



Rural Management Rural Institutions, Planning and Development

First Edition



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Ministry of Education

Editorial Board

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About the Book

Rural development planning is an essential tool for achieving sustainable development and improving the quality of life in rural areas. However, the success of rural development planning depends on the effectiveness of the institutions that support the planning process. The book 'Rural Institutions, Planning and Development' provides a comprehensive overview of the key concepts, theories, and practices of rural development planning, with a particular focus on the role of institutions in supporting the planning process. The book is divided into five chapters, each of which delves into a specific aspect of rural development planning and its related institutions.

The first chapter, Introduction to Rural Development and Planning, provides an overview of the key concepts, approaches, and theories related to rural development and planning. It highlights the importance of rural development planning in promoting rural development and improving the quality of life in rural areas.

The second chapter, Process of Rural Development Planning, outlines the various stages involved in the rural development planning process. It discusses the role of various stakeholders in the planning process in preparation of plan at District, Block and Gram Panchayat .

The third chapter, Institutions for Rural Development Planning, examines the various institutional arrangements that support rural development planning. It provides an overview of the roles and functions of different institutions, including government agencies, non-governmental organizations, and community-based organizations.

The fourth chapter, Major Rural Development and Welfare Programmes, provides an in-depth analysis of some of the major rural development and welfare programs implemented in various countries. It examines the goals, objectives, and outcomes of these programs and highlights the key challenges and opportunities associated with their implementation.

The fifth chapter, Case Studies, presents case studies from different parts of the India to illustrate the practical application of the concepts and theories discussed in the earlier chapters. It provides insights into the challenges and opportunities associated with rural development planning and the role of institutions in supporting the planning process.

Overall, Rural Institutions, Planning and Development is an essential resource for students, researchers, policymakers, and practitioners interested in rural development planning and its related institutions. It provides a comprehensive overview of the key concepts, theories, and practices of rural development planning, and highlights the important role of institutions in supporting the planning process.

I thank Dr. Jayanta Choudhury HOD Department of Rural Studies, Tripura for her insights and contribution as author. Also, I would like to thank MGNCRE Team members for extending their extreme support in completing this textbook.

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Chairman, MGNCRE

Contents

Chapter 1 Introduction to Rural Development and Planning	1-37
1.1 Introduction to Rural Development	
1.2 Introduction to Planning	
1.3 Introduction to Rural Planning	
1.4 Introduction to Decentralized Planning	
1.5 Rural Development Five Year Plan	
Chapter 2 Process of Rural Development Planning	38-84
2.1 Prerequisites for Rural Development Planning	
2.2 Preparation of District Planning	
2.3 Preparation of Block Planning	
2.4 Elements of Gram Panchayat Development Plan	
2.5 Preparation of Gram Panchayat Development Plan	
Chapter 3 Institutions for Rural Development Planning	85-109
3.1 National Level Institutions	
3.2 State Level Institutions	
3.3 District Level Institutions	
3.4 Local Level Institutions	
3.5 Other Institutions	
Chapter 4 Major Rural Development and Welfare Programs	110-157
4.1 Self -Employment Programmes	
4.2 Wage Employment Programmes	
4.3 Basic Needs Programmes	
4.4 Social Security and Flagship Programmes	
4.5 Area Development Programmes	
Chapter 5 Case Studies	158-183
5.1 Case Study on Rural Development Experiment in Pre-Independence India	
5.2 Case Study on Rural Reconstruction in Pre-Independence India	
5.3 Case Study on Rural Development in Post-Independence India	
5.4 Case Study on Rural Development Planning	
5.5 Case Study on Successful Rural Development Programmes in India	

List of Tables

- 1.1 Centralization Vs Decentralization
- 1.2 Rural Development Programmes in Different Plan Periods

List of Figures

- 1.1 Rural Development Concept
- 1.2 Rural Development Approach
- 1.3 Perspectives of Rural Development Strategy
- 1.4 Facets of Rural Development
- 1.5 Planning Process
- 1.6 Types of Planning

- 1.7 Centralisation and Decentralisation
- 1.8 Aspects of Decentralization
- 2.1 Situational Analysis
- 2.2 Steps for Situational Analysis at the Gram Panchayat Level
- 2.3 Resources for Planning
- 2.4 Steps in District Plan
- 2.5 Elements in District Plan
- 2.6 Essential Criteria of Economic Plan
- 2.7 Process of District Planning
- 2.8 Components of Block Development Plan
- 2.9 Team for Block Development Plan
- 2.10 Vision of Integrated Bottom-up Planning
- 2.11 Plan Cycle of GPDP
- 2.12 Formation of Team for GPDP
- 2.13 Steps in Preparation GPDP
- 3.1 Institutional mechanism for planning at different level
- 3.2 Panchayat at different levels
- 3.3 Structure of Model CLF
- 4.1 Chronology of Self Employment Programmes
- 4.2 Framework for Rural Livelihood promotion under NRLM
- 4.3 Chronology of Wage Employment Programmes
- 4.4 Major Minimum Need Programmes
- 4.5 Major Social security Programmes
- 4.6 Major Area Development Programmes
- 5.1 Learning from Panchayati Raj

Chapter 1 Introduction to Rural Development and Planning

Introduction

Rural development is the process of enhancing the quality of life and economic well-being of those living in rural regions, which are often distant and highly inhabited. Rural development refers to a strategy for the economic and social uplift of rural regions. Planning is the process of considering the actions necessary to attain a desired objective. It is the most important step in achieving desired outcomes. This five-section chapter introduces rural development and planning. The first chapter introduces many facets of rural development and establishes a conceptual understanding of rural development. The second section examines the need, kinds, significance, stages, and methodologies of planning. The third unit is all about planning for rural development. The definition, need, role, advantages and disadvantages of decentralisation are discussed in chapter four. The fifth chapter highlights important rural development projects in India's five-year plan.

Objectives

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Define development, rural development, planning, and rural development planning
- Explain Rural Development's concept, need, goals, indicators, techniques, and tactics.
- Examine the need, kinds, significance, processes, procedures, and methods of planning.
- Discuss the meaning, need, purpose, benefits, and drawbacks of decentralisation.
- Discuss the important rural development projects throughout India's five-year plan period.

Structure of the Chapter

1.1 Introduction to Rural Development	
1.2 Introduction to Planning	
1.3 Introduction to Rural Planning	
1.4 Introduction to Decentralized Planning	
1.5 Rural Development five years Plan	

1.1 Introduction to Rural Development

In the framework of community welfare, "development" has global importance. Development is a continual process that aims to alter the whole society, including its economic, social, political, and physical structures, as well as the people's value system and standard of living. In other words, *Development is a process by which a society transforms its institutions in ways that enhance the ability of the people to mobilize and manage resources to produce sustainable and justify distributed benefits consistent with their own aspiration* (Bhose, 2003).

The word "rural development" is of central importance and is widely applauded in all events and in all emerging nations of the world. There is no commonly accepted definition of rural development and hence, the phrase is used in a variety of circumstances.

Rural development is a broad phrase that focuses mostly on actions for the improvement of places outside of the urban ecology. The need for rural development stems from the fact that village modernisation leads to urbanisation and the disappearance of village atmosphere. In addition, rural development is distinguished by its emphasis on domestic economic development strategies. As a result, a vast variety of rural development strategies are used internationally. It attempts to improve the quality of life for those living in rural areas.

Rural areas are also defined as areas having a population of fewer than 5,000 and a population density of less than 400 people per square metre linear unit, and where agriculture is the primary economic activity. According to the 2001 Census, 78 percent of villages in India had less than 5000 inhabitants. It indicates that 22 percent of communities had a population of 5,000 or more. In actuality, 8.5% of the communities had populations of 10,000 or more. It is evident that these villages were not classified as urban since they failed to meet the other two requirements of having a minimum population density of 400 individuals per square metre linear unit and having at least 75% of the male working population engaged in non-agricultural activities. In the 2011 Census, the number of villages increased somewhat to 6.41 lakhs.

Rural development, as a concept, connotes the overall development of a geographical area in an effort to improve the quality of life for rural residents. It comprises the event of agriculture and linked activities—village and bungalow industries and crafts, socio-economic infrastructure, community services and amenities, and especially the people resources in rural regions. Multiple physical, technical, economic, socio cultural, and institutional forces combine to bring about this phenomenon. As a strategy, it aims to improve the economic and social well-being of a specific group of people — the agricultural poor. As a field, it is interdisciplinary, representing the junction of agricultural, social, activity, engineering, and management science.

Rural development is defined as the process of developing and utilising natural and human resources, technologies, infrastructural facilities, establishments and organisations, and government policies and programmes to encourage and accelerate economic activity in rural areas, to provide employment opportunities, and to improve the quality of rural life toward self-sufficiency. In addition to the economic process, this strategy often entails a shift in normal attitudes, and in some instances, even in traditions and beliefs. In a nutshell, the technique of rural development should embody the whole spectrum of change through which a social structure progresses away from a 'unsatisfactory' state of living towards a materially and spiritually superior condition of life. The key to development success rests in creating an unique and, if necessary, an acceptable engine to link to the train. There are no generally acceptable indicators for identifying appropriate growth engines, assuming they even exist. This selection is shaped by time, place, and culture.

According to the Rural Development Sector Policy Paper of the World Bank, “*Rural development may be a strategy designed to boost the economic and social lifetime of a particular cluster of individuals*” – the agricultural poor. It entails spreading the benefits of development to the most disadvantaged rural residents. The cluster consists of small-scale farmers, tenants, and landless individuals. Again, a United Nations document describes rural development as improving the living standards of the lots of the low financial gain population residing in rural areas and creating the method of rural development self-sufficing.”

The World Bank's concept of rural development is intrinsically reliant on an operational approach influenced by the realities of distributing loan resources over a broad range of countries, hence maximising their economic returns. Discussions at a seminar on approaches to rural development in Asia centred on a definition of "rural development as a process that results in a continuous increase in the ability of agricultural individuals to control their environment and a wider distribution of the benefits resulting from such control." This definition includes three essential components:

- a) Rural development should be considered as a means of enhancing the capacity of agricultural people to manage their environment. Atmosphere is not synonymous with agricultural or economic growth alone. It comprises the social, economic, cultural, and political elements of rural life.
- b) Rural development as a strategy should continuously increase the capacity of agricultural people to affect their overall environment, empowering them to become initiators and managers of change in their environment rather than passive targets of external manipulation and control.
- c) Rural development should result in a broader distribution of benefits deriving from technological progress and the engagement of weaker segments of the agricultural sector in the development process.

In terms of community welfare, the term 'development' has gained a global meaning. Wherever societies have stayed impoverished or regressed or failed to achieve economic growth in accordance with Western ideals, the imperatives of development become more intense. Political liberty is considered insufficient and is seen as a stepping stone towards the socioeconomic growth of the people. Given that colonised countries typically reflect a mostly rural picture, rural development becomes crucial as the kind or amount of poverty, dehumanising circumstances, and poverty in rural regions offer formidable hurdles.

Michael Todaro (1977) views that “Rural development encompasses: (1) improvement in level of living, including employment, education, health and nutrition, housing and a variety of social services; (2) decreasing inequality in the distribution of rural incomes and in rural-urban balances in incomes and economic opportunities; and (3) the capacity of the rural sector to sustain and accelerate the pace of these improvement”.

In the end analysis, rural development entails the availability of possibilities for the optimal use of human resources in rural regions. It is vital, then, that rural development programmes have as their primary objective, the provision of opportunity for the human population to realise their full physical and mental potential.

Due to its multifaceted character, the phrase "Rural Development" has a variety of meanings. As a result, rural development is planned as a strategy, concept, or philosophy. As a concept, rural development refers to the desire to improve the lives of rural residents via the comprehensive development of rural

regions. Historically, rural development has been predicated on the use of natural resources for subsistence, such as land and water.

Some more definitions of Rural Development

- *Historically, rural development has focused on exploiting land-intensive natural resources such as agriculture and forestry.*
- *Rural development refers to the acts and initiatives undertaken to enhance the quality of life in non-urban communities, rural areas, and distant settlements. These communities are characterised by a low ratio of residents to open space. Agricultural operations may be dominant in this instance, while economic activity would pertain to the primary sector, food and raw material production.*
- *Rural development is a process that endeavours to enhance the living conditions of rural residents.*
- *Rural development is the improvement of the quality of life for rural residents via the comprehensive development of rural regions. It is a process that encompasses the social, economic, political, and spiritual growth of the poorest segments of society.*
- *Rural development may be characterised as allowing rural people to establish priorities in their own communities via democratic and effective structures, by providing local capacity; investing in basic infrastructure and social services, justice, equality, and security; correcting historical injustices; and assuring the safety and security of the rural population, especially women.*
- *Rural Development is a method that allows a certain group of people, poor rural women and men, to get more of what they want and need for themselves and their children. It means aiding the poorest among those seeking a livelihood in rural areas to demand and control a larger portion of the benefits of rural development. The group is made up of small-scale farmers, tenants, and landless people.*

Desmond Anker (1973) provides a comprehensive concept of rural development. According to him, “rural development includes the strategies, policies and programmes for the development of rural areas and the promotion of activities carried out in such areas (agriculture, forestry, rural crafts and industries, and the building of social and economic infrastructure) with the ultimate aim of achieving a fuller utilisation of available physical and human resources and thus higher incomes and better living conditions for the rural population as a whole, particularly the rural poor, and effective participation of the latter in the development process”.

The following components of rural development are highlighted in this definition:

- In rural regions, the existing physical and human resources should be used more fully.
- Agriculture, associated activities, and rural industries must be developed.
- In rural regions, social and economic infrastructure should be developed.
- It should seek to improve the earnings and living circumstances of the rural people, particularly the rural poor.
- The rural poor should continue to participate in the development process.

Therefore, rural development may be a strategy for enhancing the quality of life of rural residents, especially the poor. In addition to the economic process, rural development entails changes in prevalent

attitudes, habits, and beliefs. Therefore, rural development should include the whole spectrum of social organisation reforms, so that the community evolves from its existing unsatisfactory state of living to a materially and spiritually superior state of life.

Rural development is a mix of both the development of rural people and rural development. Development of rural people include both economic and social development, while development of rural places focuses primarily on infrastructure growth in rural regions to catalyse the socioeconomic development of rural people, as well as care for the environment where rural people reside.

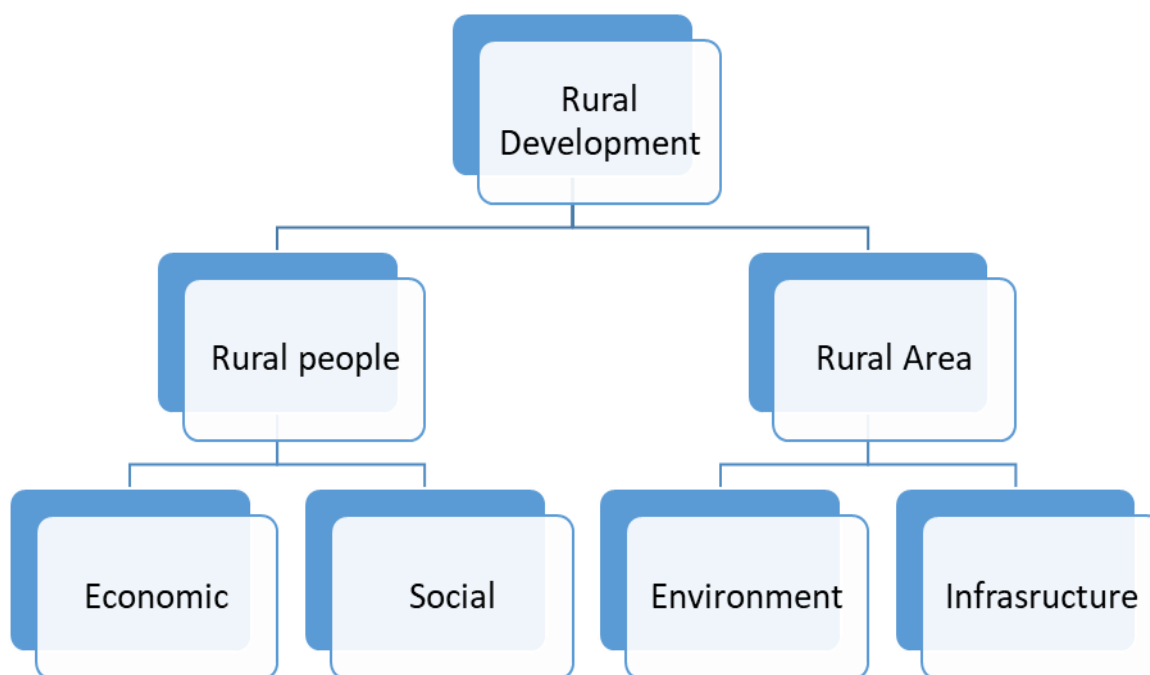


Figure 1.1: Rural Development Concept

Objectives of Rural Development

We already understand that rural development entails the entire improvement of rural communities and populations. The precise goals are within the framework of the planned endeavour to promote the social and economic development of rural communities. Consequently, several organisations and scholars have formulated rural development goals.

G. Parthasarathy (1981) asserts, “The critical element in rural development is improvement of living standards of the poor through opportunities for better utilisation of their physical human resources”; in the absence of this, utilisation of rural resources has no functional significance. Making the process of rural development self- sustaining not only implies the mobilisation of capital and use of technology for the benefit of the poor but their active involvement in the building up of institutions as well as in functioning of these”.

According to Katar Singh (2000), the following are the most important goals of rural development:

1. To increase the level of life by providing food, housing, clothes, job, and education.
2. To increase rural output and alleviate poverty.
3. To include people in planning and development via their involvement in decision-making and administrative centralization.
4. To achieve distributive Justice and opportunity equality in the society.

Sreedhar and Rajsekhar (2014) highlighted the following rural development objectives:

1. The living conditions of the rural poor should be addressed; this entails that their employment, education, health, nutrition, and range of social services should be enhanced.
2. The poor must be provided with opportunities for the better utilisation of their natural, physical, and human resources; this means that their access to natural resources such as land, water, and forests must be expanded, while their own capacities must be enhanced through education, skill-training, and capacity-building inputs.
3. The impoverished should have greater access to financial resources and technology.
4. Capital and technology should be mobilised for the benefit of the underprivileged.
5. The poor should be actively engaged in the construction and operation of institutions; this requires the active participation of the poor in the construction of new institutions in rural society and in the operation of these institutions.
6. The process of rural development must be sustainable in the sense that the improvement in the living conditions of the poor must be sustained indefinitely.

The preceding discussion demonstrates that rural development necessitates modifications to the fundamental structure and operation of rural society. The focus on the functional involvement of the poor in rural development necessitates the elimination of inequities or inequalities in rural life. Better use of physical, natural, and human resources requires the application of science and technology, which necessitates a shift in the rural population's attitude or views.

The primary purpose of rural development is to improve the living conditions of rural people by utilizing readily accessible natural and human resources.

Approaches of Rural Development

India has extensive experience implementing rural development projects. Changes in rural development strategies and space planning have occurred throughout time. The primary objective of these techniques is to foster advancements in a variety of fields that may make a significant contribution to improving the quality of people's lives. Education, training programmes, job possibilities, skill development programmes, technology, modern and creative methods, management and administration, and housing are required areas. Once these measures are implemented, it will be necessary to ensure that they provide the desired results quickly and expedite the growth and development of rural communities. When available resources are limited, agriculturalists must guarantee that they are used efficiently and that no waste occurs.

India has a long history of trying with various rural development strategies. Since ancient times, people have felt that the successful growth and development of communities and the country as a whole are contingent upon the development of substantial regions in rural communities. Since the country's independence, several projects have been implemented to stimulate the development of rural areas. The search for rural development has always been a priority for policymakers, alongside the national plan for economic growth. As part of its strategy for planned economic growth, Asian nations employed both centralised and decentralised planning methods.

Approaches to rural development emphasise the providing of solutions to the problems faced by rural residents. These concerns largely include economic position, illiteracy, status, and state. Once improvements are made in rural communities, it is essential to pay significant attention to urban communities, since they are the largest consumers of agricultural produce. In order to provide effective

answers to these problems, it is essential to develop measures, programmes, and plans that are devoted to alleviating these problems and delivering improvements in the general living circumstances of the people. Therefore, it is evident that improvements must be made to traditional rural development strategies.



Figure 1.2 : Rural Development Approaches

Multi-purpose Approach

The country's rural development strategy initially used a multipurpose approach. In 1952, the Community Development Program (CPD) was initiated. The primary purpose was to foster the development of material and human resources via the combined efforts of the people and governmental support. It was considered an educational and organisational endeavour. Since it was also targeted on transporting changes in practises and processes that proved to be impediments in the course of implementing intended goals, it was designed to facilitate the achievement of desired outcomes. The primary purpose was social and economic development. According to the description of the strategy, all factors were interconnected. CPD operations included agriculture, irrigation, water resources, cooperation, village and small-scale industries, health and sanitation, communication, and housing, among others. Consequently, it can be said that the creation of welfare and livelihood chances was one of the primary goals of the multipurpose approach.

Growth-Oriented Approach

Rural populations were assisted by the growth-oriented strategy. The rural population is afflicted by poverty and sluggishness, but they also have bright minds and the ability to make intelligent decisions. In order for them to effectively engage in decision-making processes, they need be granted rights and

opportunities. The primary aim of rural residents is to improve their standard of life, and to this end, they seek job and income-generating possibilities. Therefore, it can be said that growth bound techniques refer to the execution of opportunities that will support the expansion of the population in an efficient way. Intensive Agriculture District Program (IADP), Intensive Oxen Development Program (ICDP), and High Yielding Varieties Program (HYVP) were created due to the fact that the agricultural sector is the primary source of jobs and resources for the agricultural population. This led to a revolution. However, this method benefited more prosperous farmers. In contrast, the disadvantaged farmers remained in a relatively backward situation.

Target Group Approach

In the target group approach, research is conducted on a certain cluster. Typically, as in this instance, approaches for rural development are the subject of study. Therefore, the situations of small and marginal farmers are analysed alongside those of wealthy farmers. The circumstances of small associate degree marginal farmers do not seem to have improved. Instead, they are incorporating historical agricultural traditions and tactics into the production processes. On the other hand, wealthy farmers are using modern and scientific methods to increase productivity. It was discovered that farmers are enrolling in training centres and academic institutions in order to increase their knowledge and understanding of scientific, contemporary, and creative tactics and practises. The Antyodaya Scheme is the intended method. This strategy resulted in a client-centric design, and the ultimate objective is to shift design and development duties to the company.

Area Development Approach

Under the area development approach, the condition of lagging areas has been emphasised. This method presupposes that the expanding centres have a geographical spread that necessitates the proper development of areas lacking in resources or infrastructure, etc. These included the Drought Prone Area Program (DPAP), the Tribal Area Development Program (TADP), the Command Area Development Program (CADP), and the Hill Area Development Program, among others. The people of the social group is dispersed across the nation. They reside mostly in rocky and mountainous locations. Their existence is reliant on natural environmental circumstances. Therefore, it is crucial to apply measures and establish strategies that are geared toward the development of social group areas. To achieve the desired results, it is vital to allocate resources in an appropriate way; as a result, the development of backward areas would improve the well-being of the people.

Spatial Planning Approach

The spatial planning strategy requires the execution of unique programmes in their respective places, the introduction of assembly plans, employment programmes, and the provision for the fundamental needs of rural populations. In order to achieve these aims, the programmes and procedures must be rurally focused. In the fifth five-year plan, multilevel design was the kind of design that received a disproportionate amount of attention. In addition to multilevel planning, it was essential for individuals to have knowledge of socio-political, technological, and bodily processes. It is self-evident that when additions or changes must be made, emphasis must be placed on the deployment of new and creative methods. When there is a scarcity of materials and resources in a variety of areas, it might impede the achievement of desired goals. On the other hand, the lack of procedures must be analysed and plans must be implemented promptly to promote the welfare and goodwill of the rural people.

Integrative or Holistic Approach

Considering the idea that growth should be an integrated process, an integrated or holistic approach has been created. There is integration of associate degrees into the development of rural areas, regions, infrastructure, education, job possibilities, human resources, training, and skills development

programmes, therefore improving the overall quality of life for rural residents. There are linkages between all programmes, regardless of whether they are infrastructure development, human resource development, two-dimensional figure development, or welfare programmes. Connections between programmes impact the operation of one another. The integrated approach integrates all previous techniques' alternatives and is organised to achieve the aims and objectives of growth, welfare, equality, and community involvement. This paradigm presents an integrated but comprehensive view of significant problems that arise in rural areas, such as poverty, illiteracy, and state. The objectives of this plan are anticipated to be achieved through enhancing the community's capacity to engage in development processes in conjunction with the government. Anti-poverty initiatives, including the IRD programme, National Rural Employment Program, and Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment, were designed to adhere to this requirement.

Participatory Approach

Within the context of incorporating people in the phase of development, numerous novel techniques such as top-down planning, planning from below, bottom-up planning, micro-level planning, and multi-level planning have been implemented during the last two decades. Participatory strategy, as its name indicates, is concerned with the incorporation of persons in the design of strategies and methods. The government has established a participative approach to support the development of rural areas in its eleventh five-year plan. By promoting their involvement in the decision-making processes, provisions have been created to enhance the social and economic prospects for people and groups. Individuals are obliged to undertake an examination of the options and implement the most relevant and advantageous option throughout the decision-making process. When people participate in decision-making processes, they are obliged to use rational and logical thought processes. Individuals in rural areas are aware of the options that might enhance their living situations.

Strategies for Rural Growth

The rural development strategies are based on rural development methods. After the nation attained its independence, enhancements were made to these techniques. These are as described below:

A strategy is the arrangement of numerous policy factors to achieve the intended objectives. In order to fulfil the objectives of rural development, various strategies focus and prioritise distinct combinations of agricultural relations, production methods, and governmental regulations. To highlight some of the pertinent concerns, numerous rural development plans are discussed.

For categorization purposes, the following are distinct sorts of rural development policies that prioritise agricultural relations:

- A strategy based on the collective ownership of resources.
- A strategy based on a vision of controlled capitalism.
- A strategy based on the agricultural viewpoint of peasants.
- A strategy based on the laissez-faire or unrestricted free market capitalism philosophy.

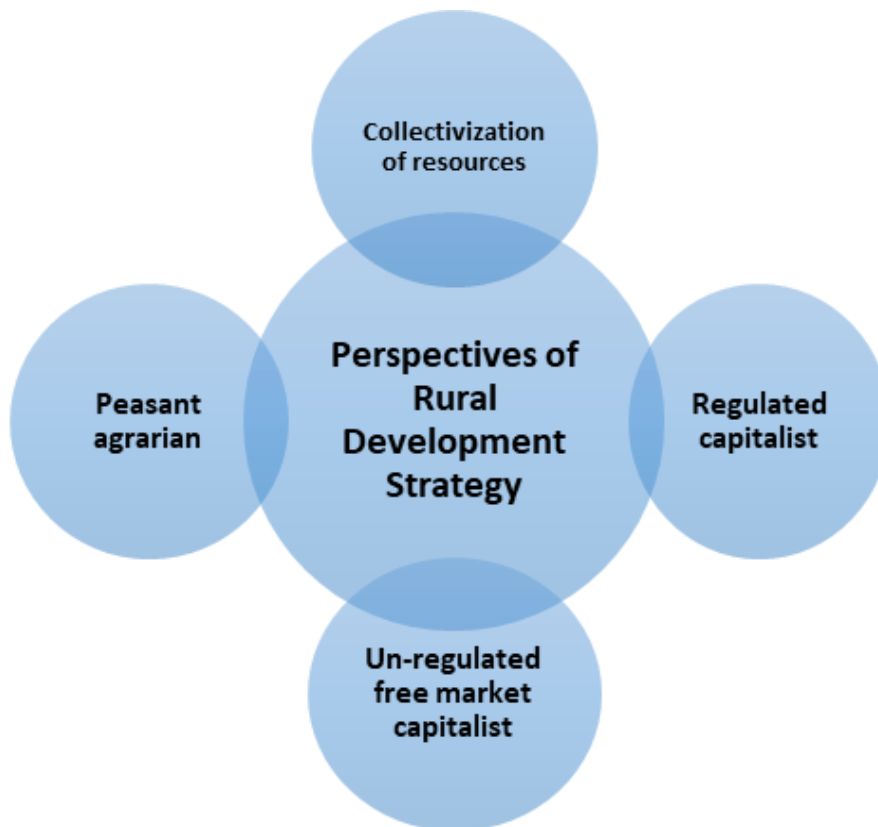


Figure 1.3 : Perspectives of Rural Development Strategy

These strategies are not a complete list. They are only examples.

1. A strategy based on the pooling of resources:

Within the first approach, the collection of rural assets (especially land) is accorded roughly equal weight. Private land ownership is abolished so that not only are inequities in land ownership eradicated, but also land usage is made more productive.

This is accomplished as a consequence of the consolidation of small plots of land, which increases productivity by allowing the use of electronic equipment technology in the shape of tractors, harvesters, etc., in large-scale agriculture. In the USSR, China, and East-European nations, this policy was implemented with a considerable degree of success.

As a result of using this method, these nations were able to quickly achieve a dramatic output growth. However, for a variety of reasons that are too complex to explain here, the former communist governments have collapsed or changed direction radically, and this technique is no longer effective anywhere.

2. Strategy based on Regulated Capitalist Perspective:

This plan involves the coexistence of a capitalist sector and a peasant sector, both of which receive equal official support and protection. Any large-scale land distribution or reorganisation of land relations was ruled out. It is intended that the capitalist sector would take care of the aim of growth, while the peasant sector will deal with matters of state until the non-agricultural sectors begin to expand rapidly.

It has been observed that without substantial land changes, this plan would have little effect, and rural disparities are ignored by this strategy. On the one hand, rural elites exert control and prevent changes

that might alter the uneven distribution of resources (land), while on the other hand, they get a disproportionate share of whatever resources are plugged in from "outside" to improve the lives of the poor. This is seen by the manner in which Indian banking cooperatives have worked.

Thus, it is highlighted that this technique avoids exhausting decisions in order to produce a breakthrough in rural development that would foster rapid rural growth.

3. Strategy based on Peasant Agrarian Perspective:

The policy backed the peasant rural viewpoint, which calls for extensive land distribution and a reorganisation of land relations. It envisions robust assistance for small agricultural units, which are expected to balance the dual aims of expansion and employment.

In this method, a broad network of co-operative businesses, promotional facilities, etc. is given utmost emphasis. The state is expected to play critical roles in supporting and expanding non-agricultural economic activity in rural regions, alleviating the strain of excess labour on agriculture and facilitating the long-term construction of excellent support choices elsewhere in the second and third approaches.

It is anticipated to fulfil a variety of crucial activities. Moreover, it is believed that the state would address the issue of appropriate infrastructure in rural regions, along with expenditures in social sectors like as education, health, etc.

4. Strategy based on Unregulated Capitalist Perspective:

Such a method presupposes that affluent landowner may play a leading role in the rapid expansion of agricultural production by taking advantage of economies of scale, while small cultivation units gradually vanish. The state should not meddle in the development of the capitalist sector, and there should be no limit on ownership.

The unrestricted expansion of this sector is expected to provide a vitality that will permeate the whole rural economy, and its benefits, via employment and rising earnings, are expected to reach the lowest strata.

In this manner, the concerns of diversity and distributive justice are considered as non-issues, and to the degree that the state plays a role, it is with relevant infrastructure, but it is not viewed as the primary player.

Facets of Rural Development

Rural development has the following facets –

- Livelihood and Income Generation
- Infrastructure development
- Human and Social Capital Formation
- Empowerment

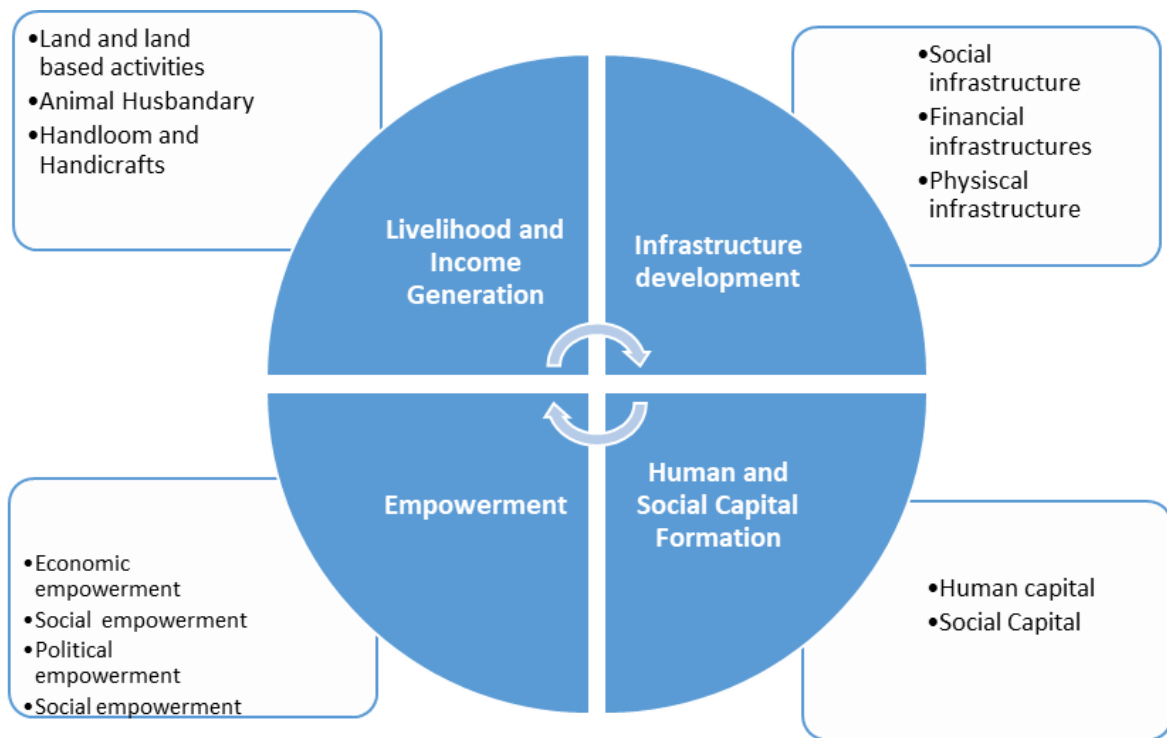


Figure 1.4: Facets of Rural Development

Livelihood and Income Generation:

- I. Land and land-based activities - Agriculture, Horticulture, Sericulture, irrigation, Waste land Development, Watershed development, etc.
- II. Animal Husbandary, including Dairy, Goats, Pigs, Poultry, Sheep Rearing, Ducks, Apiculture, and Aquaculture.
- III. Handloom & Handicrafts, including Spinning, Weaving, Embroidery

Infrastructure Development:

- I. Social infrastructure, such as a primary health centre, primary school, source of potable water, and sanitation facilities
- II. Financial infrastructures, such as rural banks, cooperatives, and the post office.
- III. Physical infrastructure, which includes roads, transportation, communication systems, digital communication

Human and Social capital Formation:

- I. Human capital through means of Primary education, Adult and Non-formal education, Skill Training, Vocational training, Social security, Health, and Nutrition, etc.
- II. Social capital building, including neighbourhood, intra- and inter-group harmony, the establishment of SHGs, clusters, and village organisations, etc.

Empowerment:

- I. Economic empowerment via self- and wage-employment programmes and the promotion of entrepreneurship
- II. Social Empowerment through Diverse Legislation, Act, Rule, and Awareness-Raising
- III. Political Empowerment through Local Self-Government, Gram Sabha, and Planning Process
- IV. cultural empowerment by involvement in various cultural, athletic, etc. activities.

1.2 Introduction to Planning

Planning is an action blueprint. Planning is the process of determining in advance what is to be done, when, where, how, and by whom. Planning connects where we are now to where we aspire to go. It involves selecting goals, rules, processes, and programmes among available choices. A plan is a predefined path of action to accomplish a certain objective. It is a mental process characterised by contemplation before to action.

Some more definitions of Planning

- “Planning is the thinking process, the organized foresight, the vision based on fact and experience that is required for intelligent action.” - Alford and Beatt
- “Planning is deciding in advance what is to be done. When a manager plans, he projects a course of action for further attempting to achieve a consistent co-ordinate structure of operations aimed at the desired results. - Theo Haimann
- “Planning is fundamentally choosing and a planning problem arises when an alternative course of action is discovered.” -Billy E. Goetz
- “Planning is an intellectual process, conscious determination of course of action, the basing of decision on purpose, facts and considered estimates.”-Koontz and O’ Donnell

Characteristics of Planning

● Planning is a Mental Procedure

Planning is the mental act of considering the future in advance. It is a way for determining the future of a sequence of events. Creating is a procedure in which a number of phases are required to determine the long-term path of action.

● Planning Contributes to Achieving the Goals

Planning is crucial for attaining the goals of projects. As a result of having strategies in place from the earliest stages of operation, it is possible to successfully address any issue. Arrange attempts to align everything properly. A deliberate, sound, and efficient technique of writing is aware of how and when to address a tangle. This results in achievement. Thus, objectives are easily attained.

● Planning is an Essential Duty

Planning precedes the other management approach functions. Certainly, establishing objectives to be attained and action characteristics to be observed predates organisation, direction, supervision, and management. Prior to the implementation of other social control functions, this is the precondition. Nonetheless, all functions are interdependent. It is combined with social control duties, but it also takes dominance there. It is dominant everywhere.

- **A Continuous Process**

Planning is a constant process and a never-ending activity based on certain future-speculative assumptions that may or may not come true. Consequently, one must continuously alter, rewrite, and adapt plans in light of changing conditions.

- **Planning Permeates all Actions**

From the fundamentals of design to the overarching principles of design. The character, nature, and scope of designing may vary from designer to designer, yet the design as an activity stays unchanged.

Importance of Planning

Without planning, a development project is like a ship without a rudder. Planning is one of the most essential and significant activities. Due to the following factors, planning becomes essential:

- **Decrease in Uncertainty**

Future planning is essential since the future is constantly full with uncertainty. One may effectively respond if he or she can anticipate the uncertainty. Systematic forecasting may help foresee a portion of the uncertainty.

- **Efficient Use of Resources**

A key benefit of planning is the efficient and effective usage of resources. It detects all accessible resources and maximises their use.

- **Increases Productivity**

Planning ensures the efficiency of organisations and institutions. Effectiveness guarantees that the organisation or institution is in a position to fulfil its goal as a result of enhanced efficiency.

- **Reduces the Performance Cost**

Planning reduces waste and so aids in lowering performance costs. It entails selecting just one path of action among the several courses of action that would provide the greatest outcomes at the lowest cost. It reduces hesitation, prevents crises and confusion, eliminates erroneous actions, and safeguards against incorrect deviations.

- **Goal-Oriented Concentration**

Planning is fundamentally characterised by its relation to goals. All activities are designed with the set goals in mind. Planning supports the accomplishment of goals by directing attention toward them. However, this needs the precise specification of goals so that the most suitable alternative courses of action may be selected.

- **Facilitates Coordination**

Good plans integrate the interdepartmental work and clearly define the development flexibility for the different subplans. Different departments operate in conformity with the general strategies. Thus, planning ensures that duplication of efforts and conflicts of authority are avoided.

- **Facilitates Effective Control**

Planning and control are intertwined in the sense that unplanned activity cannot be managed, as control requires maintaining activities on the set path by correcting deviations from plans. Planning facilitates control by providing performance criteria.

- **Promotes Innovation**

Planning facilitates imaginative and creative thought since it generates several fresh ideas. It also fosters an outlook on the future.

- **Enhances Competitive Power**

Effective planning provides a competitive advantage over those who do not plan or who prepare ineffectively. This is due to the fact that planning may encompass capacity growth, changes in work processes, changes in quality, anticipation of personnel selection and technical advancements, etc.

- **Delegation is Made Easier**

A solid plan always promotes the transfer of power to subordinates in a more effective manner.

Planning-Related Measures

There are several processes involved in the planning process. Planning is an intellectual endeavour and the deliberate selection of action plans. Therefore, it necessitates actions. A planning procedure may differ depending on the organisation, level, activity, etc.

The following are the key processes included in the planning process:



Figure 1.5: Planning Process

Situational Analysis

Situational analysis is the initial stage in any planning endeavours. It evaluates both external and internal aspects necessary for reaching the desired objective at any given moment. During this phase, required information on many areas is gathered using appropriate approaches. After then, each piece of data is

analysed. The information is used to suggest planning goals, objectives, priorities, particular duties, agencies, resource distribution, budgets, and a timetable.

Establishing Objectives

Establishing objectives or aims is the first stage in the planning process. Definable goals state explicitly what is to be done, where to lay the initial attention, and what is to be completed by the network of policies, procedures, budgets, and programmes; their absence would inevitably result in either inaccurate or ineffective planning.

