced which weakened the traditional power structure and created a new power structure. In place of hereditary and caste leaders, elected persons with political backing became leaders. Individual merit and not caste or class became an important factor in leadership.

FIGURE: 10 POWER STRUCTURE IN PRESENT DAY RURAL INDIA
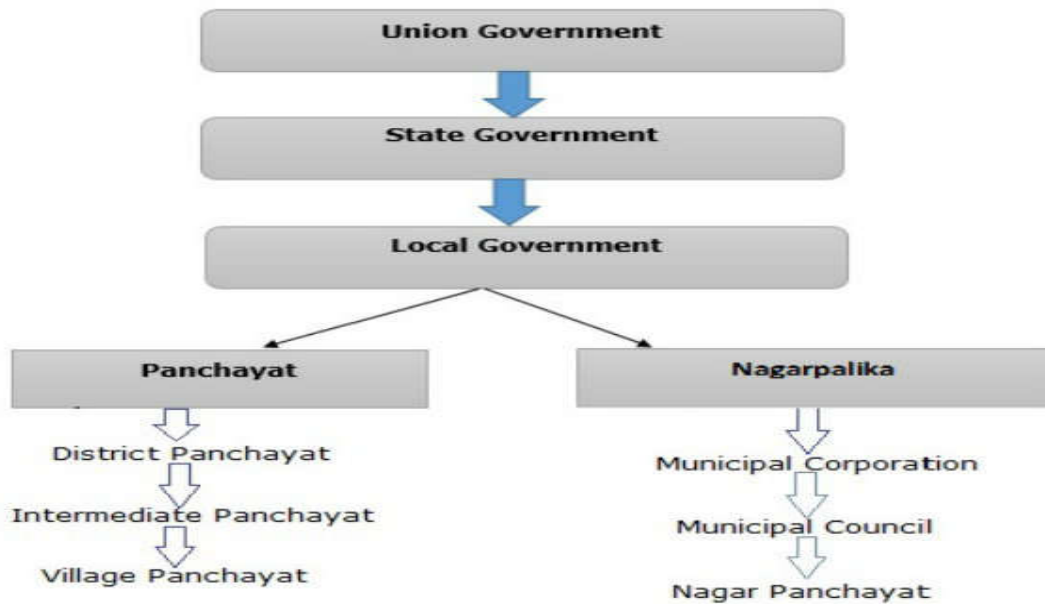
Yogendra Singh (1961) in his study of changing power structure in Uttar Pradesh villages concluded that the power system has a tendency to incline in favor of the groups which fulfill the economic expectations of the people in the village. Some studies in Haryana and Rajasthan villages conducted in the 1970s and the 1980s have also shown that linkages with politicians and officials have strengthened the already privileged position of the upper classes in rural stratification.

Andre Beteille noted in his study that power has become independent of class to a greater extent than in the past. Ownership of land is no longer the decisive factor in acquiring power. A.R. Hiraman (1977) has pointed out that the distribution of power and authority in the village does not show any correlation with landholding or caste.

Iqbal Narain and P.C. Mathur's study in Rajasthan (1969) concluded that the upper class continues to have a monopoly of leadership but new leadership of younger age group has also emerged at the village level. Sirsikar (1970), Carrass (1972), Inamdar (1971) Ram Reddy (1970), Ishwaran (1970), and Yogesh Atal (1971) also studied the impact of elections on finding base by the political parties in villages and the introduction of Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) on the nature of change in leadership pattern in the villages. Oommen (1969) also pointed out the influence of decentralised decision-making process on rural leadership and the character of the village community power structure.

CONFLICT THEORY

Conflict theory is a theoretical framework which sees society as divided by inequality and conflict. Conflict theorists see society less as a cohesive system and more an arena of conflict and power struggles.

Characteristics of rural conflicts:
The significant characteristics of the rural areas in India which are associated with certain conflicts are:

a) People are directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture and a large number of landowners have small and medium-sized landholdings.
b) The upper caste people still hold large lands while people of the lower castes own either marginal land or work as landless laborers.
c) Rural people are scattered in comparison to the urban people.
d) Not only the norms and values but the practices of the rural people too continue to be traditional.
e) The price the farmers get for their produces is less in relation to the work they put in.

Though the rural economic distress does not affect all farmers equally but the lower and middle-class farmers who are in a majority are forced to send their siblings to the urban areas to find new sources of livelihood. In cities, they are forced to remain in slums and work as daily wage-earners due to the lack of education and proper training. The political economy of the State and the correlation of class forces are primarily responsible for their plight.

The standard of living of the rural farmers is very low and their exploitation by big landlords, intermediaries and moneylenders is far greater. The other causes of rural conflicts are due to the fact that since the rural people do not live in concentrated masses, the availability of specialized services to them is minimal. This is true for medical, market, banking, transport, communication, education, recreation and many other necessary services for modern living. Thus, in a general way, people in the rural areas are at a great disadvantage and have to suffer many social problems leading to conflicts.

Social Problems and Social Change in India
Societies often face problems because of the imbalance in the forces of caste, race, gender, class, and so on. Social change is change in the patterned roles, or a change in the network of social relations, or in the structures and organization of a society. Social change is never complete or total; it is always partial. It can be minor or fundamental. Further, the change can be spontaneous or planned. Planned change is to achieve some set of collective ideals. For example, after Independence, India also had set some collective goals to achieve.

Some of the important changes that we find in our society since Independence are:
a. Change from tradition to modernity in certain values and institutions
b. Change from ascribed status to achieved status.
c. Change from predominance of primary groups to predominance of secondary groups.
d. Change from non-formal means of control to formal means of control
e. Change from collectivity to individualism

f. Change from non- and anti-scientific methods of investigation to scientific methods of investigation

g. Change from folkloric knowledge to rationalist knowledge

h. Change from homogeneity to heterogeneity

i. Change in the increasing awareness of rights among various sections of society due to the spread of education, weakening of the caste system and religious fundamentalism (needs critical debating), weakening of traditional sources of security, occupational mobility, enactment of several social laws, and so on.

FIGURE: 11 SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND CHANGE IN RURAL INDIA
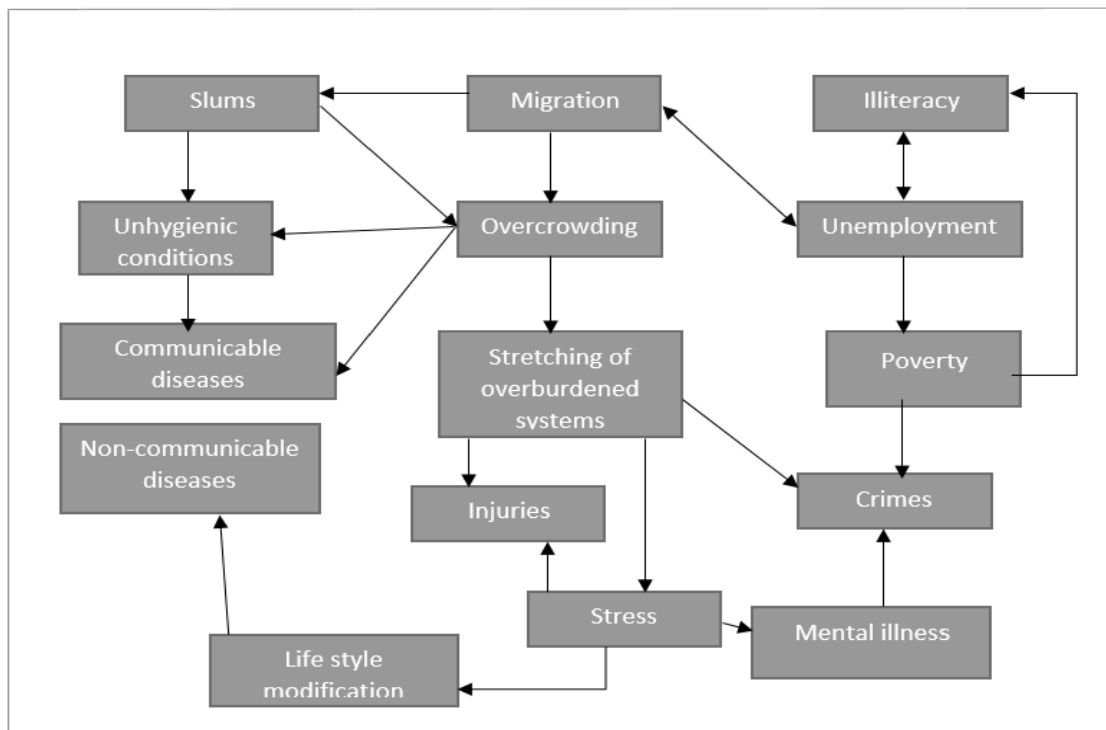
Though we have achieved many of the set collective goals, many contradictions have also set into our system. For example, accessibility to the legal system has become a problem for the common masses of our country. At times the forces of fundamentalism and parochialism destroy the ethos of nationalism by practicing casteism, regionalism, communalism, linguism, extremism, terrorism, and so on.

Many laws have been enacted but either these laws are full of loopholes or they are not properly implemented. Egalitarianism is enshrined in the Preamble of the Constitution of India but the State enforces discrimination in more ways than one. The State preaches cultural pluralism but falls prey to the fundamentalism of all hues. All these contradictions have increased discontent and pessimism among people which in turn have resulted in many social problems.

SOCIAL WORK - AS A PROFESSION FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

The social work profession is broader than most disciplines with regard to the range and types of problems addressed with the settings in which the work takes place, the levels of practice, interventions used, and populations served. Social workers maybe engaged in a variety of occupations ranging from hospitals, schools, clinics, police departments, and public agencies, court systems to private practices or businesses. The practice of social work requires knowledge of human development and behaviour of social, economic and cultural institutions and of the interaction of all these factors.

The main tasks of professional social workers can include a variety of services such as:
   a. case management (linking clients with agencies and programs that will meet their psychosocial needs),
   b. counselling (psychotherapy),
   c. human services management,
   d. social welfare policy analysis,
   e. policy and practice development,
   f. community organising,
   g. international, social and community development,
   h. advocacy,
   i. teaching (in schools of social work), and
   j. social research.

Social development is holistic approach of development whereas, community development restrict to geographical area like Tribal, Rural and Urban community. It concentrates on various sections of the society and target groups like Marginalized Sections, Religious groups and issue based activities. Community development adopts various techniques of social work to work with individuals groups and community.

Community organisation is the one of the important methods of social work. It helps consistently in the process of understanding community needs and finds the resources for fulfill the needs of community. *Prime purpose of social work towards community is to empower various sections of the society in all means.*

Role of Social Worker in Community Development
Social work is a vibrant profession and the longitudes and latitudes of the profession are vast. Direct roles of social worker begin with the practicing primary methods of social work.
   a. **Primary methods** are the participatory method with the individual, group and community.
   b. **Secondary methods** are both participatory and non-participatory to be used for the benefit of society at large.
   c. Therefore role of social worker is widened for the betterment of individual, group and community.

Social workers may play all of these roles in different contexts and at different times in their career; the roles are as follows:

a. **Case Worker**: One who looks after the issues of individual; s/he helps every problematic person in a holistic way. Case work is about addressing the personal issues of the every individual, who seek help from the case worker and solve them in a professional manner. Casework is done on a person-by-person basis, in situations where privacy is necessary in attending to individual problems.

b. **Group Worker**: S/he looks after the treatment and fulfilling the psychosocial needs of the problematic groups of the community. S/he constitutes teams, committees and invites delegates to fulfill the tasks of psychosocial needs of group members. S/he tries to develop leadership quality; increase awareness levels of group members on various issues, and educates them for sustainable development. Group work aims at the improved functioning of group members through greater ability for a mature relationship, self-awareness and a greater sense of belonging. Supportive treatments, such as clarification, suggestion, development of alternative solutions, and reflection, are used by social workers through group processes and interpersonal relationships. Social group work utilizes the group as a tool to bring about desired changes in social functioning with troubled persons (Farley et al, 2006:9).

FIGURE : 12 – ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKERS

c. **Community Organizer**: The major role of a social worker in community development begins with organising the community on various social issues. Initially, it is all about (Murry G. Ross 1955) bringing out the match between societal needs or objectives and resources available to deal with those needs. Doing so, s/he extends and develops cooperative and collaborative attitudes and practices in the community. Further community organizer must concentrate on developing skills of the members and create the political awareness among them, thereby community members will be more strengthened and this leads to individual and community development. In this method, s/he does not focus so much on the individual and his or her personal needs or the group and its viability as on the overall and general welfare needs of the community as a whole.

d. **Need Analyzer**: In order to fulfill the societal needs, scientific needs analysis must be undertaken, and the needs to be prioritized. Therefore, social workers analyze the needs of the

community with the help of community members and prioritize them. Various client groups, NGOs, govt officials of the community take active part in the process of needs analysis and brainstorming ideas of the community to be incorporated in the proposals of community development.

e. **Project manager**: Project or Programme sanctioned for community benefit is always headed by the professional social workers. Social worker have vital role in the need analysis, implement and manage the project, as they trained in preparing and administrate projects and they know the every pulse of the individual, group and community. Active participation with the various groups of the communities they can contribute extremely well for community development.

f. **Facilitator**: Social worker facilitates the various benefits provided by the govt, NGOs, international agencies like WHO, UNICEF, WTO, UNO, etc to the poor, socially excluded, disadvantaged or disempowered individuals and groups and marginalized sections of the society.

g. **Middle Manager**: A social worker who helps the community members to take the services from government; especially s/he is middle manager in arranging social security programmes, general insurances and health insurances provided to various beneficiary of the society. S/he is the true middle manager between government and community in collective bargaining.

h. **Counsellor**: Every individual of the society has a unique character and nature, therefore fulfilling individualized needs is the biggest task before social workers. Meaningful and scientific interaction between social worker and an individual of the community is expected in the purview of counselling, and is one of the solutions to address the issues of community members whose behaviour is problematic. Such effort helps to improve tolerance among all and it leads in to community development.

i. **Researcher**: A social worker takes the scientific investigation of the social and individual issues. Every community (Tribal, Rural, Urban) has its own issues which are the major obstacles of the development. Scientific, as well as, emotional investigation by the social worker may help every, individual, group, community and forecasted community development is made possible. Social workers are expected to use research to boost the profession's scientific status and as a tool for improving social conditions. These writers highlight four functions of social work research, notably: promoting the scientific method as a way of knowing; increasing accountability through program evaluation; facilitating information gathering and effective communication; and enhancing access to resources.

CONCLUSION

The spirit of India lives in villages and only by changing the face of rural areas, we can hope for a better future for the state and nation as a whole. Every individual in a society aspires to live a healthy, tolerant, safe, inclusive and fair life. Social work services have an essential contribution to make in achieving that goal. Social work education has many challenges, but with the effort of educators, field practitioners, and social work trainees it is turning towards to meet local needs and adopt local techniques to resolve issues of an individual, the group and the community by adopting Community Development skills. Community development is core component of social work and it concentrates on increase in the literacy rate, creates and generates employment opportunities, poverty eradication, and eradication of acute hunger, gender equality and welfare of the vulnerable sections of the society by adopting methods of social work. Social workers have vital role in understand our heritage of social work as well

as to understand and inculcate the professional skills of western practice of social work profession. Social workers with the knowledge of both literature and practice can immensely contribute for community development. Therefore there is need of well qualified, practice oriented and committed social workers, they can work for improve the socio- economic status, and quality of life for community members.

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IV.   COMMUNITY RESILIENCE

INTRODUCTION

WHAT IS COMMUNITY RESILIENCE?

Community resilience is the sustained ability of a community to utilize available resources (energy, communication, transportation, food, etc.) to respond to, withstand, and recover from adverse situations (e.g. economic collapse to global catastrophic risks). This allows for the adaptation and growth of a community after disaster strikes Communities that are resilient are able to minimize any disaster, making the return to normal life as effortless as possible. By implementing a community resilience plan, a community can come together and overcome any disaster, while rebuilding physically and economically.

FIGURE: 1 COMMUNITY RESILIENCE
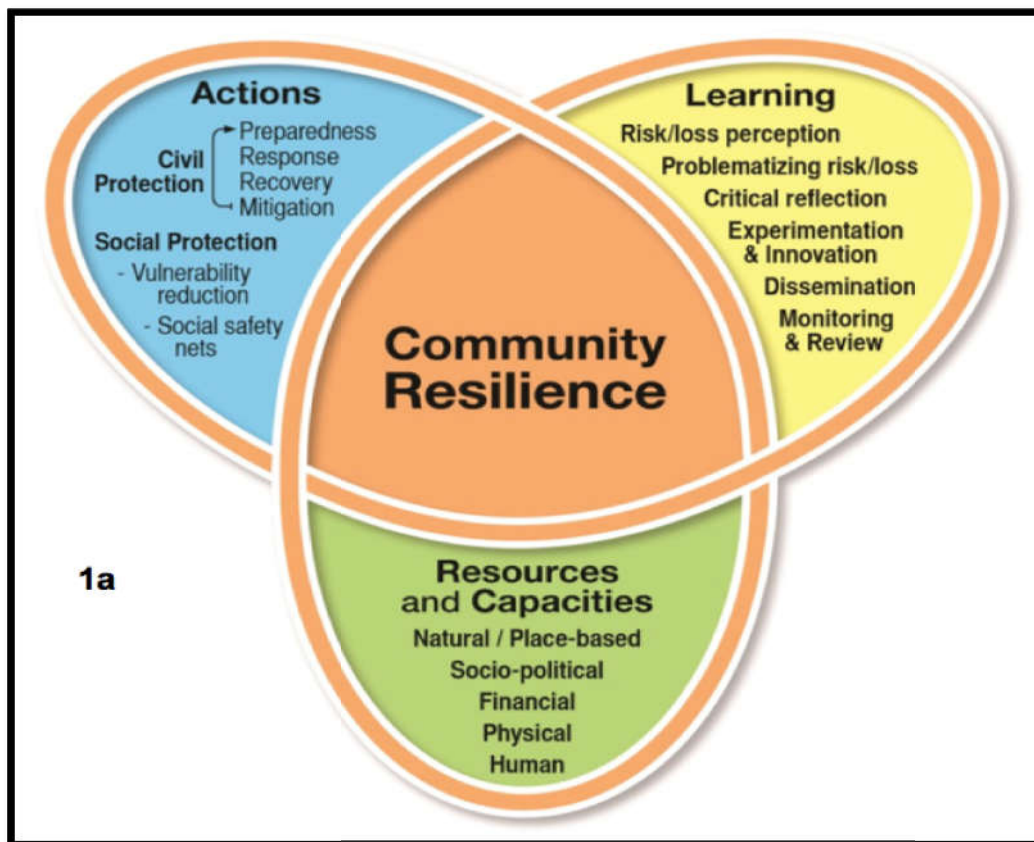
Figure 1: The embrace framework of community resilience in the face of disaster impacts - how community resilience is dependent upon learning, along with resources and capacities and appropriate effective actions.