Establishment of Planning Premises

Planning premises are assumptions on the future comprehension of anticipated circumstances. Under these circumstances are planning activities to be carried out. These locations might be internal or exterior. Plans should take both internal and external issues into consideration. At the highest level, mostly exterior premises are evaluated. As one descends, internal conditions take significance.

Determining Alternative Courses

The next logical stage in the planning process is to identify and assess alternative courses of action. One may argue that there is almost never a situation in which there are no options. And it is possible that alternatives that have been adequately evaluated may prove valuable and significant. In reality, it is essential to build alternate courses of action prior to settling on the precise method.

Evaluation of Alternatives

Planners are needed to analyse the alternatives with proper consideration for the many elements involved, after having identified the available options and their strengths and weaknesses. Clearly, alternatives must be evaluated in order to make a choice. Otherwise, it would be impossible to choose the optimal course of action based on requirements, resources, and predetermined goals.

Selecting a Course of Action

Selecting a path of action from available options is the sixth phase of planning. In reality, this is the purpose of decision-making: determining the strategy to be implemented for achieving the goals.

Formulating Derivative Plans

The last phase of any planning process is to develop subsidiary plans to implement and support the primary plan. The master plan must be connected to sectoral plans.

Establishing Sequence of Activities

Following the formulation of basic and derivative plans, the timing and order of operations are set so that the plans may be executed. Timing is a crucial factor in planning. It offers the programmes a solid and practical form. For each item of labour, the beginning and end times are predetermined so that it is clear when the task is to be begun and finished. The failure of programmes due to poor timing. To ensure a symmetrical performance and a continuous flow of work, the operation sequence should be properly organised by giving certain tasks precedence over others. Under sequence, it should be determined who will do what and when.

Feedback or Follow-up Action

The drafting of a plan alone is insufficient unless follow-up action is taken to ensure that the plan is being implemented as intended and that it is not being put in cold storage. In addition, it is necessary to evaluate the plan's effectiveness in the current circumstance. If circumstances have changed and the

present plan has become obsolete or ineffective, it should be updated with a new plan. A frequent follow-up is important and desired after the successful execution and completion of prescribed tasks.



Figure 1.6: Types of Planning

According to duration -

- **Perspective Plan:** Plan for the long term, up to and including 15 or 20 years.
- **Five Year Plan:** a plan developed for the next five years India has used five-year planning since 1950. However, as of 2017, India has adopted an annual action plan.

- **Annual Strategy:** A plan designed for just one year. The Indian fiscal year begins on April 1 and concludes on March 31 each year.

According to level -

- **Macro Plan:** In general, macro plan refers to the highest level plan, i.e. Indian national plan
- **Meso Plan:** Meso refers to intermediate level plans, such as state or district plans.
- **Micro Plan:** A micro plan is a lower-level plan, such as a village or watershed plan.

According to degree of formalisation -

- **Formal Plan:** It refers to thoroughly defined plan written record of what planned to accomplish within certain time period. It is proficient
- **Informal Plan:** Not written, rather informal, unstructured, and poorly conceived plan that is mostly presented orally.

According to approach -

- **Centralised plan:** objective formulation, plan development, and implementation are controlled by one or a small number of high-level officials. It likewise employs a top-down methodology.
- **Decentralized plan:** Objective formulation, plan development, and plan implementation are managed at a lower level. In certain cases, it is also referred to as a participatory plan since it permits more engagement. It adopts a bottom-up methodology.

According to importance of content –

- **Strategic Plan:** The focus of a strategic plan is on future orientation. It constricted future path of action for 3-5 years, designed by top level and limited influence over result.
- **Operational Plan:** The operational plan is ideally a day-by-day action plan for strategic plan execution. This strategy is intended with a short period (less than one year) for achieving internal performance that is more precise and under greater control.

According to activity coverage -

- **Physical Plan:** This section of any plan evaluates material needs and allocates resources appropriately.
- **Financial Strategy:** This section of every plan evaluates its financial requirements. It also maps possible sources of cash to reduce physical planning.

According to purpose -

- **Sectoral Plan:** This plan is developed by concentrating on a single sector or unit.
- **Integrated Strategy:** This is an all-encompassing plan that takes into account all allied sectors or units.

1.3 Introduction to Rural Planning

Inequality and the prevalence of poverty and unemployment are the greatest obstacles to rural development. Regional disparities in agroclimatic conditions, infrastructure, and region-specific issues are also a worry for global growth. These issues are amenable to systematic and scientific planning. In India, rural planning is of paramount significance. As part of India's Planning goals, rural planning must include development and social justice. India's social and economic development hinges on growth with distribution in the rural sector.

Objectives of Rural Planning

The following may be seen as objectives of rural planning:

- To increase the rural population's level of life.

- To improve rural areas holistically with regard to culture, society, economics, technology, and health.
- To provide particular care for rural children, youth and women.
- To develop and empower human resource, particularly rural youth, in terms of their psychology, skill, knowledge, attitude, and other skills.
- To develop and maintain rural infrastructure in terms of make sheds and irrigation.
- To provide the rural population with the bare minimum in terms of potable water, education, transportation, power, and communication.
- To fortify rural institutions, like as Panchayat, cooperatives, postal, banking, and credit.
- To offer financial assistance for the economic development of rural craftsmen, farmers, and agricultural unskilled labour, as well as small and medium-sized rural enterprises.
- To create rural industries through fostering the growth of handicrafts, small-scaled industries, village industries, rural crafts, and cottage industries, in addition to other rural economic activities.
- To cultivate agriculture, animal husbandry, and other agriculturally-related fields.
- To rehabilitate uncultivated land, supply irrigation, and encourage farmers to use better seed, fertilisers, crop growing practises, and soil conservation techniques.
- To provide entertainment, recreational, and athletic facilities for the rural population
- To enhance the leadership capabilities of rural areas.
- To narrow the divide between urban and rural areas.
- To provide a structure for inter-agency collaboration and the convergence of funds and functions.

Approaches of Rural Planning

India is home to a variety of development methodologies, which are also taken into account in its rural planning. Depending on local conditions, planning strategies may vary from location to location, but the goals stay constant. As the notion of distribution (social fairness) became acknowledged as an essential goal.

Based on the evolution of the approach, the approaches for rural development planning may be categorised into three groups: The Growth Centre Method, the Area Development Method, and the Integrated Development Method (Sreedhar and Rajasekhar, 2014)

Growth Centre Approach

This strategy is predicated on the premise that growth in rural regions may be stimulated by the attractive movement of resources into these places for the creation of infrastructure amenities. In this sense, the limitations occur for two primary reasons. There are firstly budgetary restrictions. Second, investment economic efficiency must be assured. This implies that facilities should be situated in suitable locations. Some settlements have a population that is insufficient for appropriate and complete investment use. The placement of facilities must consider the minimal threshold population.

The goal of a rural growth hub is to identify excellent areas for investment, as well as to serve as a focal point for stimulating development in the region in question. Location Theories and the Central Place Theory supplied the primary basis for this method. The significance of geographical elements in development is emphasised by location theories. Thus, the development of economic and infrastructure amenities in certain locales might stimulate growth in the surrounding regions. The central location theories concentrate on growth hubs, which stimulate development in surrounding regions. However, the notion disregards the growth-inducing potential of local economic factors. Under rural Indian circumstances, it may be more impractical to place an emphasis on dynamic local dynamics. The second issue is that growth centres do not account for the future tendencies of repolarisation of socioeconomic activity occurring in a region.

Area Development Approach

This strategy is an expansion of the growth centre strategy and takes into consideration local conditions for economic development. Consequently, the integrated development of a region relies not only on the construction of a sufficient infrastructure network, but also on the manner in which local economic variables are engaged around the production infrastructure. In other words, geographical and functional integration are required for a region's integrated growth. Thus, although rural growth hubs offer appropriate sites for the supply of infrastructure amenities, their hinterlands are considered fundamental planning units for integrated multi-sectoral planning in order to accomplish integrated development of a region. Therefore, this strategy was able to provide a broader framework for rural development. Taking poverty in the region into account, the strategy establishes a balance between diverse economic activity and geographical patterns of development. However, it does not guarantee that rural economic progress is shared by all classes and communities. The spread effect of development may not necessarily affect the entire society in the same way or with greater equality, especially in rural India, for two reasons:

- Agriculture and its linked activities cannot completely absorb the labour available in villages in places where modern agricultural technology has not advanced; and
- A significant percentage of rural people have little or no access to resources, notably land.

Integrated Rural Development Approach

A new strategy of rural development, the integrated rural development approach, has been developed due to the failure of the area development approach to address inequalities in the distribution of employment, incomes, and assets, as discussed previously. It has been determined that a purely geographical focus, as is the case with the area development method, is insufficient to solve the challenges. Identifying target groups is necessary for a more direct approach to alleviating the challenges experienced by certain segments of the population with recognisable problems.

Process of Rural Planning

In every planning procedure, a set of goals must be accomplished within a certain time range. In India, it is standard practice to develop Five Year Plans, within which are Annual Plans.

Perspective Planning

This longer-term planning technique is referred to as perspective planning. In the context of prospective planning, longer-term objectives, say 10 to 15 years, are also established. The Minimum Needs Programme (MNP) and the decrease of poverty in our country are two excellent examples of this in the Indian context.

In terms of the former, various sectors such as elementary education, rural health, rural water supply, rural roads, rural electrification, housing for landless labour, environmental improvement of urban slums, nutrition, and so on were given timeframes up to 1990, 1995, and in some cases up to 2000 A.D. in the Sixth Five Year Plan to achieve their respective goals. As a result, these sectors had a long-term perspective for the next 10, 15, or 20 years.

In 1980, the Sixth Five-Year Plan established the goal of reducing the proportion of the population living below the poverty level from around 50 percent to 10 percent by 1995. The Seventh Plan was devised with a 15-year horizon, and for particular sectors, a 15-year perspective plan was developed and specific goals and physical targets were outlined. Perspective planning places the present plan in the context of a long-term scenario and provides a general outline of the future route.

Five Year Plans

In India, however, the Five-Year Plan is the primary planning instrument. The process started in 1951, and after three plans, there were three Annual Plans between 1966 and 1969. This period is commonly referred to as "Plan Holiday."

Planning is initiated by the Planning Commission and the state government well before the start of a five-year plan period. The first activities started with a critical analysis of the status of the economy, its challenges, and the unresolved developmental issues (social and economic). Through a series of internal meetings, the Planning Commission discusses the method, strategy, and major concerns (growth rates, resource mobilisation, consideration of social justice, etc.). The Planning Commission also solicits the opinions of famous economists and public personalities and has meetings with business and trade leaders, labour unions, and social service organisations.

Under the leadership of the Prime Minister, the Planning Commission meets at the highest level of policymaking. This body approves the Plan's Approach Paper. The paper is primarily an explanation of the aims and strategy to be implemented throughout the plan period. The Approach Paper is then given for discussion to the National Development Council (NDC).

The Central Ministries start their planning efforts based on the Planning Commission's directives. The Central Ministries establish Steering Groups/Working Groups. The Planning Commission forms Steering Groups/Task Forces to address inter-sectoral issues of vital importance. There is a strong relationship between the Ministries and the Planning Commission's Subject Division. The relevant Ministry prepares draft plan recommendations based on the findings of these committees. These are then sent to the Planning Commission, where a second round of negotiations between the relevant Ministry and the Planning Commission gives the sectoral plan form. These are then pooled, examined, changed, and included into the Central plan's general framework.

The State Planning Department simultaneously starts preparing State plan suggestions. On the basis of the guidelines given by the Planning Commission and the Central Ministries, it begins action. In the first instance, the overall strategy and approach to the State plan are addressed, and exercises for evaluating the plan, analysing the resources situation and the degree to which more resources may be mobilised, and determining the priority areas are initiated. The Departments are tasked with preparing sectoral recommendations, which are then examined, amended, and included into the broader State plan framework, considering the State's priorities and resource situation. The draft plan is subsequently sent to the Planning Commission, where a debate takes place for each sector between the State administration, the relevant Central Ministry, and the relevant Planning Commission subject division. Both the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission and the State Chief Minister participate in the finalisation of the State Plans.

Consider the following example from the topic of rural development. In the case of the Department of Rural Development's Seventh Plan, seven working groups were created, each chaired by the Secretary of the Department. They were for self-employment, wage employment, land reforms, training and non-profit organisation involvement, technology, rural development management and administration, area development programmes, and village amenity projects. Each of these working groups has now split into smaller subgroups. These groups/subgroups of officials, non-officials, and experts examined the existing situation, evaluated the current strategy and performance, and then recommended a plan for the Seventh Plan with a longer time frame in mind. Schemes (both current and prospective) and expenditures were identified.

After the Planning Commission had concluded its work with the Central Ministries and State Governments, the Central and State plans were merged, and expenditures and programmes for different sectors were outlined. The Union Cabinet and the N.D.C. are also consulted.

Annual Plans

The Annual Plans are created both by the Central Ministries and the State Governments for the sector concerned within the scope of the appropriate Five Year Plan, which has been approved. These workouts begin generally around September/October of the prior year. Since the general framework of a Five Year Plan is accessible in terms of programmes, budgetary outlays, objectives, etc., this activity is not as detailed as the one for constructing Five Year Plans.

Central Ministries and Departments compile and submit their Annual Plan submissions to the Planning Commission. For finalisation, they are then considered at the level of Secretary, Planning Commission, and Secretary of the Department/Ministry, with the participation of officials from the related Ministries and Planning Commission. Since they must include the Annual Plans of each Ministry into the annual budget of the Central Government, which is often submitted to Parliament on the 28th of February, the Ministry of Finance is intimately engaged in these talks.

In a similar manner, the preparation of the State Annual Plan precedes the formulation of the Annual Budget. In order to do this, the Planning Department organises a series of meetings with the various administrative departments of the State Secretariat and the heads of impacted departments. While doing so, the Planning Department considers the requirements of spill over expenditure on continuing schemes, funds required to meet commitments already made by the government, funds required to maintain the pace of development, as well as new programmes that could be undertaken the following year, contingent on the availability of funds.

Considering the funding needs, estimates of expected resources that may be mobilised, and inter-sectoral priorities, a provisional Annual Plan ceiling with its sectoral physical and financial breakdown is drafted and presented to the Council of Ministers for approval. The sectoral budget allocations are then communicated to the relevant departments, who conduct the plan exercise and submit the sectoral plan and scheme-specific suggestions for the Planning Commission's annual plan document production. The State Planning Department then evaluates these recommendations and incorporates them into the overarching State plan framework. The Planning Commission is provided with a consolidated draft of the paper. In the Working Groups formed by the Planning Commission, officials of the State Government consider the suggestions. In a meeting between the Chief Minister, the Minister in responsibility of Planning for the state, and the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission, the recommendations of the Working Groups are examined and finalised. This Annual Plan is then included into the State Government's annual budget, which is typically submitted to the State Legislature in February or March.

In the case of Annual Plans, the approval procedure by the whole Planning Commission, Union Cabinet, or NDC does not occur since the Annual Plan is produced within the context of a Five-Year Plan, which has already been approved.

Participatory Planning

Participatory planning is a collection of mechanisms that brings together various groups and interests to create an agreement on a plan and its execution. Participant planning may be launched by any party, and its forms and timelines are likely to be discussed and agreed upon by the participants. The approach is founded on the premise that society is pluralistic and that genuine conflicts of interest must be resolved via consensus-building techniques. Participatory planning is culturally aware and sensitive to power

disparities, and attempts to guarantee that these factors do not dictate results in advance. The parties must communicate information in order to identify areas of common ground and compromise, as well as measures to reduce the size and severity of their differences. No party should suffer total loss.

Participatory planning, as described above, is the systematic endeavour to envision and prepare for a community's desired future, while including and leveraging the special capabilities and contributions of community citizens, leaders, and other stakeholders.

Participatory planning is a participatory process that aims to define, propose, and implement a management plan for matters of shared interest. Here, fisheries management plans serve as an example of participatory planning. A management plan is emphasised as a strategy that facilitates the integration of the knowledge of stakeholders, scientists, and policymakers, hence fostering participatory research and action. Participatory planning is often a chance to modify local/regional management guidelines to the demands of stakeholders. In order to contribute to the construction of a bottom-up strategy as opposed to the traditional top-down method, one may also combine information based on experience and study. Participation may be described as "the process of decision making and issue solving that involves people and organisations that represent varied interests, skills, and points of view and who act for the benefit of all those impacted by the choices they make and the actions that follow" (Fisher, 2001a,b).

Participation is thus essential to participatory planning. In certain instances, it is the determining factor for the desire of stakeholders and scientists to participate in participatory activities. When there is an open and active discussion between relevant stakeholders, scientists, and policymakers, knowledge development, mobilisation, and integration are stimulated. To be successful, participatory planning activities must assure the process's legitimacy, relevance, credibility, and transparency. In terms of problem-solving, it is also essential to consider the demands of all players participating in the process, including policymakers.

Sectoral Plans

On the basis of comprehensive plans, sectoral ministries or relevant entities at all levels produce sectoral plans. The horizons of sectoral planning are aligned with the horizons of relevant comprehensive plans, together with the programmes and projections of socioeconomic planning. The formulation of sectoral plans is not statutorily mandated, but they are essential for defining state funding and coordinating them with local financial capabilities. Sectoral plans and projects concentrate on the planning of population distribution, the development of building areas, industrial and social infrastructure, and the allocation of communications and objects on the relevant territory etc.

Sectoral planning is the sectoral subdiscipline within the broader planning environment. The sectoral plan is an essential control tool aimed to plan particular uses as ideally as feasible given the existing framework circumstances. The duties of sectoral planning extend from preceding technical planning to obligatory requirements for subsequent planning processes.

Economic sectors, such as the Primary, Secondary, Tertiary, and Quaternary Economic sectors, play a significant role in sectoral planning. It focuses on linear planning and specific infrastructure amenities in many economic and social areas.

It encourages economic growth in key economic sectors. This will involve the promotion of rural economic development (Agricultural sector) and the establishment of industrial policy frameworks for sectors in support of a variety of Industrial Policies.

Local versus Supra-local Sectoral Planning

It focuses on linear, cross-community infrastructures at state levels (e.g., highways, railways, tramways, magnetic levitation railways, airports, mining, waterways, protection areas, tipping sites, and waste incineration plants) and local level (e.g., roads), where local authorities are responsible for sectoral planning.

Sectoral Planning advocates strategies for a handful of essential sectors selected for their potential to absorb labour, technical contribution to the economy, or ability to generate foreign currency.

The objective of sectoral planning is to address both sluggish economic performance and large-scale employment losses (distressed sectors) as well as the regeneration of economic activity in specific regions and locations.

Characteristics

- i. Sectoral Planning focuses on the planning and growth of a certain economic sector.
- ii. This technique is quite systematic.
- iii. sectoral planning aids in the growth of a particular economic sector; nevertheless, this planning does not allow for the overall development of an area.
- iv. It is more subjective.
- v. Sectoral Planning is quite beneficial in developed countries.

1.4 Introduction to Decentralized Planning

A basic definition of decentralisation would be movement away from the centre or de-concentration. On the other hand, centralization entails that planning, decision-making, and execution authority are concentrated at the highest levels of authority. In other words, centralization is the concentration of authority at the apex. In the context of development, which is the subject of this paper, decentralisation refers to the transfer of certain authority and power regarding the formulation and implementation of development plans from the highest organisation or institution at the national or state level to organisations or institutions at the sub-state level.

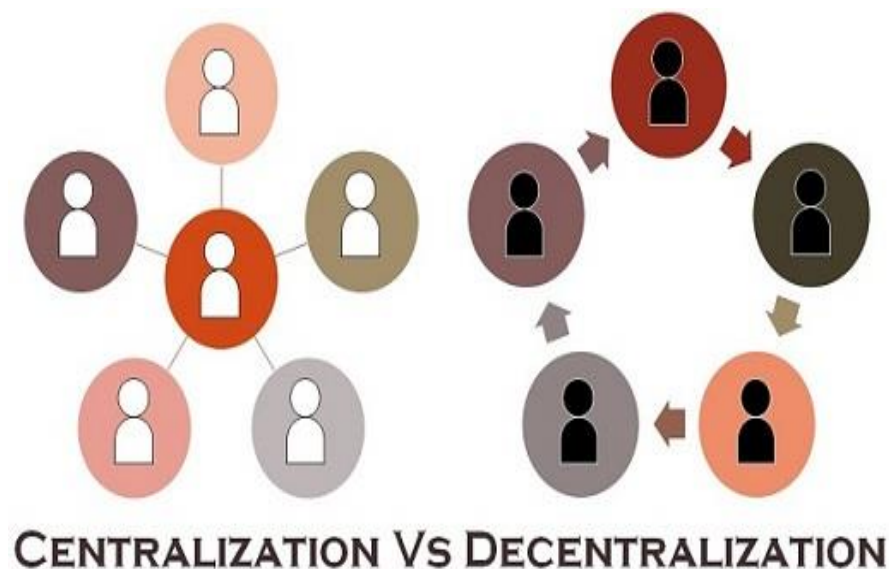


Figure 1.7: Centralization Vs Decentralization

Table 1.1 Centralisation Vs Decentralisation		
Basis for Comparison	Centralization	Decentralization
Meaning	Centralization refers to the retaining of control and authority over planning and decisions by the top management.	The dissemination of authority, responsibility and accountability to the various management levels, is known as Decentralization.
Involves	Systematic and consistent reservation of authority.	Systematic dispersal of authority.
Communication Flow	Vertical	Open and Free
Decision Making	Slow	Comparatively faster
Advantage	Proper coordination and Leadership	Sharing of burden and responsibility
Power of decision making	Lies with the top management.	Multiple persons have the power of decision making.
Implemented when	Inadequate control over the organization	Considerable control over the organization
Best suited for	Small sized organization	Large sized organization

Aspects of Decentralization

Decentralization has four primary dimensions: (i) functional, (ii) financial, (iii) administrative, and (iv) political. To better comprehend the ramifications of decentralised planning, we need to have a deeper understanding of these elements.

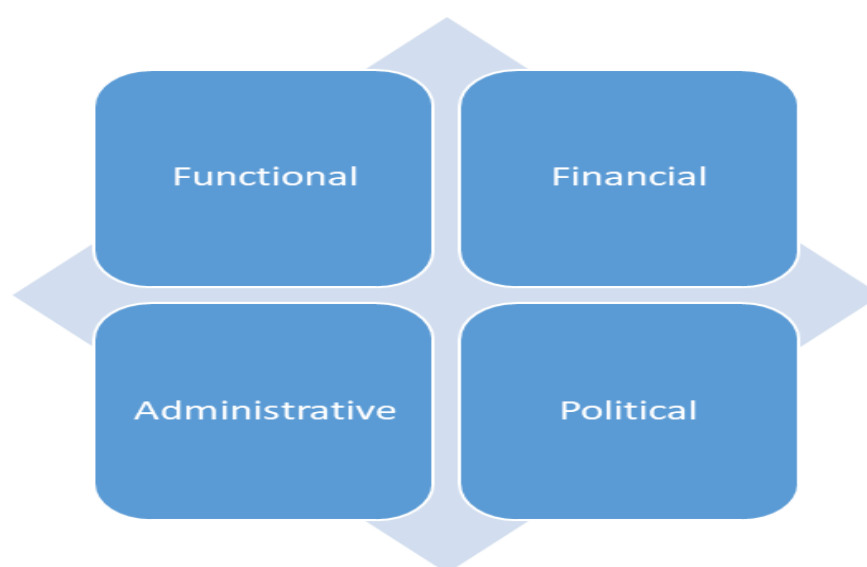


Figure 1.8: Aspects of Decentralization

Modular Decentralization

When some functions are to be moved from the national or state level to the sub-state level, care must be taken in their selection. A random transfer of functions will result in inefficient and undesired performance of those functions at lower levels. Such apprehension comes as a result of the potential inadequacy of the competences available at the lower level to fulfil these responsibilities. Similarly, some authorities will need to be delegated to the lower level in order for these responsibilities to be carried out. If these powers are not assigned with the functions, there will be a mismatch, and the functions will be unable to be carried out.

This is significant because the same functional activity may be split across state and sub-state government levels. Consider the case of education. There are several sorts of education, including elementary, secondary, university, vocational, technical, and adult education. There may be a variety of roles for each sort of education, including day-to-day management, the site of a new school, curriculum creation, and teacher training. Therefore, it is vital to specify precisely which of these services and duties are delegated to a certain subnational level.

Financial Decentralization

Without the required financial power and resources, planning at any level is pointless. Similar to other nations, the majority of financial resources in our country are mobilised and distributed by the central government. The distribution of resources is determined by the constitution. These allocations are determined by the Finance Commission, a legislative body that is appointed every five years. Recently, a State Finance Commission has been mandated for the transfer of state financial resources to local governments.

The distribution of development money from the Center to the subnational levels is based on several factors. The following are some socioeconomic considerations: (i) area; (ii) population size; (iii) degree of relative backwardness; (iv) tax effort measurement; (v) unique geographical or sociological traits; and (vi) commitment to key national initiatives. These parameters are considered in order to provide substantially greater funds to comparably less developed nations. This approach serves two purposes: (a) from the perspective of fair play, the backward states should be provided more to help them advance; and (b) from the perspective of efficiency, if they are made economically strong by such assistance, their future dependency on the centre will reduce.

Administrative Decentralization

Decentralization of administrative functions is also known as deconcentration. It entails the transfer of duties and some authorities from government agencies and departments to their field offices. The "command" nonetheless stays at the top. Administrative decentralisation entails a number of administrative actions, including:

- (a) Establishing offices at regional and local levels to move closer to the people;
- (b) Designating the decentralised functions for each level;
- (c) Making necessary delegation of powers;
- (d) Assigning adequate finances;
- (e) Posting suitably qualified individuals via deputation or fresh recruitment;
- (f) Putting in place operational practises and developing operational guidelines for the department;
- (g) Giving technical directions to field officers and formulating a time-bound programme of actions to fit within the framework of the national planning process.

This administrative decentralisation will serve as a foundation for democratic decentralisation. The authorities will not only gain the skills required to carry out the plan, but they will also develop a

favourable attitude toward decentralisation and citizen engagement. They are used to carrying out ideas formulated at the top and delegated to lower levels. In the new environment, they will have to learn to collaborate with people's representatives, who will have a greater role in policy and plan formation.

Political or Democratic Decentralization

In its ideal form, decentralisation becomes synonymous with democratic decentralisation. Now everyone participates in the planning process. It is referred to as "partial decentralisation" when only elected representatives of the people participate in the process. Total decentralisation is when all segments of the people are enabled to participate in the local affairs of the community. Political decentralisation has three key components: local autonomy, devolution, and political participation.

Local Autonomy

The concept of local autonomy is founded on the notion that the local community better understands its own interests and how to attain them. They should be able to make judgements and begin action with little oversight from superiors. Self-reliance and assertiveness are essential for the local community to achieve such success.

Local autonomy will mostly be achievable via devolution. Devolution simply refers to the transfer of government authority, services, and resources to local governments. Local governments will be granted the authority to make choices while also accepting responsibility for such decisions. They cannot delegate responsibility for escape to the government. Devolution must be complemented by the deconcentration stated above.

Public Participation

The aim of democratic decentralisation is realised when the people participate in the government process. This is made feasible by the presence of local self-government. Through the operation of these elected organisations, citizens learn to strengthen democratic institutions and participate in the government process. They are more aware of the significance of freedom and democracy.

In India, democratic decentralisation is synonymous with the term "Panchayati Raj." Even though Panchayati Raj was founded shortly after independence, the Constitution did not adequately allow for it. The state governments manipulated this vital institution of the people according to their whims and self-interest. Occasionally, elections to these organisations were not conducted for extended periods of time, and they had very little influence. This void in the Constitution has been filled by the 73rd and 74th Amendments. Now, the Constitution envisions the development of Panchayati Raj institutions as local self-government entities in various states.

Decentralized Planning

Decentralized Planning may thus be characterised as a sort of planning in which local organisations and institutions independently create, adopt, implement, and oversee the plan.

Decentralized planning is described as a kind of planning in which the formulation, adoption, execution, and supervision of the plan are distributed, as opposed to being delegated to a central authority. In decentralised planning, regional and local organisations have increased autonomy over plan formulation, adoption, and implementation.

Plans and programmes are better suited to local situations due to decentralisation of planning. During the first stages of development in a number of emerging nations, a relatively centralised approach to planning was taken in imitation of socialist nations. In most circumstances, a combination of planning

exercises via the devolution of such activities at various levels is essential. Planning in India is somewhat decentralised since the States have distinct roles. In reality, much thought has been put to making district planning a successful organisation. The majority of pundits have argued that we must strive further toward decentralised planning.

Decentralized Planning is a method in which planning is conducted at various administrative and executive levels on a smaller scale. As you are aware, the purpose is to build a stronger connection between the developmental needs and priorities of local communities and diverse socioeconomic groups, in accordance with subnational and national development strategies and objectives. It is important to remember that decentralised planning is a two-way process that starts both at the national level and at the local level (Local). The processes converge at a point when centralised planning becomes useless and microplanning becomes meaningless.

Need for Decentralized Planning

The planning process in India demonstrates that it is mostly top-down. The plan materials are drafted and completed at the national and state levels, whilst implementation is carried out at the district level and lower through a network of government ministries, PRIs, NGOs, Commercial Banks, and Cooperatives.

The need for decentralised planning justifies planning at several levels. Decentralization of the planning process makes planning more significant, dynamic, and sensitive to the needs of individuals for whom planning is intended. Decentralized planning is also justifiable due to the necessity for flexibility at the local level in order to fulfil the individual demands of varied groups and segments of the population. Decentralized planning is supported primarily to allow the active involvement of the people in the process of sustainable development.

Local governments and businesses have more autonomy under decentralised planning. In a sense, decentralised planning is planning from the bottom up. It also facilitates micro-level planning.

Merits and Demerits of Decentralized Planning

1. Under centralised planning, centralised decision-making and guidance from a single level are conceivable. Nonetheless, centralised planning is less successful due to the high cost of gathering information, the waste of time, the difficulty of applying principles consistently to all circumstances, and the challenges of conveying choices for execution, among other factors. In other words, from a strictly cost-effective perspective, it is preferable to delegate decision-making authority to a variety of semi-hierarchical agency levels. In addition, socio-political pressures may necessitate the distribution of decision-making authority across many levels for the same region. Similarly, the same agency or distinct agencies might make judgements at different levels.
2. Compared to centralised planning, decentralised planning allows regional governments and small businesses more independence.
3. In a sense, decentralised planning reflects planning from below and distributes political and economic control to lower and horizontal levels. Thus, it encourages public engagement and acknowledges the importance of local and sub-regional variables, as well as the requirements of a heterogeneous society.

4. Centralized planning is impacted by bureaucratic functioning and the expansion of red tape, resulting in a decline in management efficiency. Decentralized planning helps significantly in resolving this issue.
5. The concentration of power may emerge from centralised planning. Additionally, such a structure may negatively impact individual initiative and entrepreneurship. Decentralized planning assists in mitigating these risks.
6. In centralised planning, the formulators are often unaware of the reality on the ground, and conventional programmes and plans are frequently developed, which may not be suited in many locations. The plans in decentralised planning are more feasible.
7. Planning that is decentralised has its own disadvantages - Decentralized planning may not always represent national goals, as is the case with centralised planning. Consequently, it cannot enhance nationalist forces or combat dividing forces. In decentralised planning, administrative and political systems at the lower levels may impede change and progress. This may be accomplished through appropriating the advantages of growth or by surreptitiously or openly resisting changes that strengthen other groups. - The disadvantaged may be too feeble to assert their rights. Planning capacities at lower levels are often constrained on a technical level. However, a combination of centralised and decentralised planning seems optimal. For example, sectors of national and international significance, such as core sector industries, communication, etc., may need centralised planning, but agriculture, rural development, and water supply, etc., may benefit from decentralised planning. In general, decentralised planning is required for regions that are geographically separated, resource-diverse, and plagued by locally-specific issues. This definition fits rural development, which requires a decentralised system of planning.

1.5. Rural Development Five Years Plan

Late in 1920, Joseph Stalin implemented the first Five Year Plan in the Soviet Union. India implements its first five-year plan in 1951, soon after independence and under the influence of socialist first Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru. In five-year phases, the planning commission develops plans to create India's economy on a socialist model. From 1947 until 2017, India's economy was based on five-year plans, or the notion of planning. From 2017, the Planning Commission was replaced by the NITI Aayog (an acronym for National Institution for Transforming India).

The First Five Year Plan (1951-1956)

The primary purpose of planning in India was to launch a process of development that would enhance living standards and provide people with new chances for a fuller, more diverse existence. The difficulty of development for an underdeveloped economy such as India was to use the community's potential resources more efficiently, and this required economic planning. However, a country's economic condition at any given time is a product of the broader social environment, and economic planning must be seen as an integral part of a broader process that aims not only to develop resources in a narrow technical sense but also to develop human faculties and build an institutional framework that meets the people's needs and aspirations. (Document on the First Five-Year Plan).

At the start of the first five-year plan, the nation was faced with an influx of migrants, a serious food scarcity, and rising inflation. The emphasis of the Plan was on agriculture, price stability, energy, and transportation. It was a successful strategy due mostly to strong harvests in the latter two years of the plan's implementation. The objectives of refugee rehabilitation, food self-sufficiency, and price control were mostly attained.

Though the First Five Year Plan was mostly a straightforward exercise in assembling plans, objectives, and expenditures, it marked the beginning of rural development with the inauguration of the Community Development Programme (CDP) and National Extension Services (NES).

The Second Five-Year Plan (1956-1961)

Simple aggregative Harrod-Domar Growth Model was used again for global predictions, and Prof. P. C. Mahalanobis' two- and four-sector models were employed to determine the allocation of resources to broad sectors such as agriculture and industry. (Plan also known as the Mahalanobis Plan) The second plan was created in an economic climate of stability. Agriculture was deemed deserving of a lesser priority. The Plan emphasised fast industrialisation in heavy and primary sectors. Advocated massive imports financed by foreign debt.

The objective of the Industrial Policy of 1956 was the construction of a socialist pattern of society. At that time, this plan represented the most self-aware effort at planning in any newly independent third-world nation.

The Second Plan emphasised on industry heavily. The aim was to reduce India's rural over population. The policy aimed to expand employment in heavy industry and the capital goods sector in order to alleviate pressure on the agriculture sector.

It was essentially an industrialization strategy that aimed to succeed by creating strong forward and backward industry links. During this time period, the performance of India's capital goods industry increased significantly due to this concentration. It also paved the way for a robust and self-sufficient industrial foundation in India. Although the Second Plan is usually known as a "industrial plan," Indian planners also formulated various path-finding strategies during this time period.

For instance, the plan paper featured a chapter headed "Land Reforms and Agrarian Reconstruction" that was quite clear. In Indian agriculture, cooperative agricultural techniques were emphasised and hoped for. In addition, the concept envisioned a massive network of Community Development Programmes, national extension agencies, and a publicly funded irrigation network. The Balwantrai Mehta Committee also promoted democratic decentralisation for giving development duties to Panchayati Raj Institutions.

Thus, while it would be inaccurate and unfair to say that the second plan lacked an agricultural strategy, planners were grossly overoptimistic about what traditional Indian agriculture, with its conventional input-output basis and deed-based social stratification, could achieve within political constraints.

The Third Five-Year Plan (1961–1966)

At the time of its inception, it was believed that the Indian economy had reached "take-off-stage." Consequently, its objective was to make India a "self-sufficient" and "self-generating" economy. Agriculture was given top priority to promote exports and industry based on the experiences of the previous two plans (during which agricultural output was seen as a constraint on India's economic progress). Due to unanticipated developments - Chinese invasion in 1962, the Indo-Pak war in 1965, and a severe drought in 1965-66 - the plan was a resounding failure in achieving its objectives. In the latter period, due to wars, the focus moved from development to defence and development.

Among the goals specified in the Third Plan, it was widely acknowledged that agriculture held the top position. Thus, at least in its initial conception, the Third Plan was distinct from the Second Plan. It is widely acknowledged that the Second Plan de-emphasized agriculture in general. The Third Plan sought

to rectify this situation. Consequently, Three Annual Plans (1966-69), referred to as Plan Holiday, came into existence.

The Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-1974)

The refusal of the allies to deliver crucial equipment and raw materials during the Indo-Pak conflict led in the Fourth Plan's dual goals of "growth with stability" and "progressive achievement of self-reliance."

The influx of Bangladeshi migrants before and during the Indo-Pak war of 1971 was a significant concern, as was the escalation of the price situation to crisis proportions.

For the development of other industries, the focus was placed primarily on the agricultural growth rate. The plan's first two years witnessed record output. Due to inadequate rainfall, the previous three years have been subpar. Implementation of Family Planning Programmes was one of the Plan's primary objectives.

During the Fourth Plan, the planning and agricultural transformation strategy, sometimes known as the "Green Revolution" in agriculture, were adopted. Even as the "Green Revolution" in agriculture was directed, it became apparent that "distributive fairness" remained a faraway fantasy.

Thus, the famous slogan "Garibi Hatao" and the focus on alleviating poverty as a unique planning purpose emerged.

The Fifth Five-Year Plan (1974–1979)

D.P. Dhar drafted and presented the final draft of the fifth plan against the background of an economic crisis caused by runaway inflation driven by an increase in oil prices and the inability of the government to take over the wholesale trade in wheat. It sought to accomplish two primary goals: "removal of poverty" (Garibi Hatao) and "attainment of self-sufficiency."

Key tools were identified as the promotion of a high rate of growth, a more equitable distribution of income, and a considerable increase in the domestic rate of savings.

The Fifth Plan was created in response to intense inflationary pressures. The primary goals of the strategy were achieving self-sufficiency and adopting steps to increase the consumption level of those living below the poverty line.

This strategy also prioritised bringing inflation under control and stabilising the nation's ailing economy. The 1970s were notable due to the Minimum Needs Schemes, the International Rural Development Programme, the Rural Employment Programmes, and several area development programmes.

The Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-1985)

The plan centred on increasing national income, modernising technology, ensuring a continuous reduction in poverty and unemployment through schemes for transferring skills (under TRYSEM) and rural credit (under IRDP) and providing slack season employment (under NREP), controlling population explosion, etc. The sixth Plan might be considered a success since the majority of its objectives were met, despite the fact that during the final year (1984-85), many sections of the nation experienced severe famine and agricultural production was lower than the previous record.

It recommitted to eradicating poverty as its principal objective. Consequently, the anti-poverty programmes NREP, RLEGP, TRYSEM, DWCRA, and IRDP were emphasised heavily. Building agricultural

and industrial infrastructure simultaneously was chosen. Addressing connected issues via a systematic approach with increased management, efficiency, and thorough monitoring in all sectors, as well as public engagement in local development plans and their rapid and successful execution, was emphasised.

The Seventh Five-Year Plan (1985-1990)

This plan aimed to increase food grain production, job possibilities, and productivity, with an emphasis on "food, work and productivity." The strategy was a great success, as the economy grew by 6% instead of the anticipated 5% as the 1980s came to a close. The reduction of poverty remained a primary focus of the Seventh Plan. Priority areas have been identified as the expansion of employment opportunities, the development of human resources and infrastructure, the elimination of inequalities, the expansion of the food security system, the improvement of agricultural and industrial productivity, and the improvement of agricultural and rural development administration.

Special programmes, such as the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana, were created in addition to the current programmes to decrease unemployment and, therefore, the prevalence of poverty. The significance that small-scale and food processing enterprises may play in this respect was acknowledged.

The eighth five-year plan (1992-1997) was delayed by two years due to political unpredictability at the central government. The plan called for the implementation of fiscal and economic changes, including liberalisation, in order to overcome the poor economic condition and achieve an average annual growth rate of 5.6% via fiscal and economic liberalisation.

Among the most notable characteristics of economic success throughout the eighth five-year plan were:

1. accelerated economic growth
2. accelerated expansion of the industrial and agricultural and allied industries

Large growth rates in exports and imports, improvement in the trade and current account deficit, and a significant decrease in the fiscal deficit of the central government.

The 73rd Constitutional Amendment Bill was signed into law after receiving the approval of the president of India. This Amendment offers a one-third reservation for women and gives the Panchayat extra authority. The family credit scheme was implemented. Announcing common minimal need programmes.

The Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002)

The United Front Government's Ninth Five-Year Plan centred on "Growth With Social Justice and Equality." The Ninth Plan intended to rely primarily on the private sector – Indian as well as foreign (FDI) – and the State was envisioned to play a greater role as a facilitator and become more involved in the social sector, such as education, health, and infrastructure, where private sector participation was likely to be limited. It prioritised agriculture and rural development in order to provide sufficient productive jobs and reduce poverty.

The Ninth Plan placed "priority to agricultural and rural development in order to produce sufficient productive jobs and eradicate poverty." The seven specified Basic Minimum Services were highlighted (BMS).