Community Resilience Plan

A community resilience plan is an action plan that allows for a community to rebuild after disaster. The plan should entail specific guidelines that will aid the community to rebuild both the economy and the ecosystem that the community thrives on. This typically means there are measures in place that a community will follow, such as the distribution of volunteers, and the access to knowledge and resources necessary to rebuild. Adaptability is a key attribute which means prevention can occur in response or before disaster strikes. The National Institute of Standards and Technology has a Community Resilience Department tasked with solving this problem. This agency has created a Community Resilience Planning Guide, and its aim is to assist communities with anticipating challenges through a practical application that takes into account the social needs of the community as well as dependencies on the "built environment" - buildings and infrastructure systems.

Six Step Process

FIGURE: 2 THE OUTLINE OF THE SIX STEP PROCESS IS SHOWN BELOW

Step 1	• Form a collaborative planning team
Step 2	• Understand the situation
Step 3	• Determine the goals and objectives
Step 4	• Plan development
Step 5	• Plan preparation, review, and approval
Step 6	• Plan implementation and maintenance

Why is community resilience important?

Communities are increasingly complex, and so are the challenges they face. Human-caused and natural disasters are more frequent and costly. Factors like climate change, globalization, and increased urbanization can bring disaster related risks to greater numbers of people.

Addressing these threats calls for an approach that combines what we know about preparing for disasters with what we know about actions that strengthen communities every day. Community

resilience focuses on enhancing the day-to-day health and wellbeing of communities to reduce the negative impacts of disasters.

How are community resilience and disaster preparedness related?

Developing community resilience benefits disaster planners and community members alike. Community resilience expands the traditional preparedness approach by encouraging actions that build preparedness while also promoting strong community systems and addressing the many factors that contribute to health.

Key preparedness activities—such as continuity of operations plans for organizations, reunification plans for families, and compiling disaster kits and resources—continue to be essential, recommended steps to take. A resilience approach adds features like building social connectedness and improving everyday health, wellness, and community systems.

HOW DOES HEALTH FIT INTO COMMUNITY RESILIENCE?

Community resilience is the sustained ability of communities to withstand, adapt to, and recover from adversity.

Health—meaning physical, behavioural, social, and environmental health and wellbeing—is a big part of overall resilience. In many ways, health is a key foundation of resilience because almost everything we do to prepare for disaster and protect infrastructure is ultimately in the interest of preserving human health and welfare. The part of overall community resilience that involves health is called Community Health Resilience.

What makes a community healthy and resilient?

A resilient community is socially connected and has accessible health systems that are able to withstand disaster and foster community recovery. The community can take collective action after an adverse event because it has developed resources that reduce the impact of major disturbances and help protect people's health. Resilient communities promote individual and community physical, behavioural, and social health to strengthen their communities for daily, as well as extreme, challenges.

Strategies to build resilient communities:

Some considerations, adapted from the National Preparedness and Response Science Board's Community Health Resilience Recommendations are:

1. ***Strengthen—and promote access to—public health, healthcare, and social services:*** Strong day-to-day systems can be better leveraged to support health resilience during disasters and emergencies. In capable systems people know how to access care and are not limited by real or perceived barriers to services.
2. ***Promote health and wellness alongside disaster preparedness:*** Information and education that involve public health, behavioural health, emergency preparedness, and community health resilience interventions can help people face everyday challenges as well as major disruptions or

disasters. Optimal levels of physical and psychological health and well-being within the population facilitate the community's rapid recovery.

FIGURE: 3 STRATEGIES TO BUILD RESILIENT COMMUNITIES:

Strengthen—and promote access to—public health, healthcare, and social services

Promote health and wellness alongside disaster preparedness

Expand communication and collaboration

Engage at-risk individuals and the programs that serve them

Build social connectedness

3. ***Expand communication and collaboration:*** Build networks that include social services, behavioural health, community organizations, businesses, academia, at-risk individuals, and faith-based stakeholders in addition to traditional public health, healthcare, and emergency management partners.
4. ***Engage at-risk individuals and the programs that serve them:*** Engaging individuals with potential vulnerabilities to take an active part in protecting their health and aiding their community's resilience strengthens the community as a whole. Assist programs that serve at-risk individuals to develop robust disaster and continuity of operations plans.
5. ***Build social connectedness:*** People are more empowered to help one another after a major disturbance in communities in which members are regularly involved in each other's lives. Building social connectedness can be an important emergency preparedness action.

Individual's Health and Resilience

Individual's health and resilience is important for community resilience because healthy, socially connected, prepared people make for stronger communities that are better able to withstand, manage, and recover from disasters. People should try to:

1. Live a healthy lifestyle and learn skills to manage stress.
2. Maintain connections to meaningful groups like families, places of worship and volunteer organizations.
3. Be informed, educated, and able to help neighbours, family, and friends.
4. Engage in community or neighbourhood preparedness activities.

5. Create evacuation and family reunification plans.
6. Have a disaster kit and be able to shelter in place for 72 hours.
7. Take trainings like CPR, first aid, CERT, or psychological first aid.

FOOD SECURITY AND DISASTER RISK REDUCTION

Disasters and food insecurity are directly interconnected. Floods, hurricanes, tsunamis and other hazards can spoil food, destroy agricultural, livestock and fishing and food processing infrastructure, assets, inputs and production capacity. They interrupt market access, trade and food supply, reduce income, deplete savings and erode livelihoods. Drought, plant pests and diseases such as locusts and armyworms, animal diseases like swine fever, and food contamination or adulteration have a direct economic impact by reducing or eliminating farm production, by adversely affecting prices, trade, and market access and by decreasing farm income and employment.

Economic crises such as soaring food prices reduce real income, force the poor to sell their assets, decrease food consumption, and reduce their dietary diversity and access to safe and quality food. Disasters create poverty traps that increase the prevalence of food insecurity and malnutrition.

For these reasons, resilient livelihoods are critical to help the world's most vulnerable people achieve food security and the freedom from hunger — one of the most basic human rights. Disaster risk reduction is about protecting people's livelihoods from shocks, and strengthening their capacity to absorb the impact of, and recover from, disruptive events. Disaster risk reduction is a necessary ingredient for food and nutrition security, and for the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goal 2.

The Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) responded to the recommendations made by its governing bodies by developing a Disaster Risk Reduction for Food and Nutrition Security Framework Programme.
1. It expresses FAO's corporate commitment to reducing risks and building livelihood resilience thus protecting development gains.
2. It aims to scale-up and accelerate actions for disaster risk reduction at local, country, regional and global levels, building on FAO's existing technical capacities as well as on disaster risk reduction initiatives and good practices worldwide.
3. The FAO Disaster Risk Reduction for Food and Nutrition Security Framework Programme aims to provide strategic direction to the implementation of disaster risk reduction measures in member countries across the agricultural-related sectors in line with the Hyogo Framework for Action and its five priority areas.
4. In addition, it promotes an inter-disciplinary and programmatic approach to disaster risk reduction for food and nutrition security, by integrating the agriculture, livestock, fisheries, forestry and natural resource management sectors, to respond more effectively to the diverse livelihoods of small-scale farmers and to the complex set of factors which contribute to disaster risks.

At the core of the Disaster Risk Reduction for Food and Nutrition Security Framework Programme are four integrated thematic pillars:

1. **PILLAR 1 – ENABLE THE ENVIRONMENT**
    a. Institutional strengthening and good governance for DRR in agricultural sectors:
    b. Pillar 1 seeks to support the enabling environment of member countries, with appropriate legislation, policies and institutional frameworks for disaster risk reduction for food and nutrition security in agriculture, livestock, fisheries/aquaculture, forestry and natural resource management, and to strengthen the institutional capacities to implement these.
2. **PILLAR 2 – WATCH TO SAFEGUARD**
    a. Information and early warning systems on food and nutrition security and transboundary threats:
    b. Pillar 2 seeks to strengthen and harmonize food and nutrition security information and early warning systems to better monitor the multiple threats and inform decision-making in preparedness, response, policy, advocacy and programming.
3. **PILLAR 3 – APPLY PREVENTION AND MITIGATION MEASURES**
    a. Promotion and diversification of livelihoods with risk reducing technologies, approaches and practices across all agricultural sectors:
    b. Pillar 3 seeks to address the underlying risks to food and nutrition security and to apply prevention and impact mitigation measures through the application of technologies, good practices and approaches in farming, fisheries/aquaculture, forestry and natural resource management.
4. **PILLAR 4 – PREPARE TO RESPOND**
    a. Preparedness for effective response and recovery across all agricultural sectors:
    b. Pillar 4 seeks to strengthen capacities at all levels in preparedness to improve response to, and recovery from, future threats to food and nutrition security, and to reduce their potential negative impact on livelihoods.

Together, the four pillars address core themes for disaster risk reduction for food and nutrition security for the agricultural sectors. Each pillar directly contributes to one of the Priorities for Action in the Hyogo Framework for Action. The pillars include options for capacity development that indicate, by way of example, a range of technical services, technologies, good practices that FAO can provide, and from which member countries can select based on their needs and priorities.

The four pillars address DRR for agriculture and food and nutrition security as a whole. They are inter-dependent and mutually reinforcing. DRR for FNS promotes the integrated implementation of the four pillars for a more holistic approach, striving to maximize the synergies and complementarities between the pillars and hence the critical links between good governance, early warning, preparedness, mitigation and prevention for FNS risk reduction.

The four DRR for FNS cross-cutting priorities are in line with the core functions in FAO's Strategic Framework. They include:
    1) capacity development of member countries
    2) knowledge management and communication
    3) strategic partnerships
    4) gender equity

The Framework Programme gives strategic direction and guides the implementation of DRR measures for FNS in member countries. FAO has been implementing DRR related activities within the context of FAO's Strategic Framework and Programme of Work and Budget, including the development of regional programmes on DRR and disaster risk management. Building on FAO's existing DRR interventions, the DRR for FNS Framework Programme consolidates FAO's cross-sectoral expertise on DRR under one umbrella. It is a coherent corporate commitment for scaling-up DRR actions for FNS at local, country, regional and global levels.

Synergies between DRR and climate change adaptation for Food and Nutrition Security

The following table provides examples of the synergies between FAO's approach to DRR and climate change adaptation as it relates to FNS. This table should be used only as an indicative reference.

Examples of FAO Measures in DRR

PILLAR 1 - ENABLE THE ENVIRONMENT

Institutional Strengthening and Good Governance for DRR in all Agricultural Sectors

- Legislation on DRR that addresses FNS.
- Integration of DRR into agricultural and rural development policies, as well as agriculture included in DRR policies, and into poverty reduction strategies linked to agriculture, fisheries, forestry and natural resource management.
- Strengthen the capacity of line ministries, extension services and community-based organizations to implement legislation and policies on DRR.

PILLAR 2 - WATCH TO SAFEGUARD

Information and Early Warning Systems on Food and Nutrition Security and Transboundary Threats

- Strengthen baseline information: creating statistical baselines, mapping risks to agricultural livelihoods, and conducting vulnerability and risk assessment and analysis.
- Integrate and harmonize monitoring and early warning for threats to food and nutrition security: rainfall and vegetation monitoring, market analysis, food prices and food policies, livestock production monitoring, plant pests and diseases, and animal pests and diseases, food safety events and emergencies, food-borne diseases surveillance, fish disease monitoring, wild fire monitoring.
- Linking early warning with decision-making and appropriate communication products.

PILLAR 3 - APPLY PREVENTION AND MITIGATION MESURES

Promotion and Diversification of Livelihoods with Risk Reducing Technologies, Approaches and Practices across all Agricultural Sectors.

- Harness available knowledge and know-how, and promote the further application of proven technologies and practices.
- Promote the scaling-up of proven technologies.
- Adopt an inter-disciplinary and programmatic approach, integrating technologies and practices in agriculture, livestock, fisheries/aquaculture, forestry and natural resource management to benefit all livelihood systems and maximize the benefits.

Preparedness for Effective Response and Recovery across all Agricultural Sectors

- Support community-level preparedness: such as safe storage facility for seeds and harvest, livestock shelters, drainage networks, vegetation barriers, among others.
- Develop local and national preparedness / contingency plans for agriculture, fisheries, forestry, food safety emergencies. Integrate agriculture into inter-agency preparedness / contingency plans.
- Develop FAO Preparedness Plans at country level.

DRR – a cost effective investment in sustainable development

There is growing evidence of the economic benefits of DRR.

1. For every dollar spent on DRR, between 2 and 4 dollars are returned in terms of avoided or reduced disaster impacts.
2. DRR also safeguards development initiatives by ensuring that investments in the agricultural, livestock, forestry and fisheries/aquaculture sectors are less affected by hazards.
3. By building resilience and safeguarding investments, DRR helps the world's most vulnerable people become or remain food secure.
4. In short, DRR for FNS is vital for ensuring one of the most basic human rights — the right to food and freedom from hunger.
5. This in turn can have a multiplier effect and accelerate the achievement of Sustainable Development Goal 2.
6. In the future, greater coherence between humanitarian, development and investment strategies will be crucial.

Examples of FAO Measures to Support Climate Change Adaptation

- Integrate climate change adaptation into national and sub-national agriculture, forestry and fisheries sector policies and plans, land use and water policies, food security programmes, legal frameworks and investment priorities.
- Strengthen institutional capacities and coordination needed for climate change adaptation.
- Strengthen dialogue and networks and develop partnerships for adaptation.
- Enhance national capacities to access the financial resources available for climate change adaptation.

- Assess and monitor impacts of climate variability and climate change on agriculture, forestry and fisheries, and the livelihoods that rely on these sectors.
- Conduct integrated climate change vulnerability assessments for agriculture, forestry, and fisheries.
- Develop and disseminate guidelines, methodologies and tools for collection, processing and analysis of climate change-related data and information.
- Strengthen capacities on impact and vulnerability assessment.

- Promote the breeding and conservation of crops, trees, livestock and fish adapted to changed climate conditions.
- Support the development and dissemination of technologies and practices and enhance local knowledge to improve the adaptive capacity of production and management systems.
- Identify and promote ecosystem-based technologies and practices.
- Promote work on integrated food-energy systems.
- Support and promote diversification of livelihoods and income generation.

- Expand and scale-up preparedness planning, especially in areas expected to witness more intense climate hazards.
- Consider new and evolving risk scenarios linked to climate change.

Key Issues and Challenges in the Present Food Supply Chain during Disaster Situations in India :

1. **Limited role of state governments in food storage**: Central Government is responsible to provide food the States, therefore during an emergency, state governments have to wait for central government for supplying food. This takes lot of time.
2. **Rise in food prices during emergencies**: Food materials like wheat, rice, pulses, oils become unaffordable during catastrophes.
3. **Absence of Disaster Management Plan**: that provides information for local level food availability during times of disaster and engagement of the local community and capacity building of the Panchayats.
4. **Transportation and storage of food materials**: Many times there is shortage of trucks or the food gets spoilt during transportation due to humid weather and rains. Also due to shortage of Polythene sheets the food is left uncovered in open storage areas or godowns.
5. **Unplanned and Unequal distribution of food material/packets**: In the absence of proper distribution mechanisms or distribution charts, air dropped or manually distributed food packets do not reach all the victims. This results in stampedes, rioting and injuries during the distribution process.
6. **Socio Cultural differences between the various groups of the community**: there is exclusion of Below Poverty Line families from the community kitchens and other food distribution outlets.
7. **Failure of Public Distribution System** to deliver food on time.

In order to ensure food safety in disaster situations, the following steps are recommended:

1. Sharing of information on storage of food commodities in the stock by the Central government, thereby helping each state government to make contingency plans
2. Having coordination between Government and the Food Corporation of India to ensure safe storage and food security at community and family level
3. Having State level food storage systems along with current system for immediate needs
4. Conducting Minimum standard test for food before supply during disasters to ensure hygiene

5. Ensuring availability of food materials at block or Taluk level by the government
6. Providing food as per the needs of the different age groups
7. Having restriction on unsolicited food source
8. Integrating NREGS, National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM) and other agriculture development schemes etc along with collaborative efforts with Ministry of Food processing industries , Save the Grain Campaign, etc
9. Ensuring availability of safe cooked or dry food, medicines and water for both human and domestic animals during the time of disaster under community/ panchayat/block
10. Planting mango, jackfruit, cashew, tamarind, Jamun, guava, neem and large plants on a large scale and promoting processed food and other products to ensure livelihood and food security in the climatically disturbed areas.
11. Establishing Gene-seed-grain banks in every village.
12. Having long-term infrastructure and system arrangements to ensure disaster management at both community and government level prior to disaster.
13. Involve the community in preserving food material that can be stored and used for longer duration in times of disaster

Food safety during disaster requires multipronged approaches supported with science and technology (both modern and traditional). Systemic preparedness and community level approaches will not only ensure food safety but also manage to address larger livelihood security, human rights and gender equity related issues too.

EDUCATION & DISASTER RISK REDUCTION

Education is the key element for reducing disasters caused by natural hazards and achieving human security in the pursuit of sustainable development. The Hyogo Framework for Action 2005–2015 and "Words Into Action: A Guide for Implementing the Hyogo Framework" prepared by UN/ISDR emphasizes the role of formal and non-formal education and awareness raising as a core component of risk reduction initiatives.

Past experience, projects, and programs have revealed enormously positive effects of education for vulnerability reduction and disaster risk management. Children and adults who know how to react in case of a disaster, community leaders who have learned to warn their people in time, and whole social layers who have been taught how to prepare themselves for natural hazards have contributed to better mitigation strategies and dissemination of information on the dangers of hazards. Education and knowledge have provided people with tools for vulnerability reduction and life-improving self-help strategies. Furthermore, more stable and disaster resilient education facilities, such as school buildings, provide a shelter in case of hazards and must be strengthened and improved through better engineering and technical knowledge.

Education also plays a substantial role in improving risk assessment procedures in nearby communities, in encouraging people to engage in building up resiliency and to generally reduce risk elements in communities. For education on risk reduction to have its desired impact on communities, it needs to reach out to the remotest development worker in the field. Such education needs to be made accessible

and affordable for frontline practitioners who operate at community level and are often far removed from conventional knowledge centers such as universities.

Thus, while there is no argument that education is important, and it works, the challenge is how to effectively incorporate education for disaster reduction in the national and local government policy and programs, and how to reduce the gap between knowledge and practice through experiencing learning. A pro-active co-learning approach of linking school and formal education to community is the essential for the success of disaster education.