On August 15, 1995, the National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP), a Centrally Sponsored Scheme of the Government of India, was launched. It consists of three programmes:

- (a) the National Oldage Pension Schemes (NOAPS);
- (b) the National Family Benefit Schemes (NFBS); and

(c) the National Maternity Benefit Scheme (NMFS).

Objectives

The primary purpose of the Ninth Five-Year Plan was to rectify historical inequities and boost economic development. Other components of the ninth five-year plan included:

- population control.
- Generating jobs by giving agricultural and rural development first priority.
- Elimination of poverty
- Ensuring the impoverished have adequate access to food and water.
- The availability of primary care facilities and other essentials.
- Primary education for every child in the nation.
- Empowering socially disadvantaged groups, such as Scheduled castes, Scheduled tribes, and other backward classes
- Increasing agricultural self-sufficiency
- Acceleration of the economic growth rate as a result of stable pricing.

Strategies

- Developments and structural changes in the Indian economy.
- New efforts and the implementation of remedial measures to address the difficulties facing the nation's economy.
- Use of limited resources efficiently to enable fast expansion.
- Combining governmental and private assistance to boost employment.
- Increasing export rates to reach self-sufficiency
- Providing services such as power, telecommunications, and trains, among others.
- Special efforts to empower the country's socially disadvantaged classes
- Participation and involvement of Panchayati Raj institutions and Nagar Palikas in the development process.

Promotion of Self-Help Groups was emphasised. Schemes such as IRDP, DWCRA, TRYSEM, etc. were amalgamated and Swarnajayanti Gram Swarajgar Yojana (SGSY) was introduced on April 1, 1999. On April 1, 1999, the JRY was renamed the Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY). It sought to develop rural infrastructure, with job development as a secondary purpose. This initiative reached every single village panchayat.

Tenth Five-Year Plan (2002-2007)

Recognizing that economic growth cannot be the main goal of a national plan, the Tenth Plan established 'monitorable objectives' for a few critical indices of progress in addition to the 8% growth target.

The objectives included a decrease in gender disparities in literacy and pay rates, a decrease in infant and maternal death rates, an increase in literacy, access to drinkable drinking water, the cleanup of major polluted rivers, and so on. Governance was seen as a development component, and agriculture was deemed the primary economic driver.

With growing participation of Panchayati Raj Institutions, the role of the state in planning was seen to rise. A state-by-state breakdown of growth and social development objectives aimed to ensure the balanced development of all states.

All current wage-based employment programmes were eliminated. On August 25, 2005, India adopted the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA), also known as the

Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MNREGS). The MGNREGA gives a legal guarantee of one hundred days of employment to adult members of rural households willing to do unskilled manual labour connected to public projects at the statutory minimum pay.

National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) was started on April 12, 2005 to offer rural poor, especially vulnerable populations, with accessible, cheap, and high-quality health care.

11th Five-Year Plan (2007-2012)

The Eleventh Plan intended for "Faster and More Inclusive Growth" in India, aiming to reduce poverty, create employment opportunities, access to essential services in health and education, and reduce gender inequality. Targets included a reduction in unemployment, dropout rates, gender gap in literacy, infant mortality, total fertility, malnutrition in age group 0-3, an improvement in the sex ratio, forest and tree cover, air quality in major cities, electricity connection to all villages and BPL households, reliable power by 2009, all roads with habitations of 1,000 or more people connected, and by 2012, every village would be telephone-connected and have broad-band connectivity.

All main programmes for rural development continued. In 2011, the Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) was upgraded as National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM).

The 12th Five-Year Plan (2012-2017)

This approach emphasised speedier and more sustainable expansion. The initiative intends to improve the nation's infrastructure projects by eliminating all forms of bottlenecks.

The UID (Unique Identification Number) was used as a platform for the plan's cash distribution of subsidies.

The purpose of the twelfth five-year plan was –

- To generate 50 million new jobs in the non-agricultural economy.
- To reduce gender and socioeconomic disparity in school enrollment.
- To expand access to postsecondary education.
- To minimise malnutrition among 0-3 year old children.
- To give power to all rural communities
- To ensure that 50 percent of the rural population has access to potable water.
- To increase annual green cover by 1 million hectares
- To provide 90% of households with access to financial services.

Other previous programmes continued. Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Grameen Kaushalya Yojana (DDU-GKY) is a sub-mission of the National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM) that was started in 2014 by the Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD), Government of India. The primary purpose of the training programme was to equip rural youth with marketable skills in order to increase their employability in the organised sector and their ability to generate sufficient money.

The current NDA administration has ceased the development of five-year plans. Therefore, the 12th five-year plan was known as India's last five-year plan. The decades-old Five-Year Plans will be replaced with a three-year action plan that is part of a seven-year strategy paper and a fifteen-year vision document. The Niti Aayog, which succeeded the Planning Commission on April 1, 2017, will unveil a three-year action plan.

Table 1.2 : Rural Development Programmes in Different Plan Periods

Plan Period	Major Rural Development Programmes	Year of Introduction
First Five-Year Plan (1951-56)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community Development Programme • National Extension Service 	1952 1953
Second Five-Year Plan (1956-61)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Khadi and Village Industries Programme • Village Housing Projects Scheme • Multipurpose Tribal Development Blocks Programme • Package Programme • Intensive Agricultural District Programme 	1957 1957 1959 1960 1960
Third Five-Year Plan (1961-66)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Applied Nutrition Programme • Rural Industries Projects • Intensive Agricultural Areas Programme • High-Yielding Variety Programme 	1962 1962 1964 1966
Annual Plan, 1966	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Farmers' Training and Education Programme • Well Construction Programme 	1966 1966
Annual Plan, 1967	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rural Works Programme 	1967
Annual Plan, 1968	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tribal Development Block 	1968
Annual Plan, 1969	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rural Manpower Programme • Composite Programme for Women and Pre-School Children 	1969 1969
Fourth Five-Year Plan (1969-74)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drought-Prone Areas Programme • Crash Scheme for Rural Employment • Small Farmers' Development Agency • Tribal Area Development Programme • Pilot Projects for Tribal development • Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme • Minimum Needs Programme • Command Areas Development Programme 	1970 1971 1971 1972 1972 1972 1972 1972 1974
Fifth Five-Year Plan (1974-79)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hill Areas Development Programme • Special Livestock Production Programme • Food for Work Programme • Desert Development Programme • Whole Village Development Programme • Training Rural Youth for Self-employment (TRYSEM) • Integrated Rural Development Programme 	1975 1975 1977 1977 1979 1979 1979
Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980-85)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Rural Employment Programme • Prime Minister's New Twenty-Point Programme • Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) 	1980 1980 1983
Seventh Five-Year Plan (1985-90)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rural Landless Employment Programme • National Rural Employment Programme • Special Livestock Breeding Programme 	1983 1985 1986

Eighth Five-Year Plan (1992-97)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jawahar Rojgar Yojana with its components: • Indira Awas Yojana (ii) Million Wells Scheme • Prime Minister’s Razgar Yojana (PMRY) • Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS) 	1989 1993 1993
Ninth Five-Year Plan (1997-2002)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Swarnajayanti Gram Swarojgar Yojana (SGSY) • Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY) • Sampoorna Gram Samridhi Yojana (SGRY) 	1999 1999 2001
Tenth Five-Year Plan (2002-2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) • Mahatma Gandhi national Rural Employment ○ Guarantee Schemes (MGNREGS) 	2005 2006
Eleventh Five-Year Plan (2007-2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM) 	2011
Twelfth Five-Year Plan (2012-2017)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Health Mission • Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Grameen Kaushalya Yojana (DDU-GKY) 	2013 2014

Summary

This chapter clarifies rural development, planning, and decentralisation from a conceptual standpoint. Planning is crucial for the general growth of rural communities. Systematic planning may aid in the accomplishment of desired objectives. Since independence, several efforts have been implemented over various plan periods for the general development of rural regions and rural residents. Overall parameter improvement has been accomplished, but rural development must be accelerated by good planning and the active participation of rural residents at all levels.

Model Questions

1. What does the term Rural Development mean?
2. Write a justification for Rural Development.
3. What is planning?
4. Discuss the many types of planning.
5. Discuss the necessity for rural development planning.

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Chapter 2 Process of Rural Development Planning

Introduction

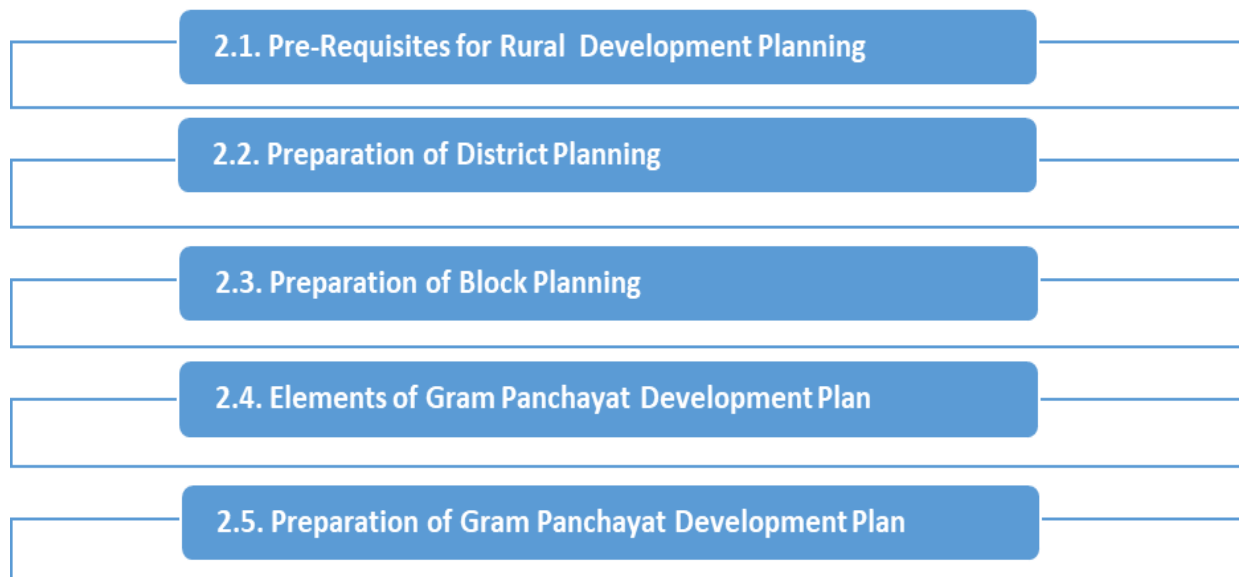
Planning for Rural Development in India is seen as decentralised and multi-level. With the establishment of the three-tier model of Local Self-Government, multi-level planning is also implemented at the district, block, and village levels. Keeping this in mind, this chapter is divided into 5 (five) sections depending on goals, components, and planning processes at various levels.

Objectives

This chapter will provide you with the knowledge necessary to comprehend the following:

- Aspects and requirements of planning at various levels;
- District plan components and procedure
- Block plan components and procedure
- Elements of Gram Panchayat Development Plan (GPDP)
- Necessary preparatory measures for the GPDP

Chapter Structure



The first section of this chapter discusses two essential features that are prerequisites for planning at any level. This section explains the notion of scenario analysis and resource notation. Situation analysis is essential for any business or institution to have a better knowledge of the current state of affairs and to formulate future objectives/goals. In this unit, the significance, need, and methodology of scenario analysis have been examined. Additionally, resources are an essential prerequisite for plan formulation at any level. This section explains resource kinds, dimensions, etc. This section also displays relevant examples for the Gram Panchayat level plan, as outlined in the Ministry of Panchatai Raj's guidelines.

District plans play a significant part in multilevel planning as the link between local, state, and national planning. The second section of this chapter addresses the many facets, methods, and procedures of district planning in India. Following the district plan, the third portion of this chapter discusses the creation of block plans in India. This section describes the aims, components, methodologies, and process of Block plan.

Gram Panchayat is the second-lowest level of India's multi-level decentralised planning system, below the block plan. Gram Panchayat Development Plan (GPDP) is explored in detail in the following two sections of this chapter since it is of the utmost importance and rural development professionals have a great deal to offer.

According to the guidelines of the Ministry of Panchayati Raj, Government of India, the fourth unit of elucidates many factors for the formation of the GPDP. This section discusses the idea, significance, necessity, focus areas, plan cycle, and necessary preparation for performing GPDP, amongst others.

The fifth section of this chapter methodically explains the various GPDP preparation stages. This subject also discusses the function of the Panchayat Committee, Gram Sabha, other working committees, etc. in the development of the GPDP.

2.1. Prerequisites for Rural Development Planning

Situational Analysis

Situation Analysis is the beginning point for designing future plans, but it also helps in understanding the present. Situational Analysis is a technique used to obtain comprehension and insight into the existing circumstance.

Situation analysis is a method that aids in gaining an understanding of the environment, including the social, economic, political, and institutional systems. By knowing the context, there will be a greater possibility of defining acceptable goals and objectives, as well as devising actions that would aid in achieving them. The difficulty here is to make reasoning plain without devoting an excessive amount of work to creating a flawless model of reality.



Figure 2.1: Situational Analysis

An examination of the important elements impacting goals, including as direct and indirect threats, opportunities, and enabling circumstances, is included in a scenario analysis. Typically, each element may be associated with one or more stakeholders - persons, organisations, or institutions that have an interest in or will be impacted by an intervention.

Local, state, and central levels are often linked in the examination of any region's condition. This requires a grasp of local realities as well as the economic and institutional changes made by government and the

private sector at the state and national levels that impact local situations. It investigates the local needs and problems of local individuals and institutions.

Problem Identification, Goal-Setting, and Objectives

An issue exists when there is a disparity between what "should be" and what "is"; between the ideal state and the actual one. An issue represents the disparity between the desired and actual state. An issue is either directly or indirectly connected to a desired result or behaviour norm. Identifying a very well-defined and precise issue is the first crucial stage in applying the problem-solving method effectively.

Problem identification offers the foundation for studying a vast array of actions and developing alternatives. The initiatives proposed in later Framework phases should address the highlighted challenges.

The process of identifying problems requires the creation of concise, basic issue statements that can be related directly to previously determined particular goals and objectives. These remarks should explicate how the issue may impede the accomplishment of these aims and objectives. In the course of issue assessment and prioritisation, problem statements are examined and improved by a more thorough study.

The purpose of Issue Identification is to "take stock" of the problem at a specific location and answer the following questions:

- "What do we believe the problem to be?"
- "What data should be gathered and evaluated to support our knowledge of the problem?"

Situation Analysis in the context of Rural Development Planning

A. For example, in the case of infrastructure, the following deficiencies may be found with regard to roads:

- List the settlements without roads.
- Required road expansion length; etc.
- Specify if the structure requires repair, restoration, an upgrade, or new construction.

B. In the case of social development, key concerns may be enumerated based on public perception and expert opinion. For instance, alienation from land, land degradation, lack of skills, lack of work prospects, and lack of access to public services and facilities are concerns that may be enumerated and explored.

C. When it comes to economic growth, the emphasis should be on the realisable and sustainable potential. For instance, it is possible to identify the constraints on improving farm output and productivity, connecting to markets that might add value, etc.

D. In case of the human development, deficiencies need to be assessed and addressed. For instance, the reasons for not attaining the minimal levels of learning, the reasons for dropout, the reasons for starvation, etc., must be determined.

E. In the case of municipal services, efforts should be made to explain why the desired quality of service supply and delivery is not met. In the case of sanitation, the demand for solid and liquid waste management, general cleanliness, etc., must be evaluated.

Conducting Situational Analysis

For conducting situational analysis, it is necessary to gather, analyse, and record both primary and secondary data. The analysis should be founded on facts and confirmed by people's expertise.

What is Primary information?

Primary data is information that may be acquired directly by methods such as door-to-door surveys, transect walks, Focus Group Discussions, sociological mapping, etc.

Purpose of primary data collection is -

- To gather first-hand knowledge directly
- To verify previously accessible secondary information
- To highlight concerns for local solutions
- To discover potential/opportunities
- To encourage and guarantee people's engagement

It should be emphasised that data obtained via primary data gathering techniques may be a sample or encompass the whole population.

What is Secondary Data?

- Information that is previously available as reports, published statistics, or discovered in registries is referred to as secondary data.
- Examples include a list of places where data is required (Depending upon focus areas of GPDP identified by the State)
- For instance, any local issues raised by the Panchayat Committee with regard to health, education, and drinking water.
- Information provided to the panchayat by state or district agencies, such as census, SECC, and water and sanitation data
- Information accessible in GP records (make sure that this data is updated)
- PHC/sub-centre level data
- PDS data
- Anganwadi data
- Primary School data
- SHG/ SHG federation data etc.
- SBM survey data

How to start Situation Analysis (SA)?

Following aspects should be addressed when doing situation analysis:

- Formal letters providing information and the date should be addressed to all institutions within the Panchayat for cooperation and participation.
- Orientation of the committees and working groups engaged in the activity must be conducted.
- GP Committee together with Working Group members should agree the topics to be covered, formats to be utilised for survey and the relevant PRA tools to be used and secondary data to be analysed.
- A schedule for scenario analysis must be developed
- The day, time, and location for PRA must be determined
- Public notification on the conduct of situation analysis as well as particular notice for FGDs
- Line departments should be notified of the situation analysis and data collecting dates.
- Division of duties within the task force/workgroups for data gathering must be carried out.

- An environment must be created for data collection.
- Block and district administrations and other line departments must provide secondary data in a proper format with GPs for SA as per GDP standards.
- Customization of model data collecting formats acquired from the State/District to meet the scenario analysis needs of the GP Sectors

In addition to the regions indicated by FFC, the areas identified by the state in the GDP guidelines and any other sector or area chosen by the GP may be analysed. For example:

- Infrastructure and municipal services
- Education
- Housing
- Health
- Agriculture and allied (Fishery/AH/Horticulture)
- Forestry
- Social security
- PDS
- Disaster management
- Natural resources

Categories to be focused on -

- Vulnerable groups- elderly, people with disability, destitutes
- Women
- Children
- SC/ST

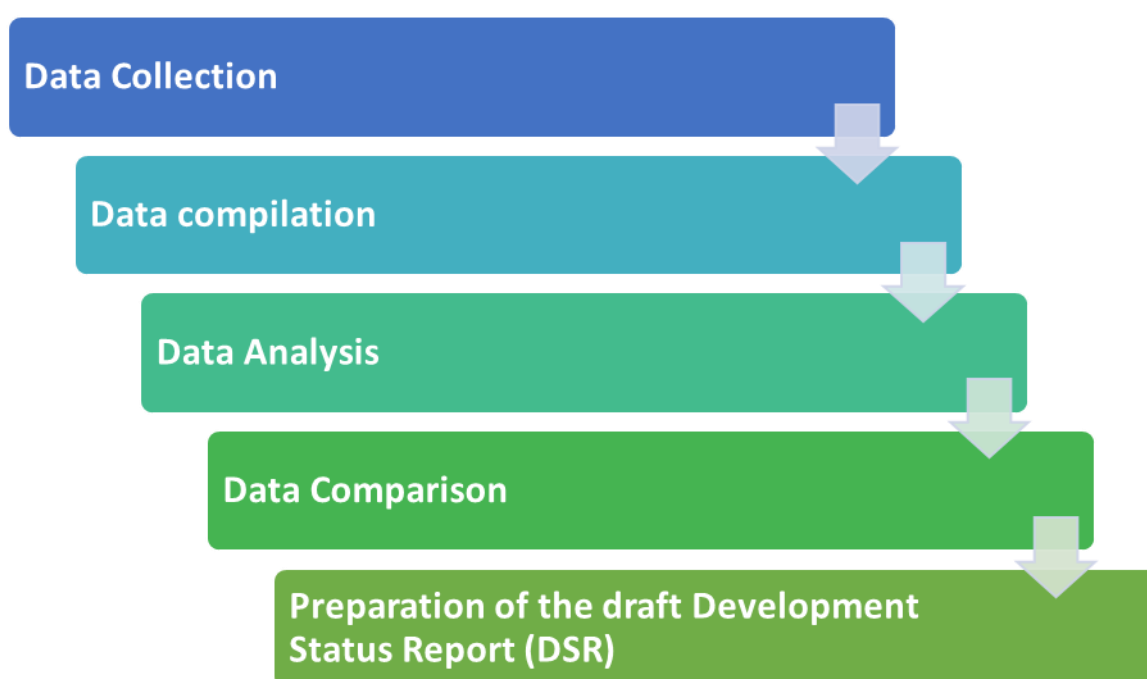


Figure 2.2: Steps for Situational Analysis at the Gram Panchayat Level

A. Data Collection

Secondary Data Collection

The individual(s) responsible for secondary data collection should get information from local institutions, line departments, etc.

The following are examples of information that may be acquired from institutions:

- General description of the Gram Panchayat (area, total general population, SC, ST, women, others, density of population)
- Existing infrastructure (road, water supply, irrigation, sanitation, power, market etc.)
- Agricultural facilities
- Educational facilities
- Public Distribution System
- Housing
- Diverse Development Strategies

Primary Data Collection

GPs may choose to conduct household surveys through home visits using a standardised approach to gather primary data on subjects such as asset ownership, occupation, income, education, health, opinion of public services, etc., according on the circumstances and need. This may be accomplished on a sample basis (covering all habitations) since visiting each residence would be exceedingly time- and resource-consuming. The GP may also use household surveys to investigate any particular local issue or the requirements of vulnerable groups, focusing on solely the impacted vulnerable groups. With the assistance of SHGs, community volunteers/youth groups, elected GP members, working groups, etc., or local educational institutions/agencies, surveys may be undertaken.

Participatory Rural Appraisal: The PRA methods are outlined here.

Transect Walk - A transect walk identifies in a settlement which assets need to be developed or enhanced. It aids in evaluating the quality of existing infrastructure and identifying usable natural resources, as well as determining the availability of land for a variety of public uses and projects. It also helps determine the degree to which diverse populations have access to public services.

Pre-activities

- Fix the date and time for pre-actions
- Inform various stakeholders

Activities

- Undertake a methodical walk along a planned route to cover representative locations with a few interested community members.
- Examine the region's vegetation, terrain, population, infrastructure, and sanitization conditions, etc.
- Discuss with the community to gather data on a variety of village situations.

Post Activities

- Compile a report on the results of the transect walk
- Compare the information gathered from social map and resource map

Social Mapping and Resource Mapping – In order to visualise the social structure, groups, and organisations present in a given region, as well as the distribution of its inhabitants (including male, female, adult, child, landed, landless, literate, and illiterate), social mapping is used.

Pre-activities

- Set a day, time, and place
- Inform stakeholders in the community
- Prepare chalk, coloured powder, etc. for resource mapping.

Activities

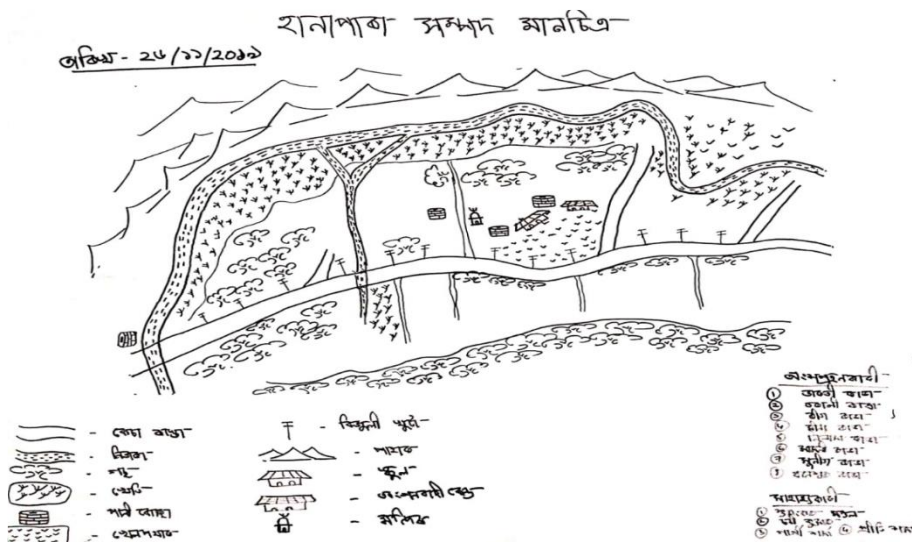
- Mobilize the community
- Draw the village's boundaries per the locals' instructions
- As instructed by the inhabitants, draw roads, bridges, schools, health facilities, and places of worship.
- As advised by the locals, plot the people's habitation pattern, including homes and kinds of houses (thatched, pucca, Kuccha)
- Various social institutions

Post Activities

- Determine the perceived needs and demands of the community.
- With the aid of the community, prioritise the needs.



Social Map of Hanapara Village, Assam



Resource Map of Hanapara Village, Assam



Making a Social and Resource Map of a Village (PRA Exercise)

Focus Group Discussion (FGD) - It is essential to comprehend people's perspectives on difficulties and topics. This may be beneficial if there is open and free debate about a particular topic with important stakeholders as a group. It is vital to have a general notion of the different answers that individuals might give. This is possible through Focus Group Discussion (FGD). FGD is a method for gathering individuals with comparable backgrounds or experiences to discuss a particular subject of interest. There might be separate FGDs for men, women, youth, the elderly, children, etc. In addition, FGDs may be done with SHGs, farmers clubs, landless persons, the elderly, displaced communities, and other groups as needed.

Pre-Activities

- Establishing a date and time, income
- Informing the relevant parties
- Preparing a list of questions in advance
- Establishing accountability for paperwork The Working Group will convene and determine FGD dates, locations, and facilitators. The kind and quantity of FGDs would be determined by the Working Group.

Activities

The following items should be kept in mind while conducting FGD:

- The date, location, and time of the talks must be determined in advance and communicated to all participants.
- Facilitators must be present to ensure that the conversation stays on topic and does not deviate.
- Relevant individuals should be gathered for FGD, e.g., wealthy landowners are not required for a FGD with landless people. They should feel comfortable and not intimidated by the location.

Post Activities

- Compile a report on the community's observations, the highlighted difficulties, and the proposed remedies.

B. Data Compilation

The obtained main and secondary data must be aggregated and formatted according to the specifications (which have been provided by the state government). If extra scenario analysis has been conducted in

addition to the GPDP, it should also be collected and summarised independently. During FGDs/PRA, qualitative information and observations should also be thoroughly captured. It is possible to juxtapose the case of roads, for example, regions may be divided into those with poor connection and those with high primary and secondary data belonging to the same sector / category in order to allow comparison and validation.

C. Data Analysis

After the data has been gathered, it must be analysed to determine the Gram Panchayat's current development status. For data analysis, the format defined by the State Government must be employed.

D. Comparison

Depending on availability, the status of various sectors will be analysed by comparing them to national, state, district, and local statistics. In such instances, tabulating the comparison data reveals the village's connectivity. As in the case of infrastructure, gaps may be discovered wherever feasible. For example, piped water supply in dwellings.

When doing a scenario analysis for certain sectors, it is essential to examine the study from the perspective of vulnerable groups. This information might be accessible via secondary data or PRA methods. During the PRA process, any solutions provided by the community must also be evaluated.

standing on a specific indicator and the degree of its deviation from the macro level. The status might be categorised as severe, moderate, or sufficient.

E. Preparation of Draft Development Status Report (DSR) Preparation of the Gram Panchayat

The collected and analysed information must be assembled into a report titled "Draft Development Status Report."

- Each sector report must identify the relevant programmes linked with the sector.
- The sector-by-sector report would include indicate actions that may be undertaken using the Panchayat's resources as well as those that apply to programmes over which the Panchayat has no influence.
- It is essential that each sector report defines separately those operations that correspond to O&M and those that may be classed as low- or no-cost.
- Additionally, the sector report may indicate areas where convergence is probable.
- Any unique local problem that the Panchayat committee or Working Group believes needs to be considered individually may also be included in a separate chapter.
- Each chapter should have an introduction, a status, discussions, a list of identified concerns, a discussion of any gaps, and a suggestion.
- If desired, the sectoral reports may be compiled into a tabular format and included to the report as an appendix. In such a circumstance, a comparable tabular report may be generated for women and other disadvantaged groups.
- The Working Group will debate and finalise each chapter and compile them into a draft report on the development status.

Resource Envelope for Rural Development Planning

In developing countries like India, lack of resources is the primary issue. Financial resources may be generated domestically via taxation and market borrowings, as well as externally through exports, remittances, borrowings, and assistance loans. Planners must verify that these sources are compatible.

With these resources, the planner must consider finishing requests and accommodating as many of them as possible, keeping in mind the country's overall goals.

Regarding the needed workforce, this must also be meticulously prepared, and provisions must be made for human resource development from the most basic to the most advanced technical levels.

The third part of resources is the necessary materials to facilitate the development process. Planning must account for the availability of resources such as oil, steel, cement, electricity, fertiliser, etc.

Therefore, while attempting to satisfy the needs of the people via the plan, the planner must simultaneously prepare for and supply the materials necessary for constructing the infrastructure and providing assistance.

Dimensions of Resources

i) Stock and Flow: Stocks include agricultural and forest land, animals, and agricultural equipment. Human usage of resources depletes supply or production. Using a resource's output over time is a flow. A stock is always defined at a certain moment in time, such as March 31 of a given year.

ii) Mobility in Space: The majority of natural resources have defined locations because humans must utilise them in the locations where they are located. Agricultural land, fishing areas, woods, pastures, mines, reservoirs, and water streams are all immobile resources that are location-specific. However, certain resources, such as cattle and human labour, are movable, subject to ecological and social limits. The majority of man-made capital resources, particularly manufactured industrial methods, are more mobile in space. A categorization of resources according to their relative mobility is very desirable from the perspective of development planning. Money or capital in the form of value is the most transportable resource.

iii) Grades of Resources: Since output flow from a stock of resources tends to decrease as quality degrades, preserving, conserving, and enhancing the quality of resources is an important planning activity. Consequently, understanding of resource allocation by quality and grade becomes a must for every planning body. Preparing an account of resource stocks existing in the base year of a planning period is thus a crucial planning activity at the appropriate level. This account must represent the characteristics of the various categories of resources outlined before.

The account is meant to offer answers to pertinent planning issues, such as:

- What is the amount of a certain resource in stock?
- What is the ownership, usage, and underutilization pattern?
- What is the current production rate?
- What outcomes are possible given the present state of science and technology?
- Is there an opportunity to increase stock levels?

iv) Renewal: A constant flow out of non-renewable stock (such as mineral mines or oil wells) signifies depletion and ultimate exhaustion in our daily lives. The procedure cannot be reversed. In most circumstances, the process is reversible in the case of renewable stocks (pastures, woods, cattle or livestock herd) in the sense that a time of depletion may be followed by a period of regeneration and stock rebuilding. However, there is always a maximum flow rate. In certain instances, the rate of depletion exceeds the rate of regeneration. Overfishing, overgrazing, and tree felling are all examples of

this issue. Consequently, there is a maximum sustainable production level that is governed by the biological and ecological circumstances of resource regeneration.

Resource Envelope at Gram Panchayat Level (MoPR Guideline)

As previously established, resources are not limited to monetary resources alone. GPs should be aware of all available resources for carrying out GDP-related activities. Consequently, identification of these vital resources is crucial to the planning procedure. These resources may be broadly classified into four categories:



Figure 2.3: Resources for Planning

- Social Resources - Institutional strength, tranquilly, social harmony/unity within the community
- Natural Resources - Land, woods, water, air, and all naturally accessible resources
- Human Resources - Persons residing in the GP area, people involved with the region in any way, GPPFT, women SHGs
- Financial Resources - Available funds from the central and state governments, OSR, community contributions, etc.
- Physical Resource — Man-made infrastructure such as roads, water bodies, etc.

As local authority, GP should use these resources prudently for the area's sustained growth.

Resources Identification/Estimation

- Once all sector data has been gathered, the next crucial step is to assess the financial resources at hand. The resource calculation must take into consideration the variety of sources that would be accessible under GP's authority. Consequently, the planning of GP Resources includes the following:
 - Estimating and mobilising own-resource revenues via taxes, user fees, and donations, etc.
 - Innovative forms of funding via donations from the community, including local donors, NRIs, the corporate sector, and NGOs etc.

- Obtaining information from line departments about the allocations granted to GPs under each plan, including devolutions and transfers, etc.
- Direct money flow to GP as well as potential convergence sources from Centre and State flagship initiatives

Local mobilisation of 10 to 20 percent of the resources is required. The GP funds may be categorised into three categories: Untied Funds, Partially Untied Funds (where some flexibility is available), and Tied Funds. The State and Central Budget Documents, as well as the Plan Documents of District Missions and other Line Departments, include information on financing sources other than GP's own resources. Using a simple form, the GP can catalogue all money streams originating from diverse sources.

State efforts should focus on expanding the GPs' resource envelope and guiding them in the creation of more local resources. It is also vital to supervise the timely transfer of specified funds to GPs.

The resource envelope at a GP may be prescribed by the State, and the indicative list is as follows: Own Source Revenue (OSR)- to be projected based on actual of the last three years

- Grant from Central government
- Grant from State government
- MGNREGS as per the Labour Budget
- Other Central Sponsored Schemes and State Schemes entrusted to GPs
- Schemes for which the GP takes decision even if the fund is not transferred
- Voluntary contributions (cash, kind and labour)-States may fix a suggestive figure as appropriate
- Corporate Social Responsibilities (CSR) funds if assured and available to GPs
- Funds available through banking sector / leveraging bank finances

The resource envelope should also incorporate all resources obtained by the GPs. It may be specified that the expenditures of the District Panchayat and Intermediate Panchayat must be included in the Resource Envelope of the Panchayat. The States may choose how this transfer will be made or how it will be recorded and audited. After finalising the parts of the resource envelope, the State should disclose in writing, well in advance of the beginning of the planning process, the resources available to each GP. In the absence of specific information on particular categories, they may be described in general terms and the missing information provided afterwards. This should ideally be in the form of a Government Order that provides GP-specific information at the state or district level, depending on the number of GPs.

2.2 Preparation of District Planning

In a rapidly developing country like India, the district-level planning process is a crucial part of the multi-level planning framework. National planning sets the stage for regional and local plans by providing a consistent framework for government involvement in the economy to combat stagnation and boost productivity. District planning is often the means through which our organised power system seeks to achieve the self-sustaining economic development it specifically seeks, given the importance of districts as key areas of agricultural, minor industry, and other social services. It is also important to stress that a district plan should include a strategy for the district's development.

District Planning is comparable to the notion of integrated area planning. It is “a kind of area-based sub-state planning and arises from the need to supplement the National and State plans with a more detailed examination of the resources problems, and potential of District so that investment programme more specially tailored to the particular needs of each District could be evolved and implemented.”

District level planning is the formulation of a development scenario at the district level that is compatible with the unique needs of the population, the growth potentials of the region, and the available budgetary resources. Despite the fact that each District Plan must be unique to its agro-climate and socioeconomic characteristics, it must represent the following fundamental goals of the National Plan: (a) Increasing output (b) Reducing employment (c) Alleviating poverty



Figure 2.4: Steps in District Plan

Concept and Scope

District planning cannot be considered in isolation from the state plan or the block plan, which is another area-based plan at a lower administrative level. District design should essentially be a creative reaction to a specific set of prevalent conditions in the state. The conceptual structure of a district plan should be sufficiently malleable to accommodate alterations and revisions. Vertical integration is essential since the district is only a subsystem of multi-level planning.

Recognizing the links accessible outside of a district, the district plan should have an open-ended reach. Therefore, ideally, all planning at the district level should be conducted by a single planning body. However, this is not typically followed. In the second scenario, the district planning exercise should combine the apparently divergent activities of sector-specific agencies into a coherent framework. The planning efforts should be "nested" so as to offer the essential infrastructural support and connections for various development programmes.

District planning must consider three factors:

- regional affinities consistent with natural geographical regions including more than one district,
- identification of sub-regional components within a district, and
- the development of capacity, authority, and skills at local institutions.

National and state objectives should be considered in district planning to the extent that they may be envisaged in the context of a district.

- Reduction of poverty
- Growth that is self-sustaining in terms of both the ability to fund expansion internally and the advancement of technology.
- Increased productivity
- Creating employment circumstances close to full capacity

- The fulfilment of the fundamental requirements of the people for food, clothes, and shelter
- Elementary education for everyone
- Access to health facilities for all

During the Seventh Plan, certain national goals were prioritised above others. These were

- a) to alleviate poverty,
- b) to accelerate food-grain production,
- c) to expand job possibilities, and
- d) to increase productivity.

Need of District Plan

The need of district planning stems from the need to augment the national and state plans with a more in-depth evaluation of the administrative possibilities at the district level. Such planning would aid in the formulation of district-specific investment decisions. Therefore, district planning would require finding a balance between the individual demands of the district's residents, the development potential of the region, and the available financial resources.

According to the Working Group Report of 1984 on District Planning: "District planning, in our view, is a type of area-based sub-state planning and arises from the need to supplement national and state plans with a more detailed examination of the resources, problems, and potentials of local areas (i.e. districts), so that investment programmes that are more specifically tailored to the specific needs of each district can be developed and implemented. In other words, district planning entails the formulation of a district-level development scenario commensurate with the unique demands of the population, the growth potential of the region, and the available budgetary resources."

Thus, the Working Group's idea of district planning is comparable to this concept of integrated areas planning. It presupposes that the district is a sub-state unit of decision-making inside the multi-level planning system. In contrast to national and state plans, district plans would be a comprehensive multi-sectoral bundle of area-specific investment ideas and institutional frameworks suitable to this setting. Components of Community Development. District planning necessitates the integration of several elements.

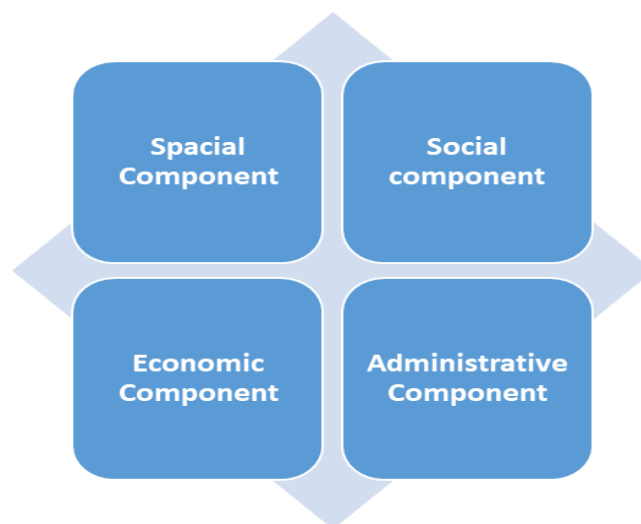


Figure 2.5: Elements of District Plan

Spatial Component

Due to the fact that district planning is fundamentally area-based planning, the unique aspect of district planning is crucial. The 1984 Report on district planning said that "spatial planning encompasses all

geographical manifestations, including those resulting from economic and social human activity." A complete spatial plan must consider the physical resources, land use, and all human populations within an area, from the smallest village to the largest metropolis. The geographical components of a district plan would drive development programmes through a locational blueprint, assure distributive justice, and foster rural-urban integration and continuity.

The district plan must detect and fix infrastructure facility imbalances in the whole district or any portion thereof. It must also examine features of sub-regionalization depending on characteristics such as cropping pattern. Sub-regionalisation should consider the economic and social ties between a collection of settlements, based on the notion of functional interdependence, such as around marketplaces, commercial hubs, or regions supported by specialised health care facilities. The type of dependency would be determined by the distribution pattern of infrastructure and service facilities. Such amenities will vary from community to community. It is not necessarily required for every district to have all amenities, nor are all blocks/villages within a district to have all facilities. Planning requires that spatial elements and standards be considered.

Consider schooling as an instance of a facility. Certainly, every district should prepare for it, but every district does not need to have a university. For successful usage of a facility, a minimum number of users and the maximum distance from which its intended users may access the facility must be considered. Multiple districts may share a single university. A district may need two or three degree-granting institutions, but each village must have several secondary schools, middle schools, and elementary schools. In other words, functional hierarchy is required in school districts. Consequently, district planning must explicitly indicate the levels at which different amenities are required. The district planner is responsible for identifying the current and necessary levels of different amenities.

Economic Component

Economic planning has always been at the centre of planning, since the primary objective of development planning has been to enhance revenue and employment. Economic planning is also required for improved resource management.