FIGURE : 4 – THE FOUR ELEMENTS OF DISASTER RISK REDUCTION
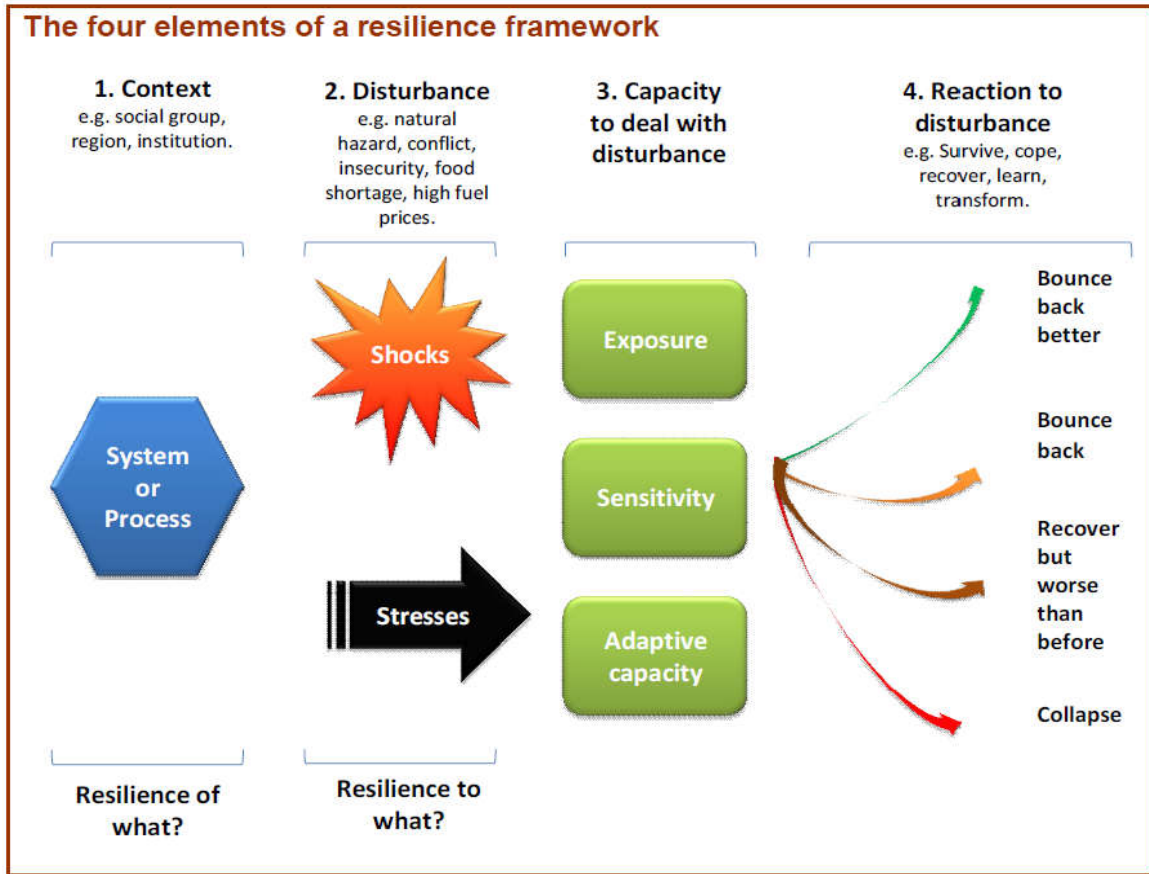
VULNERABILITY

The characteristics determined by physical, social, economic and environmental factors or processes which increase the susceptibility of an individual, a community, assets or systems to the impacts of hazards. -UNISDR Terminology (2017)

Vulnerability is one of the defining components of disaster risk.
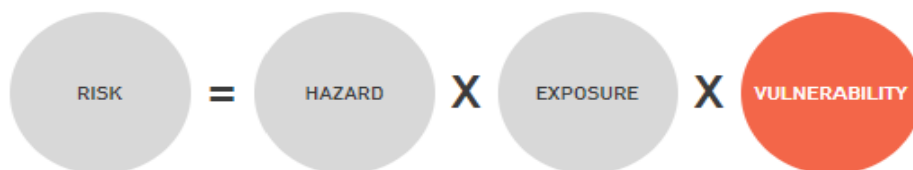
What makes people vulnerable?

Vulnerability is the human dimension of disasters and is the result of the range of economic, social, cultural, institutional, political and psychological factors that shape people's lives and the environment that they live in (Twigg, 2004).

Vulnerability can be a challenging concept to understand because it tends to mean different things to different people and because it is often described using a variety of terms including 'predisposition', 'fragility', 'weakness', 'deficiency' or 'lack of capacity'.

Some definitions of vulnerability have included exposure in addition to susceptibility to harm. However, it is now understood that exposure is separate to the 'susceptibility' element of vulnerability since it is possible to be exposed, whilst at the same time not susceptible to natural hazards.

Despite some divergence over the meaning of vulnerability, most experts agree that understanding vulnerability requires more than analysing the direct impacts of a hazard. Vulnerability also concerns the wider environmental and social conditions that limit people and communities to cope with the impact of hazard (Birkmann, 2006).

Vulnerability is complex . Vulnerability is not simply about poverty, but extensive research over the past 30 years has revealed that it is generally the poor who tend to suffer worst from disasters (Twigg, 2004; Wisner et al., 2004; UNISDR, 2009b). Poverty is both a driver and consequence of disaster risk (particularly in countries with weak risk governance) because economic pressures force people to live in unsafe locations and conditions (Wisner et al., 2004). Poverty and the other multi-dimensional factors and drivers that create vulnerability mean that susceptibility to the impacts of hazards is often, but not always, associated with certain groups, including women, children, the elderly, the disabled, migrants and displaced populations, amongst others.

Vulnerability relates to a number of factors, including:
1. **Physical factors:** e.g. poor design and construction of buildings, unregulated land use planning, etc.
2. **Social factors:** e.g. poverty and inequality, marginalisation, social exclusion and discrimination by gender, social status, disability and age (amongst other factors) psychological factors, etc.
3. **Economic factors: e.g**. the uninsured informal sector, vulnerable rural livelihoods, dependence on single industries, globalisation of business and supply chains, etc.
4. **Environmental factors:** e.g. poor environmental management, overconsumption of natural resources, decline of risk regulating ecosystem services, climate change, etc.
5. In addition, vulnerability is determined by historical, political, cultural and institutional and natural resource processes that shape the social and environmental conditions people find themselves existing within (IPCC, 2012). These processes produce a range of immediate unsafe conditions such as living in dangerous locations or in poor housing, ill-health, political tensions or a lack of local institutions or preparedness measures (DFID, 2004).

Many of the underlying drivers of vulnerability, including poorly managed urban development, are increasing, and resulting in vulnerability increasing in many countries and regions of the world. While

evidence suggests that wealthier, well governed countries are able to reduce disaster risks (UNISDR, 2009b, 2011, 2013), some countries have exhibited rapid economic growth in the last few decades without a commensurable rate of vulnerability reduction (UNISDR, 2015a).

Why does vulnerability matter?

By including vulnerability in our understanding of disaster risk, we acknowledge the fact that _disaster risk not only depends on the severity of hazard or the number of people or assets exposed, but that it is also a reflection of the susceptibility of people and economic assets to suffer loss and damage._ Levels of vulnerability (and exposure) help to explain why some non-extreme hazards can lead to extreme impacts and disasters, while some extreme events do not (IPCC, 2012).

In the context of extensive risk in particular, it is often people's vulnerability that is the greatest factor in determining their risk (UNISDR, 2009a).

In the context of different hazards, some groups are more susceptible to damage, loss and suffering than others and likewise (within these groups) some people experience higher levels of vulnerability than others (Wisner et al., 2004). Vulnerable groups find it hardest to reconstruct their livelihoods following a disaster, and this in turn makes them more vulnerable to the effects of subsequent hazard events (Wisner et al., 2004). Consequently, we have to reduce vulnerability in order to reduce disaster risk.

How do we measure vulnerability?

Vulnerability is complex**.** It has many dimensions, it is driven by factors at different levels, from local to global, and it is dynamic as it alters under the pressure of these driving forces (Twigg, 2004). Furthermore, the complex factors that make people vulnerable are not always immediately obvious.

The chain of causes of vulnerability, from the underlying drivers of vulnerability (e.g. socio-economic processes) to the immediate conditions that present themselves (e.g. poor quality housing), can be both long and complex; but by tracking it we can identify the progression of vulnerability that builds pressures on communities. These pressures can be released by taking measures to reduce vulnerability at various points along the causal chain (Twigg, 2004).

Owing to its different facets, _there is no one single method for assessing vulnerability_. Ideally, any assessment should adopt a holistic approach to assessing vulnerability. In reality, methods are usually divided into those that consider physical (or built environment) vulnerability and those that consider socio-economic vulnerability.

Assessing the vulnerability of the built environment to hazards is extremely important in assessing potential consequences of an event and for mainstreaming disaster risk reduction into the local development planning process. Understanding the response of existing structures to potential hazards, such as ground shaking from earthquakes and wind from tropical cyclones, requires the knowledge of building materials and engineering practices. This information base can only be reliably and sustainably developed at the local level (UNISDR, 2013).

Local engineers are increasingly dedicating themselves to understanding the vulnerability of their local building stock (which varies significantly from country to country and within countries) to different natural hazards. Engineers in the Philippines and Indonesia, for instance, are developing vulnerability calculations relevant to their own national building stocks. However these examples represent the exception. Likewise, opportunities for damage and loss data collection (critical to understanding futures risks) following disaster events continue to be missed (GFDRR, 2014a).

Efforts to quantify socio-economic vulnerability and poverty remain limited, and information of this kind is rarely integrated into risk assessments (GFDRR, 2014a). Quantifying social vulnerability remains a challenge, but indicators and indices to measure vulnerability have been created (quantified and descriptive), ranging from global indicators to those that are applied at the community level. These indicators are usually used to track changes in vulnerability over time. Qualitative approaches to vulnerability assessment have focused on the assessment of the capacity of communities to cope with natural events.

Vulnerability analysis not only involves understanding the root causes or drivers of vulnerability, but also people's capacities cope and recover from disasters

At the community level, a number of researchers and humanitarian and development non-governmental organisations, as well as some local governments, have implemented Vulnerability and Capacity Assessments (VCA), primarily through participatory methods. A VCA considers a wide range of environmental, economic, social, cultural, institutional and political pressures that create vulnerability and is approached through a number of different frameworks (Benson et al., 2007). According to Benson, VCA is typically applied as:

- A diagnostic tool to understand problems and their underlying causes.
- A planning tool to prioritise and sequence actions and inputs.
- A risk assessment tool to help assess specific risks.
- A tool for empowering and mobilising vulnerable communities.

By identifying their vulnerabilities and capacities, local communities identify strategies for immediate and longer-term risk reduction, as well as identifying what they can do themselves to reduce risk and where they need additional resources and external assistance.

How do we reduce vulnerability?

Since we cannot reduce the occurrence and severity of natural hazards, reducing vulnerability is one of the main opportunities for reducing disaster risk. Vulnerability changes over time because many of the processes that influence vulnerability are dynamic, including rapid urbanisation, environmental degradation, market conditions and demographic change (DFID, 2004). Many of these factors are rooted in changing local conditions, but the picture is incomplete without acknowledging the national and global socio-economic and political structures that constrain local development opportunities. This means that a coherent fight against vulnerability needs to take place at three scales: the local, national and international (DFID, 2004).

Approaches to vulnerability reduction include:

1. Implementing building codes
2. Insurance and social protection (risk)
3. Emphasising economic diversity and resilient livelihoods
4. Knowledge and awareness raising
5. Preparedness measures

Rather than focusing only on what limits people's ability to reduce their risk, the policy objective of disaster risk reduction (DRR) instead emphasises understanding people's capacity to resist and recover from disasters, as well as enhancing the overall resilience of people, society and systems. The local and traditional knowledge vulnerable communities possess to respond to disasters should form the basis of outside interventions to reduce disaster risk (Twigg, 2004).

Developing sustainable DRR capacities at national and local level requires that capacity locally generated, owned and sustained whilst also being the concern of society, rather than any single agency. Capacity development requires not only building technical capacities (such as environmental management) but also the promotion of leadership and other managerial and functional capacities. Finally, capacity development requires an enabling environment i.e. strong political ownership and commitment at the highest level (UNDP, 2010).

Case Study : Stabilising Livelihoods Through Participatory Community Based Preparedness

Exposed to floods, tropical cyclone or drought almost every year, Malda district in the State of West Bengal, in east India is also plagued by low agricultural production and lack of jobs. This situation has exacerbated migration, malnutrition and other related problems that increase vulnerability to disaster. Marginal farmers and landless labourers, who form over 70% of the district's population, are the most affected. In February 2006, World Vision India, in partnership with the Government of India and UNICEF, initiated a project aimed at strengthening community disaster preparedness and mitigation, while providing wealth creation and income diversification opportunities. Targeting 15,000 vulnerable farmers and marginalized persons, with a special focus on children, the project worked to improve livelihoods as a disaster risk 'safeguard'. Focused support was provided through the following strategies:

1. Awareness of disaster response and preparedness measures was significantly enhanced through the distribution of learning materials to elementary school children.
2. Local Relief Action Teams were formed with village volunteers, including women and youth, who are now trained in first aid, rescue and coordination with the local government structures in times of disaster.
3. Livelihoods and infrastructure development was initiated to address some of the immediate economic and physical barriers to disaster resilience.
4. Vulnerability assessments were conducted and 50 families were assisted with access to income generation activities, including women-headed households.
5. The project also involved the community in the restoration of ponds, installation of tube wells, digging of open wells, construction of roads and the building of two relief centres.

6. Working with children's clubs to enable community members to access disaster preparedness materials and drill exercises through children. This activity ensures that preparedness reaches all households – including illiterate households that cannot make use of educational materials.

7. Relationships have been established with the local government through ongoing meetings and communications on the project. This has ensured the cooperation of the local government and provision of ongoing support for community capacity-training sessions.

The project's success is now being replicated in 92 villages – thus integrating poverty reduction and disaster risk reduction in World Vision's programme strategy.

DISASTER MANAGEMENT

Disaster is a calamity of sudden occurrence, a catastrophe causing injury and death to a large number of people during a short span of time. WHO defines a disaster "as any occurrence that causes damage, economic disruption, loss of human life and deterioration of health and health services on a scale sufficient to warrant an extraordinary response from outside the effected community or area." The health care system including hospitals and public health infrastructure of the area must be organised and ready to act in mass emergency situations. And therefore, it must be conversant with the type of measures to be taken in the event of a disaster. District Medical and Health authorities are the key institutions in planning and management of health services on area-wide basis for disasters. Hospitals and health centres participate in the local medical effort.

FIGURE: 5 - DISASTER CLASSIFICATION
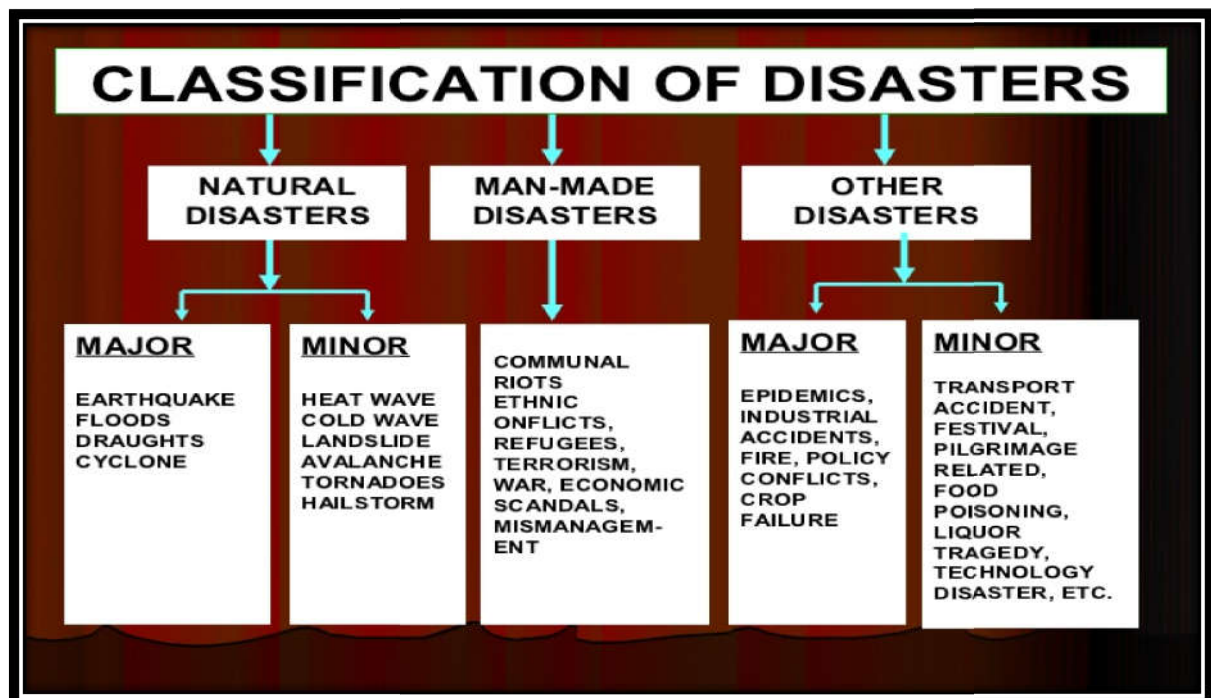
Generally a disaster evolves in phases, as under. Out of these, the reconstruction and rehabilitation phase lasts the longest, depending on the resources of the community and administrative authorities.

FIGURE: 6 DISASTER MANGEMENT PROCESS

Pre disaster phase

↓

Alert phase

↓

Impact phase

↓

Post impact phase

↓

Relief and rehabilitation phase
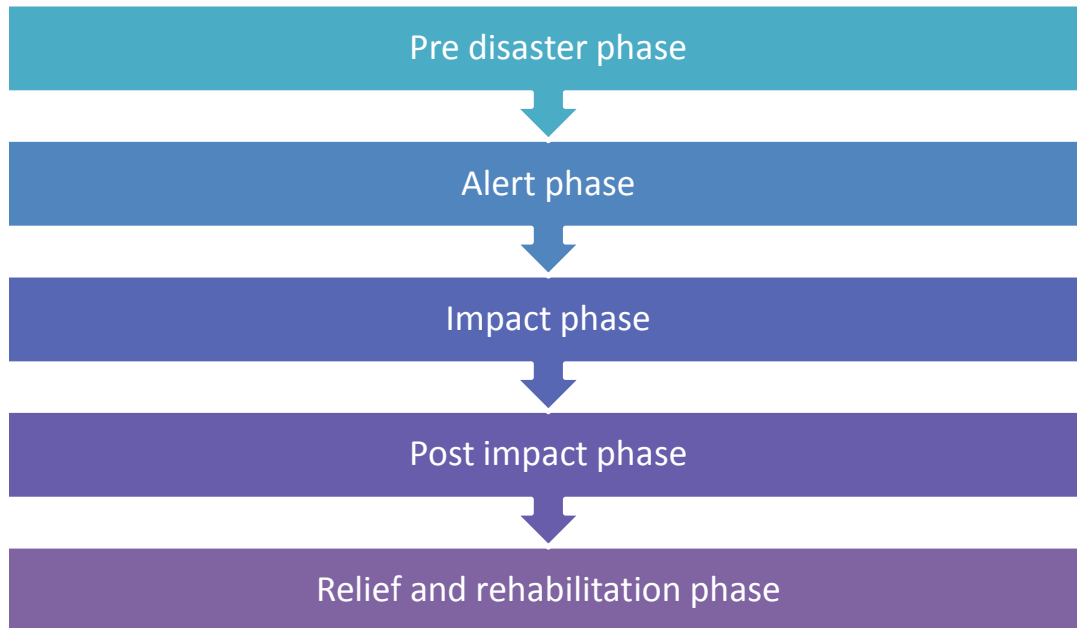
1. **Pre disaster Phase** – Before a disaster strikes a community has to **assess risks**, **train the people** to be prepared, and plan programmes **to avert a disaster**, if possible. It can do this itself but external help is very desirable.
   - *Risk assessment* - The aim is to make people both aware of the nature of particular local risks and ready to respond promptly in their area. It is meant to demonstrate those risk factors that need to be addressed in order to mitigate the effects of the disaster.
   - *Training* - Training for preparedness is the key to successfully deal with disasters.
2. The **alert phase** refers to the period when a **disaster is developing**. The duration of the alert phase varies according to the type of disaster, for example, it is non-existent for earthquakes, short but crucial in case of hurricanes, and quite long in case of draught and famine.
3. The **Impact phase :** The needs of the community during this phase depend largely on the characteristics of the disaster and the degree of preparedness. Most deaths in earthquakes are due to crushing injuries, occur immediately or soon after the impact. Earthquakes at night are more deadly. During the night fractures of pelvis, thorax and spine are common because people are lying in bed. In the daytime, injuries to the arms and legs, collarbone and skull frequently occur. The immediate response should not await a detailed assessment of impact. The effectiveness of the relief effort will depend entirely on local efforts, on how adequately the community is prepared.