Essential criteria for economic planning are familiarity with the following aspects of the district:

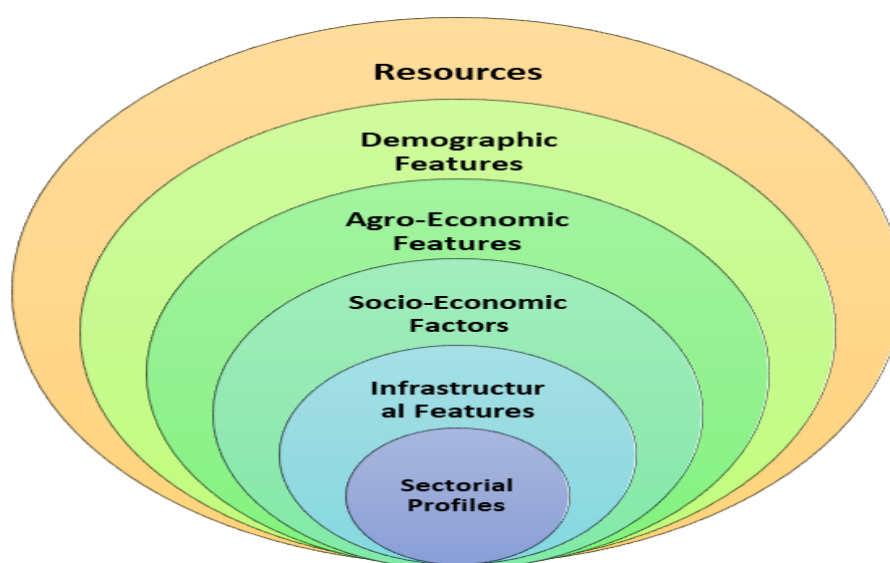


Figure 2.6: Essential Criteria of Economic Plan

The district's economic planning must consider the available financial resources. These resources include:

- a) Resources available in the state (and the Centre) for specific projects in the district;
- b) Resources available in the state (and the Centre) for broad schemes unrelated to individual projects;

and

- c) resources from non-governmental and voluntary organisations.

Social Component

The social component of planning cannot be neglected in a district plan. A district plan is also responsible for reducing social inequality, providing social services, and ensuring public engagement. As planning is the medium of social change and the means to bridge the gap between the government and the people, public involvement is both an essential instrument and a development objective for district plans.

The First Plan said that the first local interest inspired by the hope of better things for oneself can only be maintained by the sight of success, no matter how little, and the awareness of an indirect role in it. Participation of the people in planning is required, particularly to minimise the uneven distribution of power in rural regions, alleviate social tensions, and create social fairness through changes in attitudes and redistribution of the planning's economic benefits. The public must engage in the planning process via open forum debates.

Administrative Component

The ultimate determinant of the success or failure of district planning is the political and administrative structure of the district planning apparatus. Historically, the district has been a territorially organised administrative entity with a primary focus on law and order and land taxation. Since the commencement of planning for development in India, the function of district administration within development administration has been highlighted.

Since the beginning of development administration, administrative arrangements of district planning and development administration have been discussed as part of planning for development efforts and methods. In its 1984 report, the Working Group on District Planning examined four crucial administrative factors for the efficient operation of the planning process.

- Setting up of appropriate mechanisms for coordination and implementation of the plan.
- Introducing procedural innovations for release of funds, issue of administrative and technical sanctions, re-appropriation procedures and procedures for effecting inter-sectoral and intra sectoral transfers.
- Establishing suitable procedures for dovetailing of the district plan with the sectoral outlays at the state levels.
- Establishing procedures for monitoring and review of schemes.

(source: www.egyankosh.ac.in)

The effectiveness of planning would also rely on the district-level technological equipment available. Therefore, the administrative structure at the district level should ensure that the planning body has sufficient technical experts. This would assist to overcome the restrictions that would arise from just combining departmental plans inside the district framework. The Working Group on District Planning suggested that the District Collector's role be elevated to "Chief Coordinator" and that the District Collector's office be enhanced. However, in its 1985 report, CAARD suggested the establishment of a District Development Commissioner (DDC) position to oversee and coordinate all district development initiatives.

Aspects of District Plan

Plan of Rural local bodies (activities delegated to them, national/state programmes, and their own programmes).

1. Plan of Urban municipal governments
2. Physical integration of the plans of rural and urban local governments with state plan aspects.

The district planning procedure consists of four phases:

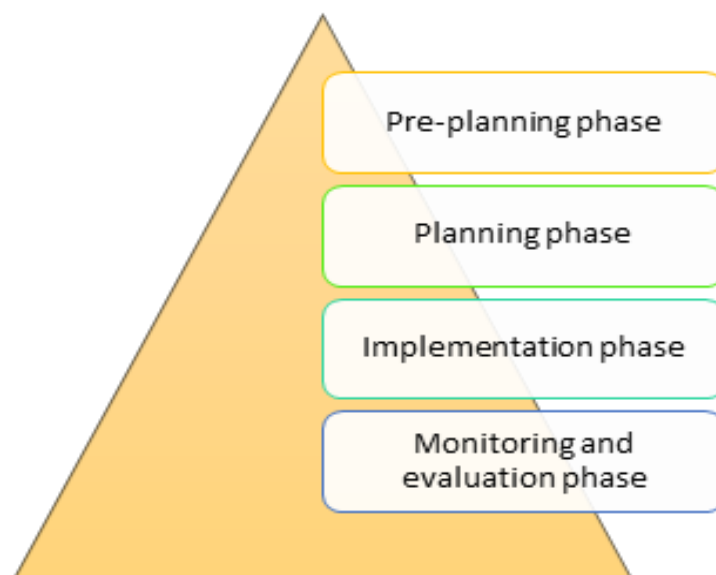


Figure 2.7: Process of District Planning

Pre-planning Phase

Before beginning a district plan, the following preplanning actions must be taken:

- Determining the scope and subject matter of a district plan.
- The disaggregation of plan money from the state level to the district level based on the proper criteria.
- Establishing an appropriate organisational structure for district-level planning. Implementing administrative decentralisation initiatives.
- Establishing a state-level district planning unit. Establishing a competent district planning mechanism.
- Arranging for the training of employees.

The formal plan encompasses a broad range of activities with different scope. First, the plan programmes should be generally classified into those that are applicable to a single district and those that are applicable to several districts. The former is a programme at the district level, while the latter is a programme at the state level. Here, the notion of dividing planning functions according to various geographical levels must be used.

After determining the scope and substance of a district plan in a multi-level planning structure, relevant criteria for state-to-district plan funding disaggregation must be developed. There is no one formula for such disaggregation; rather, the state must define the criteria based on specific rules (Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, landless labour, etc.), geographical region, and district development level. The level of development depends on the weights allocated to economic and social development indicators that span many sectors.

The organisational structure at the district level should provide for the integration of political, district, administrative, and local institutions in order to determine the district's development programmes and the means for implementing them.

In addition, its purpose should be to integrate all administrative activities at the district level under the efficient coordination and supervision of a single agency and to clearly outline a work programme for the participating Panchayati Raj organisations, nongovernmental agencies, etc.

It is vital to guarantee proper administrative decentralisation from the outset of planning. Powers and responsibility for district planning must be given to district level authorities for district sector initiatives in particular. Within the framework of decentralised multi-level planning, the district planning authority needs to:

- Identify local needs and objectives within the given national and State level objectives;
- List the natural and human resources in the district and level of development achieved to date, including at sub-regional level;
- Formulate district plan;
- Coordinate implementation of the district plan;
- Monitor and review implementation of the district plan.

In order to develop sufficient competencies in the district, it may be prudent to establish a district planning unit at the state level. This unit would investigate inter-district variance, develop criteria for the equitable allocation of funding to districts, assist district planning officials, and integrate district plans with those of the state.

Finally, arrangements must be established for the district planner to get on-the-job training, as opposed to academic study. The Working Group on District Planning said, "At the technical level, there ought to be happy blend of spatial and socio-economic dimension of planning with due understanding of grass-root level problem of development and administration".

Planning Phase

The following actions are included in the planning phase:

- Formulation of the primary goals of the district plan
- Compilation of data for district planning
- Preparation of the district's profile in connection to the major goals
- Formulating the primary district planning strategy and focus
- Analysis of the current programmes and initiatives in light of the defined plan.

This implies:

- a) Changes to current programmes and initiatives;
- b) Proposals for removal of inter-block disparities;
- c) Assessment of unemployment/underemployment and proposals for manpower planning and budgeting;
- d) Inclusion of new projects and plans;
- e) Inter-linkage between various projects and programmes;
- f) Organisation and management to ensure that no implementation gap exists;
- g) Assessment of resources for allocation to various programmes and projects;
- h) A statement of physical and financial components of the district plan;
- i) Statement of spatial dimensions of the district plan; and

j) Indication of relationship and links between the district plan and regional and State development plans.
(source: www.egyankosh.ac.in)

Implementation Phase

The district plan implementation is the third step in which the project and sectoral planning methodology are put into effect. Implementation success relies on the validity of the selected plan and collaboration amongst implementers. Due to the inflexible methods in which many organisations operate in the same region, the funds are often used independently by each of them for essentially the same goal. Therefore, financial integration is a significant issue at the district level. Another challenge with coordination is that the organisations that must build connections do not always have the authority to influence resource allocations, make suitable locational choices, and impose new fines.

Monitoring and Evaluation Phase

Monitoring and assessment conclude the planning process. As the district plan is implemented by State departments and other agencies, it is vital to monitor its progress to see whether the projects/schemes contained in the plan are being carried out in accordance with the guidelines outlined in its formulation or design. Monitoring maintains an eye on the implementation schedule and helps the planner to take remedial action in a timely manner to prevent time and expense escalations. Similarly, review of the district plan is essential for providing more direction on the district's unique difficulties, determining whether the district plan is effective, whether it can be improved, and identifying conceptual or operational flaws. Monitoring and evaluation contribute to the improvement and expansion of the district plan's efficacy.

Perspective District Plan

The time period for district plans must be specified. In spite of the fact that the planning process stated before encompasses all phases, planning is not complete until a time period is specified. Each district must have a 10- to 15-year perspective plan for the long-term growth of the district and the reduction of regional imbalances in development. This should ideally include both physical and human resources, with a particular emphasis on the poor. The perspective plan should target the district's long-term growth. A prospective district plan would include perspective block plans, which are coordinated at the district level, throughout the district.

Such a prospective strategy must consider the following elements:

- An inventory of resources, including demographic trends, human resources, area- and location-specific physical resources, economic activities with data about the organisations engaging in these activities, and the available social and institutional infrastructure.
- Information on active programmes, both planned and unplanned, with a comprehensive analysis of the programmes' potentials, connections, etc.
- Evaluation of the probable actions of all district departments.

Within the context of the perspective plan, the district's five-year plans (coterminous with the national five-year plans) should be developed. Such plans would take a long-term view into account, but would be contingent on the availability of financial resources and a certain prioritisation based on national interests.

Annual District Plan

The Annual District Plan is an operational programme connected to the state's annual plan and budget. It must specify what will be accomplished, when, where, by whom, and at what cost. It should determine the geographical dimension as well as the horizontal and vertical links of district-level programmes for

the relevant year. Preparing the Annual Plan is an activity that should follow the preparation of the Five Year Plan and include the following:

- The economic profile of the block/district, including an explanation of the key sectors.
- The profile of the recommended families to benefit from the different development programmes. Prepare broad groups of beneficiaries based on their abilities and the viability of initiatives.
- The geographical and temporal distribution of beneficiaries throughout the year for beneficiary-focused programmes.
- Spatial and temporal planning of area-based programmes.
- Proposed linkages among several development programmes throughout the year.

Selection of Schemes – Formulation

The district planner must develop particular ideas and initiatives based on the Annual Plan. Small schemes and projects identified based on local requirements and potentials in the area often do not need substantial project formulation processes. However, the planner must maintain an awareness of priority among the different projects/schemes/ideas. In addition to quantitative evaluations of efficiency, the decision between competing initiatives should be based on the perceived requirements of the people. Priority may be given, for instance, to schemes that are anticipated to produce a significant number of jobs or those that are likely to optimise the return potential of previous investments, the location of the project in relation to the availability of labour, etc. The new programs/projects must be envisioned as a "programmes package." In district-level planning, complicated decision-making issues are not anticipated.

2.3 Preparation of Block Planning

Block planning is a kind of industrial planning used for domestic manufacturing. Various versions of a product type may be manufactured utilising the same resources and fundamental process design. The production planning and scheduling for this sort of system are supported by block planning. A block represents a predefined series of variable-size manufacturing orders.

Block planning permits the planning or pre-assignment of production resource capacity for goods with particular characteristics. It permits a more sensible and effective use of their talents. Specific durations and characteristics are set for each block, such as three days each block during which things are created in different colours.

In piece-oriented industries, such as metal and paper manufacturing, upstream planning is often used to specify the kind of products and their features. This often refers to equipment that must be set up in a certain manner, when it would be inefficient in terms of time and money to alter the configuration more frequently than required.

In piece-oriented manufacturing, the resource for which just one production step is carried out is prioritised. It is common for a single order to span several resources, with each action being categorised according to distinct criteria.

In contrast, the process industry often refers to many orders as a "campaign," which is characterised more by the material properties of the final product. As the process cannot generally be halted after it has started, the focus is mostly on the order level.

To grasp the significance of block planning, one must comprehend its aims, functions, and scope. Block planning, in essence, is the planning of the development of a block within a specific time frame, whether it one year, five years, or even longer. In contrast to a national plan, which takes into

consideration the demands of numerous sectors at a macro level, block planning is fundamentally a local planning exercise. It should be noted that at this level, the success or failure of a planning exercise is most apparent. Obviously, even minor changes in living circumstances as a consequence of the plan are easily apparent at this scale. This stimulates popular engagement. This kind of public participation broadens the scope of the neighbourhood planning process, making it crucial.

A block development plan consists of two main components:

- a. the area development component; and
- b. the beneficiary-focused programmes for specific populations.

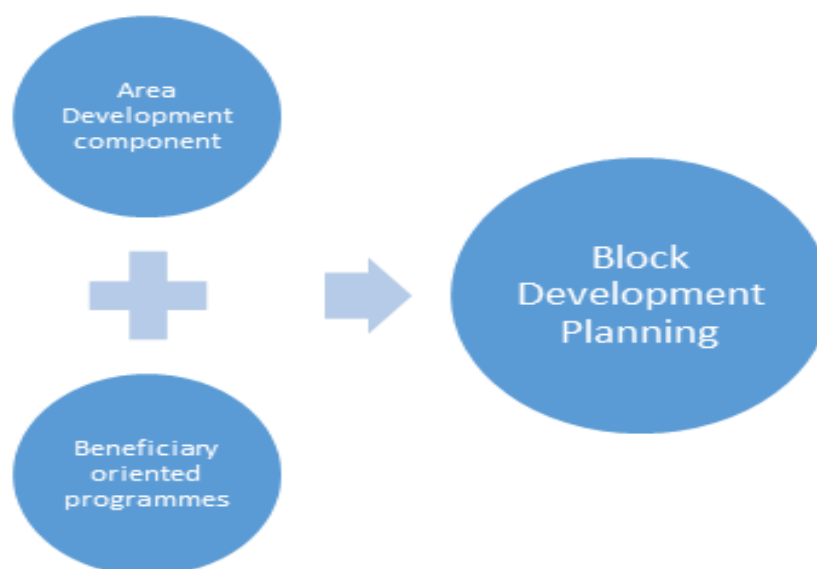


Figure 2.8: Components of Block Development Plan

Plans for resource and infrastructure development and the supply of socio-economic amenities must be established in concert within the area development component. To seek to offer direct help to the most disadvantaged segments of the population is the objective of establishing beneficiary-oriented programmes solely for specified target groups. This is necessary since such parts are often omitted from typical development courses. In addition, as noted before, at the micro-level, the plan must be location-specific; thus, the whole process must be conducted within the framework of a settlement plan, which includes focal points and the related service areas.

Objectives

The objectives of block planning should align with national planning objectives. The objectives of block level planning are as follows -

- Employment and income development, especially for the poor, as a result of optimum regional growth and state employment schemes.
- Distribution of development's benefits so that they reach the disadvantaged, such as marginal farmers, agricultural labourers, etc.
- Developing the region's social and economic infrastructure
- Enhancing the accessibility and availability of social services through Minimum
- Need-based programmes and expanding the scope of the public distribution system.
- Constructing structures and organisations to safeguard the interests of the region's impoverished and vulnerable populations.
- Promoting a more equitable asset ownership structure in the region.

- Modernizing technology, boosting production, and fostering skill development.

Integrated Area Approach

Block planning must take into consideration the intersectoral connections between the various socioeconomic circumstances of rural areas. Otherwise, there is a significant risk of growth being skewed. This necessitates an integrated approach to area development in the planning process.

To highlight the significance of cross-sectoral planning, we might use the 1930 Food and Agriculture Organization (FO) initiative in the Anatolia area of Turkey. This initiative brought around forty thousand hectares of land under authority. However, only 15% of the potential developed 15 years after the construction of the irrigation system could be realised. This sluggish performance was not attributable to a lack of technical expertise or financial resources, but rather a lack of extension effort. According to reports, farmers lacked the motivation to maximise their resources. Realizing the significance of extension work, this element was addressed. Consequently, there was an increase in the usage of irrigation infrastructure and an increase in agricultural output.

As a result of the absence of a strategy to provide marketing and transport facilities for the increasing agricultural output, processing companies were formed. Consequently, employment rose. People from neighbouring regions soon began flocking into this area. Population growth in the area put a burden on a variety of public buildings and services, including education, health, housing, and water supply. Ultimately, planning was required for these areas as well. Even though the intention was to promote just one sector - agriculture – a strategy had to be developed for other connected industries. Clearly, actions in one industry had a domino effect in other industries. In light of this, it is vital to develop a comprehensive strategy that takes into consideration all interdependent areas.

Comprehensive Development Plan

As stated before, for the total growth of a region, it is vital to concurrently plan for all linked industries. When many sectors are integrated into a plan, it creates a comprehensive development plan. To progress development at the block level, comprehensive development plans including production sectors and other sectors must be established. Plans for resource development, infrastructural amenities, and social service facilities are thus included in a comprehensive plan. In the coming sections, we will explore the components of a block plan. Thus, if correctly integrated, the plans developed by sectoral officials, DRDAs, and financial institutions would comprise the area's comprehensive development plan.

Location Specific Plan

It is possible to describe the locations of various activities and amenities at the local level. Unique to a micro-level or block-level plan is the need to specify the locations of the numerous planned plans in the region. Thus, the strategy is location-specific.

These sites are determined based on practicability and the distance within which the facility must be offered to the local population. The locations of various projects are of utmost importance, since the success of the programme is contingent on rationally determined placements. Integration between various systems is also facilitated by their strategic placement. Consequently, the supplemental and extra facilities and activities are developed in such a way as to guarantee integration.

Progress in Block Planning

The foundation of block planning may be traced back to the Community Development Programme's (CDP) introduction of community development blocks in 1952. With an average of 100 settlements and a population between 60,000 and 80,000, these blocks were regarded acceptable for planning and

development purposes. With a population and land area of this size, it may be simpler to comprehend local realities, opportunities, and difficulties. It was also believed that this would promote people's participation in the creation and execution of plans.

The inability to construct block plans in the needed manner was due to a lack of knowledge on the one hand and a lack of coordination between the many officials functioning at that level on the other. Consequently, despite the fact that projects were chosen by authorities responsible for the coordinated development of several sectors, they were executed separately. Nonetheless, these schemes were created to represent the allocations for various programmes inside a block.

Therefore, in 1977, the Planning Commission appointed Prof. M.L. Dantwala to head a team charged with proposing the institutional and conceptual framework for block planning. This group recommended operational principles for the development of block plans. It was also suggested that a planning team be established at the district level, since it was not practical to develop separate planning apparatus for each block. It was established that employees at the block level would be responsible for data collection and analysis, while the district planning team, under the supervision of the State Planning Boards (SPBs), will construct the block plan. In addition, it was proposed that, at the district level, the planning team should include the following members:

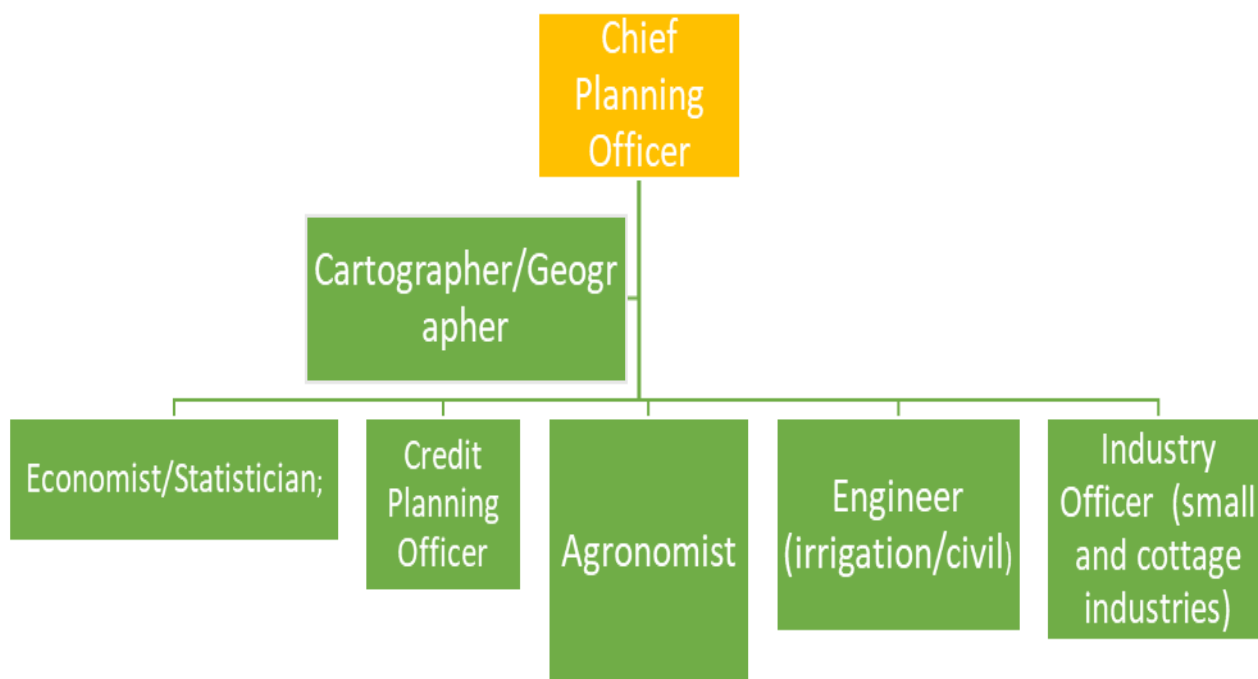


Figure 2.9: Team for Block Development Plan

In September 1978, the Planning Commission constituted a second group under the leadership of Shri Ajit Majumdar to develop operational guidelines for block-level planning. The Planning Commission disseminated operational guidelines for block planning, as suggested by the committee, for the construction of comprehensive development plans. As you are well aware, in 1978 the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), a beneficiary-focused initiative, was created. For the execution of this programme, the Department recommended preparing comprehensive block development plans and implementing IRDP within the context of these area development plans. However, even after a decade, only roughly forty blocks in the nation have complete development plans. Even yet, the majority of this work has been conducted by research institutes, non-profit organisations, and agricultural colleges. As a

result, it was deemed essential to limit the scope of the block plan for the implementation of IRDP to planning for productive sectors alone; this restricted exercise was dubbed the IRDP block plan.

The Planning Commission had to review its judgement since comprehensive development plans could not be drafted as planned. The current strategy is to construct district development plans, which will be subdivided into block and village plans. Consequently, the notion of block level planning has retreated at this time.

Nonetheless, periodic efforts have been made in several states to formulate block-level plans. In four chosen Maharashtra districts, experimental pilot project plans were being developed. The sub-divisional units in Assam are used for planning reasons. Similarly, the planning process in Bihar is conducted at the block level. In the Indian states of Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka, the planning unit has been reduced to a collection of villages known as a Mandal. In addition, District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs) around the nation continue to develop block-level plans for the implementation of IRDP. Thus, IRDP is the only national programme that employs the notion of block level planning.

The fact that just a few of blocks in the nation really engaged in the planning process has significantly undermined the government's block planning initiative. Since block level planning has been submerged into the district planning process, the country's block level planning has regressed. Thus, despite attempts made in some regions of the nation, block planning has, in general, failed to materialise. In the next years, therefore, moves toward a cohesive block planning exercise will have to consider first how to implement this structure in the planning machinery. Unless this occurs, we will be discussing a planning level that is essentially non-existent.

Planning Process at the Block Level

The block plan consists of two halves. One is a perspective plan with a long-term view. This plan outlines the potential for long-term growth in the region's many industries. In other words, it provides the opportunity for growth in several industries. The Annual Plan, which is developed from the five-year plan and the perspective plan, is the second plan.

Formulation of Perspective Plan:

The purpose of prospective planning is to provide a coherent and consistent set of interrelated objectives for the recognised development goals. It is based on current knowledge and experience, but is built for the next 10 to fifteen years. The significance of this job lies in the fact that, if completed correctly, it may show the risk of an excessive focus on the present or, alternatively, highlight the necessity to take actions at various times in time to assure the planned development rate. The perspective plan of the block must conform to the district's perspective plan.

Preparation of Resource Inventory:

This is the most important phase in the planning process. If this process is conducted sensibly, the programme can be effectively executed. Required for the creation of a resource inventory are the following: I natural resources, including land, water, vegetation, and human and bovine resources; I activities, such as agriculture and allied sector industries; I social service and institutional facilities, such as health, education, sanitation and water supply, banking, etc.; and I infrastructural facilities, such as roads and electricity.

All of these objects need precise information. These include:

- Type
- Location or distribution
- Quantity/extent/number

- Quality
- Level of use
- Future growth potential
- Problems and limitations

The process of formulating a plan is shown by the planning for the extraction of groundwater resources. In order to create such a strategy, it is necessary to analyse groundwater survey data. Pockets where groundwater is accessible must be discovered, and it must be determined whether or not this water is brackish and how much is available. In addition, it is essential to determine how much water has previously been extracted through boreholes and open wells. This will allow us to determine the magnitude of untapped water potential. It is also vital to determine why existing potential has not been realised. Was it due to structural issues, uneconomical proposals, a lack of inputs or technical expertise? These responses will help the planner identify particular issues.

Once we have information on these factors, we may evaluate the entire potential for future growth, taking into account the limitations on the use of these resources and estimations of the resources that can be used in the near future. This will provide an estimate of the number of implementable units for various systems. On this basis, the number of viable plans in the region may be determined.

The quality of the resources will indicate how they may be used, or in other words, the types of schemes that can be implemented in the region. The location information will indicate the areas where schemes may be implemented and the number of units that are viable in those locations. However, before finishing the list of schemes that may be implemented in the region, we must also evaluate other factors in addition to the resource potential. One of the factors that must be examined is the current experience with relation to the schemes that have been selected as practicable; hence, it may be necessary to assess the existing programs/schemes in the region.

Planning for Suitable Schemes

One of the fundamental jobs of every planning endeavour is the assessment of ongoing plans. Initially, it is necessary to catalogue the numerous programmes being implemented in the region by various authorities and organisations. Before advocating a rise in the number of units of a programme, it is prudent to learn from the program's implementation experience. Some of the plans may be effectively implemented in the region, resulting in the attainment of programme goals. In certain cases, the implementing agency may find it difficult to execute a plan owing to different restrictions, such as a lack of technical know-how, a shortage of raw materials, insufficient backward and forward connections, and inadequate reaction from the people, among others. It would also be important to determine the nature of the different programmes and the support offered, so that any new schemes proposed may be connected to existing ongoing programmes for financing and implementation. Thus, duplication of effort is avoided.

After a review of current plans, the planning apparatus must determine what is practicable. On the basis of a resource inventory and analysis of ongoing schemes, viable schemes must be enumerated and their numbers stated. Nevertheless, this endeavour would be insufficient unless we consider the backward and forward links for the execution of these programmes.

Assessment of Backward and Forward Linkages

Backward links refer to the facilities and inputs that assist manufacturing, while forward connections are necessary after production. To clarify this issue, we may state that backward links for the agricultural

sector include input distribution centres, irrigation facilities, etc., whereas forward linkages include marketing, storage facilities, and processing facilities.

Backward and forward links are required for the successful execution of any project. If there are no backward links, the programme cannot launch correctly, and as a result, output will suffer. In contrast, if forward connections are unavailable, the output cannot be completely exploited, and the venture might become unprofitable. On the basis of this exercise about backward and forward links, we may be able to finalise the list of those schemes that are not only possible and being executed effectively, but also can be implemented successfully in the future as the necessary linkages are accessible. Prior to executing realistic plans, we must guarantee that forward and reverse links are complete. Prior to implementing workable plans, such connections must be established.

Annual Block Plan

The Annual Block Plan is connected to the annual district plan and specifies the priority area, the schemes to be executed (new and current schemes), the expenditures, and the objectives. As with the district plan, the block plan should outline the horizontal and vertical connections of block-level programmes envisioned for the year in question. Non-officials, non-governmental organisations, professional groups, and the people's representatives should participate in block planning exercises. Schemes of the Central and State governments that are received for implementation in the block should be evaluated in terms of their viability, local requirements, and potentials, and adjustments should be requested if deemed required.

Formulation of Action Plans

Annual action plans are intended for immediate implementation. The annual plan identifies the strategies that comprise an annual action plan. However, several considerations must be taken into account when doing this activity.

Selection of Schemes and their Location

The annual action plan is a repository of implementation strategies. There are some requirements, which have to be kept in mind. Since they were picked from the five-year plan, these initiatives are without a doubt achievable. However, their feasibility must be evaluated further. In addition to practicality and viability, we may need to give priority to some plans that are the people's greatest need and must be executed quickly.

As the plan is intended for implementation, the availability of needed personnel must also be verified, and the kind of schemes and number of units must be altered correspondingly. In some circumstances, the availability of resources, such as cement, steel, etc., is essential, especially in building operations. This may influence the number of units of various plans of this sort, which may be taken up.

Financial Component

The financial impact must be determined for the annual action plan; it must be based on the available funding from various sources, including government departments, financial institutions, and any external agency.

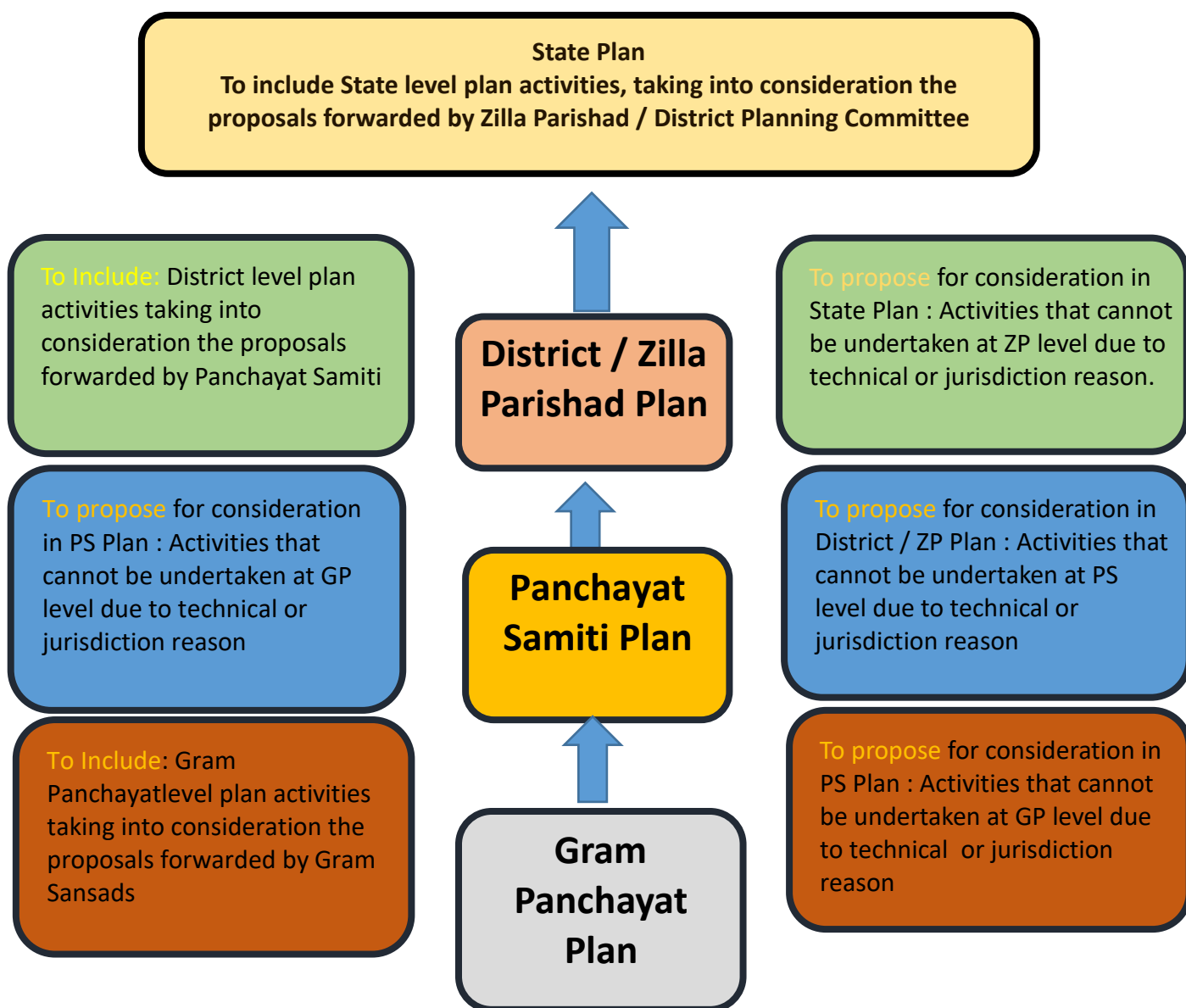


Figure 2.10: Vision of Integrated Bottom-up Planning

2.4. Elements of Gram Panchayat Development Plan (GPDP)

Gram Panchayats play an important role in the successful and efficient execution of flagship initiatives for rural India's development. Article 243G of the Constitution of India requires the GPs to draft and execute the GPDP for economic growth and social justice by integrating/ convergent all such programmes of the Panchayat, State, and Centre within their geographical region. In addition, as local government, GPs are accountable for providing basic services to local residents and addressing the vulnerabilities of impoverished and disadvantaged populations. This can only be accomplished via the execution of well-considered strategies, the effective and responsible use of resources at the GPs' disposal, and the expansion of resources to fulfil their goals.

The GPDP planning must be a thorough, interactive process including the complete convergence with Schemes of all relevant Central Ministries/Line Departments pertaining to the 29 disciplines included in the Eleventh Schedule of the Constitution.

The Ministry of Panchayati Raj prepared model guidelines for the GPDP and sent them to all the states where Article IX of the Constitution applies. On the basis of these model recommendations, all states announced their State-specific GPDP guidelines. Since then, states have been formulating and implementing GPDPs in accordance with their individual State Guidelines.

In addition, the Ministry has amended Model GPDP guidelines established in 2015 in accordance with the rising demands of holistic development in villages. The new guidelines for 2018 have been posted on the Ministry's website and sent to states for the purpose of enhancing their respective Guidelines.

The GPDP is an all-encompassing strategy for all 29 courses. It is One Village and one Plan approach. It is determined by local needs. It matches resources to people's most pressing needs. It is All-encompassing, Participatory, and Inclusive. It eliminates separate planning and actions. The plans of line departments should come from GPDP.

Through convergence between Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) and pertinent State Line Departments, the GPDP campaign would be an intense and well-structured planning exercise at the Gram Sabha level. Gram Panchayats have been tasked with preparing Gram Panchayat Development Plans (GPDP) for economic growth and social equity.

The Ministry of Finance also enforced the development of plans as a prerequisite for rural and urban local governments to receive funding from the 14th Central Finance Commission.

Importance of GPDP

The GPDP is the GP's development plan. It is developed by a collaborative process including all stakeholders, in which needs and priorities of the population are matched with available resources.

The GPDP performs three critical functions:

- i) it presents a Vision of what the people want their village to look like
- ii) it outlines specific Goals for achieving that Vision, and
- iii) it outlines an Action Plan for achieving those Goals.

Planning at the GP level facilitates the following actions:

- Engage Panchayats in the development planning process, therefore building their identity as Local Government
- Inspire and mobilise citizens to participate in decision-making, bringing government closer to the people
- Provide a venue for discussing local opinions, local issues, and analysis-based prioritisation choices
- Assess people' perceived needs and ambitions
- Determine the extent of development gaps
- Prioritize the village's needs and challenges
- Use effective convergence to bring all available programmes and resources together
- Promote the convergence and integration of various programs/departments/industries
- Improve resource use for the benefit of the whole region's residents

Need of GPDP

- Constitutional mandate - Article 243G requiring plan at GP level (also at higher tiers of Panchayat) for economic development and social justice and implementation of schemes to achieve those goals
- Mandate emanating from the recommendations of the Fourteenth Finance Commission
- Mandate of the State Panchayat Acts and Rules

- Thrust given by Government of India (MOPR & MORD)
- Needs felt by GP to satisfy people's ambitions as part of its responsibility to people
- Demands wanted or voiced by people for services from GP as a self-government entity

Focus Areas in GPDP

Every GP has a duty to provide essential public services and engage in growth activities associated with assigned responsibilities. Article 243G of the Constitution makes it clear that the Panchayat must handle the 29 concerns listed in the Eleventh Schedule as part of the GPDP. As a result, the GPDP should evaluate the needs and ambitions of marginalised groups, as well as analyse the gaps in development in socioeconomic sectors and public service delivery. The experience has shown that the bulk of the investment is going towards the creation of infrastructure, so one of the challenges for the GP will be to prioritise the socio-economic development issues and the inclusive development of marginalised sections of the community over routine infrastructural developments. So, in order to promote holistic and inclusive development, GPDP must undertake activities to address the issues of socio-economic development aspects. Basic services, economic growth & poverty alleviation, human & social & ecological development, public service delivery, effective governance, Sustainable Development Goals, skill development, child protection & development, spatial planning, digital enablement & e-enablement of Panchayat for good governance & public service delivery, critical infrastructure development - are all possible areas of emphasis.

Common GPDP focus areas are detailed in the following subsections:

Basic Services

In accordance with Article 243G of the Indian Constitution, Panchayats are required to act as an institution of self-government. Therefore, GPs must provide basic services to the local people. Accordingly, the fourteenth Finance Commission has suggested that GPs receive basic funds for providing basic services. Basic services include water supply, sanitation, including septic management, sewage and solid waste management, storm water drainage, maintenance of community assets, maintenance of roads, walkways, street lighting, cemeteries, and cremation sites, among others. These fundamental services are essential to the quality of life in rural communities. These services are also covered in the 29 topics mentioned in the Eleventh Schedule of India's Constitution and the Sustainable Development Goals that must be attained by 2030. Some Panchayats have increased the scope of their basic services to include the provision of RO drinking water for low fees, community bathrooms, and a children's park along with other amenities.

Economic Development and Poverty Reduction

The primary purpose of preparing the GPDP is to identify and develop strategies to meet the actual needs of the local population. In this article, economic development refers to enhancing the economic well-being and quality of life of a society by bolstering its revenue streams. The GPDP should have a significant emphasis on reducing poverty through identifying poverty trends in the community. Through the GPDP, GPs should improve economic activity in their region and boost the income of rural people, especially marginalised and impoverished families. GPs should be encouraged to develop and utilise locally relevant indicators on development issues, including aligning actions with localising the SDGs, and to engage in activities that increase local production and productivity, increase employment and employability, improve market access and marketability of the local produce, promote value addition, and create productive infrastructure such as markets, ponds, fisheries, livestock development, horticulture development, and land decentralisation. The government should consolidate several livelihood development programmes such as MGNREA, NRLM, PMAY, PMGSY, NSAP, PMASY, RKVY, etc.

Human Development

The GPDP should include components pertaining to literacy, education, skill development, health, nutrition, and promotion of livelihoods, among others. The emphasis should be on boosting the quality and accessibility to human development services provided by Anganwadis, schools, and hospitals. The GPDP should attempt to produce clear results consistent with State Government goals. The inadequacies in human development must be identified and remedied. For instance, the reasons for not meeting the minimal levels of learning, dropout, hunger, etc., must be recognised and targeted measures must be taken to remedy them.

Social Development

GPDP should endeavour to improve the welfare of vulnerable and disadvantaged groups, such as SCs, STs, Other Backward Classes (including minorities), individuals with disabilities, the elderly, women, children, bonded labourers, child labourers, distress migrants, manual scavengers, victims of trafficking, etc. People's perceptions and expert opinion may be used to identify the major difficulties in social development. For instance, the community's problems, such as a lack of skills, job prospects, and access to public services, might be enumerated, debated, and a strategy for resolving them developed.

GPDP and SDGs

There are 17 goals with 169 targets under the SDGs. These are global objectives with local ramifications and intervention options. Numerous SDG objectives are within the scope of the GPs. Therefore, GPs play a significant role in reaching the SDGs. The GPDP affords the GPs the chance to facilitate the GPDP towards the eventual accomplishment of the SDGs. Panchayats may establish GP-level objectives with quantifiable indicators, vertical and horizontal links, convergence possibilities, and actionable plans throughout the planning process. The localising SDGs framework might be utilised as a consolidating tool for actions and effects on the ground on a variety of topics that promote and sustain long-term GP level development. Such a localised SDG framework must be designed with the full and informed involvement of all local stakeholders with relevant interests.