During this phase, planning will include activation of the response mechanism, daily monitoring; updating of response measures, if necessary; and coordinating outside assistance.

4. **Post impact phase** - This phase may vary between a few days and several months following the initial impact. The following actions will be required during this phase:
   - **Evacuating** the survivors to safe areas and provide shelters to the homeless.

- Providing **food** and **water**.
- Continuing the **triage and transportation of the injured to appropriate facilities**.
- **Restabilising health care facilities.**
- **Restabilising** primary **sanitary measures** to prevent outbreak of epidemics. The destruction of sanitary and sewage facilities due to disaster leads to indiscreet disposal of liquid and solid waste and excreta, creating insanitary conditions adding to the problem. Health implications in these situations usually manifest in the form of food and water-borne disease.

5. **Relief and Rehabilitation phase-** Disaster relief (or emergency management) refers to the process of responding to a catastrophic situation, providing humanitarian aid to persons and communities who have suffered from some form of disaster. It involves dealing with and avoiding risks and preparing, supporting, and rebuilding society when natural or human-made disasters occur. In general, any emergency management is the continuous process by which all individuals, groups, and communities manage hazards in an effort to avoid or limit the impact of disasters resulting from the hazards. Actions taken depend in part on perceptions of risk of those exposed. Effective emergency management relies on thorough integration of emergency plans at all levels of government and non-government involvement. Activities at each level (individual, group, community) affect the other levels. It is common to place the responsibility for governmental emergency management with the institutions for civil defence or within the conventional structure of the emergency services. International humanitarian associations, such as the Red Cross, provide aid to disaster victims throughout the world.

While disasters are by definition tragic, resulting in great loss of material goods and property, as well as injury and loss of life, disaster relief is a truly human response. When people see those in need, even far away and in circumstances entirely foreign, the desire to help comes from the empathy felt for human brothers and sisters. As technology and human consciousness has developed, the desire and ability to help others, crossing geographical distance and cultural and national boundaries has also developed

FIGURE: 7 - DISASTER PHASES AND RESPONSES
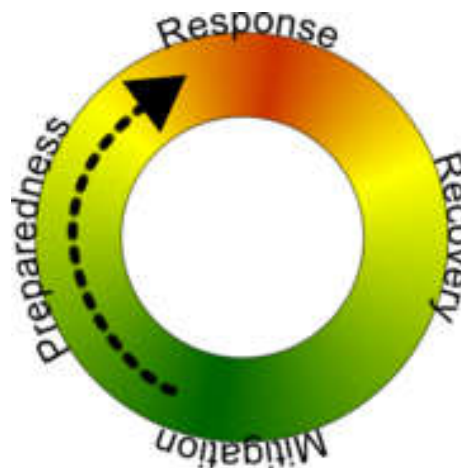
A graphic representation of the four phases in emergency management.

The nature of emergency management is highly dependent on economic and social conditions local to the emergency, or disaster. The cycle of emergency management must, therefore, include long-term

work on infrastructure, public awareness, and even human justice issues. This is particularly important in developing nations.

The process of emergency management involves four phases:

1. Mitigation
2. Preparedness
3. Response, and
4. Recovery

1. Mitigation

Mitigation efforts attempt to prevent hazards from developing into disasters altogether, or to reduce the effects of disasters when they occur. The mitigation phase differs from the other phases because it focuses on long-term measures for reducing or eliminating risk. The implementation of mitigation strategies can be considered a part of the recovery process if applied after a disaster occurs. However, even if applied as part of recovery efforts, actions that reduce or eliminate risk over time are still considered mitigation efforts.

FIGURE: 8 - DISASTER MITIGATION:
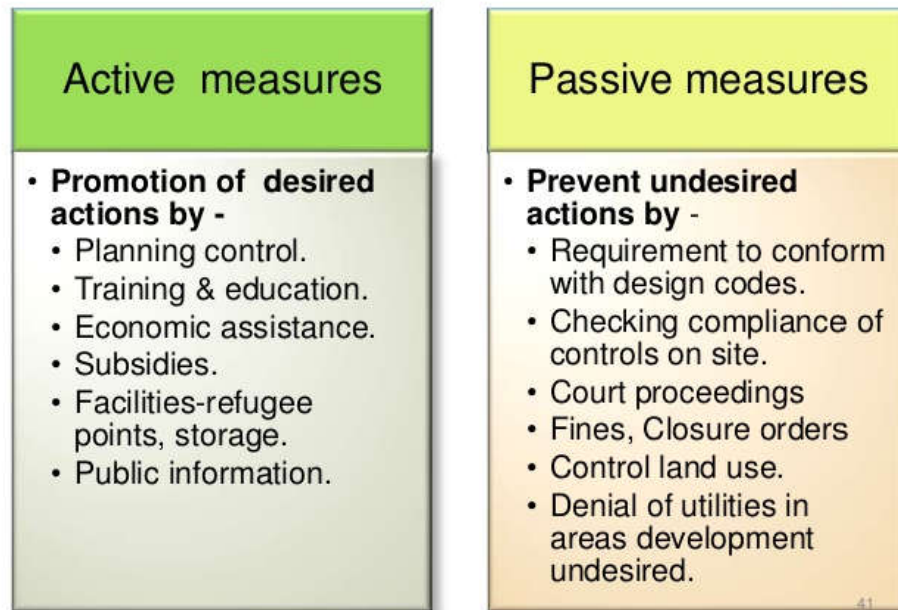
Mitigation measures can be structural or non-structural.

Structural measures use technological solutions, like flood levees. **Non-structural measures** include legislation, land-use planning (such as the designation of nonessential land like parks to be used as flood zones), and insurance. Mitigation is the most cost-efficient method for reducing the impact of hazards. However, mitigation is not always suitable and structural mitigation in particular may have adverse effects on the ecosystem.

A precursor activity to the mitigation is the identification of risks. Physical risk assessment refers to the process of identifying and evaluating hazards. In risk assessment, various hazards (earthquakes, floods, riots, and so forth) within a certain area are identified. Each hazard poses a risk to the population within the area assessed. The hazard-specific risk combines both the probability and the level of impact of a specific hazard. It is said that the hazard in accordance with the populations vuln7erability to disasters or dangers show the degree of risk for a population. Of course, there are contributing factors to both hazard and vulnerability. Population size, whether disasters occurred in the area previously, how recent the last disaster was, how much government aid is being pushed into disaster preparation, and how many people decide to leave the area before an imminent disaster are all to be taken into consideration when accounting for risk. Catastrophe modelling tools are used to support the calculation. The higher the risk, the more urgent that the hazard specific vulnerabilities are targeted by mitigation and preparedness efforts. However, if there is no vulnerability there will be no risk, for example, an earthquake that occurs in a desert where nobody lives.

An example of personal non-structural mitigation would be to avoid buying property that is exposed to hazards, such as in a flood plain, in areas of subsidence or landslides. Homeowners may not be aware of their home being exposed to a hazard until it strikes. Real estate agents may not come forward with such information. However, specialists can be hired to conduct risk assessment surveys. Insurance covering the most prominent identified risks are a common measure.

Personal structural mitigation in earthquake-prone areas include installation of an earthquake valve to instantly shut off the natural gas supply to the property, seismic retrofits of property, and the securing of items inside the building to enhance household seismic safety, such as the mounting of furniture, refrigerators, water heaters, and breakables to the walls, and the addition of cabinet latches. In flood prone areas, houses can be built on poles, like in much of southern Asia. In areas prone to prolonged electricity black-outs, a generator would be an example of an optimal structural mitigation measure. The construction of storm cellars and fallout shelters are further examples of personal mitigate actions.

2. **Preparedness**

In the preparedness phase, emergency managers develop plans of action for when the disaster strikes. Common preparedness measures include the communication of plans with easily understandable terminology and a chain of command, along with the development and practice of multi-agency coordination and incident command. Proper maintenance and training of emergency services is also important. Developing and exercising an emergency population warning, construction plans for emergency shelters, and emergency evacuation plans are all of utmost importance. Survival is also dependent upon stockpiling inventory and supplies, which should be done in bulk, or at least substantial numbers.

FIGURE : 9 - DISASTER PREPAREDNESS

An efficient preparedness measure is an emergency operations centre (EOC) combined with a practiced region-wide doctrine for managing emergencies. Another preparedness measure is to develop a volunteer response capability among civilian populations. Since volunteer response is not as predictable and coordinated as professional response, volunteers are most effectively deployed on the periphery of an emergency.

Unlike mitigation activities, which are aimed at preventing a disaster from occurring, personal preparedness focuses on preparing equipment and procedures for use *when* a disaster occurs. Preparedness measures can take many forms including the construction of shelters, installation of warning devices, creation of back-up life-line services (power, water, sewage), and rehearsing evacuation plans. Two simple measures can help prepare the individual for sitting out the event or evacuating, as necessary. For evacuation, a disaster supplies kit may be prepared and for sheltering purposes, a stockpile of supplies may be created. The preparation of a survival kit, commonly referred to as a "72-hour kit," is often advocated by authorities. These kits may include food, medicine, flashlights, candles, and money.

3. **Response**

The response phase includes the mobilization of the necessary emergency services and first responders in the disaster area. This is likely to include a first wave of core emergency services, such as fire-fighters, police, and ambulance crews. They may be supported by a number of secondary emergency services, such as specialist rescue teams.

Individuals are often compelled to volunteer directly after a disaster. Volunteers can be both a help and a hindrance to emergency management and other relief agencies. A spontaneous, unaffiliated volunteer can harm recovery efforts of a disaster.

On a personal level, the response can take the shape either of a *home confinement* or an *evacuation.* In a home confinement scenario, a family should be prepared to fend for themselves in their home for many days without any form of outside support. In an *evacuation* scenario, a family evacuates by an automobile (or other mode of transportation) with the maximum amount of supplies, including a tent for shelter. The scenario could also include

equipment for evacuation on foot with at least three days of supplies and rain-tight bedding. A tarpaulin and a bedroll of blankets is the minimum.

4. **Recovery**

The aim of the recovery phase is to restore the affected area to its previous state. It differs from the response phase in its focus; recovery efforts are concerned with issues and decisions that must be made after immediate needs are addressed. Recovery efforts are primarily concerned with actions that involve rebuilding destroyed property, re-employment, and the repair of other essential infrastructure. An important aspect of effective recovery efforts is taking advantage of a "window of opportunity" for the implementation of mitigative measures that might otherwise be unpopular. Citizens of the affected area are more likely to accept more mitigative changes when a recent disaster is in fresh memory.

FIGURE: 10 - DISASTER RECOVERY PLANNING:

The recovery phase starts when the immediate threat to human life has subsided. In this phase, it is recommended to reconsider the location or construction material of the property.

In long term disasters, the most extreme home confinement scenarios like war, famine, and severe epidemics last up to a year. In this situation, the recovery will take place inside the home. Planners for these events usually buy bulk foods and appropriate storage and preparation equipment, and eat the food as part of normal life. A simple balanced diet can be constructed from vitamin pills, whole-meal wheat, beans, dried milk, corn, and cooking oil. Vegetables, fruits, spices, and meats should be added when possible.

From Reconstruction to Rehabilitation

The reconstruction of shelter and community infrastructure, in fact, forms an important entry point for the rehabilitation process.A reconstruction program is the first step towards restoring and upgrading local habitat. It introduces improved systems of building, sets up basic building element supply, builds up the skills and management capacity of families, local agencies and village artisans in a restricted area and sets up local information and knowledge systems. All these to enable "better building".

Re-establishing people's lives through rehabilitation efforts involves:

- Moving up the ladder from house to habitat to livelihood
- Local awareness creation including training for all so that people gain control over the housing process.
- Capacity Building and linking to enterprises-Livelihood support
- Devising livelihood interventions in the farm and non-farm sectors based on new economic opportunities to create economic surpluses (that can be directed to responsive housing)
- Creating a basis for community access to institutional housing finance

A Response Strategy - Facilitating the Creation of Sustainable Livelihoods

An effective response strategy is to understand the need for building materials, buildings and livelihoods and catalyze the conversion of this need into demand. The demand for (sustainable) building technologies and construction practices can be provided through sustainable enterprise.

This response strategy addresses the present (immediate) need of reconstruction through local building technology-based enterprises. Reconstruction activities, if designed to include local manpower, provide the essential (albeit short term) jobs leading to an immediate spurt in the local economy. At the same time, building material and skill based local enterprises ensure continuous supply of quality building materials and skills. In the long term this is likely to result in a sustainable improvement in shelter conditions while also enlarging livelihood options in the region.

The reconstruction program at the outset provides a major advantage to the new enterprises. It forms the initial captive market, provides critical visibility to the new technologies and improved systems of construction and also (if systematically approached) builds up the acceptance of these new "products" in the market. A sensitive reconstruction program will necessarily involve an accompanying process of educating the affected population on the aspects of safer construction; thus inculcating an appreciation of the improved systems. After the initial reconstruction phase, families would preferentially opt for these materials and techniques to extend their houses.

An important aspect here is that new materials and techniques should match the paying capacity of the targeted communities. A multi-pronged approach is required here:

1. First, the selection of the improved technologies and construction systems should bear in mind the long-term affordability of the affected population. This involves correct selection of raw materials, production processes and scales of delivery. An optimum combination of large industry based materials and village enterprise based production with materials sourced from regional building centres.

2. Secondly, a parallel intervention in improving quality of life through enlarged livelihood options and improved land, water, resource management practices resulting in enhanced purchasing power within communities.

3. And, thirdly, interventions of housing and livelihood finance are required that enable people to access available building options.

Example : The Ashraya Core House Construction Program in Orissa, in partnership with CARE India designed to respond to the reconstruction needs after the super cyclone in October 1999. It addressed the immediate shelter needs of about 1400 families by providing a fast response to construct Core Shelter. At the same time a "process" has been initiated to ensure long term habitat improvement in the region.

The nucleus of the Ashraya Program is the Building Materials and Services Bank (BMSB); the local production and supply centre for improved building materials, elements and skills.

At present two such centres are in operation and a third is being set up, each influencing an area of 50 km radius. Currently each BMSB is providing direct jobs for up to 15 skilled and 45 semi-skilled workers. These facilitate more than a 100 upstream and downstream jobs related to delivery of elements and for the construction of houses.

These building material production centres or the Building Materials and Services Banks are managed by local NGOs with the production component sub-contracted to local community groups. At present, these centres supply improved building elements, technology and skills for the ongoing Rehabilitation Program. In the long run, they are envisaged as centres for total habitat guidance to the village community on housing, sanitation, domestic energy, water storage etc. These would be **one-stop shops** for all local habitat needs including access to housing finances.

The BMSBs are centralized production and service hubs at the moment but these are designed to eventually fission into down-scaled building material enterprises to become the nuclei of a large number of decentralized production units spread throughout the region.

The technology transfer process during the core house construction is already facilitating building material production and construction based livelihoods. This is designed to introduce new skills and capacity for improved cyclone resistant building systems within the local area in the form of enterprises. These enterprises would continue to build new houses, extend and upgrade old houses long after the immediate reconstruction interventions are over.

The project funds in the short term will lead to the construction of 1400 houses and set up building material based enterprises; and as investments in livelihoods, capacity building and information dissemination these would pay dividends by way of

1. Enabled, informed communities

2. Enhanced building material supply.

3. Improved economies

DFID LIVELIHOOD MODELS (5 CAPITALS)

The sustainable livelihoods framework seeks to take a more comprehensive and integrated approach to poverty than traditional interpretations, which largely considered poverty in relation to a narrow set of indicators (such as income and productivity). Building upon prior work by organizations such as the Institute for Development Studies at the University of Sussex and Oxfam, The British Department for International Development (DFID) Sustainable Livelihoods Framework was developed in order to organize and improve organizations' efforts to eliminate poverty. The framework aims to present these primary factors, their significance, and the nature of their interactions.

FIGURE: 11 - DFID LIVELIHOOD MODEL
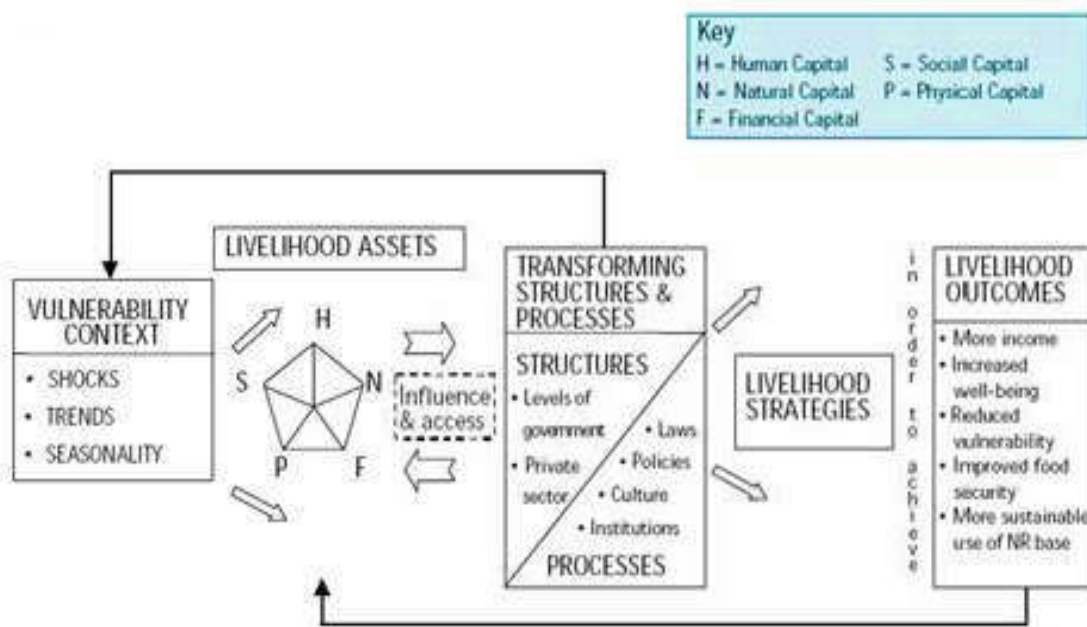
It consists of five major components that are related through sequential relationships and feedback. These include:

1. **Vulnerability Context** *:* The vulnerability context describes the external uncontrollable factors that influence people's assets and livelihood opportunities. Broadly, these factors are classified as:
   1. *Shocks* (e.g. environmental, conflict-related);
   2. *Trends* (e.g. resources, technology);
   3. *Seasonality* (e.g. price fluctuations, employment opportunities)

   How to influence: In the short- to medium-term, there is little that people can do to affect the vulnerability context itself. However, humanitarian and development agencies can play a critical role in promoting resilience to these factors by increasing access to insurance,

improving institutional response capacity, and implementing other resiliency-promotion programs.

2. **Livelihood assets** The DFID framework outlines assets in terms of five categories necessary for the pursuit of positive livelihood outcomes:
    1. *Human capital* (i.e. the amount and quality of knowledge and labour available in a household)
    2. *Natural capital* (i.e. the quality and quantity of natural resources, ranging from fisheries to air quality)
    3. *Financial capital* (i.e. savings and regular inflows of money)
    4. *Physical capital* (i.e. the infrastructure, tools, and equipment used for increasing productivity)
    5. *Social capital* (i.e. social resources, including networks for cooperation, mutual trust, and support)

    How to influence: This element of the framework utilizes a pentagon to describe livelihood assets, with each point assigned to a particular type of asset so that the shape of the pentagon changes as stores of certain types increase. When addressing this component of the framework, humanitarian and development agencies should pay attention to two considerations in particular: the sequence in which certain assets contribute most effectively to the attainment of others, and instances when certain types of assets can be substituted for other types (e.g. human capital for financial). As people acquire more assets, they will become more empowered to influence the next component of the framework, the structures and processes that affect them.

3. **Transforming structures and processes**: Here, "structures" refer to the organizations that create and enforce legislation, provide the necessary requirements for acquiring and capitalizing upon assets (e.g. private suppliers of materials for building shelters), manage natural resources, and provide other services crucial for gaining access to assets, exchanging them, and benefiting from their use. Meanwhile, "processes" determine the interactions between the structures and individuals. Examples of processes include policies, legislation, power relations, norms, market stability, and general rule of law.[5]

    How to influence: Structures must be accompanied by appropriate policies if they are to have any impact on the poor, while policies must be implemented by competent structures if they are to be carried out in the intended manner. Still, humanitarian and development organizations can take steps to improve structures and processes individually. Organizations should focus on building institutions' capacity to represent interests of the poor, provide training so as to reduce the market gap in goods and services, and bring together different organizations and interests through joint forums. Likewise, they should support participatory models of policy formulation, increase the accountability and transparency of institutions, support the expansion of social safety net policies, and direct other efforts toward elevating the voice of the poor in policies, legislation, and institutions.

4. **Livelihood strategies***:* Livelihood strategies concern the individual's available and implemented options for pursuing livelihood goals. The greater the diversity of livelihood strategies, the higher the household's resilience to the shocks, trends, and seasonality conditions within the vulnerability context.

   How to influence: In accordance with a sustainable livelihoods approach, humanitarian and development agencies should look to promote those underlying conditions that provide the greatest diversity of choice and flexibility in the pursuit of maintaining a livelihood. In doing so, agencies should focus on expanding access to a variety of capital assets and supporting the improvement of the structures and processes that shape livelihoods. These efforts should be complemented by attention to the social safety nets provided to those who are unable to achieve livelihood objectives through the market system.

5. **Livelihood outcomes***:* Livelihood outcomes refer to the outputs of livelihood strategies. Achievements may include higher income, greater well-being (e.g. self-esteem, physical security, political empowerment), reduced vulnerability, greater food security, and/or improved environmental sustainability.

   How to influence: The balance of livelihood goals indicates motivations for behaviour, livelihood priorities, and, in turn, the types of activities that humanitarian and development agencies should implement. Of course, livelihood outcomes are not always coherent; they oftentimes conflict, as when the pursuit for income comes at the expense of environmental sustainability. Thus, while the primary goal of agencies is to support the achievement of positive livelihood outputs, conflicting outcomes, the difficulty of translating outputs into indicators of success, and lack of objectivity in the monitoring process make an output-based set of indicators complicated.

Comparing the DFID Sustainable Livelihoods Framework to Others

The DFID framework is but one proposed mode. CARE, Oxfam, and UNDP and others have also used sustainable livelihoods models in their programming. While similar in many ways, all models differ slightly in the components of the framework, their emphasis on each part, and the extent to which they implement the framework into their development programs.

CARE, for instance, puts less emphasis on the structures and processes since its programs are largely focused on delivering assistance at the local level.[9] Because of the decentralized nature of Oxfam's structure, their framework is used to varying degrees in their programs across the world. UNDP, meanwhile, differs from DFID in that it promotes adaptive strategies rather than transforming structures and processes. Conceptions of sustainability, too, differ across organizations: for example, interpretations focused on household livelihood security (such as CARE's) can come to conflict with ones that involve broader environmental protection.

Here we devote the greatest attention to the DFID model because it was developed most recently (and therefore incorporates many elements from the others) and because it is one of the most prominent frameworks among the others

Benefits and Criticisms of the DFID Sustainable Livelihoods Approach

A sustainable livelihoods approach empowers the poor by seeing them not as victims, but as decision-makers with their own sets of priorities. Its transcendence of a sector-by-sector view of development accommodates the variety of economic activities an individual may rely on in order to subsist. To this end, the livelihoods approach takes a more holistic view of poverty, considering multiple resources beyond income levels and productivity; the DFID approach is especially unique in its inclusion of environmental sustainability as a consideration of relevance to poverty.

That said, the approach is not without criticism. Critical points include:
1. Lack of guidelines on classifying individuals as "poor".
2. Not enough emphasis is given to the informal structures and processes that affect access within the community.
3. While the frameworks make note of gender considerations, attempts to increase the voice of women are difficult to achieve successfully in practice.. [10]
4. The livelihoods framework is incongruent with the conditions of the existent context: government ministries are grouped by sector, as are most standing development projects. It is impractical to employ a framework that does not take into account the nature of these structures.
5. Local organizations may not have the capacity to carry out the type of analytical research integral to the sustainable livelihoods approach to development.[11]
6. Though the sustainable livelihoods approach has a number of weaknesses to be remedied, the approach marks a positive change from the previous approach to poverty alleviation. Its holistic view of individuals' sources of income and critical resources for households departs from the traditional income-centric view of livelihood promotion. Likewise, its approach to development gives due attention to the ways in which people may rely upon multiple income generating sectors at once. These noteworthy distinctions from conventional development models explain why the sustainable livelihoods approach is garnering such widespread consideration in recent years.

CONCLUSION:

The disaster management approach that seeks to achieve the right balance of preparedness, prevention, response and mitigation is need of the hour. The focus of the strategy should be based on the realization of the multi-dimensional nature of disasters which needs to be mainstreamed into the overall national development process.

The importance of capacity building of citizens is very important to improve their resiliency level. The Government should plan for various financial arrangements and Sustainable Livelihood frameworks in order to reduce the financial burden caused due to disasters and ensure resilience.

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V. FINANCES AND PLANNING

INTRODUCTION:

Village micro planning, as being practiced in India, is a participatory process of community mobilization and need-based planning at the gram panchayat level which can serve as the starting point for the integrated district plans.

The idea emanated in February 2015 from Fourteenth Finance Commission's recommendation to give Rs 2 lakh crore to gram panchayats between 2015 and 2020. The idea was to give the panchayats the money through state governments and allow them to spend it. Even as the government accepted the recommendations, it was clear that this enormous kitty could not be given in the hands of panchayat functionaries, who had not been trained in planning, accounting and auditing. The Ministry of Panchayati Raj came up with the idea of Gram Panchayat Development Plan (GPDP) — an annual plan of each panchayat where the villagers would decide where the money should be spent. State government communicates the "resource envelope" to all local bodies. At the end, every panchayat knows how much money it has under different schemes and how it should plan. Once a plan is formulated, the gram sabha passes it.

FIGURE: 1 - PANCHAYATI RAJ
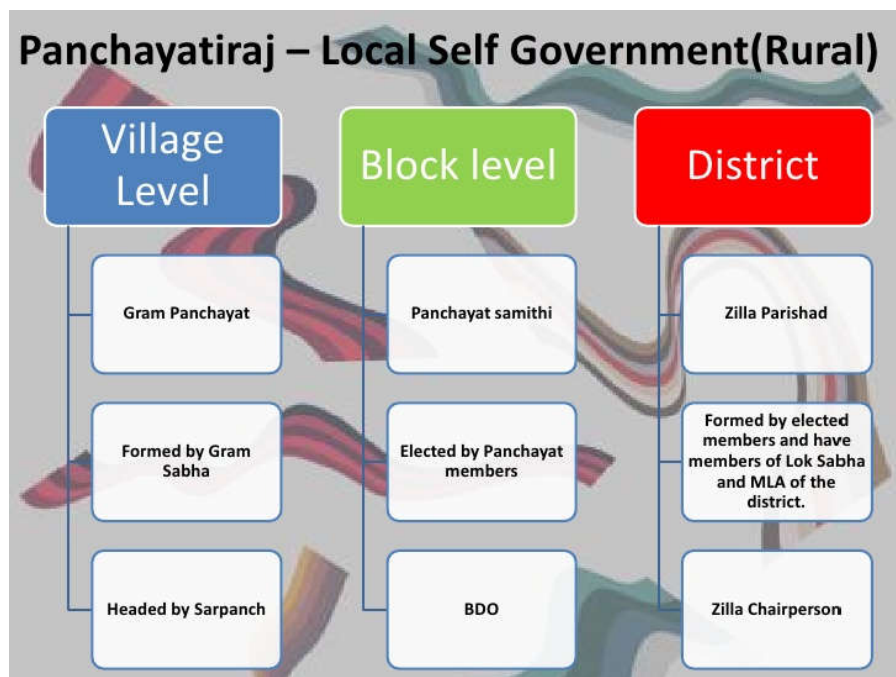
When micro planning is initiated in a district or block, first the local administration is taken into confidence through orientation meetings/ workshops. The local administration identifies some good local NGOs and engages in Memorandum of Understanding (MOUs) with them for supporting the micro planning process. NGOs in turn organize the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)/ Behaviour Change

Communication (BCC) training for select local youth and later also hires them for facilitating actual micro planning in villages. The tie-up of local administration, NGOs and youth networks provides legitimacy as well as flexibility to the local arrangement for supporting micro planning activities. A team of three to five trained facilitators visits a village and lives with the villagers for about a week. The team engages with various sections of the village community such as farmers, school going children, adolescent girls, self-help groups, youth groups, landless labour, etc., to facilitate collective reflections on the developmental concerns and problems being faced by them. Village level functionaries related to health, education etc., are involved in the process. Active participation of members of the gram panchayat and various village level committees is also sought. The village micro planning process takes place in four stages:

1. Stocktaking,
2. Visioning,
3. Need identification
4. And Preparation of a village plan.

The village plan is presented to the Village Council called Gram Sabha on the last day of the process, and is thoroughly discussed by the Gram Sabha. The participatory process makes a threefold impact:

1. The community gets mobilized
2. A collective review of village needs and problems takes place
3. And a concrete village plan document rolls out with the approval of the Gram Sabha.

In order to facilitate smooth integration of village plans into the district planning process, certain data-capture formats have been developed, which cater well to the planning needs of major national programmes and schemes for health, education, child development, agriculture, livelihood and employment etc. Each format captures the village level current status of basic infrastructure, common services and individual and family benefits as assured under these programmes. The minimum norms of basic infrastructure, services and beneficiary coverage as laid down under these programmes are used to locate of exact gaps and shortfalls at village level. These gaps and corresponding demands get captured in village plans and can be easily integrated into sector plans because the same sets of norms are followed. Also, intensive village baseline data is captured through a combination of household surveys, social mapping, analysis of gram panchayat records, etc.

In India, a collective effort has been initiated by state institutes of rural development, concerned government departments, NGOs, youth networks and bilateral institutions to establish village micro planning as a common vehicle for bottom-up planning under different sectors ultimately feeding into the integrated district planning.

Article 243G of the Indian Constitution mandates preparation of plans for economic development and social justice by Panchayats and through this process Panchayats are expected to evolve into institutions of local self-governance. Over the last two decades several initiatives have been taken by the State and the Central Government to realise this mandate. However, resource constraints, inadequate facilitation and limitations of capacity have slowed down the pace of decentralisation.

MGNREGA, Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, provided a significant breakthrough by statutorily empowering Panchayats to prepare plans for the schemes. However, only in

the last one year, concerted efforts have been made as part of Intensive Participatory Planning Exercise (IPPE) to bring about participatory planning for MGNREGS under the leadership of Gram Panchayats.

Now, the XIV Finance Commission, (FFC) has awarded a substantial grant of Rs.200292.20 crore exclusively for the Gram Panchayats to be devolved over a period of five years. Over this period, as per the existing trend, Gram Panchayats(GP's) are likely to get at least an equivalent amount from MGNREGS. Further, State Finance Commission (SFC) transfers, Own Source Revenues and flows from State and Centrally sponsored schemes would enlarge the financial resources of the GPs.

FIGURE: 2 - MGNREGA
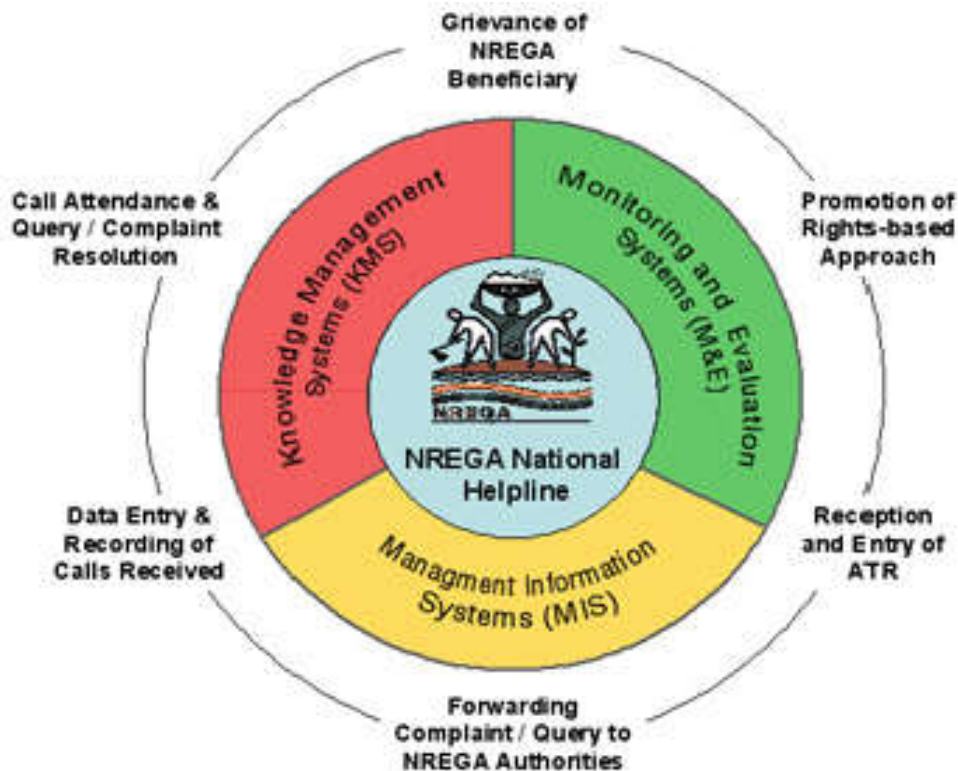
For optimum utilisation of these massive resources for the benefit of their citizens, preparation of integrated development plans by GPs has become a necessity. Further, this is mandated by Para-4 of the Guidelines for the utilisation of the FFC grants issued by the Ministry of Finance vide O.M. No. 13(32)FFC/FCD/2015-16 dated 8th October, 2015. Also consultations with the State Governments in have endorsed the need for preparation of participatory local level plans by GPs in the interest of efficiency and accountability. MoRD has issued guidelines vide D.O. No. J-11016/13/2015-RL dated 5th August, 2015 for convergence of resources which are also to be kept in mind while preparing GP level plans.

"True democracy cannot be worked by twenty men sitting at the centre. It has to be worked from below by the people of every village." - Mahatma Gandhi

IMPORTANCE OF GP LEVEL PLANNING:

"The best, quickest and most efficient way is to build up from the bottom….. Every village has to become a self-sufficient republic."

GP development plan should ideally match peoples' needs and priorities with available resources and additionally mobilise local resources through a fair, inclusive, transparent and participatory process. The focus would be on local development issues, local perception of need and priority, local analysis of problems and solutions, local resources management all within a collective local vision- based on the principle of Antyodaya.

Both the Constitution of India and the State Panchayati Raj Acts lay emphasis on planning for local economic development and social justice by the panchayats. The process of local planning has many advantages and benefits.

The GPDP allows for different local models and innovations that would be locally appropriate and cost effective. It helps to transform GPs into institutions of local self-governance and to cement the GP's identity as development institution. A locally generated plan would also be the only way to use untied resources efficiently and accountably. It has the added advantage of orienting Departments to local needs and inducing competition among GPs to improve performance. Overall the process of participatory planning for a gram panchayat development plan will enable the following:

1. Improve service delivery
2. Enhance citizenship
3. Motivate volunteerism
4. Create space for an alliance of people's institutions and groups
5. Improve governance at the local level

Steps To Be Taken By The State Governments:

The state may immediately take the policy decision, at the appropriate level, to operationalise GP level planning. There should be clarity on the nature and scope of GP DPs. Now, in most states plans are prepared separately at the GP level for MGNREGS, Swach Bharat Mission (SBH) and for other schemes assigned by the States. Also, GPs are the primary agencies for identification of beneficiaries for different schemes, through Gram Sabhas. Further, they are given a role in monitoring the major schemes as also the functioning of local institutions and they are involved in different programme related committees, especially those related to health, sanitation, water supply, watershed management, education, nutrition, social forestry, bio-diversity and public distribution. In addition, most GPs continue to perform their traditional civic functions particularly related to sanitation and drinking water supply.

With the FFC award, there should be shift to preparation of a single GP DP, converging all the resources over which GP has command and integrating these different functions. This is also to ensure efficiency in budgeting, increased accountability in performance and better delivery of development. In addition to the FFC grant, which can be used only for basic services like sanitation, water supply, roads, street lights, play grounds, parks, burial grounds/crematoria, and other services devolved by law to the GPs. It is has to be integrated with elements as indicated below:

1. **Poverty Reduction:**

GP DP should have a strong poverty reduction focus by identifying patterns of poverty in the GP and converging different schemes and programmes like prioritising the basic services for poor groups and localities, ensuring that the entitlements provided under different laws, programmes and schemes are accessed (PESA rights, Forest rights, social security, food security, education, health, nutrition), improving livelihoods particularly through the instruments of MGNREGS and the institutions of the poor created under NRLM.