Ecological and Environment Development

Conscious efforts should be made to ensure that activities undertaken under the GPDP are environmentally benign and promote biodiversity. Therefore, the GP should be responsible for the upkeep and improvement of numerous ecosystems, including water bodies, pastures, and grasslands, among others. The GP must prepare for the protection of biological resources. In light of the potential effect of climate change, the GP should aim to analyse the impact and implement mitigation strategies as part of GPDP. In addition, efforts pertaining to environmental sustainability should account for the contributions of natural resources, such as ecosystems and biodiversity, to the economic and social security of local people. Formal mainstreaming of economic advantages of conservation and management activity would strengthen the capacity of GPs to achieve sustainable development that is economically and socially feasible.

Public Service Delivery

The GPDP should place a stronger focus on service delivery quality. Priority should be given to the improvement of local public services, such as the issuing of certificates, mandatory registration of birth/death, marriages, migration, issuance of licenses/permits, and social security pensions, with a focus on electronic delivery of services. The CSC programme of the Ministry of IT should be used to deliver public services to rural residents. GPs should also guarantee that schools, health centres, Anganwadis, etc. are operating well.

Good Governance

In the context of governance, the focus should be on identifying the origins of inefficiency, ineffectiveness, delay, corruption, and other forms of wrongdoing, etc. This should include GP as well as other public institutions in the GP region. For efficient public service delivery, the GP must stress accountability transparency and proactive disclosures as well as community-based budget and expenditure monitoring.

Skill Building

GPDP should also emphasise on how Panchayats may play a significant role in skill development and ensuring participation from the most vulnerable groups, especially women. GPs must prepare for increasing awareness about the skills-related programme, aiding mobilisation efforts, developing databases for skill demand and placement, assisting with the Job mela, and providing assistance to the project implementing agencies at all phases of skill training. The GPs may supervise the placement of candidates following their training, contact with applicants and their parents to monitor different elements of their work, and participate in the procedure for redressing complaints. Skill building should concentrate not only on getting employment and economic empowerment but also guaranteeing sustainable use of resources, capacity to negotiate and maintain development requirements that are locally relevant and responsive as well as promote development that is sustainable. In this respect, it is necessary for the GPs to come up with creative concepts of skill development, distinct from the conventional views. These concepts might include addressing offsets, resource-based economic growth, nutritional security that includes health and food security, and rights-based methods for local governance.

Women and Child Protection & Development

The GPDP should maintain gender mainstreaming as a central subject for all activities and programmes. The GP must organise actions for the achievement of the rights of women and children in the community and implement the same. The physician should acknowledge that the services provided to children are not handouts or favours, but rather their legal entitlements. This technique gives a possibility to have child friendly GP.

Spatial Planning

Spatial planning is the process of ensuring the present and future of urban and rural regions via the planned development and management of their expansion. Spatial planning gives choices for rural regions' sustainable development. Given that all development initiatives have direct effects on land usage, they must be coordinated and integrated within a suitable spatial framework. The Rural Area Development and Plan Formulation and Implementation (RADPFI) guidelines explain the spatial planning procedure.

E-enablement of Panchayat

E-governance increases the efficiency and transparency of governance via the dissemination of information, the efficient delivery of services, and the improvement of internal procedures and management. The Panchayat Enterprise Suite (PES) used in the Panchayats tackles all the fundamental tasks of Panchayats, such as decentralised planning, budgeting, accounting, implementation and monitoring of service delivery, such as the issuance of licences and certificates, etc.

Infrastructure Development

In terms of infrastructure, GP should identify infrastructure deficiencies and prioritise their requirements. For instance, in terms of physical connection, provide a list of settlements without roads, the needed road length, etc. This may also involve maintenance, restoration, upgrades, and new

construction. In the case of municipal amenities, efforts should be taken to uphold the established service supply and delivery standards. Priorities should also be given to the repair of public property.

Essential Preparation by Gram Panchayats for conducting GPDP

GPDP preparation is a time-sensitive procedure. In an ideal world, the GPDP should prioritise the requirements, basic services, and ambitions of the people in line with the available resources. It should be developed in a transparent, inclusive, and participatory approach. The plan should be prospective in character (preferably a five-year plan) and implementable on an annual basis, depending on the Gram Sabha's goals. Taking into consideration the performance/feedback/impact of the annual plan execution, the perspective plan will be revised and the activities/projects for the next fiscal year will be reprioritized after the implementation of the annual plan. Thus, after the conclusion of the fifth year, a new five-year plan will be developed. All of these procedures must be initiated and completed within the specified time frame. Panchayat and its committee play a crucial role from the beginning to the end of the planning process, as well as throughout implementation and monitoring.

The following are the components of GPDP "Plan Cycle":

- Gram Panchayat Planning Facilitation Team (GPPFT) for each GP to ensure shared knowledge and facilitation of the whole planning process, as well as orientation and activation of GPs to undertake and carry out the complete GPDP process
- Community engagement and environment creation
- Collection of primary and secondary data
- Situation analysis, need assessment, and gap identification
- Visioning exercise for goal setting
- Resources and identification/estimation of corresponding activities – Special Gram Sabha
- Plan development, prioritisation, and projectisation
- Approval of the GPDP
- Implementation, monitoring, and impact analysis

Note: Gram Panchayat and its committee will take active part and ensure preparation of GPDP

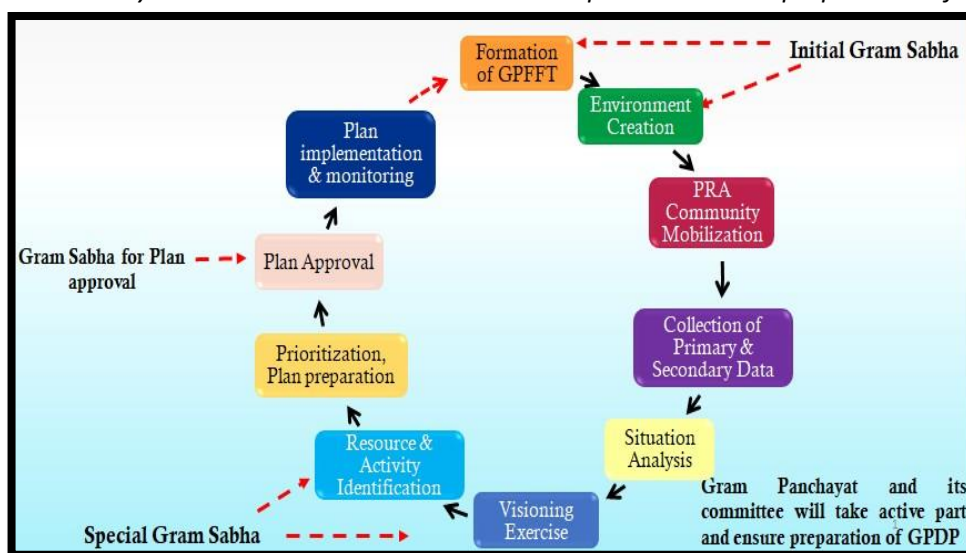


Figure 2.11: Plan Cycle of GPDP

A. Formation of a Gram Panchayat Planning Facilitation Team (GPPFT)

GP must construct GPDP in order to facilitate broader involvement, effective resource use, and maximum development benefits. A large number of well-meaning/philanthropic/volunteer human resources who

can assist the GP in developing a comprehensive and ambitious strategy should be recruited. For this purpose, a group called the "Gram Panchayat Planning Facilitation Team" (GPPFT) may be constituted in each GP under the leadership of the Pradhan/Sarpanch/President of the GP. Size and content of GPPFT might fluctuate. This team should always consist of sectoral / line department representatives at the GP level. In addition to this, inhabitants of the GP who are working or living elsewhere in the nation or abroad should be asked to join the GPPFT. The objective is to use their knowledge/skills and experience for the sustainable development of the GP region. As special invitees of GPPFT, the known "Beacon leaders" of other GPs in the district/neighboring districts/States/other States may also be invited. The State government's/district administration's directives to all line departments should be used to secure the full involvement of these people. This team is the primary functional group of the GP responsible for developing the GPDP and assisting in its efficient implementation and monitoring.

To support community-based planning procedures for GPDP, the GP may split the GPPFT into "Ward Planning Facilitation Teams" (WPFT) with a minimum of 3 to 5 members led by the relevant GP ward members. WPFT must guarantee that all ward members/residents engage in the planning process and voice their perceived needs and frustrations openly. The GP may reconstitute the GPPFT annually depending on the need to add or remove members.

Tasks of GPPFT

The GPPFT will assist all phases of the planning process, from the establishment of the planning environment through plan approval, execution, and monitoring. The whole planning process must be conducted as a campaign, with continual participation from all stakeholders. The GPPFT should prepare the GPDP in accordance with the State Government's published requirements. By participating actively in the meetings and activities of the different GPDP working groups, the GPPFT should facilitate the coordination of all line departments, which have been functioning in silos up until now, in order to be responsible to the GP.

Formation of Working Groups in GPPFT

The GPs have standing/functional committees for many topic areas (the nomenclature may vary from state to state). In the event that the standing/functional committees cannot be established immediately, the GPPFT members may be divided into several thematic working groups. Each working group will consist of GPPFT members with knowledge in the appropriate sector or an interest in the particular issues. The working group shall be led by the chairman of the standing/functional committee for the respective subject areas. The block level officer of the relevant line department or any local expertise in the area may serve as the vice-chair of the appropriate working group. These groups will operate under the general direction and supervision of the physician. The GP may establish the following working groups:

- ✓ Human Development Working Group: To address health, nutrition, education, public health, and environment and sanitation related concerns.
- ✓ Women & Child Development Working Group: To deal with gender problems and concerns connected to rights of women and children, women's empowerment, protection of women and children from atrocities/abuse and their skill development related issues
- ✓ Livelihoods Development Working Group: To deal with agricultural and allied sectors, small medium and cottage enterprises, entrepreneurship, natural resource management including soil and water conservation, green cover and bio-diversity related concerns
- ✓ Social Justice & Social Security Working Group: To deal with the development of SC/ST communities and other backward elements of society, such as people with disabilities (PWDs) and the elderly, with the goals of equality, empowerment, and well-being.

- ✓ Infrastructure & Miscellaneous Working Group: To deal with the local infrastructure and other challenges as relevant to the GP

The GP may establish further working groups based upon the local requirements such as working group on Environment Protection, Spatial Planning and Disaster Management Planning, etc.

B. Facilitator for each Gram Panchayat

A facilitator may be designated for each Gram Panchayat/Gram Sabha in order to provide the necessary assistance and organise the preparation of the GPDP for each Panchayat. Facilitators may be chosen from among Community Resource Persons (CRPs), qualified Social Auditors, or other suitable individuals, such as authorities such as Gram Rojgar Sevak. The facilitators designated for each Gram Sabha will be expected to carry out the following actions on a priority basis:

- Carry out a survey with Mission Antyodaya (MA) for scoring under different categories, and have the results confirmed in the GS.
- Facilitate the special GS for GPDP on the scheduled day so that its goals are met and frontline employees of line Departments engage in the discussion.
- To ensure community mobilisation during the Gram Sabha, inclusive of vulnerable groups such as SC/ST/Women. Village Organizations/SHGs may be assisted in presenting a poverty reduction plan to the Gram Sabha, which, after consideration, may be integrated into the GPDP planning process.
- Coordinating with frontline ministry/department personnel.
- Encourage development of exhaustive GPDP
- Participate in the implementation and monitoring of the GPDP in order to achieve the desired objectives.

C. Environment Creation

Before official plan preparation can begin, the atmosphere must be created and the community must be mobilised. The environment creation activities are of utmost significance for inducing attitude shifts, new perspectives, and reorientation within the community and governing structures. Therefore, the first step in the GPDP is to create a Gram Sabha to raise awareness among the people and begin the planning process. Gram Sabha will be made aware of the necessity for GPDP, the planning process's step-by-step actions, the establishment of GPPFT, and the enlistment/introduction of GPPFT members. Explain the need and significance of representation and involvement by at least one person of every household throughout the whole planning process and subsequent meetings, including Gram Sabhas. The GPPFT should take the effort to create an atmosphere conducive to women's involvement in the Gram Sabha. This may be accomplished with the aid of female ward members and SHGs. In order to include everyone in the decision-making process of the Gram Sabha, special Gram Sabhas for women, children, and the elderly may be held before to the main Gram Sabha sessions to enable better integration of their concerns into the GPDP.

Additionally, environment needs to be created for successful plan creation, capturing the ambitions of the GP's residents and arriving at a Panchayat vision, inspiring excitement among all the stakeholders, elected representatives, SHGs, and line department employees, etc. In addition, the GP should begin Information, Education, and Communication (IEC) initiatives to improve the distribution of GPDP's vision and goals. A successful GPDP will rely on effective IEC that leads to the engagement of all stakeholders in the Gram Sabha and Ward Sabha. The setting created for the preparation of the GPDP should be festive to encourage the engagement of all stakeholders.

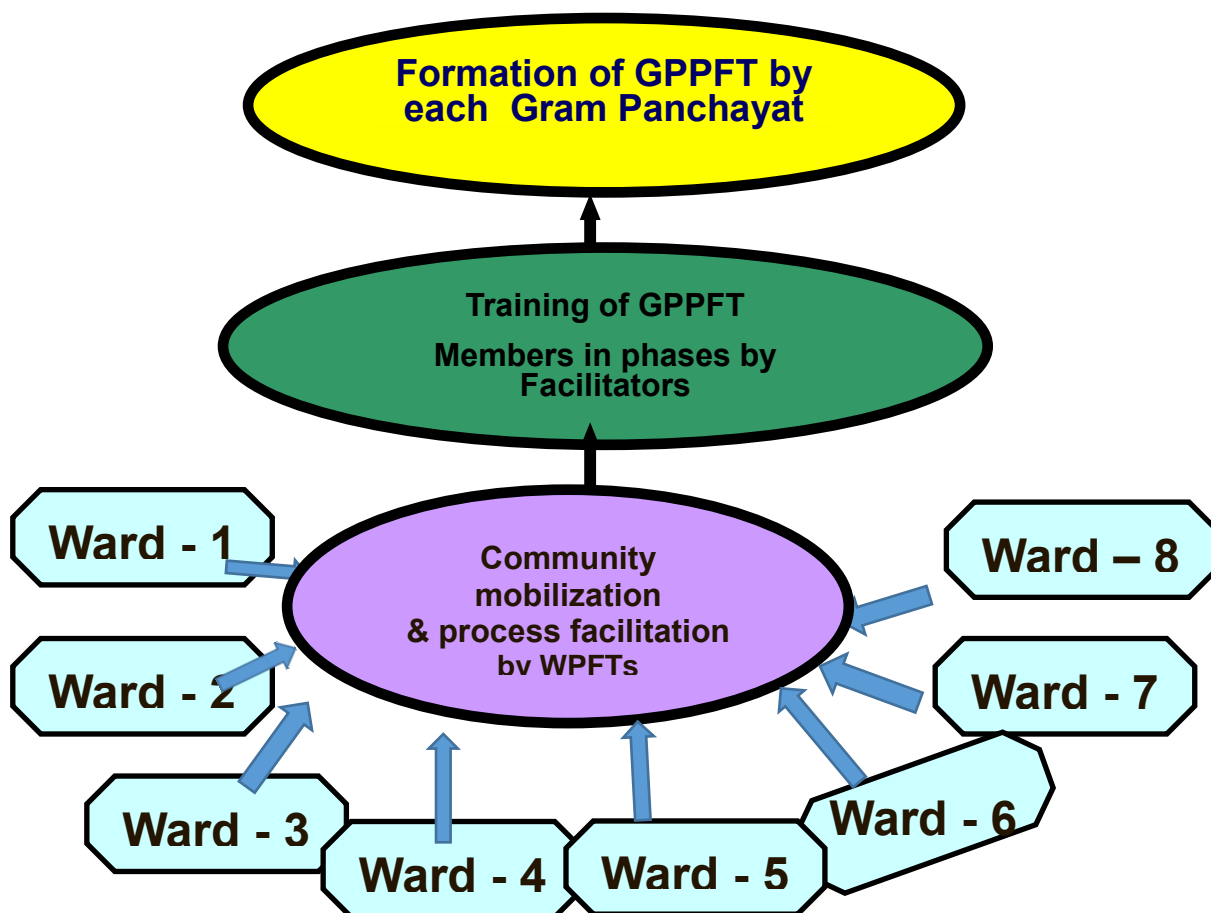


Figure 2.12: Formation of Team for GPDP

2.5. Preparation of Gram Panchayat Development Plan

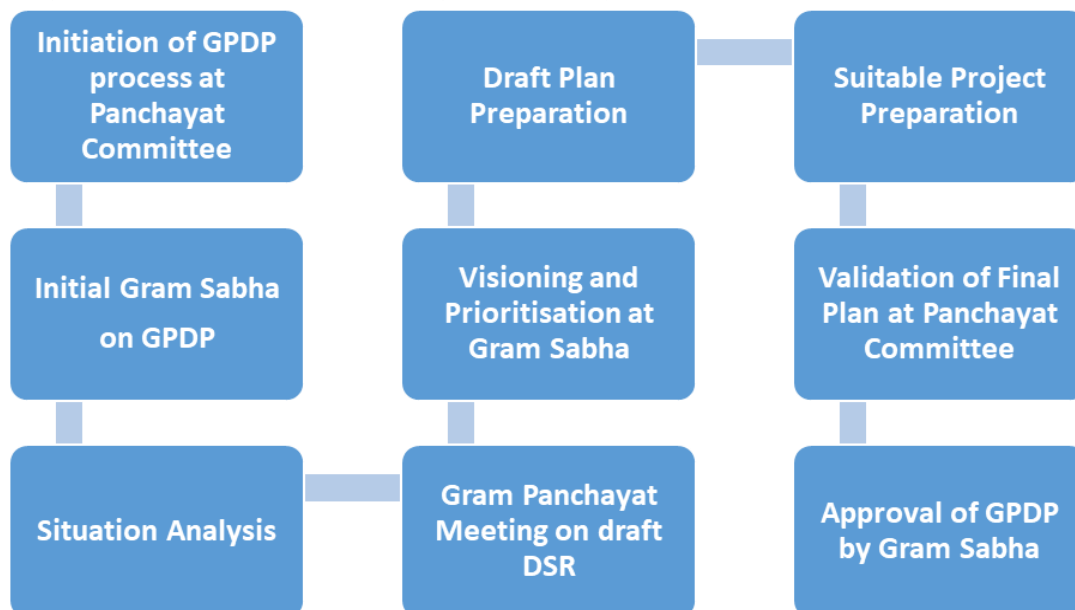


Figure - 2.13: Steps in Preparation GPDP

Step 1: Initiation of GPDP process at Panchayat Committee

The entire GP Committee should hear a thorough explanation of the GPDP idea and its procedures from the resource people or charge officers who have received GPDP training. This is necessary:

- To comprehend the procedure and steps involved in GPDP preparation.
- To define the Panchayat committee's and other stakeholders' roles in the participatory planning process.
- To comprehend the resources at hand and how best to use them.

- The GP Committee should thereafter meet and complete the following tasks:
- Discuss letters, government directives, and circulars pertaining to the GPDP.
- Select regional publicity initiatives.
- Select the various committees and working groups that must be formed in accordance with the state GPDP criteria.

The members of the GPDP Committees/Working Groups are as follows:

The GPDP Committees/Working Groups should be selected from the following –

- ERs/Standing committees
- Former ERs
- Serving and Retired government employees including teachers
- Teachers
- SHG/Federation leaders
- Women leaders/activist
- Youth/ students/ NSS/NCC/NYK etc.
- Community volunteers like BNV, Saksharta Prerak,
- Frontline workers like Swachchata doots, ASHAs, Anganwadi workers, barefoot engineers etc.
- Members of other functional committees like Watershed, Joint Forest Management Committees, School Management Committees, Village Health Sanitation Nutrition Committees, etc.
- NGOs/CSOs/CBOs/Social activists

Work that the GPDP Committees and Working Groups are responsible for

- ✓ Training of members of GPDP Committees/Working Groups
- ✓ Timelines for the GPDP Committees/Working Groups

The trained RPs/charge officers/panchayat support team stationed at the state/district/block/cluster level, as applicable, would be responsible for training/orienting newly formed GPDP committees based on the panchayat committee decision.

Determine the many tasks that the GP will perform, as well as the deadlines for each task.

Assign duties, particularly to the standing committees and elected representatives, with a focus on the following areas:

- ✓ Poverty
- ✓ Education
- ✓ Sanitation and water supply
- ✓ Public health

- ✓ Local economic development
- ✓ Natural Resource Management
- ✓ Issues of special groups/ persons with disabilities/issues of SCs and STs/ aged persons/ children etc.
- ✓ Gender issues
- ✓ Migration

Understanding the Resource Envelope of the Panchayat

The GP Committee should be aware of the resources used to create the GPDP. Along with the resources that could potentially be generated, it needs to take into account the financial and human resources that are currently or are anticipated to be accessible. It is advisable to try to mobilise at least 10 to 20 percent of the resources locally. The resources and the planned activity must match.

Set the date for the Gram Sabha and plan the environment-creation strategy to encourage the most participation possible. In order to inspire enthusiasm among the locals and secure their participation in the GPDP process, it is crucial to create the right environment.

Tools that can be used to create GPDP environments - The following resources and methods can be used to create environments:

- ✓ Letters to all the households informing them about GPDP and inviting them to participate in the process
- ✓ Letters to Resource Group/Working Group members, other local prominent persons seeking their active participation in the planning process
- ✓ Distribution of leaflets
- ✓ Microphone Announcement
- ✓ Rallies
- ✓ Street plays using local folk or popular media
- ✓ Display of Banners and Posters
- ✓ Campaign through SHGs
- ✓ Campaign through School children

Identify issues to be discussed in the Gram Sabha

Since there might not be enough time to finish discussions in one meeting, the GP can discuss the aforementioned topics in a continuous series of meetings. Every conversation and decision must be documented in great detail.

Key decision may be taken in the Gram Sabha-

Fixing date, venue and time for initial Gram Sabha

- Approval of draft list of GPDP Committee/WorkingGroup
- Invitation to expert personsandinstitutions.
- Resourceenvelope
- Environment creationplan

RESOURCE ENVELOPE

The Resource Envelope of the GP, thus calculated, will contain the following sources of funds:

A. Tied resources:

- ✓ Swachh Bharat Mission (SBM)
- ✓ National Rural Health Mission (NRHM)
- ✓ Other Centrally/State sponsored scheme fund in which GP has command

B. Untied resources:

- ✓ XIV Finance Commission grant
- ✓ State Finance Commission grant
- ✓ Own source of revenue (OSR)- taxes, non-tax, rents, fees for markets and ponds, user charges
- ✓ MGNREGS
- ✓ Community contribution (Cash /Kind/Labour)
- ✓ Corporate social responsibility funds
- ✓ Any other sources

Human Resources: The Panchayat should also select and name persons who are prepared to work for the growth of the GP. The GP should be able to locate the human resources required to carry out activities linked to GPDP planning and subsequent implementation of planned activities via this procedure.

Step 2: Initial Gram Sabha

The first Gram Sabha of the entire GPDP preparatory process - To ensure the widest possible participation, the Gram Sabha should be advertised beforehand. It is important to mobilise every SHG and member of the functional committee. Officials from the line departments should also be invited.

The objectives -

- To Introduce GPDP and raise awareness of it among locals
- To obtain consent for the formation of GPDP Committees and Working Groups
- To discuss concerns and issues of development

If there is a large enough turnout, distinct topic groups can be formed to debate development-related concerns. This Gram Sabha should consider both urgent issues and more significant ones that will need to be resolved over time.

Step 3: Situation Analysis

People are aware of the circumstances that have been impacting their life. Situational analysis is a technique that identifies the problems, community needs, and places where intervention is required. Situation analysis is the evaluation of the GP's developmental status. The first requirement is to evaluate the GP's current scenario in light of various development challenges. Additionally, it offers a foundational understanding of the infrastructural, amenity, and service deficiencies that exist as well as the possibility for further growth. This study can be used as the foundation for prioritising the concerns that will be included in the GPDP.

The development of the GPDP has as its main goal the identification and formulation of strategies for meeting the actual needs of the local populace, particularly the poor and vulnerable groups. Therefore, it is crucial to gather information directly from locals about any infrastructural gaps, problems with local health and education systems, concerns with local livelihoods, and other pertinent topics. Secondary data (previously released reports, SECC statistics, etc.) may occasionally be unavailable or may not accurately reflect the circumstances or needs of a specific community, group, or the GP as a whole. Cross-referencing or validating the information gathered directly from the community with the secondary data that is readily available is also crucial. Household surveys, focus groups, semi-structured interviews, and

other PRA techniques can be used to collect data on all of these. Utilizing local organisations to perform surveys inside the community also aids in incorporating the community in the planning process, resulting in a stronger sense of community ownership and more informed decision-making.

Objectives

- To gather information about the GP's current situation about numerous development difficulties
- To evaluate the standard of the infrastructure, amenities, and basic civic services offered in the GP

Following things should be kept in mind while performing situation analysis:

- It is important to identify the GP's current conditions and developmental position in relation to
- important areas like health, education, poverty, the plight of vulnerable populations, etc.
- Data must be gathered about the standard of the current services and the quality of life.
- It is imperative to gather data on the essential infrastructure, facilities, and services that the GP lacks (such as clean water, sanitary conditions, drainage, and roads).

Step 4: Gram Panchayat Meeting on Draft Development Status Report (DSR)

The draft development status report for the Gram Panchayat development plan must be finished as soon as feasible and presented in the Gram Panchayat meeting. The Panchayat will gain a fundamental understanding of the gaps and needs in the community. Before being presented to the Gram Sabha, the draft development status report needs receive approval from the GP committee. Prior to being presented to the Gram Sabha, any necessary modifications should be made and the updated documents internalised.

Objectives of the GP meeting:

- To present the draft development status report to the GP Committee
- To have the draft development status report approved; and to deliberate on the draft Gram Sabha mobilisation plan.

Preparatory activity

- All Gram Panchayat members will be informed of the date and agenda of the Panchayat Committee meeting, which will be decided upon with the GP president.
- Resource individuals from the Working Group will be informed in order to present the Draft Development Status Report to the GP Committee.
- Letters should be distributed to Line Departments inviting them to the GP meeting and asking them to contribute technical advice for DSR talks.

Activity

- The DSR will be presented, and each chapter will be examined independently.
- Obtaining comments from line departments and members of the Gram Panchayat.
- The participants in this conversation should make sure that the problems and solutions derived from the situation analysis are comprehensive and people-centered.
- The committee members and representatives from the line departments must discuss whether project proposals are feasible during this phase.
- A discussion of the resource envelope and a rough allocation of resources
- Discuss who would serve as the facilitators for the various segments of the Gram Sabha Discuss the presentation of the development report to the Gram Sabha
- Presentation of the report; Presentation of the resource envelope

- Discussion of the sectors/themes
- Facilitation of prioritisation
- Documentation of various discussions in the Gram Sabha; Fixing of the date and location for the Gram Sabha
- Discussion of the strategy for mobilising the population for the Gram Sabha.

Methods to be adopted for mobilizing people to participate in Gram Sabha:

- Display of DSR in conspicuous areas of GP
- An invitation to every single home
- Wall artwork
- Posters
- Banners
- Using the SHG to spread the word
- Announcements on microphones
- Inform pupils during school assemblies to ensure that their parents attend
- Ward representatives should assume the duty of mobilizing people for the Gram Sabha

Step 5: Visioning and Prioritisation at Gram Sabha

Following the creation of the draft development status report, this is the Gram Sabha of the GPDP process. The Gram Sabha should finalise the draft development status report and prioritise the development concerns for the annual plan and the five-year perspective plan.

Objectives

- To prioritise concerns based on the Gram Sabha's opinion and the Draft Development Status Report (DSR), which must be approved by it.
- To identify development issues that need to be handled over the course of five years
- To identify issues that need to be addressed by other authorities or institutions
- To identify development concerns that need to be addressed in the annual plan

Pre- activity

- Creating a better environment will encourage more people to come and participate in the Gram Sabha
- Get ready for the Gram Sabha with letters, notices, rallies, and microphone announcements.
- Letters should be sent to SHGs, CBOs, CSOs, and knowledgeable community member
- Preparatory activities should be completed, such as finalising the materials needed and seating arrangements.

Activity

- Presentation, debate, and Gram Sabha approval of DSR
- To inform people of the precise circumstances of the community, one of the GP Committee members, resource people, or Working Group members might read out the Development Status Report of the GPDP. This report also includes challenges and recommendations. It is important to prioritise fundamental issues including access to water, sanitary conditions, connection, and public health.

Visioning

- ✓ Gram Sabha must discuss and create a global vision for improvement in the major areas that have been identified. In other words, what the local population wants their doctor to develop into over the next five to ten years, may be discussed.
- ✓ Natural resource management, water and sanitation, and poverty reduction may receive special attention.
- ✓ Prioritization of the most important problems needs to be done.

Vision of GP (indicative)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Open defecation-free Panchayat ➤ Safe drinking water available to all households of GP ➤ Destitute free GP ➤ GP where all habitations are connected through all-weather road ➤ Child labour-free GP ➤ Forced migration-free GP ➤ Trafficking free-GP ➤ 100% Anganwadi enrolment GP ➤ 100% school enrolment GP ➤ 100% child and mothers are covered through immunization GP ➤ Malnutrition-free GP ➤ Infant death-free GP ➤ Maternal death-free GP ➤ Complete NSAP coverage GP ➤ Home for all-GP ➤ Clean and green GP

- ✓ Discussions on the GP's resource allocation and community contributions to close the gap between the resource allocation and development needs
- ✓ Prioritization
- ✓ The conversation should be conducted by the relevant Standing Committee members, Work group members, or task force members so that local people may understand and engage in the discussion.
- ✓ Thematic groups may be formed for sector-specific discussions.
- ✓ Presentation of proposals in the plenary
- ✓ Recommendations by Gram Sabha for each sector and vulnerable category should be documented
- ✓ Finalization of the prioritisation and resource allocation (they should be broad for the five-year plan and particular for the annual plan)
- ✓ Approval of planned activities
- ✓ Recording minutes of the meeting

Post-activity

Finalization of the Draft Development Status Report in accordance with the Gram Sabha's decisions.

Step 6: Draft Plan Preparation

Based on the final DSR that was agreed by the Visioning and Prioritization Gram Sabha, a draft plan should be created. This plan will include information on the resources allotted to specific initiatives, sectors, and methods of implementation.

Following steps may be followed for preparation of draft plan:

- A task force or working group Meeting
- The Working Group will make recommendations for projects that can be undertaken in accordance with the Gram Sabha's priorities and the finances allotted for both the annual plan and the five-year plan.
- In cooperation with the GP Committee, a working group or task force will design an annual and five-year plan based on the aforementioned.
- Sending the Panchayat committee, the draft plans. The plan needs to be written in the manner specified by the state government.

Components of Draft Plan

Proposed Sectors: This will detail every activity that was decided upon during the Gram Sabha for a certain sector.

Priorities: This section will only include the activities for the annual plan that have been decided upon.

Fund Allocated: This section will list the sum of money that has been set aside for implementing that specific project in each sector.

Source of Funds: Each activity must include the source of funding (e.g., centrally/state supported, FFC, SFC, OSR, community contribution, etc.).

Remarks: Any pertinent information on the implementation of the activity may be provided here.

Using the resources allotted for the same, the Panchayat Committee will finalise the draft annual plan and five-year plan before sending it back to the Working Group for the creation of specific projects. The Panchayat Committee will also choose which fund from its available funds will be allocated for which project. The Panchayat Secretary should transmit the sector-specific project proposals to the concerned functionary in cases where the detailed projects are to be created by department functionaries.

The Panchayat Committee should determine which issues should be submitted to various sources of funding or programmes.

- ✓ Projects that can be undertaken utilising funds from the 14th Finance Commission, SFC, for instance: Projects that can be carried out under current programmes like MGNREGS, SBM, IAY, NSAP, etc.
 - ✓ Projects that can be undertaken using their own resources Projects that can be undertaken in collaboration with departments
 - ✓ Projects that can be completed by departments alone; Projects that don't require any financial support.
 - ✓ Community contribution
- According to state regulations, information must be provided to the technical cell or support group for project preparation within a set amount of time.
 - The GP Committee will take action to ensure that the plan is approved at the GP meeting.
 - Many of the proposed activities that GPs will engage in might not be expensive. In fact, GPs can engage in a variety of mobilisation initiatives, most of which are free or little cost.
 - Community mobilisation and ownership are essential for low-cost or free development processes.

Examples of Cost-less/No cost/ low cost Development –

- Immunization coverage: Awareness generation through volunteers (SHG, youth groups etc.) for
- 100% immunization coverage
- Awareness creation for zero waste village through SHG collective, and other CBOs and NGOs
- 100 percent enrolment in schools: Awareness creation and community monitoring
- 100 percent enrolment in Anganwadis
- Zero fallow land in the village: mobilization of SHGs for collective farming
- Soak pits for household waste water management: Awareness creation and training for soak pit construction.
- Addressing malnutrition through Anganwadis and kitchen gardens
- Community action for elimination of child labour
- Community care giving groups: formation of such groups for bed ridden patients through awareness creation and mobilization.

Step 7: Project Preparation

Following the creation of the plan and the distribution of funds from the appropriate source, detailed projects and budget projections must be created. The Working Groups/task force, the appropriate line department officials, and the GP committee should all work together to develop this.

Objectives

Creation of thorough project estimates in accordance with funding commitments.

Obtaining technical approval for the project from the technical cell / designated personnel.

Pre-activity

- Site visits (project locations)
- Surveys
- Consultations with target populations
- Technical expert discussions
- Data collection

Activity

- Project and budget preparation with assistance from line department executives.
- Administrative and financial sanctions must be issued by the GP or the agency in accordance with state regulations.
- Technical approval by a technical cell or official as necessary in accordance with State regulations

Content of the Projects

- Project Title
- Introduction- Background and Brief Project Summary (Based on situation analysis)
- Rationale of the project (Based on DSR).
- Project objectives (Based on DSR and Gram Sabha decisions)
- Location of the project
- Project Components and Activities in detail.
- Budget - Cost and Source of Funds-component wise cost and fund should be indicated
- Time frame and work plan- Project implementation calendar
- Implementation Plan and Agency of implementation

- Expected Outputs–Beneficiaries / Benefited Area (Based on Gram Sabha decisions)
- Operation and Maintenance- The mechanism for operation and maintenance
- Monitoring- The indicators for monitoring and the system recommended for monitoring

Finally, this project document should be authorised and endorsed by Gram Panchayat and funds should be distributed as per the demand of the project document. Each project document must be included in the document for the Gram Panchayat Development Plan. This paper detailing the GP Development Plan will be presented at the upcoming Gram Sabha.

Post Activity

- Arrangements for the technical evaluation of the projects
- Letters to the technical cell/officials for technical approval arrangements
- Based on this, the final version of the GP Development Plan will be drafted
- Comparison with Gram Sabha prioritisation and submission to GP Committee

Step 8: GP Committee Meeting for validation of Final Plan

A meeting of the GP committee is required to validate the final plan based on technically approved projects and resource allocation. The Panchayat committee should ensure that the plan is drafted in accordance with the Gram Sabha's recommendations and submit it to the Gram Sabha for final approval.

Activity

- Ensuring that all GP members participate in the meeting
- Ensuring the involvement of line department representatives who will implement the project
- Ensuring that the resource person/representative of the task force is accessible in the GP's office during the Panchayat committee meeting in case the GP needs clarifications
- Discussion and comparison of Gram Sabha-prioritized projects.
- Plan and budget estimate approval by the Panchayat Committee wherein GP is the final authority.
- The Panchayat secretary shall record the debate and decisions in the form of minutes. The decision must be read loudly at the conclusion of the meeting. Under the decisions, the president, members, and secretary should provide their signatures.
- Fixing the day, location, and time for Gram Sabha approval or submission.
- Discussion and decision-making about initiatives to mobilise people for the Gram Sabha.

Step 9: Approval of GPDP by Gram Sabha

The created GP Development Plan must be presented to the Gram Sabha for approval or information, per state requirements.

Objectives

1. To have the Gram Sabha approve the GPDP, including the projects, and notify the Gram Sabha
2. To educate community members on the monitoring procedure throughout the implementation phase of the projects

Pre-activities

- Gram Sabha meeting
- Presentation of the GP Development Plan paper and project-by-project information
- Discussion of the proposed plan
- Plan approval wherever GS is the authorising authority

- The meeting's minutes should be documented
- Panchayat President and Secretary, GP members and the personnel who are going to execute the plan should attend the Gram Sabha

Activity

- Gram Sabha meeting:
- Presentation of the GP Development Plan paper and project-by-project information
- Discussion of the proposed plan
- Plan approval wherever GS is the authorising authority
- The meeting's minutes should be documented
- Panchayat President and Secretary, GP members and the personnel who are going to execute the plan should attend the Gram Sabha

Post Activity

- Finalize the processes for implementation
- Initiate technical sanction procedures when necessary.
- The Gram Sabha's decisions must be posted on the bulletin boards of the Panchayat and the various other local organisations.
- The final, authorised GPDP should be sent to the District Planning Committee (DPC) and/or the district and block Panchayat for review and approval in accordance with state regulations.
- The final copy of the plan should be posted on the bulletin boards of the GP and different other local institutions.

Perspective Plan

Following the processes outlined above, GPs should first create a five-year view GPDP, and then, based on prioritising, they should create distinct annual plans from the perspective plan after making any required adjustments depending on the present circumstances. Perspective plan is a crucial long-term vision document that will lead GP to develop its territory sustainably. If the prospective plan is based on appropriate approaches, it is simpler for GP to create an annual plan for each fiscal year. GP is just required to update certain formats and include current activity. Therefore, it is strongly advised that every GP draft a five-year plan for incorporation into GPDP.

Plan Implementation and Monitoring

GP should guarantee that the GPDP is implemented in accordance with its intent. Deviation from the authorised activities must be avoided, and GP Committee permission must be obtained with adequate reason before doing any action that is not part of the approved plan. The GP must also guarantee that locals participate in the execution and monitoring of authorised initiatives.

The GP should also ensure:

- Project initiation meeting with villages
- Transparent and competitive material procurement
- Employment of skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled labour (from MGNREGA job card holders)
- Daily enrolment in the muster roll (MR)
- Supervision of work
- Measurement of the works / materials and entry in MB
- Payment of employees per norm
- Payment of invoices received from vendors
- Maintenance of relevant accounts and records

- Completion of the task. Preparation of end-of-project report

The states should create a monitoring mechanism for the implementation of the approved GPDP.

(source:gdp.nic.in)

Summary

To accomplish development goals in general and rural development goals in particular, systematic planning is needed at every level. However, planning at any level requires a technical team, knowledge, resources, and, most importantly, coordination among inter-agency, intra-agency, and other stakeholders. Priority must be given to the dissemination of information to the public on the significance of their involvement in the planning process and the development of the functional stakeholders' capacities. The resource envelope, primarily via Own Source Revenue (OSR), must be enhanced at all levels.

To Do activities

- **Meet the District Planning Officer and discuss the planning priorities for your district.**
- **Conduct situational analysis in any village and prioritise the development requirements.**

Model Questions

1. What are the benefits of doing a situational analysis?
2. Distinguish between Primary and Secondary data.
3. What benefits does the PRA approach have over household surveys?
4. Explain the idea and scope of the district plan.
5. Discuss the block plan components.
6. What is the purpose of the Gram Sabha in the GPDP?
7. Write a brief message about GPPFT.
8. Depict the plan cycle for GPDP.

Further Reading and References

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Chapter 3 Institutions for Rural Development Planning

Introduction

The planning process has grown significant, especially in light of the fact that planning is seen as a key tool for resolving some of development's unresolved problems. The Indian planning system is multi-level, with several institutions playing key roles in the formulation and execution of planning, notably planning for rural development. The current chapter has been divided into 5 (five) distinct units: National Level Institutions, State Level Institutions, District Level Institutions, Local Level Institutions, and Other Institutions because of their multi-level engagement and significance.

Objectives

This chapter has a detailed discussion of various institutions at various levels and their function in planning rural development.

- To apprise on the roles and functions of national level institutions at various levels of planning
- To apprise on the roles and functions of state level institutions at various levels of planning
- To apprise on the roles and functions of district level institutions at various levels of planning
- To apprise on the roles and functions of local level institutions at various levels of planning
- To apprise on various institutions and organisations at various planning levels

Structure



The Planning Commission, NITI Aayog, National Development Councils, and NIRDPR are also discussed in the first unit along with other national level institutions' functions and roles in planning for rural development.

The second unit focuses on several state-level organisations and their contribution to rural development. The process of planning at the state level and its connection to the central level are also covered in this section. The State Planning Board and State Institute of Rural Development (SIRDs) have received significant attention as entities that build capability.

According to Article 243ZD of the Indian Constitution, the District Planning Committee (DPC) is a committee established at the district level to plan at the district and sub-district levels. The District

Planning Committee is the primary body responsible for developing, carrying out, and reviewing the district-level planning process. The third element also discusses the components, organisation, and operation of DPC as well as its involvement in rural development.

The fourth unit, which follows the discussion of the district level, examines the structure, roles, and responsibilities of the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) in local planning and government. Following the 73rd Amendment to the Indian Constitution, the Zilla Parishad (District Panchayat), Panchayat Samity (Intermediate Panchayat), and Gram Panchayat (Village Panchayat) formed the three-tiered PRIs, which has been essential in planning rural development.

Other organisations and institutions also play important roles at different levels. These institutions are the subject of this chapter's fifth unit. This unit primarily discusses the roles of organisations like the National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD), Community Based Organizations (CBOs), Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), and Self-Help Groups (SHGs).

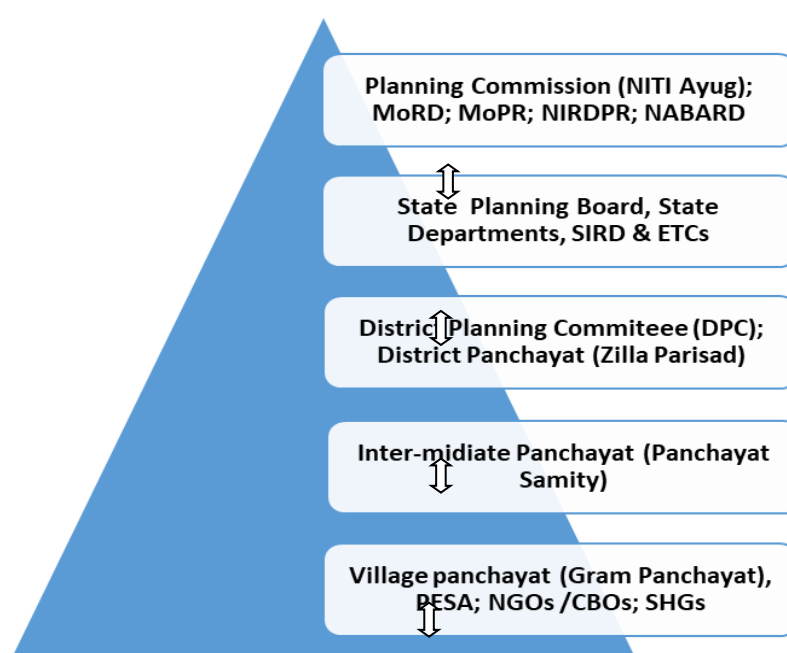


Figure 3.1: Institutional mechanism for planning at different level

3. 1. National Level

Planning Commission

The highest technical entity for facilitating the planning process in our nation has been the Planning Commission. The Government of India established it in March 1950.

Functions

- i) To analyse the nation's material, financial, and human resources, including technical staff, and look into ways to supplement any that are deemed to be lacking in comparison to the needs of the country.
- ii) To create a plan for the most efficient and equitable use of the nation's resources.
- iii) To establish priorities, specify the steps by which the Plan should be carried out, and suggest allocating resources to ensure that each step is completed on time.

- iv) To identify the elements that tend to impede economic growth and choose the circumstances that, given the social and political climate today, should be developed to ensure the Plan's successful implementation.
- v) To identify the type of equipment required to guarantee the effective execution of each step of the plan in all of its elements.
- vii) To make any interim or ancillary recommendations that seem appropriate either for facilitating the discharge of duties assigned to it or, on a consideration of current economic conditions, current policies, measures, and development programmes, or on an examination of the progress achieved in the implementation of each stage of the Plan.

Role in Rural Development Planning

The Planning Commission's organisational structure supports its function as an advisory body, allowing it to function at the highest policy level without being further entangled in the duties of daily administration. The Planning Commission is presided over by the Prime Minister. The Commission includes six or more full-time members and a Deputy Chairman. Ex-officio members include the Finance Minister and a few other Ministers with Cabinet status. The Deputy Chairman occasionally doubles as the Minister of Planning. The Commission's technical and administrative tasks are coordinated by a full-time Secretary.

A number of divisions and parts make up the Planning Commission. There are 18 subject divisions and eight general divisions.

As mentioned in Chapter One (Unit Five), the Planning Commission is now replaced as NITI Aayog (from 2015).

NITI Aayog

In order to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals and strengthen cooperative schemes, the Planning Commission has been transformed and renamed as NITI Aayog (Hindi for Policy Commission), also known as National Institution for Transforming India (NITI), as of January 1st, 2015. This policy think tank of the Government of India was established with this goal in mind. AMRUT, Digital India, Atal Innovation Mission, Medical Education Reform, Agriculture Reforms (Model Land Leasing Law, Reforms of the Agricultural Produce Marketing Committee Act, Agricultural Marketing and Farmer Friendly Reforms Index for ranking states), Indices Measuring States' Performance in Health, Education, and Water Management, Sub-Group of Chief Ministers on Rationalization of Taxes, and Agricultural Marketing and Farmer Friendly Reforms Index are some of its initiatives.

Functions

1. To define, with the active involvement of States and in light of national objectives, a common vision of national development priorities, sectors, and strategies.
2. To continuously advance cooperative schemes through organised support programmes and procedures with the States, acknowledging that powerful States lead to powerful Nations.
3. To establish systems for creating reliable plans at the village level and consolidating these at higher tiers of administration.
4. To make sure that the interests of national security are considered in economic strategy and policy in sectors that are particularly mentioned.
5. To pay particular attention to the groups in our society who might not receive enough benefits from economic advancement.

6. To develop frameworks and initiatives for long-term, strategic policies and programmes and to assess their effectiveness. Use the lessons discovered through observation and feedback to develop novel solutions, including any necessary course adjustments.

7. To offer guidance and promote collaborations between important stakeholders and think tanks, academic institutions, and policy research organisations on a national and worldwide scale.

8. To establish a collaborative network of national and international specialists, practitioners, and other partners in order to encourage knowledge, innovation, and entrepreneurship.

9. To provide a forum for resolving cross-departmental and cross-sectoral disputes in order to hasten the development agenda's implementation.

Maintaining a cutting-edge Resource Center, serving as a repository for research on good governance and best practises in sustainable and equitable development, and assisting in their distribution to stakeholders are among the organization's top priorities.

11. To actively track and assess how programmes and initiatives are being carried out, including the determination of the resources needed to increase the likelihood of success and the scale of delivery.

12. To concentrate on technological improvement and capacity development for programmes and initiatives.

13. To carry out any additional tasks that may be required to advance the above-mentioned goals and the national development plan. (Sources: Wikipedia and niti.gov.in)

Composition of NITI Aayog

The Chairperson is the Prime Minister.

- A Governing Council composed of Chief Ministers of all the States and Union territories with Legislatures and lieutenant governors of Union Territories (except Delhi and Pondicherry)
- Regional Councils composed of Chief Ministers of States and Lt. Governors of Union Territories in the region to address specific issues and contingencies impacting more than one state or a region.
- Full-time organizational framework composed of a Vice-Chairperson, five fulltime members, two part-time members (from leading universities, research organizations and other relevant institutions in an ex-officio capacity), four ex-officio members of the Union Council of Ministers, a Chief Executive Officer (with the rank of Secretary to the Government of India) who looks after administration, and a secretariat.
- Experts and specialists in various fields.

(source: niti.gov.in)

National Development Council

Economic and social planning are included in the Concurrent List under the Constitution since it is a topic that interests both the Center and the States and on which they must cooperate. Mutual consultation is used to bring about the coordination of policies between the two integrating organisations. The main focus of planning in our nation is this system of consultation in the creation of policies based on general national requirements. The highest policy-making body is the National Development Council (NDC), which offers the chance for plans to be created and carried out across the nation as a part of a coordinated development effort. The Council's Chairman is the Prime Minister. Members of the Planning Commission, Chief Ministers of all the States, and select Cabinet Ministers make up its membership. The NDC, which is the body in charge of determining policy at the highest level, approves the strategy before moving on to the final plan.

Planning Units of Central Ministries

The majority of Central Ministries have separate divisions or units for coordinating the activities of the ministry to carry out these functions because they play a significant role in the formation of plans and have a significant stake in the policies and programmes that ultimately find a place. The Planning Commission's programme division and the Ministry's planning section collaborate closely on projects.

Additionally, it organises and starts the work of the Working Groups formed to create the plan. It also draughts the proposals, considering the recommendations of the various working groups, which are subsequently finalised by the relevant Department or Ministry and delivered to the Planning Commission.

Ministry of Rural Development

Accelerating the socioeconomic development of rural India is the responsibility of the Ministry of Rural Development, an arm of the Indian government. The ministry's primary areas of attention include the improvement and upkeep of rural areas' drinking water, housing, roads, health, and education systems. The Ministry of Rural Development is key to the nation's overall development plan as it serves as the nodal ministry for the majority of development and welfare initiatives in rural areas. The Ministry's goal and mission centre on the inclusive and sustainable development of rural India. The ministry has a multifaceted approach to combating poverty through expanding chances for employment, offering a social safety net, and creating rural infrastructure for economic development. The Ministry of Rural Development's main goals include addressing developmental imbalances, raising the standard of living in rural India, and assisting the most marginalised groups in society.

Functioning

The Ministry, which works objectively to give the poor, particularly women and other disadvantaged groups living below the poverty line (BPL), possibilities for a livelihood, also has a number of crucial duties to carry out.

- Increasing the livelihood security of rural households by offering each household that requests it at least 100 days of guaranteed wage employment per fiscal year.
- Providing all-weather rural connectivity to isolated rural settlements and upgrading current roads to enable access to markets
- Giving BPL households in rural areas access to basic housing and a homestead.
- Giving aged, widowed, and disabled people social help.
- Improving the quality of rural life by bringing urban amenities to rural communities.
- Developing the skills and capacity of those in charge of rural development.
- Encouraging participation of non-profit organisations and private citizens working on rural development.
- Restoring the land's diminished or lost productivity. This is accomplished by launching effective land reform initiatives and watershed development programmes to provide land to the rural poor who lack it.

Role in Rural Development Planning

The government's policies and programmes have placed a strong emphasis on reducing poverty, creating possibilities for work and income, and providing infrastructure and essential services to satisfy the needs of rural poor people. India's top organisation for developing policies, rules, and laws relating to the development of the rural sector is the Ministry of Rural Development. The main industries that contribute to the rural business and economy include agriculture, handicrafts, fishery, poultry, and dairy. A significant step towards the betterment of the rural sector has been the establishment of Bharat Nirman, an initiative by the Government of India in partnership with the State Governments and the Panchayati Raj Institutions. For bettering living conditions and ensuring their sustainability in India's rural sector, the Ministry of Rural Development created the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act in 2005. In India, the Ministry of Rural Development is working on legislation for the rural population's social and economic advancement. The Department of Rural Development (DRD), the Department of Land Resources (DLRs), and the Department of Drinking Water Supply make up the ministry (DWS). There are three independent organisations that fall under the department of rural development: the

National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD), the National Rural Road Development Agency (NRRDA), and the Council for the Advancement of People's Action and Rural Technology (CAPART).

The ministry's objectives can be summed up as follows:

- To strengthen and promote voluntary efforts in rural development with a focus on injecting new technological inputs.
- To encourage, promote, and assist voluntary action in the implementation of projects for the enhancement of rural prosperity.
- To serve as the national nodal point for coordination of all efforts at generation and dissemination of technologies relevant to rural development in its broad sense; and to support and promote

However, a number of other central government ministries, such as those for agriculture, health and family welfare, new and renewable energy, science and technology, women and child development, and tribal affairs, are also directly or indirectly involved in the implementation of numerous programmes and schemes for the development of rural areas. Additionally, the government works hard to give Panchayat Raj Institutions more functions, authority, and funding in order to improve democracy at the local level. Ample roles have been assigned to the Grama Sabha, NGOs, Self-Help Groups, and PRIs to make participatory democracy meaningful and successful.

Ministry of Panchayati Raj

Today, the Government of India's Ministry of Panchayati Raj plays a significant role in strengthening local governance and fostering the growth of democracy at the local level. The Union Government and the several State Governments each have their own set of duties and authorities in a system like India. However, the separation of authorities and responsibilities has further trickled down to Local Self Governments when the 73rd and 74th Amendment Act of the Constitution of India were passed in 1993. (Panchayat at Village levels and Municipalities and Municipal Corporations in towns and large cities). India's central structure presently has three tiers of government as a result.

All issues pertaining to Panchayati Raj and Panchayati Raj Institutions are investigated by the Ministry of Panchayati Raj. A minister with cabinet status serves as the ministry's director. It was established in May 2004.

Functions

The 73rd Amendment to the Indian Constitution and the provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to Scheduled Areas) Act of 1996 are essentially the responsibility of the Ministry of Panchayati Raj, who also monitor their implementation.

Role in Rural Development Planning

Assistance to the States in capacity building and training of elected officials of the Panchayati Raj Institutions is another important duty of the Ministry. It is common knowledge that many of the PRI elected officials lack basic literacy skills and have limited knowledge of planning, protocols, and procedures for development. To perform the duties required of them as the people's representatives, they need to be trained. Additionally, the majority of Panchayats lack sufficient staff and office space to carry out the tasks allocated to them. As a result, the Ministry has been making progress in this direction, including offering internet connectivity.

The third level of government, the panchayat, has become a hub of authority. Therefore, it is crucial that their operations be transparent and that they be held responsible for their choices. With this goal in

mind, the Ministry has, on the one hand, requested that the accounts of PRIs be audited by the Comptroller and Auditor General of India, and, on the other hand, urged the State Governments to take a number of actions, including the activation of the Gram 124 Sabha, the activation of the Standing Committees of the Gram Panchayats, the constitution of Ward Sabhas, the convening of Mahila Sabhas, etc. This will make it possible for more information to reach both the public and the elected officials.

National Institute of Rural Development and Panchayati Raj (NIRD&PR)

A premier national centre of excellence in rural development and Panchayati Raj is the National Institute of Rural Development and Panchayati Raj (NIRD&PR), an independent organisation under the Union Ministry of Rural Development. It is regarded as one of the UN-ESCAP Centers of Excellence and, via interconnected training, research, and consulting operations, it develops the skills of rural development bureaucrats, elected PRI representatives, bankers, NGOs, and other stakeholders. In Telangana state's historic city of Hyderabad, the Institute is situated. 2008 marked the Golden Jubilee Year of the NIRD&PR's founding. This Institute has a North-Eastern Regional Centre in Guwahati, Assam, in addition to its main campus in Hyderabad, to serve the needs of the NE-region.

Functioning

- Conduct, aid, promote, and coordinate research on its own and/or in collaboration with State, national, and international development agencies.
- Analyze and provide solutions to issues encountered in the planning and implementation of the programmes for rural development, decentralised governance, panchayat, and other stakeholders.

Role in Rural Development Planning

- Create and host workshops on decentralised planning for elected Panchayati Raj representatives, bureaucrats, and other individuals involved in rural development, as well as offer consulting services in this area.
- Assist the Indian government and state governments in establishing policies and programmes based on cutting-edge research, particularly in the areas of rural development and planning at the Gram Panchayat level.
- The beginning of cooperative efforts to work together with regional, national, and international organisations to convey the advantages of various government programmes to the underprivileged people in rural areas.
- Hosting national and international seminars with a focus on decentralised planning and related topics on the identified themes.
- Establish a platform for collaboration and partnership with corporate business entities, rural development and Panchayati raj officials, civil society organisations, educational institutions, and capacity building institutions in order to share knowledge, skills, and expertise and to launch joint programmes for capacity building for social responsibility, rules, and inclusive growth.
- Conduct both short- and long-term studies for policy research on various topics.
- Record and preserve cutting-edge methods, case studies that pertain to the places where they should be used effectively, as well as adoption success stories from around the world.
- To start an action research project on integrating SHGs and Panchayati Raj institutions nationwide for new GPDP models.

3.2. State Level Institutes

State Planning Board

For a balanced and quick socioeconomic growth in a federation, tight coordination between the central and state governments is necessary in the area of development policy and administration. States have a planning department, not a planning commission, in contrast to the centre.

The Chief Minister and the Ministers in charge of the relevant departments make up the State Development Committee in each State, if needed. The Committee is in charge of coordination, supervision, and planning. Additionally, there is a Development Commissioner who serves as the Committee's secretary and is in charge of overseeing Development Projects in each State. Additionally, he is in charge of organising all of the work for the rural development projects. He usually serves as the Chief Secretary or Additional Chief Secretary, making him a very senior executive in the United States. As the leader of a team made up of the leaders of all the development departments, he maintains coordination rather than serving as the head of a single development agency.

The ARC suggested creating State Planning Boards to oversee the creation and ongoing assessment of five-year plans. To assist them in carrying out their duties effectively, these planning boards must have their own secretariat.

State Planning Boards have been established by all state governments. States differ in how the Board is positioned and how effective it is during the planning process.

Functions of the State Planning Boards of India

- Conducting assessments of the state's resources and developing plans for their optimal and judicious use.
- To establish the state's plan priorities within the parameters of the national plan's priorities.
- To work with the district authorities to construct their development plans within the parameters of useful and practical planning, and to coordinate those plans with those of the state.
- To assess the necessary circumstances for the plan's successful execution and to pinpoint the elements that tend to impede the state's economic and social development.
- To assess how well the plan's programmes are being implemented and suggest any necessary changes to policies and initiatives.

Planning Process at the State Level

(1) Before receiving the Planning Commission's guidance for the creation of five-year plans, states start taking proactive measures to formulate plans. The general characteristics of the state plans are developed in collaboration with several state government departments.

(2) In response to the Planning Commission's call, the States offer their recommendations, which serve as the foundation for the approach paper for the national plan.

(3) Following the NDC's approval of the planning commission's strategy document, states are expected to develop their draft five-year plans in accordance with the objectives and strategies. The State Planning Board often consults with other state agencies, district, and regional planning organisations, as well as with the Planning Commission, central ministries, and central working groups.

(5) The primary working groups and the Planning Commission then have a discussion about the state's draft plan. The Planning Commission considers the interests and resources of the central, state, and local governments before approving or amending the recommendations.

(6) The draft national plan is created by the Planning Commission and considered in the NDC.

(7) After receiving the NDC's approval, the plan is prepared for endorsement by the Union Cabinet and the Parliament.

Departments of Economics and Statistics, Manpower and Evaluation

In the majority of states, the departments of Economics and Statistics, Manpower, and Evaluation are under the administrative purview of the State Planning Department. For the development and oversight of programmes, the Department of Economics and Statistics supplies technical experts at the State and lower levels. In order to ensure that the overall personnel requirements for the Plan's execution are met, the Manpower Department evaluates the requirements and need for manpower in the upcoming years and enables the planning process to incorporate action plans for meeting these needs. Additionally, the Manpower Department occasionally receives the task of organising the State officials' orientation and in-service training. As its name implies, the Evaluation Department is tasked with carrying out evaluation studies of the various programmes being implemented either concurrently or ex post facto. Such studies offer the State Government feedback so that appropriate corrective actions can be done with reference to Plan programmes

State Institutes of Rural Development (SIRDs) and Extension Training Centres (ETCs)

The Ministry provides financial assistance to State Institutes of Rural Development (SIRDs) and Extension Training Centers to promote States' training initiatives for the efficient implementation of rural development programmes (ETCs). The SIRDs and ETCs are State Government institutions that train members of Village Monitoring Committees, elected officials of Panchayati Raj Institutions, and rural development bureaucrats at the State and District/Block levels, respectively.

(a) State Institutes for Rural Development, in (SIRDs)

These institutions work to advance the knowledge, abilities, and attitudes of elected officials in Panchayati Raj Institutions at the State and District levels who are responsible for rural development. There are currently 28 SIRDs, one for each State. While regular expenses are split equally between the Central and State governments, non-recurring expenses are supported entirely by the Central government and given to SIRDs. Five senior core faculty members of SIRDs are also given 100% funding assistance under the heading of recurring expenditures. Both recurrent and non-recurring funding are released directly to SIRDs. The programme is market-driven.

Beginning in 2007–2008, the programme was renamed the Central Sector Program and combined with the new programme, "Management Support to RD Programmes and Strengthening of District Planning Process." The courses offered by SIRDs include Integrated Watershed Development, Planning and implementation of RD schemes, Rural Credit, Computer Information System for RD, Courses for BDOs, Voluntary Organizations, and Training Skills and Methodology for ETCs, among others.

(b) Extension Training Facilities (ETCs)

The Extension Training Centers (ETCs) work under the State governments at the regional level to provide training to elected members of Panchayati Raj Institutions at the village and block levels who are responsible for rural development. With help from the central government, 89 ETCs have already been built or updated across the entire nation. ETCs have grown in significance as a result of the expansion of developmental functionaries and the requirement to teach employees of Panchayati Raj institutions. To help them manage the increasing training load for RD functionaries and PRI members, central support is offered at 100% for non-recurring expenses and up to a maximum of Rs. 10.00 lakh per ETC per annum for recurring expenses. The ETCs offer courses for PRI members and members of Village Monitoring Committees at the Block and Gram Panchayat levels, for rural artisans, entrepreneurs, Self-Help Groups

(SHGs), Gram Sevaks/Sevikas, Secretaries of Panchayats and Co-operatives, and other local development department staff.

Role in Rural Development Planning

Similar to NIRDPR at the central level, all SIRDs and ETCs work to develop, plan, and deliver trainings and consultancy services with a focus on decentralised planning for elected Panchayati Raj representatives, officials, and other rural development functionaries at the state, district, and block levels, respectively, and to assist in the creation of village level development plans.

3.3. District Level Institutes

District Planning Committee (DPC)

The Constitution (74th) Amendment Act of 1992 created a provision for the formation of the District Planning Committee. In order to combine the plans created by the Panchayats and municipalities and create a draft development plan for the district as a whole, there will be a District Planning Committee at the district level.

The District Planning Committee (DPC) was established at the district level for planning at the district and below in accordance with Article 243ZD of the Indian Constitution. The committee in charge of each district shall compile the district's Panchayat and Municipality development plans and create a draft district development plan.

(i) In accordance with Article 243ZD of the Indian Constitution, a district planning committee must be established in each district to consolidate the plans created by the Panchayats and Municipalities within the district, create a draft development plan for the district as a whole, and perform any other duties that may occasionally be delegated to it by the State Government.

(ii) When creating the draft development plan, each committee must take into account the following factors:

- (a) Matters of mutual importance between municipal entities and the Panchayats.
- (b) Planning according to spatial particularity.
- (c) Sharing of water and other physical and natural resources.
- (d) Integrated infrastructure development and environmental conservation.
- (e) The extent and type of resources available, whether financial or otherwise

(iii) The Committee may consult with the institutions and groups that the State Government deems appropriate.

Powers of the Committee

- (a) The Committee shall exercise any powers that may be notified or allotted to it by the State Government under this Act with regard to the functions of the Government.
- (b) The State Government may prescribe and notify the manner in which such powers, as are thus notified or allotted to the Committee, may be exercised.
- (c) The Committee shall be deemed to be a body subordinate to the State Government while exercising the said powers.

Composition of the District Planning Committee

- (a) The number of members on each district's planning committee will be determined by the state government through notification.

(b) (i) From among them, the elected members of the district's Zila parishad and Municipal Bodies, as applicable, shall elect three-fourths of the entire number of members in accordance with the established procedures.

(ii) As the population of the rural and urban areas, as the case may be, bears the proportion in the district, the number of members to be chosen from within the rural and urban regions shall bear the same probable nearest proportion.

(c) The committee's remaining members are:

(i) a Jharkhand state minister, who will be chosen by the state government, as chairman.

(ii) the district's deputy commissioner or district magistrate, who will serve as member secretary

(iii) the chief executive officer of the zilla parishad, who will serve as member-cum-additional secretary

(iv) the Chief Planning Officer - member

(v) Where the number of the members specified by the state Government, in the committee is -

(a) If 15, then 1 (one) member, and

(b) If 20, then 2 (two) members shall be nominated by the state government;

Provided that the tenure of office of such members shall be such as may be determined by the state government.

(vi) Specially invited permanent members-

(a) Such members of the Lok Sabha and the State legislative Assembly whose constituencies fall in that district;

(b) Member of the Rajya Sabha, registered as voter in the district.

(c) Adhyaksha of the Zilla Parishad and the chairman / mayor of the Municipal Bodies shall also be permanent specially invited members on the condition that they have not been elected as member of the committee;

(vii) Special invited temporary members The committee may designate professionals with expertise in the area in which it conducts business as special invited members.

With the caveat that they are only permitted to offer advice in their particular area of expertise and are not permitted to cast a vote on any matter.

Tenure of Office of the Elected Members

(i) Upon ceasing to be a part of the municipal body or the Zilla Parishad, an elected member of the District Planning Committee also ceases to be a part of the committee.

(ii) Any vacancy that develops as a result of the aforementioned sub-section I a death, or a resignation must be filled in the appropriate way.

Functions of the Committee

The District Planning Committee shall carry out the following duties:

a) Identification of local requirements and objectives in light of national and state objectives.

(b) Collecting, compiling, and updating statistics on the district's natural and human resources to facilitate the development of a decentralised plan based on a trustworthy data base and a resource map for the district and its blocks.

(c) Tabulation and Sketch – a map of the services available at the village, block, and district levels

(d) Policy - establishing strategies and priorities for the judicious use, development, and exploitation of the district's natural and human resources

e) Creating blueprints for the district's five-year and annual plans and submitting them to the state government for inclusion in the state plan.

(f) Developing a district employment plan

(g) Estimating financial resources to financially fund the district plan

(h) Financing regional and subregional plans in accordance with the overall district development plan's blueprint

- l) Plans for the State domain, local area development schemes, and central government-sponsored plans must be convinced, analysed, and reviewed on behalf of the district's lawmakers.
- (j) the state government must receive progress reports on these plans
- (k) Non-governmental organisations need to participate in the district's overall development
- (l) Identifying institutional finance-related plans and programmes, tagging them with the district development plan, and providing the necessary financial support
- (m) Advising the State Government on the important plans of the State domain in the development of the district as a whole
- (n) Any other duties assigned by the State Government

Secretary and Assistant Secretary of the Committee

- (a) The ex-officio secretary of the District Planning Committee shall be the District Magistrate/Deputy Commissioner, who shall be in charge of keeping records of significant matters to be laid before the Committee, presenting them, issuing notices of decisions, and carrying out incidental ancillary duties. (b) The State Government may designate the Zila Parishad's Chief Executive Officer as Assistant Secretary, who shall carry out the duties and obligations inherited from the District Planning Committee.

Constitution of Sub-Committees

- (ii) The following subcommittees, made up of members drawn from the District Planning Committee, should be established in the manner specified, keeping in mind the duties of the District Planning Committee:
 - (a) Rural development programme Sub-Committee;
 - (b) Agricultural Development Programme Sub-Committee;
 - (c) Urban Development Sub-Committee;
 - (d) Irrigation Development Programme Sub-Committee;
 - (e) Scheduled Castes, Scheduled tribes, other backward classes and weaker section development and women and child development programme persuasion Sub-Committee;
 - (f) Employment generation and availability Sub-Committee;
 - (g) Public Health and family welfare Sub-Committee;
 - (h) Education Sub-Committee;
 - (i) Water supply Sub-Committee;
 - (j) Road and Transport, development Sub-Committee;
 - (k) Sub-Committee for determining use of land situated in investment area;
 - (l) Sub-Committee for persuasion of the development work of the MPs and Legislators' Area Development Schemes;
- (ii) The District Planning Committee may designate a member of the Sub-Committee who is an expert in the relevant area;
- (iii) Each Sub-Committee may make recommendations on the relevant topics to the District Planning Committee

Meeting of the Committee

- (a) The Committee shall meet at least once every two months, or as specified by the State Government.
- (b) The Committee shall hold meetings at district headquarters at appointed time and on appointed date.
- (c) The Chairman, or in his absence, the member chosen by a majority vote of the members, shall preside over the meeting.
- (d) The Committee may invite experts to the meeting.
- (c) Non-government expert members may be granted transit and other benefits as determined by the State Government.

- (f) The Committee may establish its own working method, subject to laws enacted by the State Government and guidelines provided by the State Government.
- (g) Briefs of the items to be presented to the Committee are to be prepared by the district heads of the relevant departments in the same manner as for cabinet sessions.
- (h) District level officials / district heads of all departments are required to participate in the meeting of the district Planning Committee and to carry out the powers and responsibilities outlined by the State Government.
- (i) The orders issued on behalf of the State Government on the decisions taken by the district Planning Committee should be issued at the district level itself, the State Government may make appropriate rules in this regard and may also withdraw the rights delegated accordingly if it deems it necessary in the interest of the nation and the State
- (j) A cell / unit shall be established under the supervision of the chief planning officer for conducting the business pertaining to the District Planning Committee.
- (k) (a) The State Government, as part of the administrative decentralisation process and with the goal of reducing the complexity of administrative work, may, in addition to the functions, liabilities, and rights transferred to the three-tier Panchayats and Municipal bodies, delegate such functions, liabilities, and rights of the State Government as it (the State Government) deems appropriate, and may promulgate rules in this regard.
- (b) An executive Committee of the District Planning Committee shall be appointed by the State Government. The Chief Planning Officer shall serve as a member-Secretary of the aforementioned Executive Committee.

(Source: nrddp.org)

3.4. Local Level Institutions

Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs)

In India, the Panchayati Raj is a system of governance in which Gram Panchayats are the fundamental units of local government. Gram Panchayat (village level), Mandal Parishad or Block Samiti or Panchayat Samiti (block level), and Zilla Parishad (district level) are the three tiers of the system (district level). In 1992, the 73rd amendment to the Indian Constitution made it official. Currently, the Panchayati Raj system exists in all Indian states with the exception of Nagaland, Meghalaya, and Mizoram, as well as in all Union Territories with the exception of Delhi.

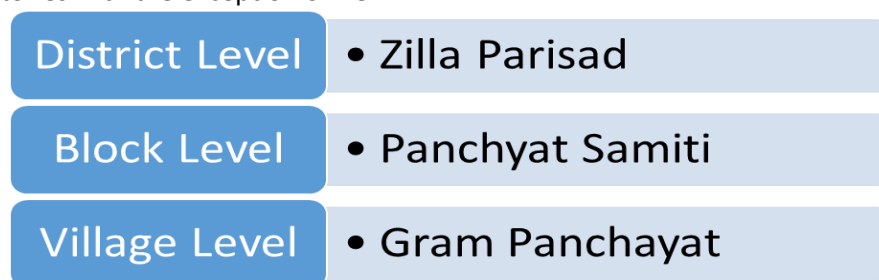


Figure 3.2: Panchayat at different levels

Salient Features of Panchayati Raj Institution

The Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 contains the following distinctive features:

- Gram Sabha: The Act has reinstated the Gram Sabha's vital function. It is evident that the village is the fundamental source of democratic power. It is anticipated that the Gram Sabha would be an active entity that initiates all development operations based on local needs.
- Three-Tier Model: The nation will have a unified three-tier panchayat structure (at village, intermediate and district levels). Only states with a population of less than twenty lakhs would not be required to construct an intermediate panchayat.

- **Reservation of Seats:** The Act reserves seats for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in proportion to their numbers in every panchayat. Women would be allocated one-third of the seats designated for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Not less than one-third of all seats to be filled by direct election must be designated for women.
- The posts of chairpersons in Panchayats at the village or any other level should be reserved in proportion to the population of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Additionally, one-third of the total number of panchayat chairperson positions at each level will be designated for women.
- **Panchayat Composition:** Direct election to the panchayat is one of the defining characteristics of this Amendment. All seats in a panchayat must be occupied by individuals elected directly from geographical constituencies. The village chairman must be chosen in accordance with the state legislature's specifications. At the intermediate and district levels, the chairman must be chosen by and from among the elected members.
- **Duration of Panchayats:** Each panchayat should generally serve for five years. If it is dissolved before to the conclusion of its term, elections will be conducted within six months. The reformed panchayat will operate for the remainder of its five-year term.
- **Conducting Elections:** The State Election Commission must supervise, direct, and manage the production of electoral rolls for, and the conduct of, all elections to the Panchayats. The State Election Commission will be responsible for holding elections, i.e. creating voter registration lists and ensuring that elections are conducted in a fair and free manner.
- **Finance Commission:** The Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 stipulates the establishment of a Finance Commission in each state so that sufficient money may be made available to Panchayats for launching different development programmes. This commission must be established by the governor of each state within one year after the passage of the Constitution Act of 1992, and every five years thereafter. These commissions will evaluate the financial health of the Panchayats and offer recommendations to the appropriate Governors.
- **Development Activities:** The Act grants Panchayats the authority and responsibility to organise and implement economic development activities. These tasks include the creation of strategies for economic growth and social justice, as well as the execution of the eleventh schedule's programmes. For academic reasons, these activities stated for panchayat institutions may be classified into five groups.
 - i) **Economic Development:** Eleven elements are devoted to economic development. One of them involves anti-poverty programmes like JRY, IRDP, etc. Agriculture, land development, minor irrigation, animal husbandry, fisheries, social forestry, minor forest products, small scale and cottage industry, fuel, and fodder are the remaining sectors.
 - ii) **Education:** Primary and secondary schools, non-formal education, libraries, technical training, and cultural activities comprise this category's five elements.
 - iii) **Health:** Two elements are associated with health. This includes health and sanitation, as well as family welfare.
 - iv) **Welfare, including Women and Child Development:** There are four categories, including social welfare, the welfare of poorer sectors, the public distribution system, and women and child development.
 - v) **Infrastructure Development:** Seven elements fall under this category, including roads, housing, drinking water, markets, electricity, and the management of community assets, among others. In addition to the goods on anti-poverty programmes, several of these products are intended for the poor or the disadvantaged. Programs for the disadvantaged and for the development of women and children also come under this category. The public distribution system should also provide advantages to the poor. Land reforms, especially the allocation of wastelands, and the enforcement of tenancy regulations are a direct assault on poverty. They are considered fundamental to any rural development plan.

Roles of Three-Tier Panchayati Raj Institutions

According to Article 243G of the Constitution of India, elected Panchayats would serve as institutions of self-government. The Panchayats should establish and implement programmes for economic growth and social justice in their respective regions. The governments are required to transfer 29 statutory responsibilities to the Panchayats and provide them with the necessary funding.

Gram Panchayat, being the institution of self-government closest to the people, plays the most significant role in rural development. The following are references to the three most significant actions undertaken by the Government of India in an effort to elevate the Gram Panchayat.

- Gram Panchayats have been assigned primary responsibility for implementing the initiatives under the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Generation Act, one of the key flagship programmes. They are permitted to use no less than fifty percent of the MGNREGS budget.
- Gram Panchayat, out of the three-tier Panchayat system, is the only entity at the village level can implement plans using the 14th Finance Commission's unrestricted cash.
- At the national level, drafting of the Gram Panchayat Development Plan (GPDP) has been given priority.

Obligatory Duties of a Gram Panchayat

Gram Panchayat's Obligatory Duties are as follows:

- (a) prepare a development plan for the five-year term of the office of the members and revise and update it as and when necessary, with regard to the available resources
- (b) prepare an annual plan based on Ward Sabha plans for each year by the month of October of the preceding year for the works proposed to be done during the following year in furtherance of its objectives; and
- (c) implement schemes as may be drawn up by the State Government

Transferred Duties of a Gram Panchayat

A Gram Panchayat shall

- (a) execute any scheme, including schemes relating to employment generation, perform any act, or manage any institution or organisation entrusted to it or devolved on it by the State Government or by any other authority with the approval of the State Government
- (b) manage or maintain any work of public utility or any institution vested in it or transferred to it for management and control and
- (c) carry out such other functions as may be prescribed by the State Government.

If the State Government determines that a Gram Panchayat has persistently failed to perform any of the functions assigned to it, entrusted to it, or devolved upon it, it may, after recording its reasons, withdraw such function from the Gram Panchayat and assign, entrust, or devolve it to the Intermediate Panchayat having jurisdiction until a reconstituted Gram Panchayat is elected and begins functioning.

Regulatory Duties of a Gram Panchayat

Subject to such conditions as may be prescribed, a Gram Panchayat shall, within its jurisdiction:

- a) accord permission for erection of new structure or new building or addition to any structure or building to prevent unplanned growth and to protect ambience;
- b) assess, impose and collect taxes, rates or fees leviable under this Act;
- c) make registration of running trade unless such trade or registration of such trade is prohibited under any other law for the time being in force;

- d) make registration of the vehicle other than the vehicle required to be registered under the Motor Vehicles Act, 1988;
- e) make registration of shallow or deep tube-wells fitted with motor driven pump sets, installed for irrigation and used for commercial purposes;
- f) make registration of births and deaths occurring in the area;
- g) undertake control, management and administration of the Gram Panchayat Fund established under this Act;
- h) exercise control over employees of the Gram Panchayat;
- i) adopt measures for relief of the distressed, destitute and infirm;
- j) provide for prevention of water logging and drainage of rain water;
- k) undertake preventive measures to control spread of epidemics;
- l) undertake protection and repair any building or other property vested in it;
- m) establish ferry ghat and manage and control ferries;
- n) establish and maintain crematorium and cremation ground;
- o) control eating places and enforce hygienic practices;
- p) maintain street lighting; and
- q) perform such other functions as may be transferred to it or devolved upon it by the State Government.

Complementary Duties of a Gram Panchayat

A Gram Panchayat shall have the authority to take measures for the improvement of the quality of life, and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing provision, shall undertake schemes and adopt measures relating to:

- (a) participation of people in preparing development plan and awareness generation among people on their role in development;
- (b) participation of people in all stages of implementation of development works;
- (c) enhancement of livelihood opportunities for people;
- (d) organizing voluntary workers for collective activities;
- (e) organizing campaigns against social evils like drinking, consumption of narcotics, dowry, child marriage, gender discrimination, and abuse of women and children;
- (f) creating legal awareness among disadvantaged sections;
- (g) maintenance of community assets;
- (h) awareness building on civic responsibilities;
- (i) promotion of co-operative movement and support to co-operative institutions;
- (j) prevention of food adulteration;
- (k) encouragement for consumption of bio-gas;
- (l) providing bathing and washing ghats; and
- (m) construction of waiting sheds for travellers.

Provisions of the Panchayats Extension to Scheduled Areas (PESA)

The Provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996, or PESA, is a legislation passed by the Government of India to provide self-governance via traditional Gram Sabhas for residents of India's Scheduled Areas. Scheduled Areas are regions designated by the Fifth Schedule of the Indian Constitution. Scheduled Areas are located in eleven Indian states with a predominance of tribal tribes. The Scheduled Areas were not included in the 73rd Constitutional Amendment or the Panchayati Raj Act of the Indian Constitution, as stipulated in Article IX of the Constitution. PESA was passed on 24 December 1996 to extend, with certain exclusions and adjustments, the provisions of Part IX of the Constitution to Scheduled Areas. PESA aimed to empower Panchayats and Gram Sabhas to establish a system of self-governance with regard to a variety of concerns, including customary resources, minor

forest output, minor minerals, minor water bodies, selection of beneficiaries, approval of projects, and control of local institutions. PESA is a statute that extends the provisions of Part IX of the Indian Constitution pertaining to Panchayats and Scheduled Areas. PESA was considered as a beneficial development for tribal populations in Scheduled Areas, which had previously suffered greatly as a result of their involvement in contemporary development processes and the application of colonial and independent Indian laws. The lack of access to forests, land, and other community resources had heightened their vulnerability. Tribal tribes residing in Scheduled Areas were afflicted by widespread suffering as a result of development projects' widespread land acquisition and relocation. PESA was seen as a cure for a number of these vulnerabilities and attempted to promote a new paradigm of development in which tribal groups in Scheduled Areas would choose the pace and priorities of their own development.

Objectives

- Extend, with modifications, the Panchayat provisions of Part 9 of the Constitution to the scheduled regions.
- Grant the majority of the indigenous people self-government.
- To make the Gram Sabha the centre of all village activities, therefore achieving participatory democracy in local government.
- Possess a proper administrative structure commensurate with customary procedures.
- To protect and maintain the customs and traditions of indigenous groups.
- Provide Panchayats at the appropriate levels with the precise authority necessary to meet tribal needs.
- Prevent higher-level Panchayats from assuming the powers and authority of lower-level Panchayats.

PESA Act

The PESA Act of 1996 is a one-of-a-kind piece of law that aims to unite two entirely distinct worlds – the basic system of tribal groups and the formal system of government – inside a single framework. Thus, it establishes the circumstances for the incorporation of tribal populations into the official system of local administration, while preserving aspects of their customary law and social traditions. The PESA Act was enacted on December 24, 1996. The primary emphasis of the PESA Act rests on two pillars: tribal autonomy and tribal self-government.