FIGURE: 3- POVERTY ALLEVIATION
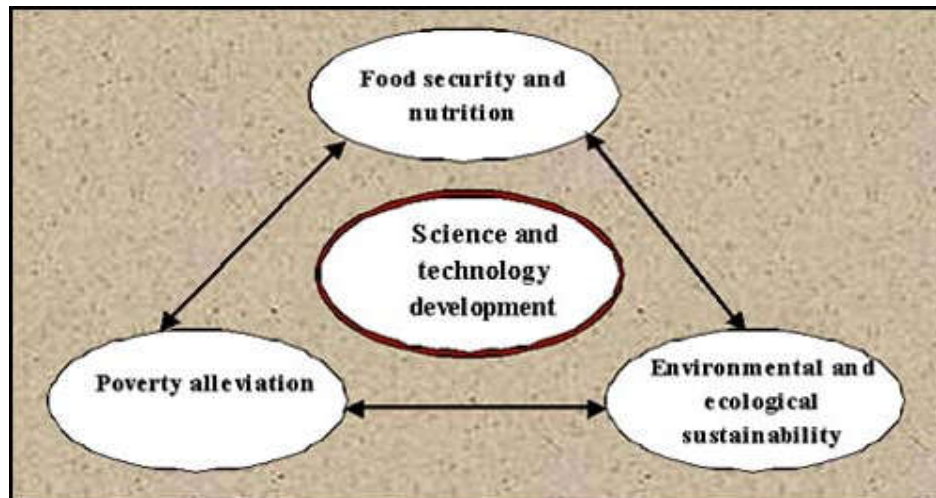
2. **Human Development:**

GP DP should have definite components related to literacy and education including skill development, health, especially public health, and food and nutrition, child sex ratio, etc. The focus should be on improving quality of human development services particularly through anganwadis, schools, hospitals, enhancing access to them and upgrading related infrastructure, to achieve clear outcomes in line with the targets set by State Governments.

3. **Social Development:**

GP DP should be aimed at improving the wellbeing of vulnerable and marginalised groups like

- SCs, STs, including particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups and minorities
- Persons with disabilities
- Elderly people
- Women
- Children
- Vulnerable groups like bonded labourers, child labourers, de-notified tribes and nomads, distress-migrants, manual scavengers, transgenders, victims of trafficking etc.

In addition to poverty reduction and human development and economic development interventions for these categories, the GP DP should attempt to address the social determinants affecting the status of these groups.

4. Economic Development:

GPs should be encouraged to take up activities which would increase local production and productivity, increase employment and employability, improve market access and marketability of the local produce, promote value addition, create productive infrastructure like markets, ponds, fisheries, livestock development, horticulture development, land development, minor irrigation facilities, dug wells, irrigation tanks etc. While the focus would largely be on agriculture and allied sectors, attention may be given to local manufacturing especially traditional industries and services, as also financial inclusion.

5. Ecological Development:

It should include the ways of maintenance and upgradation of various eco-systems like water bodies, pastures, grass lands, catchments and local forests and conservation of biological resources and their sustainable use like minor forest produce, fire wood, fodder, medicinal plants etc. Integrated watershed management would be the basic approach for this. All the activities taken up under GP DP should be environment friendly and bio-diversity enhancing.

6. **Public Service Delivery:**

Improvement of governance services like issuance of certificates, registration of birth and death, issue of licenses/permits and welfare services like social security pensions should be given special priority with emphasis on electronic delivery of services. GP DP should give greater emphasis to the quality of service delivery and proper upkeep and use of existing assets. More importantly, GPs should give particular emphasis to maximising local development through measures which require zero or minimal investment. Suggestions for doing this should be provided to the GPs as advisories.

FIGURE: 4 - TECHNOLOGY AND DEVELOPMENT
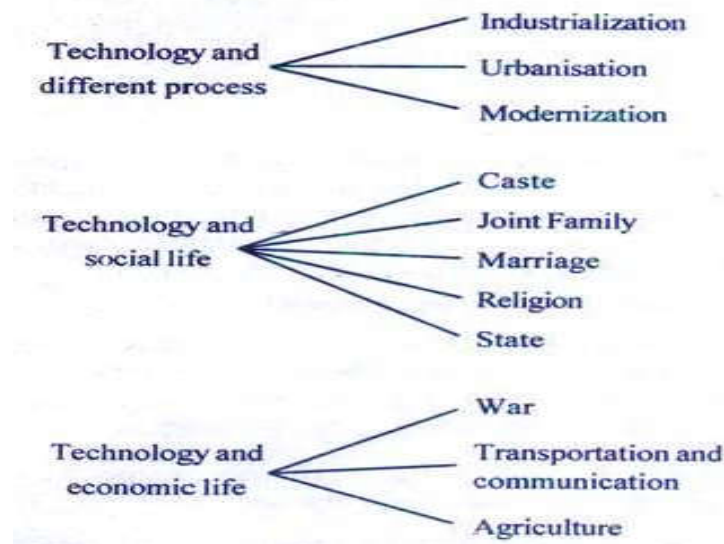
7. **Good Governance:**

Along with effective public service delivery, the GP needs to develop processes and systems related to participation, particularly of the marginalised groups, transparency and proactive disclosures, community based monitoring and due processes in budget and expenditure. Close partnership with institutions of the poor, particularly SHGs and women is also necessary. This calls for a 'Good Governance' plan for each GP including a Citizens' charter.

FIGURE: 5 - GOOD GOVERNANCE
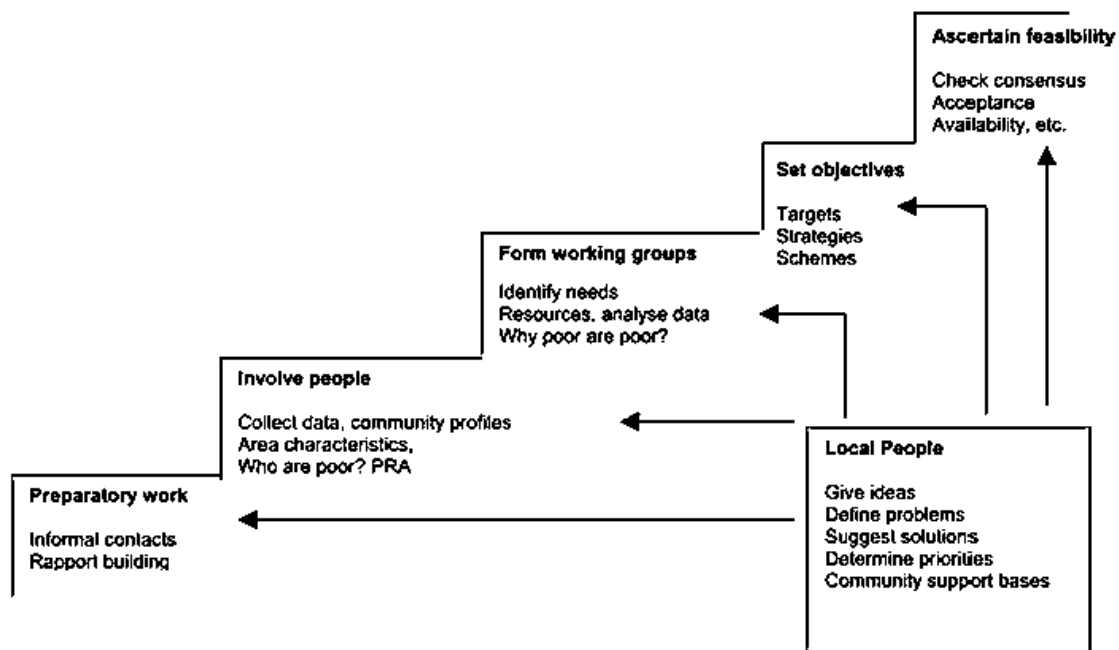
Shortcomings In Current GPDP:

1. Lack of awareness generation and participatory planning for GPDP.
1. GPDP being prepared as a wish list.
2. No concern for financial resource envelope.
3. Lack of technical support to GPs for GPDP preparation.
4. No relation between GPDP and works actually undertaken.
5. Miniscule presence of major sectors like Agriculture, WCD, Health and Nutrition, Education, Animal Husbandry, Skill development etc.
6. Departments working in isolation.
7. Review of GPDP at Block/ District/ State levels non-existent.
8. Uploading of GPDPs on PES not done/ partial

Strategy:

✓ Ensure capacity building of PRIs including ERs, Functionaries & Frontline Workers for
  o Leadership of all ERs in participatory planning and implementation process
  o Quality and extent of participation in formulation of GPDP

Focus on SDGs:
- ✓ Identify priority areas of intervention for achieving socio-economic goals
- ✓ Facilitate thematic capacity building on role of PRIs in attaining SDGs through – Interventions in CSS/State Schemes – Community initiative,
- ✓ Participation & monitoring – Engaging with institutional structures like VHSNCs, SHGs, SMCs, Mother Committees, etc

Support to be provided by States through:
- ✓ Mentoring by State/District Panchayat Resource persons/SIRD faculty/ PMRDF/ SHGs/ line departments
- ✓ Engaging universities and colleges or empanelled organizations
- ✓ Developing Village Resource Persons including from SHGs, volunteers, ex and current representatives, organisations etc.

FIGURE: 6 - GPDP STATUS
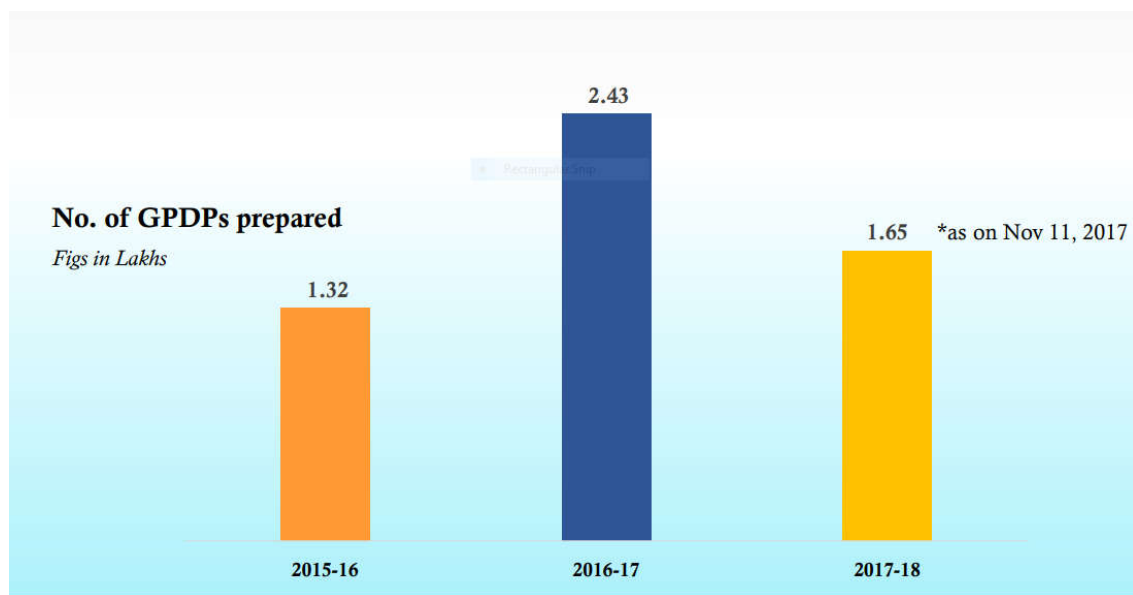
FIGURE:7 GPDP WORK FLOW
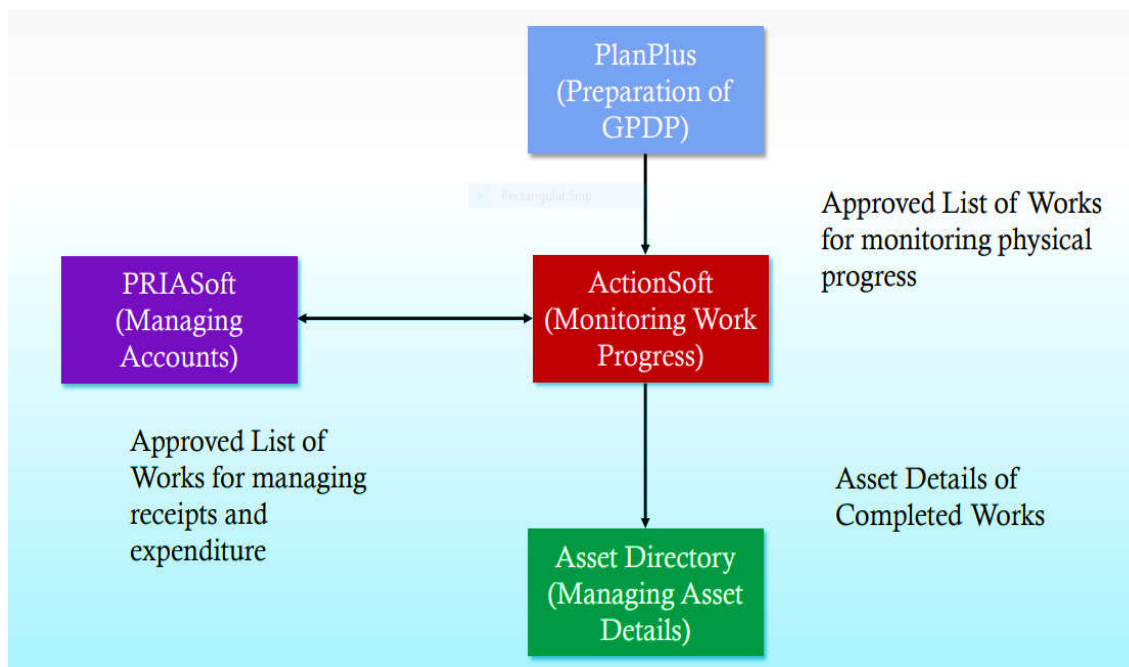
Gram Panchayat Development Plan Format

GP level Committees & Sub-committees (and members)

1. List of Standing Committees
   <Eg. Social Justice Working Group> - <name of Chairpersons and members>
2. List of Functional/Programme Related Committees
   <Eg. Swachch Bharat Committee> - <name of Chairperson and members>
3. List of Other Committees related to Decentralized Plan Preparation
4. Name of charge Officer
5. Names of resource persons at village level
6. Names and designations of functionaries in-charge of GPDP in GP office
7. Names of other govt. functionaries/support staff who are part of GPDP
8. Names of District and Block level Resource Groups/Persons for the GP

B. Participatory Planning

Activities Undertaken for GPDP in <2015-16>

S.No.	Activity	Date of 1st meeting	No. of participants	Date of 2nd meeting	No. of participants	Date of 3rd meeting	No. of participants
1	Gram Sabha Meetings						
2	Stakeholder Consultations						
3	Working Group Meetings						
4	Resource Group meetings						
5	GP Meetings on Finalization of Plan						

- Narration to be entered for GP, summarizing the various activities undertaken for Plan formulation

Situation Analysis

2

(i)   Data Collection
(ii)   Surveys done, if any

S. No.	Issues/Problems Identified	Strategies Suggested to overcome problems/issues

Resource Envelope for <year>:

The availability of funds to the GP from various sources should be indicated. Indicative list of sources listed below:
   a. 14th Finance Commission grants
   b. Transfers by State Finance Commission
   c. Own resources of Gram Panchayats
   d. MGNREGS
   e. Other CSSs implemented by Gram Panchayat
   f. Grants for State Plan schemes
   g. Grants for Externally supported schemes assigned for implementation through Local Governments
   h. Voluntary contributions by the communities and other stakeholders

3

Annual Plan

1. **Public Works**

Works suggested by Gram Sabha	Works approved by GP	Location	Cost	Source of funds	Agency for technical sanction and supervision	Agency for implementation

2. **Beneficiary Oriented Programmes**

Programme	Number of Beneficiary			Agency for implementation
	SC	ST	General	

3. **Costless Development**

Summary of Programme with Activities	Mode of Implementation	Expected Results

4

Five Year Plan

1. **Public Works**

Works suggested by Gram Sabha	Works approved By GP	Cost	Source of funds

2. **Beneficiary Oriented Programmes**

Programme	Number of Beneficiary			Agency for implementation
	SC	ST	General	

3. **Costless Development**

Summary of Programme with Activities	Mode of Implementation	Expected Results

5

Implementation Arrangements

Once the GPDP has been approved, there have to be necessary arrangements in place for timely and effective implementation of the Plan. There are multiple stakeholders in the implementation of a convergent plan, and many functionaries responsible for implementation may not have an institutional interface with the GP.

Many GPs would be constrained by lack of regular staff. There has to be a clear engagement of the GP with various departmental authorities at the field level.

It is therefore proposed that

A. The roles and responsibilities of various departments, agencies and functionaries especially for implementation of Public works within fixed timelines should be clearly defined and persons may be assigned by name and designation
B. The EC may indicate how the services of different officials will be availed by the GPs.
C. Systems be put in place for all village level officers/functionaries to come to the GPs on fixed days as per well publicised schedule – to provide opportunity to discuss the implementation of different components of GP DP, to sort out operational problems, to listen to people and redress grievances.
D. Detailed circulars may be issued jointly with the departments concerned explaining the role of GPs in vis-a vi local institutions like anganwadis, schools, health centres/hospitals etc. and in local committees related to water supply, sanitation, health, nutrition, school education, watershed, forestry etc.

E. Clear role for SHGs and village organisations in implementation with special reference to community mobilisation, selection of beneficiaries and locations, operation and management of assets, community contracting, providing last mile connectivity for delivery of services may be provided

Review, Monitoring and Evaluation

A. A good GPDP would need effective implementation, and a prerequisite for effective implementation is robust monitoring. The very nature of convergence itself calls for enhanced monitoring at multiple levels, starting from the community. It is therefore suggested that there should be a system for review at the following levels:
    i. Gram Sabha
    ii. GP
    iii. Intermediate Panchayat
    iv. District Collector/CEO ZP/CDO
    v. State
B. It is also desirable that Community based monitoring may be put in place using the SHG network, facilitated by CSOs, if required.
C. Academic institutions under Unnat Bharat Abhiyan could be associated with the monitoring of the GP DP.
D. Field monitoring by identified officers and Quality Monitors at State/district levels is another method of monitoring that can be adopted.
E. IT based monitoring including Geo-tagged, time stamped photographs of assets may be undertaken wherever the states are ready for the same.
F. System of Pro-active disclosure may also be put in place, for which appropriate formats may be designed.
G. National level monitors (NLMs) would monitor GP DP preparation and implementation as part of the field visits.
H. States should also put in system of independent evaluation and share the findings with MoPR.
I. Monthly Progress Reports(MPR) of physical and financial progress achieved project (work) wise needs to be prepared by the GP in prescribed format and shared with supervisory authorities.
J. Social Audits as a tool to ensure that the programme and the functionaries are accountable to the gram sabha may be adopted.
K. Monitoring of the progress of plan preparation at GP level may be made an agenda item of the review conducted by State and District level Vigilance and Monitoring Committees constituted to look into RD and PR programmes

SOCIAL AUDIT: ROLE OF GRAM SABHA:

Social Audit, unlike the formal institutional audit mechanism, seeks to achieve the twin objectives of transparency and accountability; increasingly, it has the potential of developing into an important tool for enhancing the effective delivery of public services and programmes.

It can also be termed as "people's audit" in consideration of the fact that under this mechanism, the people as a collective entity are afforded an opportunity of analyzing and assessing not only the issues pertaining to financial matters, but also several other aspects such as, inter alia, the following:

1. Identification of collective and individual needs of the local community
2. Selection of schemes and their location
3. Selection of the potential beneficiaries, particularly those belonging to the disadvantaged groups; and
4. The manner in which the developmental and welfare programmes /schemes are being implemented, vis-à-vis, their declared objectives.

Statutory Social Audit-instruction by Ministry of Rural Development:

The recent instructions issued by the Ministry of Rural Development (MORD) for statutory social audit of rural development works stipulate that: – the Gram Sabha should be specifically empowered to conduct social audit or collective audit by the Gram Sabha, into all public works and beneficiary oriented programmes implemented at the village level under various schemes of the MORD.

These binding instructions also require that the completion certificate for all village level public works should be awarded by the Gram Sabha and such a certificate of completion can be awarded by the Gram Sabha only after conducting social audit of the work in question. – The instructions provide for social audit to be conducted in special Gram Sabhas to be specially convened for the exclusive purpose of conduct of social audit.

Social audit of all on-going development works would also be included as an item for discussion in every Gram Sabha meeting. State governments, however, need to pass detailed orders to operationalise social audit.

Right to Information: Closely linked with provisions for social audit are measures for enforcing transparency and Right to Information (RTI). Improved social audit is feasible only if Gram Sabha members have free and ready access to all relevant, demystified and comprehensible information and documents regarding the works that they are empowered to audit.

Right to Information (RTI) and MKSS: The origins of the RTI movement can be traced from an agitation for minimum wages by the Mazdoor Kisan Shakti Sangathan (MKSS) or the Organisation for the Empowerment of Workers and Peasants in the late 1980s, although it only took full shape after 1994.

Jan Sunwai : The first Jan Sunwai [public hearing] was staged in Kot Kirana on Dec. 2, 1994. The Jan Sunwai demanded – that all public works and accounts are made transparent; that a people's audit is held to assess accountability; and – that a system of redress be established to manage the return of siphoned money.

MKSS subsequently conducted several Jan Sunwais in different parts of Rajasthan. This has involved initiating public hearings, in which detailed accounts derived from official expenditure records and other supporting documentation are read aloud to assembled villagers.

The meetings are organized independently and are presided over by a panel of respected people from within and outside the area. Officials are invited to attend and local people are asked to give

testimonies, highlighting discrepancies between official record and their own experiences (as labourers on public work projects, applicants for means-tested anti-poverty schemes, consumers in ration shops, etc.).

Freedom of Information Act (FOI): In 1996, there was a direct agitation for 40 days in Rajasthan's Beawar town, sloganeering that "the right to know is the right to live." The people's movement for accountability in governance – for the citizen's right to know – has been a long one and it still goes on.

Freedom of Information Bill (FIB): In 2002, the Parliament passed the Freedom of Information Bill (FIB), which is however in the process of being amended. Nine states, including Rajasthan, Kerala, Goa and Delhi, have enacted their own RTI laws granting citizens the right to question their governments, inspect records, ask for copies of these records and make for a truly participatory democracy.

Initiatives by other organisations: The pioneering work of MKSS in Rajasthan has triggered off similar initiatives by 'Parivartan' in Delhi as well as other organizations.

Initiatives by other organisations – Jagrook Nagrik Manch, Urmul Jyoti Sansthan: On July 21, 2004, a Jan Sunwai (public hearing) organized by the Jagrook Nagrik Manch and Urmul Jyoti Sansthan at Kakoo Gram Panchayat in Bikaner district revealed that about Rs.30 lakh had been swindled from the panchayat fund of Rs. 2 crore during the past five years.

A verification of photocopies of records obtained after a long struggle through applications made under the state's right to information law, showed payments were made in the names of dead persons for works; Many persons were paid for working at two different locations at the same time on a particular day.There were ten cases in which payment was made against the names of those persons who had not actually worked; A pond was made under the watershed programme at an expense of Rs. 2 lakh, but it served the personal purpose of the sarpanch; An amount of Rs. 10 lakh was deposited in the accounts of four members of the sarpanch's family.

Interface between social audit and statutory audit:

There is also a need for more interfaces between social audit and statutory audit in order to facilitate transparency at the level of the Gram Panchayat. The Auditor should be aware of social audits that have been carried out, review the responsiveness of the Gram Panchayat to applications for information that may have been submitted by individuals / organisations and accordingly make a comment on the operationalisation of the people's Right to Information.

FIGURE: 8 - AUDITING PROCESS CYCLE
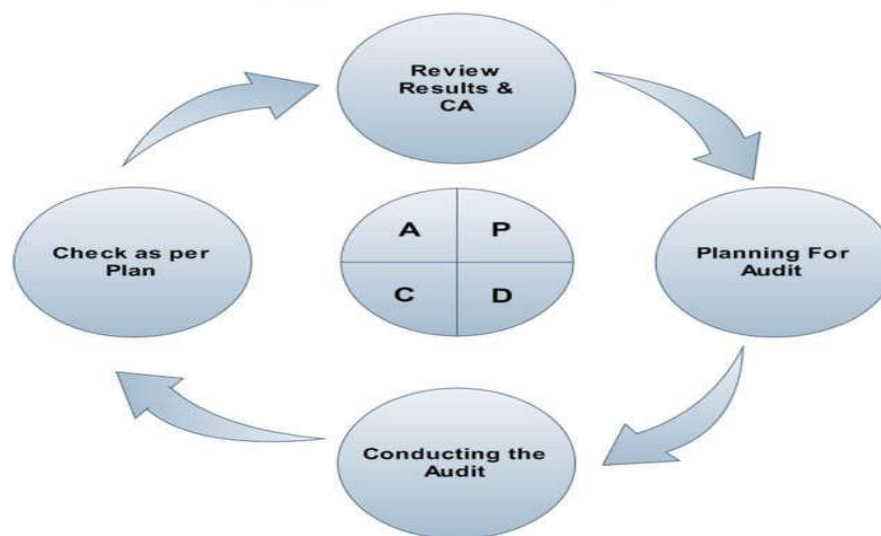
Accountability Systems

The following measures are suggested for ensuring accountability and transparency:

1. Widespread disclosure of the Resource Envelope at the GP level.
2. Pro-active disclosure of the product of PRA exercises, situation analysis and visioning, norms adopted for prioritisation, criteria followed for identification of locations/beneficiaries.
3. Disclosure of names of resource persons and members of different task forces and committees.
4. Ensuring that key meetings of GP are held after wide publicity in the presence of as many citizens as possible.
5. Publishing expenditure details of different stages in the planning process.
6. Disclosure of the details of the approved plan and the expected outcomes.
7. Wall paintings and information boards to be set up in vantage locations in GP.
8. Citizen information boards at all worksites.
9. Keeping 'works file' in GP office, having all records/documents
10. Oral reading of key information in the Gram Sabha, SHG meetings, MGNREGS work sites etc.
11. Notice of gram sabha meetings to discuss plan preparation to be intimated to concerned MPs and MLAs of the constituency
12. Keeping of copies of all documents in Panchayat Bhawan and village libraries.
13. Uploading of all above information on the websites.

The mode and form of each of these accountability measures need to be spelt out clearly. Also, there should be a grievance redressal system available to citizens and GP

SOCIAL ACCOUNTABILITY - A KEY ELEMENT OF EFFECTIVE SERVICE DELIVERY

Citizens' understanding of their rights and their ability to participate in public policy making, participatory budgeting, public expenditure tracking, citizen monitoring of public service delivery, citizen

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advisory boards, lobbying and advocacy campaigns, could go a long way in helping government to accelerate service delivery and also promote good governance.

The state is responsible for delivering services to realise the rights of its people. Service delivery is conducted through a public resource management framework, which consists of five processes that include:
1. resource planning and allocation
2. expenditure tracking
3. performance management
4. public integrity
5. oversight.

Because the state is duty-bound to facilitate the realisation of people's rights progressively within its available resources, any wastage or inefficient use or management of public resources should be viewed as a violation of people's rights.

The public, as beneficiaries of the services provided, need to ensure that the state complies with the various legislative requirements, universal declarations and commitments in decision-making processes, as well as the implementation of their duties. In the case where there is a violation of human rights, justifications and explanations have to be made as well as affirmation that remedial action is taken to address the matter. Furthermore, civic actors need to ensure that civic engagements and participation are not isolated in the processes of state decision-making, planning, implementing and evaluating the various levels of development; as the approach itself should be adopted from a bottom-up perspective.

According to the Social Development Note No. 75, "Social accountability can play an important role in the creation of more transparent and representative governments and aid public institutions in meeting the expectations of the population. It allows civil society and government to interact in a manner that acknowledges the limitations each sector faces while recognising that collaboration is necessary for effective and sustainable development."

Realisation of Human Rights
The 2002 Human Development Report of UNDP (United Nations Development Problem) reported that good governance advances sustainable development for three reasons.

1. Firstly, by making it possible for people to enjoy political freedom and participate in the decisions that shape their lives.

2. Secondly, good governance helps protect people from economic and political catastrophes, such as famines and other crises.

3. Finally, it helps promote sustainable development by empowering citizens to influence policies that promote growth and prosperity, and reflect their priorities.

Having access to public information and participation is a fundamental element of participatory governance, including transparency and accountability in municipal processes. Inadequate access to information creates and promotes corrupt practices that persistently undermine citizens and their rights.

Access to information is recognised as a fundamental human right and citizens' access to information is hailed as a cornerstone of democracy across the world. Furthermore, freedom of information is also considered as crucial in securing and protecting other social, economic and political rights and in promoting equitable human development. Enhancing public access to and demand for public information is the first step towards empowering citizens to participate proactively and effectively in governance processes. Citizens need to understand their rights to continuously participate in such processes.

The World Bank Learning Group defines public participation as a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, decisions and resources that affect them (World Bank, 1995). From this perspective, participation could be viewed in terms of consultation or decision making in all phases of the development cycle, from needs assessment to appraisal, as well as from implementation to monitoring and evaluation.

The link between good governance, human rights and sustainable development has been emphasised directly or indirectly by the international community in a number of declarations and other global conference documents. For example, the Declaration on the Right to Development proclaims that all people "are entitled to participate in, contribute to, and enjoy economic, social, cultural and political development" (article 1).

In the Millennium Declaration, world leaders affirmed their commitment to promote democracy and strengthen the rule of law as well as to respect internationally recognised human rights and fundamental freedoms, including the right to development. According to the United Nations strategy document on the Millennium Development Goals (now SDGs), titled 'The United Nations and the MDGs: a Core Strategy', "the MDGs have to be situated within the broader norms and standards of the Millennium Declaration," including those on "human rights, democracy and good governance."

The human rights-based approach emphasises human rights as key factors in determining the relationship between individuals and groups with valid claims (rights holders) and state and non-state actors with correlative obligations (duty-bearers). It identifies rights-holders and their entitlements and corresponding duty-bearers and their obligations. According to the human rights-based approach it is essential to note the following when promoting human rights:

1. People are recognised as key actors in their own development, rather than passive recipients of commodities and services;
2. Participation is both a means and a goal;
3. Strategies are empowering;
4. Both outcomes and processes are monitored and evaluated;
5. Analysis includes all stakeholders;

6. Programmes focus on marginalised, disadvantaged, and excluded groups;
7. The development process is locally owned;
8. Programmes aim to reduce disparity;
9. Both top-down and bottom-up approaches are used in synergy;
10. Situation analysis is used to identify immediate, underlying, and basic causes of development problems;
11. Measurable goals and targets are important in programming;
12. Strategic partnerships are developed and sustained;
13. Programmes support accountability to all stakeholders.

(Developed at the Inter-Agency Workshop on a human rights-based approach in the context of UN reform, 3-5 May 2003.)

Achieving Proactive Participation through Social Accountability Mechanisms:

The World Bank defines social accountability as an approach towards building accountability that relies on civic engagement in which ordinary citizens and/or civil society organisations participate directly or indirectly in exacting accountability. The importance of social accountability, according to the World Bank, is related to social accountability initiatives that derive from its core goals of promoting poverty reduction and effective and sustainable development, and that social accountability is an essential component of and contributes directly to good governance.

Social accountability mechanisms refer to a broad range of actions (beyond voting) that citizens, communities, civil society organisations, and other interest groups can use to hold government officials and bureaucrats accountable. These include citizen participation in public policy-making, participatory budgeting, public expenditure tracking, citizen monitoring of public service delivery, citizen advisory boards, lobbying and advocacy campaigns.

These tools are made up of various policy instruments some of which are universally recognised and demand accountability, transparency and responsiveness by the state whilst in the process empowering citizens to influence policies that promote growth and prosperity and reflect their priorities. Mechanisms that involve p*articipation of citizens in the process of managing public resources have proved to be particularly effective, and are fundamental in participation and civic engagements. When civil society is promoting social accountability through public participation, it is crucial to acknowledge that they:

1. Occupy their constitutionally provided spaces and utilise them for the promotion of equal participation, the realisation of human rights and a transparent government that promotes democracy and good governance;
2. Take advantage of the opportunities provided by the constitution and other legislation to participate in their own government and development processes;
3. Demand accountability, justifications and explanations, including corrective action in the case of misuse or abuse of public resources;

4. Be in a position to distinguish between outright corruption and administrative shortfalls resulting from weak capacity, and then prioritise and design their responses accordingly;
5. Continuously demand accountability and corrective action where legislative requirements have not been strictly complied with, particularly when the State is facilitating development processes;
6. Civil society needs to be able to better understand their role as oversight bodies.

STEPS IN GROUP FORMATION

Bruce Tuckman has identified four stages that characterize the development of groups. These four group development stages are known as forming, storming, norming, and performing as described below and the skills needed to successfully guide a group through these stages are described.

FIGURE: 9 - STAGES OF GROUP FORMATION
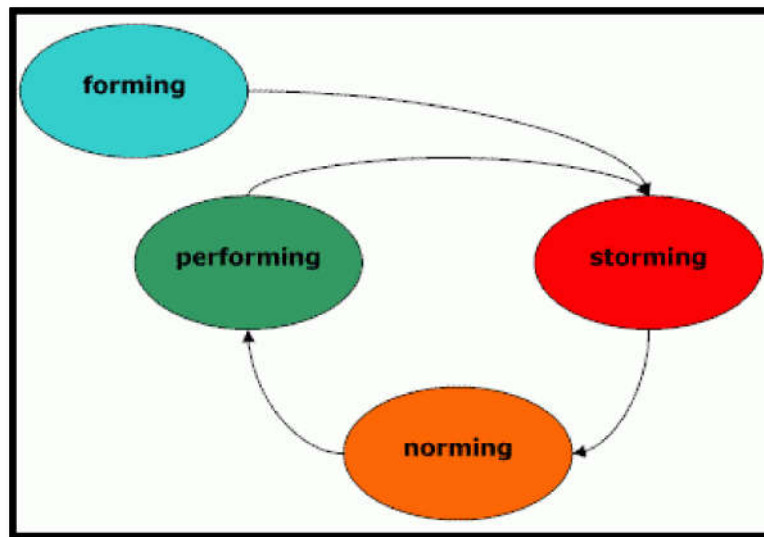
Forming:
This is the initial stage when the group comes together and members begin to develop their relationship with one another and learn what is expected of them. This is the stage when team building begins and trust starts to develop. Group members will start establishing limits on acceptable behavior through experimentation. Other members' reactions will determine if a behavior will be repeated. This is also the time when the tasks of the group and the members will be decided.

Storming:
During this stage of group development, interpersonal conflicts arise and differences of opinion about the group and its goals will surface. If the group is unable to clearly state its purposes and goals or if it cannot agree on shared goals, the group may collapse at this point. It is important to work through the conflict at this time and to establish clear goals. It is necessary for there to be discussion so everyone feels heard and can come to an agreement on the direction the group is to move in.

Norming:

Once the group resolves its conflicts, it can now establish patterns of how to get its work done. Expectations of one another are clearly articulated and accepted by members of the group. Formal and informal procedures are established in delegating tasks, responding to questions, and in the process by which the group functions. Members of the group come to understand how the group as a whole operates.

Performing:

During this final stage of development, issues related to roles, expectations, and norms are no longer of major importance. The group is now focused on its task, working intentionally and effectively to accomplish its goals. The group will find that it can celebrate its accomplishments and that members will be learning new skills and sharing roles. After a group enters the performing stage, it is unrealistic to expect it to remain there permanently.

When new members join or some people leave, there will be a new process of forming, storming, and norming engaged as everyone learns about one another. External events may lead to conflicts within the group. To remain healthy, groups will go through all of these processes in a continuous loop. When conflict arises in a group, do not try to silence the conflict or to run from it. Let the conflict come out into the open so people can discuss it. If the conflict is kept under the surface, members will not be able to build trusting relationships and this could harm the group's effectiveness. If handled properly, the group will come out of the conflict with a stronger sense of cohesiveness then before.

**Factors That Contribute To Successful Collaborations**

Partnering with other organizations to support a common goal involves "an interdependence of elements along with increasing complexity that requires less competition and more crossing of boundaries and sectors".Eleven factors that contribute to successful partnerships and collaborations:

1. **People**: Organizations do not work together, people do – thus individual characteristics will be a factor in whether the collaborative is successful or not. Check out the "chemistry" between people and their level of commitment to the collaboration.
2. **Vision**: Create a shared vision and common goals that incorporate all of the members' perspectives and interests, and identifies mutual needs that cannot be met by one organization alone.
3. **Trust**: Take some time to explore your common ground. "Trust is built through mutual respect for each person's experience, knowledge and contribution. "
4. **Time**: Do not give in to the pressure for speed and action. Getting to know each other in order to developing a solid partnership takes time, as does planning and implementation.
5. **Planning**: Working together effectively requires a great deal of planning. All aspects of the collaborative, including purpose, function, decision-making process, the risks and benefits to each member and anticipated results needs to be considered, agreed upon and committed to (usually by signing a written agreement). Subsequently, every meeting, every workplan, every approach to a prospective member or funder, has to be planned.
6. **Communication**: There needs to be a transparent flow of information among members, and mechanisms for ensuring that all members are kept up-to-date on matters relating to the collaborative and have clear means of voicing concerns and suggestions.
7. **Learning Together**: Partnerships involve learning about each other, about the issues or needs that are being addressed, and about how to work together effectively.

8. **Decision-Making**: It is crucial that how decisions are made is agreed upon right at the start of the partnership and adhered to throughout its duration. Partners should also agree on a problem resolution process. Agreements regarding the investment of people, time and resources need to be negotiated and clearly understood by all partners.

9. **Leadership**: There are many options for leadership; e.g. elect a Chair or Co-Chairs, or establish different roles for different members. It may be formal or informal. Shared leadership can renew energy and increase commitment.