The PESA Act is significant because it recognises the right of indigenous groups to govern themselves according to their own systems of traditional and customary laws and also recognises their traditional rights over natural resources such as forest, land, and water. It aims to rectify past injustices against native populations.

PESA offers a framework for self-government while allowing the village community to plan village development, manage natural resources, and resolve disputes according to local norms and practises. PESA is the first important tool that was anticipated to initiate the much-needed Scheduled Area governance in India, which has the capacity to address a variety of socioeconomic concerns that now affect the tribal-dominated regions of India.

The Guiding Principles of PESA

PESA is founded on three fundamental tenets:

- Gram Sabha is competent to conduct its own business in conformity with the traditions and customs.

- Gram Sabha refers to an administrative entity, which is a village or collection of villages determined by social and traditional norms rather than population.
- Any State Panchayati Raj Act issued in accordance with PESA will be subject to the village's customary rules and customs.

The People in Scheduled Areas Benefitted by PESA

PESA has various advantages, including:

- Reduced poverty and out-migration, and increased income and livelihoods as a result of enhanced control and management of public and natural resources by the people.
- Exploitation of the tribal community is minimised by regulating money lending, consumption, and sale of alcoholic beverages, as well as village markets.
- PESA aids in the promotion of cultural heritage by preserving the traditions, customs, and cultural identity of the tribal people.

Currently, ten states are covered under the PESA Act. The following are:

1. Andhra Pradesh
2. Chhattisgarh
3. Gujarat
4. Himachal Pradesh
5. Jharkhand
6. Madhya Pradesh
7. Maharashtra
8. Odisha

The Powers of a Gram Sabha in a PESA Gram Panchayat

A Gram Sabha inside a PESA Gram Panchayat has the authority to:

- Enforce prohibition or control or limit the sale and use of alcoholic beverages.
- Possession of small forest goods.
- To guarantee that no land belonging to Scheduled Tribes is transferred to non-ST individuals and to return any Scheduled Tribe land that has been improperly alienated.
- To supervise money lending to Scheduled Tribes and run village markets.
- To maintain authority over institutions and personnel in all social areas.
- To manage local plans and resources for such plans, including the Tribal Sub Plan (TSP) and others.

(Source: panchayat.gov.in)

3.5. Other Institutions

National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD)

The Reserve Bank of India (RBI) is entrusted with a variety of functions and responsibilities, one of which is rural credit. As a result, it is difficult for the RBI to devote sufficient attention to the details of complex credit problems for integrated rural development, especially in light of its expanding responsibilities in other areas. This was the dilemma facing RBI before to 1981. National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) was created in July 1982 based on the recommendations of the Sivaraman Committee to address this issue (1978). Since then, NABARD has assumed and decentralised the RBI's duties in the field of rural finance to promote agriculture, small scale industries, Cottage and village industries, handicrafts and other rural crafts, and linked economic activities in rural regions.

NABARD's headquarters are located in Mumbai, with offices around India. It superseded the Reserve Bank of India's Agricultural Credit Department (ACD) and Rural Planning and Credit Cell (RPCC), as well

as the Agricultural Refinance and Development Corporation (ARDC). It is one of the foremost organisations offering rural development finance.

NABARD is India's specialised bank for rural and agricultural development. It is India's premier development financial institution. The Bank has been tasked with "matters of Policy Planning and Operations in the sphere of credit for Agriculture and other Economic activities in India's rural regions." NABARD is actively involved in the development of Financial Inclusion policy.

NABARD is wholly owned by the Indian government and has offices in the majority of state capitals. Officers of NABARD are also appointed at the district level, where they coordinate the actions of banks and state governments to provide agricultural and rural sectors with banking and other credit services. Since April 1989, these organisations have been responsible for the planning and monitoring of district credit. As part of their promotion and development functions, they have undertaken a number of initiatives, including the creation of rural infrastructure in 30 areas and the establishment of several development funds to provide grants and training for capacity building and institutional development. This made it easier for commercial, cooperative, and rural regional banks to increase loan flow and receive more and more refinancing from NABARD for the growth of the agricultural and non-farm sector, women, and disadvantaged groups.

NABARD's international partners include organisations associated with the World Bank and global development agencies working in the area of agriculture and rural development. These organisations serve NABARD by providing advice and financial assistance for the improvement of rural communities and the optimization of agricultural processes.

State co-operative agricultural and rural development banks (SCARDBs), state co-operative banks (SCBs), regional rural banks (RRBs), commercial banks (CBs), and other financial institutions authorised by RBI are eligible for refinancing via NABARD. The eventual recipients of investment credit may be individuals, partnerships, corporations, state-owned enterprises, or co-operative societies, while production credit is often granted to individuals.

The NABARD Regional Office [RO] is led by a Chief General Manager [CGMs], whilst the NABARD Head Office [HO] is staffed by Executive Directors [ED], Managing Directors [MD], and the Chairperson. It has 336 District Offices around the nation and a particular cell in Srinagar. Additionally, it features six training facilities.

NABARD also maintains a portfolio of Natural Resource Management Programmes covering numerous sectors, such as Watershed Development, Tribal Development, and Farm Innovation, supported by funds set aside specifically for this objective.

Objectives and Functions

1. To devote undivided attention and strategic direction to integrated rural development
2. To serve as the focal point of the whole national rural credit system.
3. To give rural credit institutions with extra funds
4. To facilitate investment Credit for small enterprises, village and cottage industries, handicrafts and other rural crafts, craftsmen, and farmers.
5. To enhance the credit distribution system by constructing institutions, rehabilitating credit institutions, and educating bank staff
6. To give State Land Development Banks (SLDBs), State Co-operative Banks (SCBs), Regional Rural Banks (RRBs), and Commercial Banks (CBs) with refinancing facilities for rural area development.

7. To coordinate the work of various agencies engaged in development work in rural areas at the regional level. To maintain contact with the Government of India, RBI, State Government, and other policy making institutions at the national level.
8. To inspect, monitor, and evaluate projects getting refinance from the NABARD.

Role in Rural Development Planning

1. It is the apex authority with powers to deal with policy, planning, and operations pertaining to the provision of loans for agricultural and other economic activity in rural regions.
2. It is a refinancing agency for banks that offer investment and production loans for the purpose of advancing rural development projects.
3. It is enhancing the absorptive ability of India's credit delivery system via monitoring, the creation of rehabilitation programmes, the restructuring of credit institutions, and the training of people.
4. It coordinates the rural credit financing operations of all institutions engaged in development work at the field level, while maintaining communication with the Government of India, State Governments, the Reserve Bank of India, and other national level institutions involved in policy making.
5. Annually, it produces rural credit strategies for all districts in the nation.
6. In addition, it fosters research in rural banking, agriculture, and rural development.

Community Based Organizations / Non –Government Organisation

Community-based organisations (CBOs) provide the necessary capability to bring sustainable development to rural communities. State and other development institutions are increasingly seeking the participation of CBOs in the conception, planning, and execution of rural development programmes. During the post-implementation phase, CBOs are urged to become the owners or managers of the assets developed by rural development programmes. CBOs are often founded with the encouragement and assistance of external organisations, such as governmental or other development agencies or even huge NGOs. Some CBOs have also arisen spontaneously from inside local communities, inspired by the missionary fervour of indigenous community leaders. In this lesson, we will examine CBOs that were founded with the encouragement and assistance of governmental institutions and other development organisations.

The emergence of the CBO-method was essentially a reaction to the failure of the State's "top-down" approach to rural development. CBO-approach is characterised by the interactive and contributive involvement of the local rural community throughout all phases of the development programme. The CBO-approach envisions that communities would continue active in the management of rural development program-created assets even after implementation has concluded.

Community-based organisations (CBOs) are not-for-profit, local and national organisations that facilitate community development activities. CBOs operate via people-centered approaches of development, such as the availability of microfinance and community engagement in development, to ensure the long-term improvement of community health education and infrastructure. CBOs are tasked with planning, implementing, and monitoring social and economic development projects, as well as providing technical and financial assistance to communities. CBOs have a favourable effect on the rural transformation process, as shown by an increase in population income, health, nutrition, and literacy. The availability of microfinance for microenterprises, health and education, sustainable agriculture, animal husbandry, and clean water and sanitation are among the initiatives that may bring about positive improvements in rural areas.

Numerous scholars have emphasised the relevance of CBOs and their contribution to national social and economic development and rural community development in particular. Non-Governmental Groups

[NGOs] are seen as grassroots organisations that empower underprivileged elements of the public without profit.

Objectives and Functions

1. To get information on the resources and requirements
2. To inspire the people to strive for the good of the community.
3. To provide a solid foundation for planning and action.
4. To foster collaboration, integration, and unity among the people.
5. To encourage more engagement in the development of community programmes
6. To identify the root causes of the different issues that plague the community and impede its growth and development.
7. To execute programmes necessary for meeting the fundamental needs of people
8. To improve the public's knowledge of the challenges and requirements.
9. To organise resources to provide a conducive environment for the fulfilment of fundamental requirements and elimination of issues.
10. To provide cooperation between the people, groups and organisation to concentrate their point and challenge their aims for fulfilment.
11. To initiate required community changes for the elimination of community ills.
12. To cultivate democratic leadership among individuals via participation in community initiatives.
13. To cultivate the concept of capability and improved thinking for community improvement.
14. The fundamental purpose and goal of community organisations is to eliminate individual distinctions, foster a spirit of shared interest and sacrifice, and encourage collective participation in community initiatives.
15. To mobilise the people for the advancement and development of the community.

Self-Help Groups (SHGs)

Self-Help Group refers to a self-managed, self-controlled, informal group of individuals with the same socioeconomic background and a desire to accomplish shared goals collectively. The Government of India and many state governments have implemented numerous rural development schemes. Nonetheless, rural poverty and unemployment prevail throughout the nation. SHGs are regarded as one of the most crucial instruments for empowering women economically and socially via a participatory approach. SHG is a group of individuals that gather on a regular basis to discuss topics of mutual interest and seek answers to frequently encountered difficulties.

Self-Help Groups (SHGs) might be characterised as the organised forum of individuals that is planned, developed, and structured by the members themselves to achieve present/predetermined objectives. The SHG concept has been viewed as a tool for the emancipation of disadvantaged and marginalised groups, since SHGs allow women to save and get access to loans from banks.

Self-Help Groups (SHGs) and their federation are powerful institutions of the poor at the village level, providing space, a voice, and resources for the poor and minimising their reliance on other organisations. These institutions empower the underprivileged and serve as vehicles for the diffusion of information and technology, as well as centres for production, collectivization, and trade.

The Indian government formed the Deendayal Antyodaya Yojana National Rural Livelihoods Mission (DAY-NRLM) in June 2011 to execute the new community-based poverty reduction approach.

DAY-NRLM focuses on the universal inclusion of the poor, as determined via participatory procedures, and provides assistance to access financing and services in order to promote sustainable livelihoods and an enhanced quality of life.

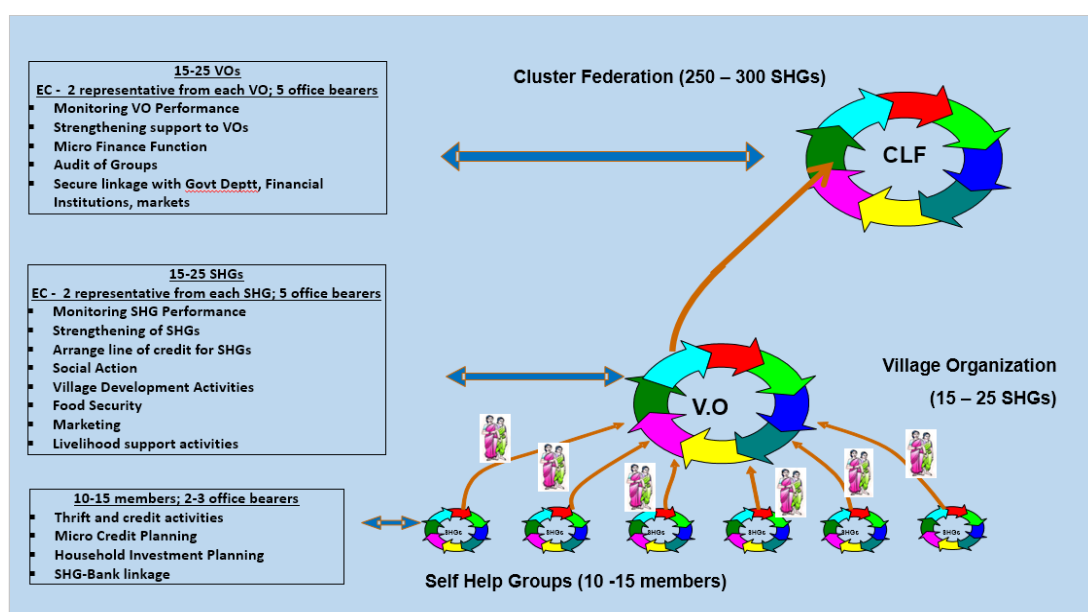


Figure 3.3: Structure of Model CLF

Role in Rural Development Planning

- Obtain assistance from the Gram Panchayat for social mobilisation of SHG creation and for identifying excluded and vulnerable members of the community in order to recruit them into SHGs.
- Collaborate with Gram Panchayats to perform Participatory Identification of Poor (PIP) and get Gram Sabha approval for the procedure.
- Participate actively in Gram Sabha with consolidated demands as previously agreed upon in SHGs and SHG federation, particularly in obtaining work and assets under MGNREGS and GPDP advantages.
- Assist Gram Panchayats in conducting the Gram Sabha by assisting with advertising, debate facilitation, and documentation.
- Carry out the duties recommended by Gram Panchayats that are advantageous and acceptable.
- Participate in all Gram Panchayats' Functional Committees.
- Accept the service delivery obligations delegated by Gram Panchayats, such as midday meals, house-to-house tax collection, solid waste management, operation and maintenance of piped drinking water supply, e-services, etc., in exchange for the required fees.
- Participate in community-based Gram Panchayat project implementation monitoring methods.
- Collaborate with the Gram Panchayat to provide SHGs with access to Gram Panchayat common resources (such as fish ponds, vested property, common assets, market yards, etc.).
- Assist GPs in conducting gender status studies and ensuring that the gender requirements of the community are addressed in the local plan.
- Obtain information from the Gram Panchayat and distribute it to SHG members on available government services and programmes.
- Conduct Participatory Assessment of Entitlements (PAE) in each SHG, consolidate at the Village Organization (VO) and Gram Panchayat (GP) level, and produce the Entitlement Access Plan (EAP) at the GP level.
- Participate actively in the GPDP process in order to include the needs of SHGs.

- Take the lead in drafting the Gram Panchayat Poverty Reduction Plan in collaboration with the Gram Panchayat and other stakeholders, and ensuring that the Gram Panchayat and other line departments provide sufficient resources for its implementation.
- Develop a strategy for implementing the relationship.
- Coordinate the combined meeting dates with Gram Panchayats.
- Enrol elected Women representatives as SHG members and cultivate them as Community Resource Persons.
- Maintain frequent communication with Panchayats about development challenges.
- Provide information on the operation of SHGs in relation to collaborative initiatives.
- Coordinate with Gram Panchayats in the preparation of micro-plans and seek official financial assistance.
- Include the Panchayat-SHG Partnership as a distinct agenda item at all regular meetings of SHGs and Federations in order to debate, assess, and monitor members' engagement in planning and execution, as well as their receipt of benefits. Gram Sabha, GPDP, Poverty-free Gram Panchayat, MGNREGS, Swachh Bharat Mission, work in Gram Panchayat Functional Committees, Village Health Plan, ICDS, etc. may be on the agenda.

Summary

Planning that is systematic and based on needs is crucial for rural development. This chapter has previously covered the operation of many important institutions and their responsibilities in rural development planning at various levels. Other parties involved in rural development, such as the business sector, the media, and academic institutions, may also be very important, and their contributions are now receiving increased attention. To create an efficient plan document and carry it out for the benefit of that specific location, all the stakeholders must play a key role.

To Do Activities -

- ✓ Go to the Zilla Parishad office in your neighbourhood and make a list of the members and how each standing committee operates under Zilla Parishad.
- ✓ Visit any Gram Panchayat and gather data on the agenda, attendance rates, and significant decisions made in the last three Gram Sabhas of that specific GP.

Model Questions

1. Write the functions of the Planning Commission.
2. Describe the NITI Aayog's composition and functions.
3. What does the State Planning Board do?
4. Describe the State Planning Board's functions.
5. Describe the State Planning Board's planning procedures.
6. What are the functions of the District Planning Committee?
7. What is the composition of the District Planning Committee?
8. Discuss the Panchayati Raj's three-tier structure in India.

9. List the key characteristics of Panchayati Raj Institution.
10. Discuss about PESA.
11. Describe the functions of the Ministry of Panchayati Raj.

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Chapter 4 Major Rural Development and Welfare Programs

Introduction

Poverty and unemployment in rural regions continue to be important concerns for India's development planners. Numerous rural development programmes have been launched intermittently via a succession of schemes. As was described in the first chapter, rural development programmes were also intended to address the issues of rural people. In addition, programmes for rural people were created to improve their economic and social conditions. Keeping this in mind, this chapter groups diverse rural development programmes into 5 (five) distinct components depending on their aims and scope.

Objectives

Several features of the key rural development schemes launched in India over different plan eras in order to alleviate rural poverty are discussed.

- To describe the aims and prominent characteristics of self-employment programmes
- To describe the aims and prominent characteristics of wage employment programmes
- To describe the aims and prominent characteristics of minimum needs programmes
- To outline the salient characteristics of social security programmes and its components
- To list the objectives and salient characteristics of diverse area development.

Chapter Structure



The first section addresses several self-employment generating programmes. The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) and its sub-programmes, such as Training of Rural Youth for Self-employment (TRYSEM) and Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA), were regarded as India's first anti-poverty initiatives and were launched in the 1970s. However, the implementation of the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) and its sub-programmes did not assist in rectifying the issue. Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) was created in late nineteen to replace all previous self-employment projects. This was necessary to guarantee that the needed connections were built for the activities to have a significant effect. After a decade of implementing SGSY,

the programme was reformed and renamed National Rural Livelihood Mission for more stringent execution. However, the fundamental idea that self-employment programmes may sustainably give income to the rural poor remains intact.

The majority of these people are employed mostly in agriculture. Also, agricultural wages are only accessible during the 90 to 120 days of agricultural activity every year. During the lean season, the majority of these individuals are underemployed or jobless. Creating employment for an ever-increasing working population is a challenging endeavour due to the rapid increase in the labour force caused by a growing population. The jobless in rural areas may be classified into four groups: (i) literate skilled, (ii) literate unskilled, (iii) illiterate skilled, and (iv) illiterate unskilled. The majority of rural jobless fall into the fourth group; these individuals subsist only on physical labour. Therefore, poverty is more prevalent among those who fall under this group. In consideration of these concerns and in an effort to create work for these individuals, the Indian government developed paid employment programmes throughout various plan periods.

The second section of this chapter is devoted to major wage employment programmes. The premise was that with economic progress, individuals would be able to increase their social consumption, i.e., they would be able to use different social services such as improved housing, health care, drinking water, sanitation, education, communication, etc. This did not occur during the first two decades of planned growth, though. Access to numerous social services in rural regions, notably for the poor, did not improve despite an increase in food supply. Numerous communities lacked schools, medical facilities, potable water, roads, etc., which are vital for enhancing the social consumption of the population. In the third section of this chapter, the primary minimum need programmes enacted by the government to meet them are discussed.

Social security may refer to social insurance, in which individuals get benefits or services in exchange for premium payments. Typical examples of these services are pensions for retirement, disability insurance, survivor benefits, unemployment insurance, etc. In various nations, this may encompass medical care, financial assistance during unemployment, illness, or retirement, workplace health and safety, social work, and even industrial relations. Occasionally, even essentials such as food, clothes, shelter, education, money, and medical care are taken into account. Unit four focuses on some of the current social security programmes in rural India. This section also addresses some of the recently launched flagship programmes that are mostly executed in rural regions.

As stated in the preceding four parts, a variety of programmes were devised and executed for the socioeconomic upliftment of rural populations. But there are certain areas that need extra attention and effort. The fifth section of this chapter focuses on the key area development programmes executed in distinct regions of the nation depending on their needs.

As there are several facets of each programme to be explored in depth, it may not be feasible to include them all in a single chapter. Therefore, only the background, aims and significant aspects of important projects have been described in this chapter.

4.1. Self-Employment Programmes

Poverty and unemployment in rural regions continue to be important concerns for India's development planners. Numerous schemes for generating self-employment have been established intermittently under different programmes.

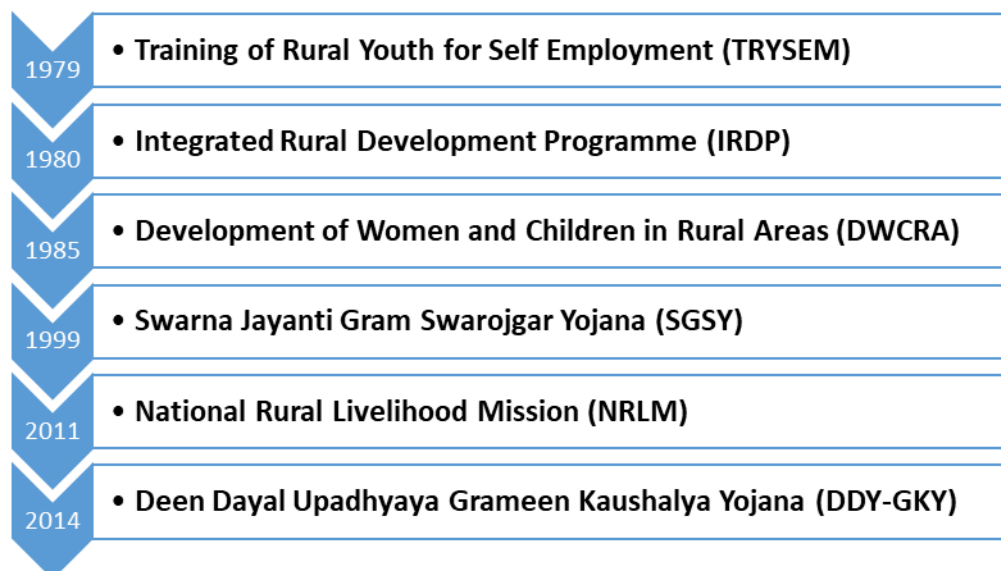


Figure 4.1: Chronology of Self Employment Programmes

Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM)

TRYSEM, launched in 1979, is a distinct national programme designed to prepare rural youth for self-employment. The colossal backlog of unemployment and underemployment among rural youngsters is the driving force for the program's implementation. In each block, 40 youth, including men and women, were to be chosen and taught in skill development and entrepreneurship in order to become self-employed.

By developing activities in rural regions, the migration of rural youth to urban areas might be slowed. In addition, local needs might be met using local resources, so boosting rural development. TRYSEM aims to provide the rural poor between the ages of 18 and 35 with basic technical and entrepreneurial skills to allow them to engage in income-generating enterprises (self/wage employment). It had been stipulated that at least 50 percent of rural youngsters from SC/ST communities must be taught. At least half of the overall recipients should be female. In April of 1999, the programme was integrated into Swarnajayanti Gram SwarajgarYojana (SGSY) together with IRDP, DWCRA, etc.

Objective

- To equip rural youth (18-35 years) from below-poverty-line households with the training and technical skills necessary for self-employment in agriculture, industry, services, and business.

The perception of training goes beyond the supply of physical skills. But also attitude modification, motivational improvement, and abilities in human connections should be taught. Self-employment is defined as full-time gainful job that generates sufficient money for the household of the youngster to pass the poverty line. Employment scenarios in which the means of production are owned, rented, or leased are considered self-employment.

Salient Features

1. TRYSEM became the "self-employment for youth" component of IRDP and was implemented in every one of the country's 5000 blocks.
2. A child who has been recognised will get training either at a training institution or under a master craftsman.
3. The duration of training is variable based on course type.

4. Trainers are provided with a stipend and a toolkit.
5. A successful trainee is entitled to obtain a subsidy/credit/income-generating asset under the IRDP.
6. At least fifty percent of young people must be trained for self-employment in the secondary or tertiary sectors.
7. Training for wage work was to take place in the secondary and tertiary sectors.
8. With the assistance of VLWs, BDO chooses the eligible youngsters belonging to the target group.
9. The DRDA identifies sites in collaboration with district-level authorities from other agencies.
10. DRDA provides a resource inventory for training institutions such as it is, polytechnics, KVIs, KVKs, NYKs, etc.
11. The DRDA is responsible for TRYSEM's implementation.

Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)

Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) is a rural development initiative of the Government of India that attempts to increase the income-generating potential of disadvantaged target groups via a self-employment programme. The majority of the target population consists of small, marginal farmers and agricultural workers living below the poverty line. This steady income allows the target population to surpass the poverty level.

On 2nd October 1980, the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) was begun in every region of the nation. It strives to extend development's advantages to the poorest of the poor. The program's primary objective is to find rural poor households living below the poverty line in order to boost their income.

The Draft Sixth Plan (1978-83) stated, "Integration covers four principal dimensions: integration of sectoral programmes, spatial integration, integration of social and economic processes and above all the policies with a view to achieving a better fit between growth, reduction in poverty and employment generation. More specifically, it involves a sharp focus on target groups, comprising small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers and rural artisans, and an extremely location-specific planning in the rural areas".

Objectives

There are five primary objectives for launching the scheme:

- Employment opportunities: To increase employment prospects for smaller farmers, marginal farmers, agricultural labourers, and families from scheduled castes and tribes.
- Agricultural production: To improve agricultural productivity and associated activities in rural regions.
- Rural industries: the expansion of dairying, poultry, pig farming, and animal husbandry.
- Local facilities such as power, road, school, clinic, drinking water, etc.
- Agricultural equipment: the enhancement of agricultural equipment tools and their incorporation into science and technology.

Salient Features

IRDP focused mostly on the same population as SFDA, namely small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers, and rural craftsmen. Its operational plan was, nevertheless, marked by significant deviation from the original strategy.

- For the first time, the idea of Poverty Line Income was used to identify beneficiaries, and hence land was no longer a criterion for identifying and selecting beneficiaries.

- The Poverty Line Income for an average household of five was set at Rs. 3,500 per year. Households with annual earnings below Rs. 3,500 were classified as Below Poverty Line (BPL) families and qualified for IRDP subsidies.
- Utilizing the Base Line Survey of Family Income, beneficiaries were identified.
- The subsidy rates were identical to those used for SFDA recipients: 25% for small farmers, 33.33 percent for others, and 50% for SC/ST recipients. In addition, group plan participants of any type were entitled for a 50% subsidy.
- SCs and STs were required to make up at least 30 percent of the overall recipients. This was raised to 50% later on.
- Originally, 33.33 percent of all recipients were expected to be female, but this was eventually raised to 40 percent.

Comprehensive Block Plans were declared crucial for the execution of the IRDP. It was recommended that they be connected to the district and state plans. In each of the aforementioned instances, individuals were encouraged to participate actively. Also, the assistance of non-profit organisations was requested.

Procedure for Implementation

The IRDP implementation is addressed as follows:

- i) Identification of Beneficiaries:** The beneficiaries are identified by Base Line Income Surveys of the households, primarily including the target groups and those whose annual family incomes from all sources stay below the poverty line income. This technique generated lists of households living below the poverty level. DRDAs are responsible for conducting Base Line Income Surveys.
- ii) The Poverty Line Income:** It is the minimal value of the annual expenditures of an average household of five people to cover the cost of daily food that supplies 2,400 Kilo Calories per family member. During the Sixth Plan, the Planning Commission set the poverty line income at Rs. 3,500; for the Seventh Plan, Rs. 6,400; for the Eighth Plan, Rs. 11,000; and for the Ninth Plan, the poverty line income was calculated state-by-state based on the cost of living in each state and ranged from Rs. 16,000 to Rs. 18,000.
- iii) Once the list of BPL households for each village has been completed, a priority list of the families is prepared. Assignees of ceiling excess land, formerly enslaved individuals who have been liberated, and disabled individuals who are able to engage in economic activities are given precedence for help. After the list has been compiled, it is presented for debate and approval in a Gram Sabha meeting held by the BDO.**
- iv) Initially, the BDO would choose beneficiaries from the authorised and prioritised list; following DRDA's permission, the same list was utilised to help recipients. Later, a noble system for selecting recipients was developed, and judgements were made on the spot on the sort of project and loan-cum-subsidy to be supplied. The name for this function was implementation. In addition to the block and bank executives, and on occasion members of volunteer action organisations, were present at the meeting when these choices were made.**
- v) The authorised list is posted in the local panchayat and the Block Office. As it is simpler to provide infrastructure support, cluster and group activities are favoured when selecting recipients.**
- vi) Diverse projects are selected while keeping in mind the preferences of the family, its talents, aptitude, and ability, and the availability of forward and backward links. In addition, the size of the project is decided by the difference between the family's income and the poverty line. Projects with reduced cost projections are favoured wherever feasible.**
- vii) Any activity with a positive incremental capital output ratio (ICOR) may be undertaken in the primary, secondary, or tertiary sectors. To minimise the strain on agriculture sector initiatives, efforts are undertaken to diversify into industries, services, and commercial activities.**

- viii) Among the chosen beneficiaries, 50% must be SCs and STs, 40% must be women, and 3% must be handicapped.
- ix) Historically, the DRDA or another approved entity, ideally a government agency, would acquire the assets. Now, beneficiaries may purchase/obtain them on their own and present the DRDA and banks with documentation of purchase/obtainment.
- x) The scheme's animal husbandry-related assets (such as animals and birds) should be insured, and the insurance payment should be included into the cost of the project.
- xi) The family credit programme was developed in 1990 to give a bundle of activities to several family members. The maximum investment amount under the family credit plan was Rs. 25,000.
- xii) In 1995, the Ganga Kalyan Yojana (GKY) was created as a subcomponent of IRDP to promote minor irrigation using deep tube wells.

Development of women and children in Rural Areas (DWCRA)

As a component of the Ministry of Human Resource Development, the Department of Women and Child Development was established in 1985 to offer the much-needed push to the holistic development of women and children. Since January 30, 2006, the Department has been elevated to the status of Ministry.

Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) is one of the 1982 district-level sub-schemes of the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP). The scheme's principal purpose is to assist women from rural households living below the poverty line with chances for sustainable self-employment.

Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) was started as a sub-scheme of the IRDP in fifty districts during the fiscal year 1982-1983. By 1994-1995, it had expanded to include all districts in the nation. It was discovered that, notwithstanding reservations, the flow of benefits to disadvantaged women under different poverty alleviation programmes such as IRDP and TRYSEM had little effect. In order to overcome this scenario and to engage rural women more actively in economic activities and rural community issues, it is necessary to increase their participation in these areas. Development of women & children in rural regions was one of the measures adopted by this ministry, which also introduced a programme exclusively for women. All of these contributions are made by the DWCRA, which has a specific emphasis on the economic empowerment of women and recognises women as essential to development. This intervention aims not only to increase the incomes of rural women from poor households, but also to enable the organised participation of groups of women in credit, skill training, and infrastructure support for self-employment. All of these inputs are provided by considering women to be essential to development. DWCRA was created to ensure that the advantages of IRDP directly reach women. The initiative intends to increase rural women's access to health, education, clean drinking water, sanitation, and nutrition, ultimately enhancing the quality of women's and children's overall well-being.

Objective

The primary purpose of the DWCRA is to equip rural women with income-generating assets and loans, as well as to increase their skills. It also aims to offer an effective organisational support framework so that women may obtain more effective help in the creation of products and services.

Salient Features

Under the DWCRA, the basic unit is a group of ten to fifteen disadvantaged women who have come together to aid one another in order to utilise their collective power to break societal barriers that have denied them income-generating and self-fulfilling possibilities. In rough terrain and remote regions, the

group size might be reduced. One of the members serves as the group's organiser, assisting in the selection of activities, purchase of raw materials, and marketing of goods. Prior to engaging in the activities, the ladies were informed about the aims and advantages of group information under the programme, as well as their potential and strengths. At the operational level, the Gram Sevika provides inputs/coaching for such an endeavour by the group for a period of two years. During this time, the Gram Sevika not only develops a group, but also nourishes it and orients its members to the advantages of many other programs/schemes.

Implementing Agency and Staffing Pattern

DWCRA is being implemented by the district Rural Development Agencies. To aid the execution of the scheme, a position of Assistant Project Officer (Female) has been sanctioned within the DRDA team. Additionally, one extra Gram Sevika position has been authorised at the block level to oversee the operations of the groups. This is in addition to the standard block pattern's two Gram Sevika.

The Assistant Project Officer (APO), the extra Gram Sevika, together with the two Gram Sevikas and Mukhya Sevika currently available with CD Block, are members of a team that will assist in the implementation of the DWCRA. They undertake preliminary assessments of the region and contact rural women in order to determine their limitations and requirements. The team is accountable for oversight and follow-up. The APO is responsible for assisting in the establishment of contracts with various agencies, the mobilisation of resources and training facilities, and the day-to-day management of the plan within the DRDA. It is the duty of the whole DRDA team, led by the project officer or project director, to implement the full DRDA.

Community Based Convergent Services

As a component of DWCRA, Community Based Convergent Services (CBCS) was initiated in 1991 in a few districts as a test programme. The purpose was to raise knowledge among village communities so that they could demand state-provided social services more effectively and partake in the administration and execution of these services, therefore contributing to sustainable development. Traditional approaches such as visuals, role play, folk art, puppetry, dance, and theatre are used to educate the community about its fundamental needs. The objective of the programme is to develop existing rural poor women's organisations and improve their social and economic standing. ICDS, Rajiv Gandhi National Drinking Water Mission, and National Literacy Mission (NLM) are among the programmes that are intended to be converged at the grassroots level - 298 districts community based convergent Services (CBCS) with 100 percent Central aid of Rs. 5.00 Lakhs per district.

Child Care Activities

Child Care Activities (CCA) was added to the DWCRA Program in 1995-96 with the following goals in mind:

- To offer crèche services for the children of DWCRA female employees.
- To establish literacy centres for DWCRA women, with a focus on female dropouts and illiterate members of DWCRA organisations.
- To fill crucial gaps in the areas of vaccination, nutrition, etc. for the children of DWCRA members, with specific attention on the female child, in order to decrease gender inequities in the care of infant girls.
- To provide some assistance to the physically disabled children of DWCRA members.
- To give emergency relief and pay for legal counsel in the instance of redress for female child physical abuse.

Children less than six years are the focus of child Care Activities. For child care activities, each DRDA will get Rs 1.50 lakhs (Rs 1.00 lakhs as the central share and Rs 50,000 as the state share).

Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY)

The SGSY Scheme became operational in rural portions of the nation on April 1, 1999. SGSY is a comprehensive programme that addresses all areas of self-employment, including the formation of Self-Help Groups for the poor, training, credit, technology, infrastructure, and marketing. The initiative will be sponsored by financial institutions, Panchayat Raj Institutions, District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs), Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), and Technical Institutions in the district, who will also be engaged in its development, implementation, and monitoring. Self-Help Groups (SHGs) as well as the development of the Swarozgaris may be monitored with the assistance of non-governmental organisations (NGOs). When practicable, their services may be deployed to provide technological assistance, evaluate product quality, and act as recovery facilitators and monitors.

The objective of the programme is to build a significant number of microbusinesses in rural regions. The Gram Sabha-approved list of Below Poverty Line (BPL) households will serve as the foundation for identifying families eligible for assistance under the SGSY. The goal of SGSY is to lift helped families out of poverty within three years by providing them with income-generating assets via a combination of bank financing and government subsidies. The system covers the rural poor, including those with land, landless labour, educated jobless, rural craftsmen, and the disabled.

The benefitted families, known as Swarozgaris, might be individuals or groups and would be chosen from BPL households by a three-person team comprised of a Block Development Officer, a Banker, and a Sarpanch. SGSY will target the most vulnerable rural poor. Consequently, at least 50 percent of those aided will be SC/ST, 40 percent women, and 3 percent handicapped.

These programmes have to be revised to ensure that the required connections were made in order to have a significant effect. This is now being accomplished by introducing and implementing the Swarnjayanti Gram SwarozgarYojana (SGSY), which has superseded all previous self-employment programmes. The fundamental idea remains, however, that only the self-employment initiative can provide rural poor with a sustainable source of income. In Block-1 of this course, you were introduced to a historical overview of several rural development programmes that were in effect until recently. This section focuses on the present plan, beginning with the self-employment initiative Swarnjayanti Gram SwarozgarYojana (SGSY). Since there are several SGSY issues to be explored in depth, it may not be practical to include them all in a single unit.

Objectives

The purpose of the Swarnjayanti Gram SwarozgarYojana (SGSY) is to uplift the assisted poor beyond the poverty line by assuring a significant income growth over time. The rural poor will be organised into Self-Help Groups (SHGs) via social mobilisation, training, capacity development, and the supply of income-generating assets through a combination of bank loan and government subsidy. The initiative intends to establish a high number of microbusinesses in rural regions. The main premise is that the rural poor in India possess a variety of skills, and if they are given the appropriate assistance at the right time, they may become very successful producers of valuable products and services, hence allowing them to surpass the poverty line. Swarozgaris are the aided poor, who may be individuals or groups (Self-Help Groups). However, the focus is on group approach. SGSY is essentially a comprehensive micro-enterprise programme encompassing all facets of self-employment. These include -

- Organization of the poor into SHGs (Self-Help Groups)
- Capacity development of SHGs
- Planning of activity clusters
- Infrastructure development

- Technology
- Credit
- Marketing

Salient Features

1. It aspires to develop a large number of rural microbusinesses by capitalising on the potential of the rural poor.
2. The helped families (referred to as Swarozgaris) might be individuals or groups (self-help groups of SHGs). However, the emphasis is on the collective method.
3. When developing micro-enterprises, four or five essential activities must be recognised in each block based on the people's resources, vocational skills, and market accessibility. The majority of SGSY aid will be allocated to activity clusters.
4. SGSY implements a project-based strategy for each essential task. The preparation of project reports for specified key activities is required. The banks and other financial institutions are closely engaged and involved in the preparation of these project reports in order to prevent delays in loan approval and guarantee enough funding.
5. Existing infrastructure for the cluster of activities is evaluated, and any holes are identified. Under SGSY, critical investment gaps are filled up to a maximum of 20% (or 25% in the case of the north-eastern states) of the total programmes allocated to each district. This money is held by the DRDAs as the "SGSY Infrastructure Fund" and may be used to generate additional financing from other sources.
6. SGSY is a credit-cumulative subsidy scheme. Subsidy is, however, a small and enabling component of SGSY, while credit is the program's central feature. Consequently, SGSY anticipates a stronger bank participation.
7. It tries to encourage multiple credit rather than a single "injection" of credit.
8. Emphasis must be placed on the development of skills via well-designed training programmes.
9. SGSY ensures technological advancement in the selected activity clusters.
10. It allows for the promotion of the commercialization of SGSY Swarozgaris-produced items. This includes the supply of market data, market development, consulting services, and institutional structures for selling the commodities, including exports.
11. Subsidy under SGSY is uniformly 30% of the project's total cost, up to a maximum of Rs 7,500. In the case of SC/ST, the discounts are 50% and Rs. 10,000, respectively. The subsidy for groups of Swarozgaris is fifty percent of the cost of the programme, up to a maximum of Rs 1.25 lakh.
12. There is no monetary limit on irrigation project subsidies. The subsidy will be reversed. SGSY places particular emphasis on vulnerable rural poverty populations. Consequently, at least 50 percent of Swarozgaris would be SC/ST, 40 percent of women, and 3 percent of the crippled would-be SC/ST.
13. The initiative is administered by the DRDAs through the Panchayatsamitis. The banks and other financial institutions, PRIs, NGOs, and technical institutes in the district are involved in the district's planning, implementation, and monitoring processes. The DRDAs are undergoing an appropriate revamping and strengthening.
14. Fifteen percent of SGSY funding are set aside at the national level for projects with far-reaching relevance and projects that may also serve as indications of alternative methods to be pursued in collaboration with other ministries or semi-government and international organisations. This consists of projects to be implemented in particular districts or across districts.
15. Funds under the SGSY are split 75:25 between the Central and state governments.

16. The Central budget designated for the states is allocated according to the incidence of poverty in each state. Nonetheless, other characteristics such as absorption capacity and particular needs will be considered during the course of the year.