10. **Technology**: Electronic communication can enhance and support the work of the partnership by facilitating connections and opportunities for innovation. An assessment of current systems and technical capacities of each of the members is required before effective information and communications systems can be established.

11. **Flexibility**: As circumstances change, one or more members may not be able to contribute to the extent originally intended, or may not be able to remain involved at all. The remaining members will have to make adjustments accordingly.

FIGURE: 10 – SUCCESS FACTORS FOR COLLABORATIVE WORKING
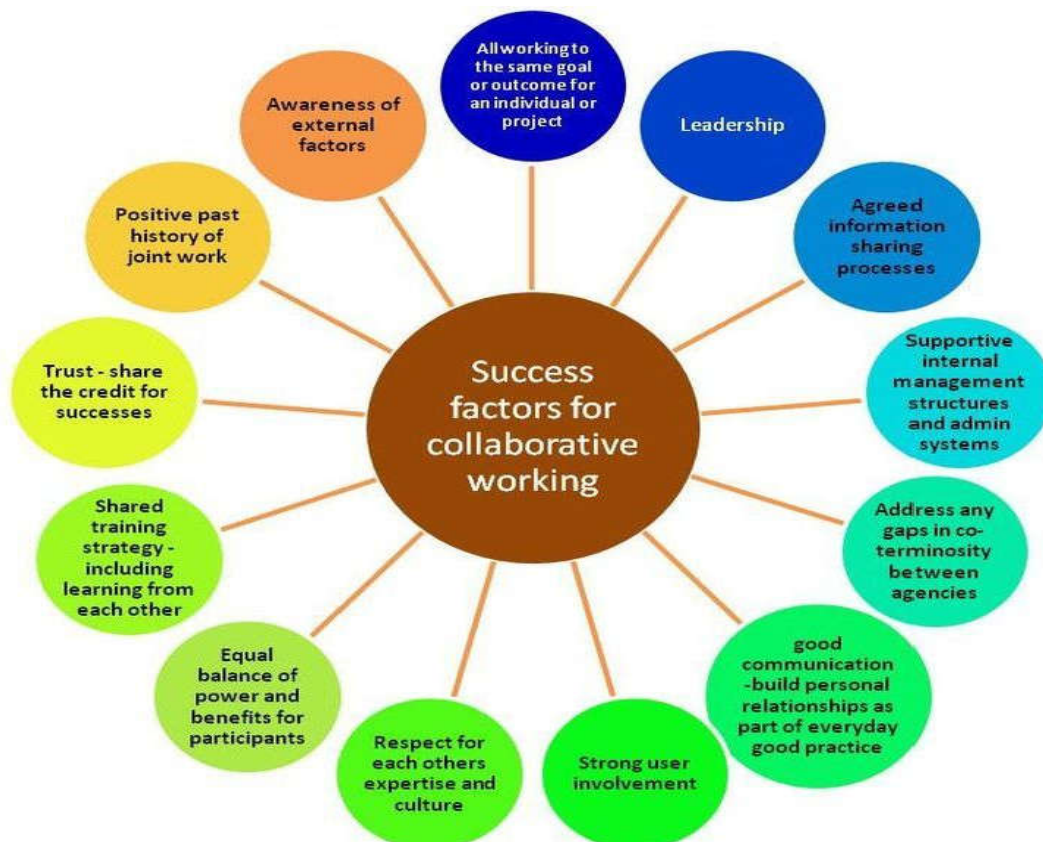
SKILLS IN GROUP FORMATION & MANAGEMENT

It is important that communities be motivated and educated to recognize the significance of collective efforts in solving problems that seem impossible with individual efforts, by voluntarily deciding to put their efforts together to help increase their access to training in business management skills, credit facilities, marketing facilities and appropriate technology. Aa community worker must promote that motivation and action.

1. **Forming a Group**:
   The main reason for a group to form is physical interaction based upon a common need or problem. The greater the extent to which individuals share activities, the more they will interact and the higher the probability that they will form a group. Interaction enables people to discover common interests, likes and dislikes, attitudes, or sentiments.
   There are other important factors which encourage group formation.
   1. **Physical proximity**: People who live in the same village are likely to form a group than people who live in different villages;
   2. **Physical attraction**: Individuals who attract to each other physically might form a group, eg young and energetic boys and girls;
   3. **Rewards**: satisfaction of economic and social needs; and
   4. **Social support**: perhaps provided by members of a group in times of crisis.

   Personal skills and attitudes of a community worker, in forming a group are also crucial to success.
   The following are a few pointers:
   1. **Patience**: People tend to change slowly; do not try to hurry the process up too much.
   2. **Empathy**: An understanding of community members and their problems; the ability to see things as they do.
   3. **Business Knowledge**: A thorough understanding of the business side of the group's future activity, and an ability to explain it in simple terms.
   4. **Commitment:** Be thoroughly convinced of the value of what you are doing, and willingness to do it well.
   5. **Realism:** Be able to give practical help in a realistic way.
   6. **Respect:** People may be poor but they are not stupid and resent the "big master" approach and may be suspicious of any tendency to a "know-it-all;" approach.
   7. **Honesty and Integrity:** Your reputation is your most important asset as a community worker.

   Getting a group formed takes time and skills. Community workers must pay frequent visits to the community where the group is to be formed and devote time to talk to the people and getting to know them. Attempts to move fast could result in failure.

2. **Managing a Group:**
   Forming a group is usually not difficult; the problem is how to manage the group to survive and grow to be strong, self-sustaining and permanent, leading to obtaining legal status. It is your job

as a community worker to ensure that they know the group is theirs, and that the leadership of the group is controlled by them collectively.

3. **Group Training:**

There are two targets (beneficiaries) in group training:

1. Training all group members; and
2. Training management or executive leaders.

As a community worker, you must arrange for

1. The training of the whole group
2. Developing group policy and procedures
3. Maintaining and keeping books of accounts
4. Conducting negotiations and doing business with other organizations
5. Representation of the group's interests to outside bodies
6. Conducting meetings and writing minutes

Formation of Producer Group:

Many governmental and non-governmental organizations have been trying to organize farmers into groups and integrate them into the development process by actively involving them in transfer of technology, production and marketing, planning, implementing and monitoring of different projects on rural development, agriculture and allied sector development, natural resource management etc.

Some of the popular examples of Farmers' Interest Groups (FIGs)/Farmers' Organizations (FOs) under National Agricultural Technology Project (NATP), Farmers' federation under UPDASP, Watershed Associations under Participatory Watershed Management Programs, Vanasamrakshana Samithi under Joint Forest Management Projects, Farmers' Clubs under NABARD scheme, Self-Help Groups of farmers organized by MYRADA and CEAD in Andhra Pradesh and Rythu Mithra Groups (RMG) in Andhra Pradesh are some of the initiatives taken to mobilize and organize the farmers.

The Kerala Horticultural Development Programme (KHDP) formed Self Help Groups (SHGs) of vegetable and fruit growers to help and promote new technology and participatory technology development (PTD) skills, to help farmer's access credit and strengthen their negotiating power through collective marketing, namely the Vegetable and Fruit Promotion Council, Kerala.

National Commission on Farmers, Ministry of Agriculture, and Draft National policy of farmers has indicated the following aspects on group approach:

1. Group Farming by Self-Help Groups (SHGs) has been mainly organised for supporting micro-enterprises operated by women with the help of microcredit. With the growing diminution in the size of operational holdings, it will be useful to promote SHGs at the production end of the farming enterprise involving men. This will be particularly helpful in the case of integrated pest management, integrated nutrient supply, scientific water management, improved post-harvest technology, marketing, etc.

2. SHGs will however become sustainable, only if they have backward linkages with technology and credit, and forward linkages with processing and marketing organizations. Steps will have to be taken to convert micro-finance into livelihood finance through appropriate support systems. There is also a need for establishing SHG Capacity Building and Mentoring Centres.

3. Farmers' organizations of all types have an important role in development – they provide space for participation, which contributes to group members' ownership of the issue at one hand as well as any

solutions. This in turn builds group cohesiveness, solidarity and promotes mutual support. They can be the platform for building a sense of community, a social support system, increasing self-confidence, learning together and providing a sense of equality.

4. A well-organized group can be taken seriously in a wider environment. Groups with common interests can secure access to services that individuals cannot such as training, credit or equipment, infrastructure etc. Lack of access to any of these could be the vital issue that an individual farmer faces. This is particularly the case where farmers organize as a response to marketing concerns, as there are clear economic benefits of working in groups. These include the ability of groups to buy inputs in bulk, access 5 more distant markets and access to information.

5. Working together can increase members' bargaining power, which helps to share, and lower risks and costs. In areas where farmers are scattered geographically, and transport and communications are difficult, the importance of such organizations is even greater.

6. Everywhere in the world, a limited number of farmers are collaborating with each other in some way or the other and forming groups for sharing information and working together. Under the right circumstances, farmers' groups can make a very positive difference to the lives of those working to improve their livelihood options as well as to the sustainable development of agriculture.

7. Working together can take many forms, and a variety of terms are used to cover the scope of this idea – collective action, farmers' organizations, women's' groups, unions, co-operatives, self-help groups, networks, alliances, associations, committees, clubs, partnerships etc. These terms imply a range of methods for joining forces, at different levels, in a variety of sizes and scopes, with different aims or with different legal status.

FIGURE: 11 - FARMERS INTEREST GROUPS
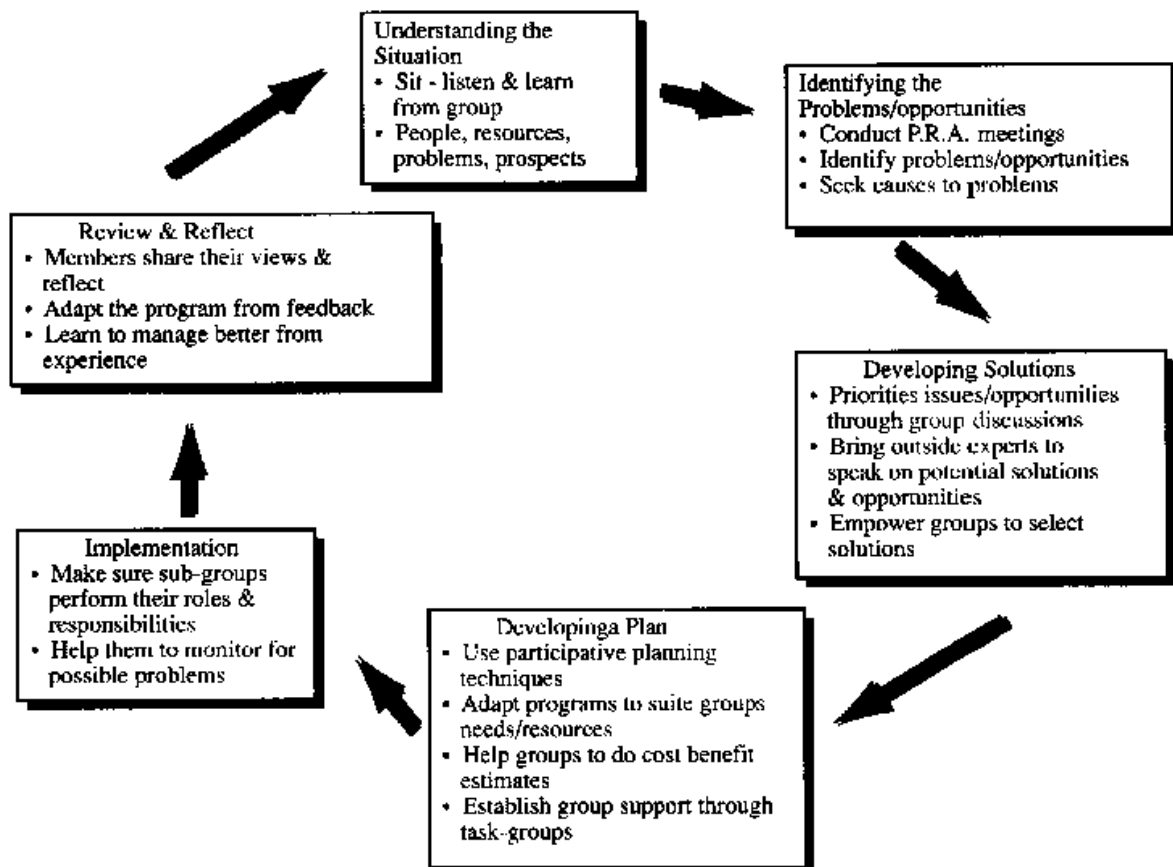
The following specific steps may be taken for organization of Farmer Interest Groups (FIGs):

1. Meetings and consultations at the village level is a must to keep the community informed about the interventions that the project is making. Often this is forgotten leading to isolation of the project in the villages. At least one meeting a month and minimum 12 meetings per year must be conducted at FIG level.

2. Transparency and democratic: Organize informal meetings with prospective group members to discuss the purpose, methods of operation and benefits of groups as well as possible enterprises/activities.

3. Farmers' groups may be formed once the participants have identified viable income-raising activities.

4. They decide on criteria for group membership: for example, whether members should belong to a specific category on the basis of common needs, common problems, common interest, similarity in commodity, small holders, social affinity, homogeneity in socioeconomic status and neighbourhood etc.

5. FIGs will get informal recognition from agriculture and horticulture departments. FIG is not a legal body.

6. Only one member from one household may be considered for FIG and no person can be a member in more than one FIG for all financial matters. From the perspective of equity this is important. If there is a joint family, multiple memberships are possible on the basis of one member per 'chula'.

7. FIGs should choose their leaders and co-leaders. No designations like Chairperson, Treasurer, and Secretary etc., need to be given to the leaders. Instead, the designation of Representative can be used. Thus, this does not take on significance of a hierarchy and they are perceived as Representatives.

8. It is always better that the leadership is rotational. However, the periodicity of rotation etc., should be left to the group. It is also to be remembered that there should be sufficient time for the leadership to work before they are changed in order to give all members leadership experience.

9. In a village, apart from compact area of group members of each FIG, the area under all FIGs also has to be compact. Keeping the functions of the FIG in view, farmers will be covered in a contiguous land patch of 20 farmers and these 20 farmers will form a potential FIG. This is so that it becomes easy to access watershed funds and also plan for common infrastructure for a particular commodity.

10. As far as possible, the village saturation (i.e. coverage of all farmers cultivating the entire cultivable area of village) approach has to be adopted.

11. Due attention has to be given to farmers cultivating lands in ridge areas, rain fed lands, assigned lands etc.

12. Confidence and clarity of key persons (Sarpanch, elders, opinion makers, key informants etc) has to be taken while mobilisation and organisation of farmers.

13. Periodic functioning must be emphasized through example. Questions must be encouraged and fully answered. Each farmer may have a common fund in the group

14. The FIGs must maintain a set of records relating to their financial transactions, membership register, minutes book etc. This will vary in accordance to the nature of the groups. It is suggested that the 10 Group promoters to be in touch with the organisations that have been

promoting such primary groups and take their help in developing the record system at the groups.

15. For different activities (like formation of FIGs, election of group leaders, group meetings etc), decisions/resolutions have to be recorded in Minutes Book with required signatures.

16. Members will seek primary membership in FIGs. Services to the members will primarily be provided at savings, credit, insurance, procurement, marketing, trading, storage, processing, land, soil & water resource management, etc.

17. Admission/Removal/Resignation of members can formally be done at FIG level; norms to be established for this component.

18. Organize farmers group with the help of locally-available/ identified community organizers/group promoter.

19. Group promoters make a list of potential group members and leaders, possible group activities and required inputs.

20. Assess their productive resources, including capital, skills and experience.

21. During the initial period of 6-9 months, the members may be encouraged to take small amount of loan at a reasonable rate of interest as decided by the group. This shall help them in developing a habit of repaying the borrowed amount in different instalments. This type of modality shall help in developing solidarity in the group, planning for their commodity till it reaches markets.

22. Ranking/grading of the above FIGs may be done after 6-9 months. At that stage, only mature FIGs may be given external or project benefit, revolving fund, etc. The remaining FIGs may be further strengthened with the help of group promoter and may be given project benefits, revolving fund etc., as and when they get maturity. Proper transparent criteria may be used for assessing the maturity of FIGs. Provide capacity building on each and every stage of the group.

23. At this stage, special care may be taken not to break any of the existing group, just because of availability of certain small financial incentives to FIGs. The formation of viable and stable groups requires patience and, in most cases, a period of two to six months. Both overly rapid formation and overly long delays, which may dampen the interest of potential group members, are avoided.

24. The process of group formation may face formidable obstacles. In most of the cases, the rural poor are economically dependent on landowners, traders and middlemen and may fear intimidation if they are involved in independent peasant organizations. Local leaders who may see the groups as a threat to patron-client relationships pose other constraints.

25. At local level, project staff can help to overcome this antagonism by calling meetings to sensitize leaders to the objectives of the project/programmes and, above all, to illustrate the benefits of its activities to the area as a whole.

PARTICIPATORY RESEARCH:

Participatory research involves the active and continual engagement of stakeholders in a study, investigation or assessment where the participants hold power of control over the process that is equal to or greater than the researchers. This is accomplished through:

1. A mutually respectful partnership between researchers and stakeholders
2. Full recognition that local knowledge, expertise and resources are critical
3. Joint-development of research design

4. Full collaboration in implementation, observations (and other data collection), monitoring, analysis, interpretation and communication of results
5. Building in the potential that co-production of knowledge during the process can generate ownership, equity and empowerment among the participants, increasing their capacity to make or contribute to more informed decisions and to take action.

Participatory research methods are commonly used when local knowledge and/or local buy-in is valued. For this reason, methodologies underlying user-centred product design and development those encouraging innovation and acceleration in business planning as well as community visioning are founded on participatory research methods. While it is more obvious to consider participatory research appropriate for subject matter with a clear human dimension, participatory methods can also be applied where that connection is less obvious. For example, a purely bio-physical study of hydrological processes in a given landform may not have a direct human dimension, but because those processes may be influenced by the actions of people, or people may be impacted by them, a participatory approach may be appropriate. Because participatory research approaches are based on relevance and involvement, the prerequisites for adoption, they are essential to ensuring the broader impact of science.

CONCLUSION

Civil society needs to be fully equipped with the policy requirements promoting civic engagements in development processes, through networking and forging of partnerships with relevant structures and institutions to facilitate and raise awareness around the importance of the realisation of human rights in development processes. The importance of this realisation relates entirely to the prioritisation of community needs in service delivery implementation.

"Independence must begin at the bottom. Thus, every village will be a republic or Panchayat having full powers. It follows. Therefore, that every village have to be self - sustained and capable of managing its affairs. This does not exclude dependence on, and willing help from neighbours or from the world. It will be free and voluntary play of mutual forces... In this structure composed of innumerable villages, there will be over widening, never ascending circles life will not be a pyramid with the apex sustained by the bottom. But it will be an oceanic circle whose centre will be the individual always ready to perish for the village, the latter ready to perish for the circle of villages, till at last the whose becomes aggressive in their majesty of the economic circle of which they are integral units therefore, the outer most circumference will not yield power the inner circle but will be give strength to all within and derive its own strength from it." - *Mahatma Gandhi*

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