National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM)

The Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD) of India started the National Rural Livelihoods Mission (NRLM) in June 2011. NRLM is a poverty reduction programme administered by the Government of India's Ministry of Rural Development. This programme focuses on increasing rural poor self-employment and organisation. This program's fundamental objective is to organise the impoverished into SHG (Self Help Group) groups and equip them for self-employment. After redesigning the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) in 1999, the Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD) introduced Swarnajayanti Grameen Swarajgar Yojana (SGSY) to promote rural self-employment. SGSY has been redesigned to become NRLM, therefore addressing the deficiencies of the SGSY programme. This initiative was introduced in 2011 with a budget of \$5.1 billion and is one of the Ministry of Rural Development's main programmes. This is one of the greatest programmes to better the lives of the impoverished in the globe. This initiative is financed by a \$1 billion credit from the World Bank. On September 25, 2015, the plan was superseded by Deen Dayal Antyodaya Yojana.

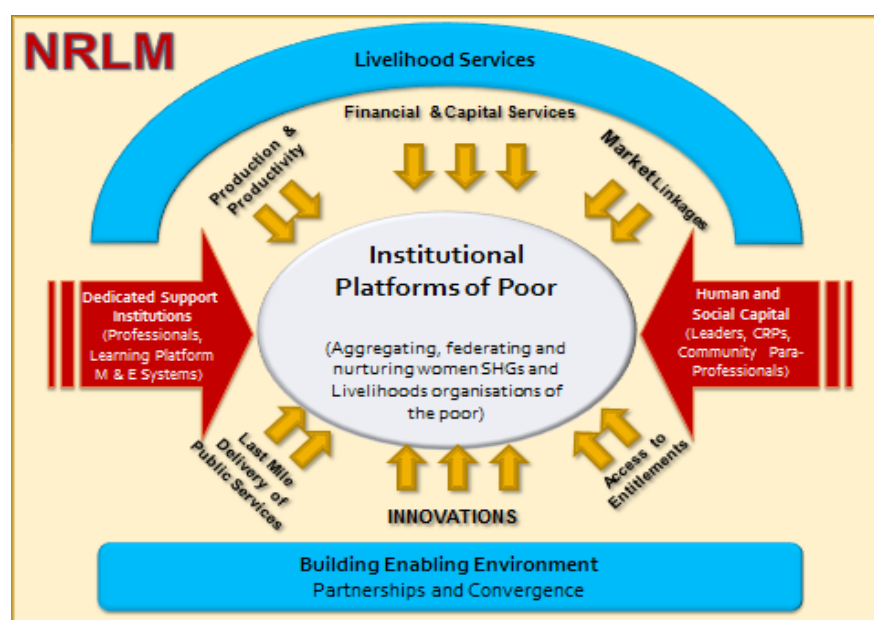


Figure 4.2: Framework for Rural Livelihood promotion under NRLM

Objectives

The mission's purpose is to develop sustainable livelihoods for the underprivileged, so that they may emerge from poverty. The purpose of the institutions of the poor is to promote

- (i) access to formal credit
- (ii) support for diversifying and improving livelihoods; and
- (iii) access to entitlements and public services.

Salient Features

1. Each rural poor home would have one member (ideally a woman) added to the Self-Help Group (SHG) network. Women SHG organisations would have bank-linkage arrangements.
2. SHGs would be federated at the village and higher levels to offer space, a voice, and resources, and to limit their reliance on other organisations.

3. The Mission has four components: (i) social mobilisation, community institution and capacity building; (ii) financial inclusion; (iii) livelihood promotion; and (iv) convergence.
4. A participatory social evaluation will be conducted to identify and rate all vulnerable families. Priority would be given to the poorest of the poor, single women and families headed by women, the handicapped, the landless, and migratory workers in the ranking.
5. Training and capacity development for the poor, notably in terms of managing institutions, means of subsistence, credit absorption, and creditworthiness.
6. The Mission also promotes the development of skills for rural youth, as well as their placement, training, and self-employment, through rural self-employment institutions (RSETIs), innovations, infrastructure development, and market assistance.
7. The provision of a revolving fund to assist SHGs in enhancing their institutional and financial management capabilities and establishing a positive credit history.
8. Provision of Community Investment Support Fund (CIF) in intensive blocks to SHGs through Federations for the purpose of advancing loans and/or engaging in common/collective socioeconomic activities.
9. Introduction of a model for financial inclusion, bank loans, affiliation and cooperation with banking/financial institutions, and protection against death, illness, etc.
10. Provision of Interest Subvention on loans taken out by SHGs to cover the gap between the banks' lending rate and 7%.
11. Convergence among several ministries and agencies concerned with rural poverty alleviation.
12. Highly decentralised planning, and states will be free to establish their own poverty reduction action plans.
13. The NRLM must have district-level connections with District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs) and Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRIs).

Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Grameen Kaushalya Yojana (DDY-GKY)

Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Grameen Kaushalya Yojana (DDU-GKY) is a sub-mission of the National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM) sponsored by the Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD), Government of India. The primary purpose of the training programme would be to equip rural youth with marketable skills in order to increase their employability in the organised sector and their ability to generate sufficient money. The trainings are delivered in response to market demand and anticipated market openings. Moreover, DDU-GKY offers young people from low-income neighbourhoods the chance to update their abilities and join the skilled labour force in expanding economic sectors. The training and placements are administered in collaboration with public, corporate, and nongovernmental organisations. More than 55 million ready-to-learn rural youth will benefit from the scheme's provision of sustainable jobs.

This plan is significant due to its ability to decrease poverty. It is also intended to play a significant role in the Prime Minister's "Make in India" initiative.

Objectives

- i. Allow the poor and marginalized access to benefits.
- ii. Mandatory coverage for socially disadvantaged groups (SC/ST:50%; Minority:15%; Women:33%).
- iii. Changing the emphasis from training to career advancement
- iv. post-placement assistance, migration assistance, and alumni network.
- v. A proactive strategy for establishing placement partnerships.
- vi. Placement Assurance for at least 75% of Trained Candidates
- vii. Enhancing Implementation Partners' Capabilities
- viii. Fostering new training service providers and enhancing their abilities

IX. Greater focus on initiatives for Jammu and Kashmir's underprivileged rural youth (HIMAYAT) campaign.

Salient Features

Multi-Partner Approach:

DDU-GKY is aware that it requires the support of several partners to achieve success and maximise the return on investment of both time and money. The DDU-GKY projects are market-linked and operated in PPP format to energise and build mass support among rural youth, as well as to increase their understanding. The engagement and cooperation of civil society organisations, educational institutions, apex skill partners, and regulatory agencies, as well as government and business companies, enables DDU-GKY to leverage the capabilities of all stakeholders and bring about revolutionary change.

NCVT (National Council on Vocational Training) or SSCs provide assistance with curriculum development and assessment (Sector Skills Councils). Through industrial agreements, access to new technology and on-the-job training is made available. On both residential and non-residential campuses, which are fully equipped with industry-standard technology, there are specialised training hours for soft skills, spoken English, and basic computer skills.

Focus on Sustainability:

Interactions within the industry have emphasised that training in soft skills, teamwork, etc., is more essential than domain skills, which are acquired on the job. DDU-GKY has prescribed a minimum of 160 hours of training in soft skills, function English, and computer literacy to guarantee that applicants can perform in their job areas as well as integrate into the company and society. In addition, a Work Readiness training module is recommended to guarantee that qualified applicants can hit the ground running wherever they join.

A retention strategy is equally important to us, and we have implemented mechanisms to track performance post-placement, salary top-ups to candidates through DBT, incentives to training partners for achievement of retention & progression outcomes, and a framework for the establishment and operation of a migration support centre.

Benefits for candidates include free training, free uniform, free course material, free lodging and board in residential programmes, expense reimbursements in non-residential programmes, post-placement salary top-ups every month for 2-6 months depending on location of placement, and placement for at least 70% of all trained with a minimum monthly salary of Rs. 6,000/-. (as cost to company).

Quality Assurance Framework:

Introducing predictability in government process by setting minimum service level benchmarks and standards, controls & audits, defaults and corrective actions to eliminate Inspector Raj inside an all-encompassing quality assurance framework comprised of the Guidelines & Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs). The framework's focal point is inclusiveness and self-regulation, with Q-Teams allocated roles and tasks inside the PIAs.

In addition, the end-to-end adoption of Public Financial Management System (PFMS) as the conduit for money disbursements and audits promotes openness and accountability. This permits DDU-GKY to engage in private sector capacity creation by front-loading 25% of training expenses so that PIAs are not inhibited from investing in excellent training centres.

Employing Technology in implementation:

We comprehend the global and local significance of exposure to technology, as well as how it not only unifies us but also facilitates the training, monitoring, and execution of projects. Through its training partners, DDU-GKY has used the following techniques:

- A Geo-Tagged, Time-Stamped, Biometric Attendance Record: comparable to what applicants will ultimately encounter at the majority of firms. In addition to serving as a surveillance tool, this also familiarises applicants with contemporary technologies.
- Each applicant will get a Tablet PC at the training centre. Candidates may therefore study at their own speed.
- Presence of Computer Labs and e-Learning in Training Centers to guarantee that all applicants have access to a comprehensive curriculum and sufficient learning opportunities.
- In addition, as part of its management process and MIS requirements, DDU-GKY ensures that all Training partners invest in IT infrastructure and is developing a national network for sharing real-time performance data, relevant graduate and financial information, and establishing a robust independent Placement Initiative.

4.2. Wage Employment Programmes

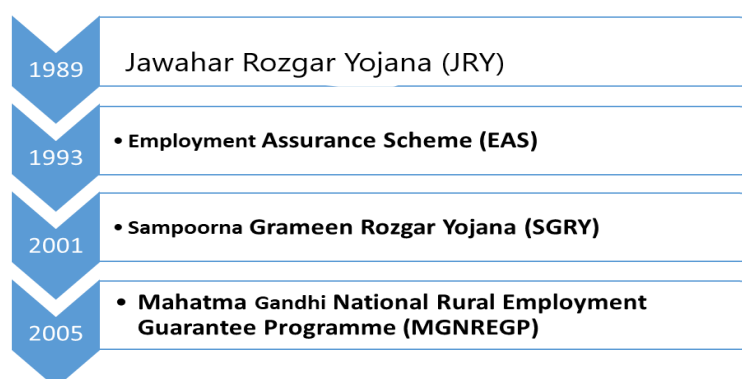


Figure 4.3: Chronology of Wage Employment Programmes

Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY)

On April 1, 1989, the National Rural Employment Program (NREP) and the Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Program were merged to become the Jawahar Rozgar Yojna.

During the Fourth Five-Year Plan, pay employment programmes were implemented on a trial basis to assist farm labour in obtaining work during the lean season. This was previously mentioned. During the Fourth and Fifth Five-Year Plans, the CREP and PIREP programmes were implemented in roughly 2,000 blocks recognised as having concentrations of agricultural labourers with severe unemployment and underemployment issues. In 1978-79, these two programmes were amalgamated and Food for Work

(FFW) was introduced as a single programme. During that time, the country's food stocks were abundant, and it was believed that providing food-grains as part of the wages would not only provide food at a lower cost to wage earners, but also solve the problem of financial resources needed for wage employment and make the best use of the available food stocks.

In 1980, FFW was modified, renamed the National Rural Employment Programme (NREP), and expanded to all of the country's districts and blocks.

The NREP has dual objectives -

- i. to produce wage employment for rural labour that cannot be covered by self-employment programmes; and
- ii. to establish rural infrastructure and long-lasting community assets that would contribute to the long-term economic growth of rural regions.

With the extension of the NREP's coverage, it was determined that the village-level resources for creating pay employment were insufficient, making it unable to give enough wage employment to wage searchers in rural areas. It was discovered that NREP was unable to reach even 50 percent of the country's communities. 1983 saw the introduction of the Rural Labour Work Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) to complement the coverage of the National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) and to guarantee wage employment for a minimum of 100 days per year for at least one member of each family of agricultural labourers. RLEGP was a centrally supported programme, with the central government contributing 80% and the states contributing 20%.

The study of these programmes found that after 7-8 years of operation, their coverage was only around 55%. It was also noted that the goal of giving 100 days of guaranteed work to at least one member of an agricultural labour family could not be achieved. One of the major downsides of NREP and RLEGP was that villagers were not involved in selecting projects or in the design and execution of the programmes. Another purpose of these programmes was to offer paid jobs closer to the workers' homes. This target could not be realised since the projects chosen by the block or district administrations were located distant from the job seekers' communities.

To reap the advantages of wage employment programmes, it was deemed vital to include villagers, particularly via village Panchayats. To reach all villages, NREP and RLEGP were combined in 1989, and a new programme, Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY), was started.

Jawahar Rozgar Yojana was initiated with the intention of expanding the availability of wage job possibilities to all villages and achieving the goal of employing all wage-seekers in close proximity to their homes. Therefore, the Gram Panchayats were assigned the duty of implementing the scheme. The Yojana was carried out on a rural basis. Panchayati Raj Institutions were intended to cover every village. The community received help and assistance from the District Rural Development Authority. 80 percent of expenditures were borne by the central government and 20 percent by the states. Since 1993-1994, the Yojana has been made more goal-oriented and its budget has been greatly raised. It was separated into three streams:

- First Stream: Includes JRY's general works as well as the Indira Awas Yojana and Million Wells Schemes. This stream received 75% of the entire budget. During that time period, the budget for Indira Awas Yojana climbed from 6% to 10%, while the allocation for Million Wells Scheme increased from 20% to 30%.
- Second Stream: Also known as Intensified JRY, this programme was conducted in 120 backward areas with 20% allocation.
- Third Stream: This was allotted 5% for Innovative projects, which included programmes for preventing labour migration and drought-proofing watersheds, among others.

Objectives

JRY's major purpose was to develop extra meaningful jobs in rural regions for the jobless and underemployed.

The secondary goals of JRY were as follows:

- (a) To create productive community assets for direct and ongoing benefits to the poor and
- (b) to strengthen rural economic and social infrastructure, which would result in rapid growth of the rural economy and thereby increase the income levels of the poor.
- c) To enhance the quality of life in rural communities.

Salient Features

- The expenditures for the programme were split 80:20 between the central government and the states.
 - The DRDA/Zilla Parishad and Gram Panchayats were made accountable for implementation at the district and local levels, respectively. The money was sent straight to the DRDA/ZP.
 - Six percent of all JRY funding were designated for the Indira Awas Yojana (IAY). 20% was to be preserved at the district level (DRDA/ ZP) for inter-block/ inter-district projects, while 80% was to be allocated to Gram Panchayats.
 - As with NREP and RLEGP, the works were to be carried out by the villagers, and the hiring of contractors was strictly prohibited.
- SCs and STs were given preference.
- Up to 30% of employment chances were earmarked for women.
 - Food grains might be distributed at subsidised prices as part of remuneration.
 - The non-wages or materials component could not exceed fifty percent of the overall project cost.
 - A maximum of 5% of the annual budget was allotted for administrative costs, and a maximum of 20% was available for training officials and non-officials participating in the execution of JRY.
 - Up to ten percent of the overall funding of DRDA/ZP and Gram Panchayats was designated for the upkeep of assets established under preceding programmes (NREP/RLEGP and JRY).

Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS)

The Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS) was implemented on 2 October 1993 in the rural regions of 1778 blocks in 261 districts where the Revised Public Distribution System (RPDS) was in effect. The chosen blocks were located in drought-prone, desert, tribal, and hilly regions. During 1994-1995, EAS was expanded to 409 DPAP/DDP and Modified Area Development Approach (MADA) blocks with a greater number of indigenous residents.

In March of 1995, the plan was expanded to include an additional 256 blocks, 233 of which were flood-prone in the states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and Assam, and 23 of which were in Jammu & Kashmir due to its unique characteristics.

Though JRY was implemented by Gram Panchayats to ensure that all villages benefited from the programme, it was felt that the programme was unable to solve the problems of unemployment and underemployment, particularly in remote, difficult, and backward areas where the opportunities for farm employment were extremely limited and the cost of living was significantly higher than in other areas due to poor accessibility and backwardness. In 1992-93, the Indian government implemented the Revised Public Distribution System (RPDS) to assure a sufficient and subsidised supply of food grains to the poor. This was done in an effort to alleviate the extreme poverty in such regions. There were 1,778 blocks in 261 districts that were recognised as problematic and underdeveloped by RPDS. On the 2nd of October, 1993, a new programme titled Work Assurance Scheme (EAS) was started, encompassing all 1,778 RPDS

blocks, in order to increase the poverty alleviation programme and improve employment possibilities in these areas. These blocks were mostly discovered in DPAP, DDP, Hill, and Tribal regions.

The EAS was implemented in 1993 in drought-prone, desert, tribal, and mountainous rural districts and blocks where the Revised Public Distribution System was in operation. In 1994, the plan was expanded from 1778 blocks to 409 blocks, the majority of which were tribal territories. Later in 1995, 256 blocks in Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Assam, and Jammu and Kashmir were included to the system. The Jawahar Rozgar Yojana was amalgamated with the Employment Assurance Programme in 1996, and a reformed programme began in the year 2000 made the scheme open across the nation without any particular requirements. The programme was completely combined with the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act in 2006.

Objectives

- To offer meaningful employment in the form of physical labour during the lean agricultural season to all able-bodied individuals who were in need of work but unable to obtain job.
- To cultivate economic infrastructure and community assets and resources for sustainable employment and growth.

Salient Features

- The programme was active in 1,778 of the nation's blocks.
- The Centre and States contributed 80% and 20%, respectively, to the program's finances.
- On the basis of the need for wage employment and expenditures, the Central share of money was sent directly to the ZP/DRDAs in predetermined chunks.
- There was no set budgeted allocation for the programme since it was demand-driven.
- A maximum of two adults per household were permitted to obtain pay work for up to one hundred days each year. If the employment potential was accessible via plan and non-plan activities that were already underway in a given location and the guarantee could be met by exploiting the same, no new construction was to be initiated.
- The task should be labor-intensive and result in the construction of long-lasting and productive assets.
- Horticulture development was permitted on the basis of an individual beneficiary project based on the land of BPL households.
- Individuals desiring paid work must register with the Village Development Officer or Gram Panchayat, which will issue a family card.
- New initiatives may be initiated when the number of unemployed employees exceeds ten.
- The scheme is implemented by the DRDA and other District Officers of various departments, Block Development Officers, and Panchayats at all three levels, i.e. Zilla Panchayat, Panchayat Samiti, and Gram Panchayats.
- The state-level Coordination Committee for the Rural Development Programme is responsible for the overall supervision, guidance, and monitoring of EAS.

Sampurna Grameen Rozgar Yojana (SGRY)

Sampurna Grameen Rozgar Yojana is sometimes referred to as the Universal Rural Employment Scheme. It was established on September 25, 2001, and became fully operational on March 1, 2004, by the Government of India in an effort to assist rural impoverished people with work opportunities and to find a solution to poverty and unemployment.

Panchayati Raj Institutions initially supported the implementation of this initiative. EAS-Employment Assurance Program and Jawahar Gram Samadhi Yojana provisions were amalgamated to become the

Sampurna Grameen Rozgar Yojana scheme. This program's objective is to provide employment to families and people living below the poverty line (BPL).

Objectives

- I. To create extra jobs in order to eradicate poverty and establish a sustainable way of life for impoverished families with no stable source of income and who are living in a very difficult manner.
- II. Concerning food safety for the objective of ensuring food security, foods like wheat were also made the primary component of wages.

Salient Features

- a) Government-sponsored Wage Employment Program
- b) 75% of the Cash Component is allocated to the Central Government and 25% to the States.
- c) Additionally, the central government offers assistance for food grains.
- d) Ministry of Rural Development is responsible for paying FCI for food grains.
- e) The state government will pay for transportation and handling costs.
- f) Each worker must get a minimum of 5 kg of food grains as part of their salary.
- g) The remaining salary to be paid in cash. At least 25% of salary must be paid in cash.
- h) The State government shall determine the price of food grains based on BPL or APL rates, or a combination of the two.
- i) Works should be undertaken in accordance with the perceived demand of the region and the available money.
- j) Fifty percent of the cash must be allocated to village Panchayats for infrastructure development in SC/ST areas.
- k) 30% of available positions are earmarked for women.
- l) Twenty-two and a half percent of the annual allocation (including food grains) at both the district and intermediate panchayat levels will be designated for the individual group beneficiaries of SC/ST households living below the poverty line.

Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme (MGNREGP)

The National Rural Employment Ensure Act of 2005 (or NREGA No. 42, subsequently renamed the "Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act" or MGNREGA) is an Indian labour legislation and social security programme that seeks to guarantee the "right to employment."

It seeks to improve rural residents' means of subsistence by offering at least 100 days of pay employment each fiscal year to each family whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual labour. MGNREGA will be administered mostly by Gram Panchayats (GPs).

On August 25, 2005, India adopted the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA), also known as the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MNREGS). The MGNREGA gives a legal guarantee of one hundred days of employment to adult members of rural households willing to do unskilled manual labour connected to public projects at the statutory minimum pay. In conjunction with state governments, the Ministry of Rural Development (MRD) of the Government of India is supervising the full execution of this programme.

This legislation was enacted with the intention of enhancing the buying power of the rural population, namely semi-skilled or unskilled rural Indians living below the poverty line. It seeks to bridge the divide between the country's wealthiest and poor. Approximately one-third of the required workforce must be female.

Adult members of rural households submit their name, age, and residence to the Gram Panchayat along with a photograph. After conducting an inquiry, the Gram Panchayat registers families and distributes an employment card. The employment card provides the information and photograph of each registered adult member. A registered individual may make a written application for employment (for at least fourteen consecutive days of work) to either the Panchayat or the Programme Officer.

The Panchayat/Program officer will accept a valid application and provide a dated receipt of application; a letter giving work will be mailed to the applicant and posted in the Panchayat office. Employment will be offered within a 5-kilometer radius; if the distance exceeds 5 kilometres, extra wages will be paid.

Objectives

- i. To offer rural employees with a minimum of 100 days of employment every fiscal year so that they may become financially independent and live with dignity.
- ii. To generate a source of income for the region's economically disadvantaged residents.
- iii. To enhance Panchayati Raj institutions.

The Panchayat/Program officer will accept a valid application and provide a dated receipt of application; a letter giving work will be mailed to the applicant and posted in the Panchayat office. Employment will be offered within a 5-kilometer radius; if the distance exceeds 5 kilometres, a premium salary will be paid.

Salient Features

1. Adult members of a rural family who are willing to do unskilled manual labour may submit an application for registration verbally or in writing to the local Gram Panchayat.
2. After proper verification, the Gram Panchayat will issue a Job Card. The Job Card will include a picture of all adult members of the family who are willing to work under MGNREGA and will be distributed free of charge.
3. The Job Card must be issued within fifteen days after the application.
4. The bearer of a Job Card may submit a formal application for employment to the Gram Panchayat, detailing the time frame for which employment is sought. The minimum number of days of work must be at least 14.
5. The Gram Panchayat shall provide a dated receipt of the written job application, against which the assurance of employment within 15 days will operate.
6. Employment shall be provided within 15 days after submitting a job application; if this is not the case, then daily unemployment allowance must be paid in accordance with the Act; the states are responsible for the payment of unemployment allowance.
7. Work should typically be available within a five-kilometers radius of the village. In the event that work is given beyond 5 kilometres, 10% more compensation is due to cover additional transportation and housing costs.
8. Agricultural labourers in the state must be paid according to the Minimum Wages Act of 1948, unless the central government declares a pay rate that is not less than Rs. 60 per day. Men and women will get equal compensation.
Wages are to be paid based on an hourly or piece rate. In any event, wage payments must be made on a weekly basis and no longer than every two weeks.
At least one-third of plan recipients must be women who have registered and sought employment.
11. Worksite amenities such as crèche, drinking water, and shade must be given. 12. The Gram Sabha will suggest and the Zilla panchayat will accept the list of projects for a village.
At least fifty percent of projects would be assigned to Gram Panchayats for implementation.

14. Permissible work consists mostly of water and soil conservation, afforestation, and land development.
15. A wage-to-materials ratio of 60:40 must be maintained. No contractors or equipment are permitted.
16. The Central Government pays 100 percent of the wage cost for unskilled manual labour and 75 percent of the material cost, which includes the salaries of trained and semi-skilled employees.
17. The Gram Sabha must conduct a social audit.
18. Grievance resolution measures must be established to guarantee a responsive implementation procedure.
19. All Scheme-related accounts and documents must be open to public inspection.

4.3. Basic Needs Programmes

There are around eleven ongoing minimal need programmes in rural regions, including Education, Health, Nutrition, Sanitation, Drinking water, Housing, and Transportation, among others.



Figure 4.4: Major Minimum Need Programmes

Public Distribution System (PDS)

Food security is one of the primary goals of the Public Distribution System (PDS), hence in 1987-88, it was named one of the essential components of the MNP. The purpose of the PDS is to guarantee that necessary products of everyday use are made accessible to the public at affordable rates, especially to

the most disadvantaged segments of urban and rural society. Wheat, rice, sugar, imported edible oil, kerosene, soft coke, and regulated cloth are the seven key goods supplied by PDS. All of these items are acquired and provided by the states for distribution through their networks of fair pricing stores. As a means of assisting BPL households, food grains are offered at subsidised costs. Under the Annapurna programme, which was started in 2000, the elderly and/or poor get 10 kilogrammes of rice, wheat, or both for free.

The regulation of the PDS is a shared responsibility of the central and state governments. State governments are responsible for distributing food grains to customers via the established network of fair pricing shops. The central government is responsible for food grain acquisition, storage, transportation, and allocation in bulk (FPSs). State governments are also accountable for operational obligations, such as the allocation and identification of families living below the poverty line, the distribution of ration cards, and the supervision and monitoring of FPSs' operations.

Under the PDS programme, each family below the poverty level is entitled to 35 kilogrammes of rice or wheat per month, while each family over the poverty line is entitled to 15 kilogrammes of food grain per month. According to PDS regulations, a cardholder below the poverty level should get 35 kg of food grain, while a cardholder over the poverty line should receive 15 kg of food grain. However, there are reservations regarding the distribution process's effectiveness.

The Public Distribution Method (PDS) arose as a system for the economical distribution of food grains and the handling of emergency circumstances. PDS has become associated with 'food security' and an integral aspect of the government's strategy for managing the country's food economy throughout the years.

Objective

- To supply necessary consumer goods at low and subsidised costs to consumers in order to protect them from the effect of growing commodity prices and to preserve the minimum nutritional status of our people.

Salient Features

1. States must identify below-poverty-line (BPL) households who will receive 10 kg of food grains per month per family at costs lower than the Central Issue Price (CIP).
2. The population over the poverty line (non-poor) now receiving PDS benefits will continue to receive full CIP benefits.
3. The supply of 10 kilogrammes of food grains per month per household for the BPL population is guaranteed by the central government to the states. Additional amounts needed by the states would be contingent on the central pool's stock levels.
4. States will be permitted to supplement the amount, coverage, and subsidy using their own funds.
5. Subsidised food grains will also be sent to all EAS/JRY recipients in accordance with the rules, at the rate of 1 kilogramme per person per day, in exchange for which food vouchers will be provided for exchange at fair price stores.

Important of PDS

- i. The distribution of food grains to the underprivileged at costs lower than those found in private stores.
- ii. The direct purchase of food grains from farmers guarantees farmers a higher price.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA)

The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, or SSA, is one of Atal Bihari Vajpayee's most fruitful initiatives. The primary purpose of the Indian government behind this programme is to raise education awareness among Indian citizens. According to our Constitution, free primary education is a basic entitlement for children between the ages of 6 and 14.

The objective of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is to make this basic right a reality and make India literate. A further objective of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is to address socioeconomic, regional, and gender disparities via the active community engagement in the administration of schools.

In 2002-03, SSA finished its third year of operation. The program's expenditures for 2001-2003 were authorised at a total of \$1,528,755 million, with the SSA component focusing on elementary education in chosen areas. In addition to addressing the problem of general parity and eradicating gender disparities, the Social Security Administration includes unique components geared only at the female child. Free textbooks, community involvement, and gender-awareness training for teachers are among the incentives and conditions designed to assure enrolment and retention of the female child.

The SSA is envisaged as a "umbrella programme" that encompasses all ongoing programmes, activities, and schemes intended to advance basic education. It is anticipated that a convergent strategy would aid in overcoming the challenges of coordination between intra- and inter-sectoral programming efforts, while simultaneously facilitating the design, execution, monitoring, and evaluation of EFA projects. Currently, convergence is being achieved between education and development programmes aimed at poverty alleviation, employment generation, food for work, promotion of household industries, and improvement of quality of life (health, family welfare, availability of potable water, rural housing, etc.). In turn, these programmes enhance the ability of families to pursue and support the education of their children.

Accelerated efforts towards EFA, which are already bearing fruit, have positioned the nation firmly on a course that guarantees a higher standard of living for all inhabitants. Together, the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan and the National Literacy Mission, which target children and adults, are quickly altering the educational landscape in India. The SSA enrolls and retains more children, particularly females, in schools, while the NLM enables more and more people to become literate. The NLM's special programmes are keenly focused on the needs of fair access to education, life skills training, and speedy elimination of the gender gap in literacy.

The SSA is a significant intervention aimed at attaining the long-cherished objective of universalizing elementary education (UEE) via a time-bound integrated strategy in collaboration with the states. It aspires to provide a valuable and high-quality primary education to all students aged 6 to 14 by 2010.

Objectives

1. All children attending school. Education Guarantee Centre, Alternative School, and the "Back-to-School" camp by 2003.
2. By 2007, all pupils will have completed five years of primary education.
3. By 2010, all students will have completed elementary school.
4. Focus on primary education with a focus on lifelong learning.
5. Close all gender and social class imbalances at the primary level by 2007 and at the elementary level by 2010.

6. Universal retention by 2010.

Salient Features

- A programme with a definite timeline for the implementation of universal primary education.
- Answer to the nationwide need for high-quality basic education.
- A chance to promote social justice via basic education.
- A declaration of political resolve for primary education for all children.
- A collaboration between the local, state, and municipal governments.
- A chance for states to create their own vision for primary education.
- Involvement of Panchyati Raj Institutions, school management committees, village and urban slum level education committees, parent's Teachers' Associations, Mother-Teacher Associations, Tribal Autonomous councils, and other entities at the grassroots level in the administration of elementary schools.

Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA)

Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) is an initiative of the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, for the improvement of secondary education in India's public schools. It was introduced in March of 2009. The scheme's implementation began in 2009-2010 in an effort to foster efficient growth, development, and equality for everyone. The plan incorporates multidimensional research, technical consultation, diverse implementations, and finance assistance. The primary goals are to improve the quality of secondary education and raise the overall enrolment rate from 52% (in 2005–2006) to 75% in five years, i.e. from 2009 to 2014. It aspires to offer universal education for all 15–16-year-old children. The central ministry provides financing via state governments, which form independent implementing agencies.

Objectives

1. To ensure that all secondary schools have physical facilities, personnel, and supplies that meet or exceed the stipulated minimum criteria via financial assistance for Government/Local Body and Government-aided schools and an adequate regulatory framework for other schools.
2. To enhance access to secondary education for all young people, in accordance with norms, by means of proximate location (for example, Secondary Schools within 5 kms and Higher Secondary Schools within 7 to 10 kms)/efficient and safe transport arrangements/residential facilities, depending on local conditions, including open schooling. However, these rules might be eased in steep and challenging places. In such situations, residential schools are recommended.
3. To ensure that no child is deprived of a quality secondary education owing to gender, socioeconomic, disability, or other impediments.
4. To increase the quality of secondary education so that intellectual, social, and cultural learning is strengthened.
5. To guarantee that all students seeking secondary school get a decent education.
6. The accomplishment of the aforementioned goals would also, among other things, indicate significant progress in the direction of the Common School System.

Rashtriya Uchchar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA)

Rashtriya Uchchar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA) (Hindi for "National Higher Education Mission") is a comprehensive plan for the development of higher education in India that was launched in 2013 by the Ministry of Human Resource Development of India. Rashtriya Uchchar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA) is a Centrally Sponsored Scheme (CSS) that, since its inception in 2013, has provided strategic financing to qualifying state higher education institutions. The central financing (at a ratio of 60:40 for general

category States, 90:10 for special category States, and 100 percent for union territories) would be based on norms and reliant on outcomes. Before reaching the designated institutions, the funds would go from the central ministry via the state governments/union territories to the State Higher Education Councils. State financing would be based on a comprehensive evaluation of State Higher Education Plans, which would outline each state's approach for addressing problems of fairness, access, and excellence in higher education.

Objectives

- a) To enhance the overall quality of state institutions by guaranteeing compliance with defined norms and standards, and embrace accreditation as an obligatory framework for quality assurance.
- b) To initiate transformational changes in the state's higher education system by establishing a framework that facilitates planning and monitoring at the state level, boosting autonomy in State Universities, and enhancing institutional governance.
- c) To ensure affiliation, academic, and examination system improvements.
- d) To ensure a sufficient supply of qualified professors in all higher education institutions and promote capacity development at all employment levels.
- e) To establish a conducive environment for research and innovation at higher education institutions.
- f) To expand the institutional base by adding capacity to current institutions and developing new institutions in order to meet enrolment goals.
- g) To redress regional disparities in access to higher education by establishing institutions in unserved and underserved regions.
- h) To provide suitable chances for higher education to SC/STs and socially and educationally disadvantaged groups; encourage the participation of women, minorities, and those with disabilities. Provide suitable chances for higher education to SC/STs and socially and educationally disadvantaged groups; encourage the participation of women, minorities, and those with disabilities.

Components

1. Upgrading of existing independent institutions to Universities
2. Converting colleges into Cluster Universities
3. Infrastructure grants to Universities
4. New Model Colleges (General)
5. Upgradation of existing degree colleges to model colleges
6. New Colleges (Professional)
7. Infrastructure grants to colleges
8. Research, innovation and quality improvement
9. Equity initiatives
10. Faculty Recruitment Support
11. Faculty improvements
12. Vocationalisation of Higher Education
13. Leadership Development of Educational Administrators
14. Institutional restructuring & reforms
15. Capacity building & preparation, data collection and planning

(Source: rusa.nic.in)

Pradhan Mantri Awaas Yojana- Gramin (PMAY-G)

In 2016, the Indian government renamed the Indira Awas Yojana as the Pradhan Mantri Gramin Awaas Yojana in an effort to provide houses for the rural poor. This plan aims to provide housing for all residents by 2022. The central government and the state will split the expense of building the homes. The programme has been implemented throughout India's rural districts, excluding Delhi and Chandigarh. Under this programme, houses will be constructed with utilities such as a toilet, power connection, drinking water connection, LPG connection, etc. The allocated homes will be held jointly by the husband and wife.

Pradhan Mantri Gramodaya Yojana (PMGY) is a comprehensive programme launched by the Indian government with the aim of attaining sustainable human development at the village level. Since shelter is a component of sustainable human development, Gramin Awaas (GA), an unique component of PMGY, addresses the issue of rural shelter explicitly. Despite the existence of existing rural housing projects, such as the Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY), it was deemed necessary to augment them with this component of the broader PMGY programme.

Objective

To provide pucca house to all who are houseless and living in dilapidated houses in rural areas by 2022.

Swachh Bharat Mission (SBM)

Sanitation encompasses liquid and solid waste disposal, personal and food-related cleanliness, as well as home and environmental hygiene. In 1987-88, the Rural Sanitation Programme was included as a component of the Minimum Needs Programme.

Sanitation in rural areas is a state concern. State governments carry out the rural sanitation programme as part of the state sector Minimum Need Programme (MNP). The central government supports their efforts by giving financial and technical aid via the Rural Sanitation Programme, which is supported by the central government (CRSP).

The Rural Sanitation Programme will enhance the efforts of the different Central and State Sector Programmes by constructing rural sanitary latrines for individual families in order to improve the quality of life in rural regions.

Swachh Bharat Abhiyan (SBA) or Swachh Bharat Mission (SBM) is a national programme in India from 2014 to 2019 that seeks to clean the streets, roads, and infrastructure of India's cities, towns, rural and urban regions. The campaign's official name in Hindi translates to "India Mission for Cleanliness" in English. Swachh Bharat's goals include the eradication of open defecation via the building of household- and community-owned toilets and the establishment of an accountable system for monitoring toilet usage. By building 100 million toilets in rural India by 2 October 2019, the 150th anniversary of Mahatma Gandhi's birth, the Government of India aspires to make India "open-defecation free" (ODF). The mission will also assist India in achieving the 2015 United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 6 (SDG 6).

On October 2, 2014, Indian Prime Minister Shri Narendra Modi started the Swachh Bharat Mission. Mission Coordinator is Secretary, Department of Drinking Water and Sanitation (DDWS), Ministry of Jal shakti, with two Sub-Missions: the Swachh Bharat Mission (Gramin) and the Swachh Bharat Mission (Urban).

Objectives

1. Completely eliminate open defecation and promote cleanliness, hygiene, and toilet usage.
2. Accelerate rural sanitation implementation.
3. Promote economically viable technology for environmentally sustainable sanitation
4. Increase the degree of cleanliness in rural regions by using Scientific Solid and Liquid Waste Management Systems.
5. Encourage communities and Panchayati Raj institutions to implement sustainable sanitation methods
6. Improving sanitation in vulnerable areas will have a substantial beneficial effect on gender equality and encourage social inclusion.

National Health Mission (NHM)

On April 12, 2005, the Honourable Prime Minister announced the National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) to provide rural populations, particularly vulnerable groups, with accessible, cheap, and high-quality health care. The Union Cabinet, in a decision dated 1 May 2013, sanctioned the commencement of the National Urban Health Mission (NUHM) as a Sub-mission of the overarching National Health Mission (NHM), the other Sub-mission of which is the National Rural Health Mission (NRHM).

NRHM aspires to deliver fair, inexpensive, and high-quality health care to the rural population, particularly the most disadvantaged populations. Under the NRHM, significant emphasis has been placed on the Empowered Action Group (EAG) States as well as the North Eastern States, Jammu & Kashmir, and Himachal Pradesh. The mission focuses on establishing a fully functional, community-owned, decentralised health delivery system with inter-sectoral convergence at all levels to ensure simultaneous action on a wide variety of health determinants such as water, sanitation, education, nutrition, social and gender equality. Institutional integration within the fragmented health sector was anticipated to offer a focus on results, as assessed by Indian Public Health Standards for all health institutions.

The National Health Mission (NHM) was created with the intention of providing accessible, inexpensive, effective, and dependable healthcare services in rural and urban parts of the nation, particularly to the poor and vulnerable segments of the population. In the state of Uttar Pradesh, the National Health Mission has made specific efforts to reach out to the local community.

The National Health Mission (NHM) consists of its two Sub-Missions, the National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) and the National Urban Health Mission (NUHM). The primary programme components are Health System Strengthening, Reproductive-Maternal-Neonatal-Child and Adolescent Health (RMNCH+A), and Communicable and Non-Communicable Diseases. The NHM envisions achieving universal access to fair, accessible, and high-quality health care services that are accountable and responsive to the needs of the population.

The government of India established the National Health Mission (NHM) in 2013, consolidating the National Rural Health Mission and the National Urban Health Mission. It was extended again in March 2018, extending its duration to March 2020. It is directed by the Mission Director and supervised by National Level Monitors chosen by the Government of India.

Objectives

- I. To ensure reduction in infant and maternal mortality rates

- II. To provide access to everyone to public health services such as women's health, child health, drinking water, sanitation and hygiene, nutrition, and universal vaccination
- III. To prevent and control transmissible and non-transmissible illnesses
- IV. To ensure population stability, parity between the sexes, and demographic balance
- V. To provide access to integrated, comprehensive primary medical care
- VI. To promote healthy way of life

Components

- 1. RMNCH+A
- 2. Strengthening of Health Systems
- 3. Programmes for the Control of Non-Communicable Diseases
- 4. Communicable Disease Control Programmes
- 5. Infrastructure Maintenance

National Rural Drinking Water Programme (NRDWP)

Rural Water Supply is a governmental responsibility. National Rural Drinking Water Programme (NRDWP) is a Centrally Sponsored Scheme that offers technical and financial support to rural communities in order to increase their access to clean and sufficient drinking water. The Program was initiated on April 1, 2009. The Program is being carried out in every State and two Union Territories (Andaman & Nicobar Islands and Puducherry). In November of 2017, the Program was redesigned to make it more competitive, outcome-based, and result-oriented. The aid is intended to accomplish the goal of providing every rural resident with sufficient, clean water for drinking, cooking, and other basic home requirements on a sustainable basis that is quickly and conveniently available at all times and in all circumstances. This aligns with the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) of the United Nations, "Ensure universal and equitable access to clean and affordable drinking water for everyone by 2030."

Under Bharat Nirman, the UPA Government started the National Rural Drinking Water Programme (NRDWP) with the aim of providing safe and enough drinking water via hand-pumps, piped water supplies, etc. to all rural regions, homes, and individuals. The Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme-ARWSP, Swajal dhara, and National Rural Water Quality Monitoring & Surveillance projects were merged to form this initiative.

Objectives

- I. 40 litres per capita per day (lpcd) of drinking water for human use.
- II. 30 lpcd more for livestock in Desert Development Programme Areas.
- III. One hand-pump or stand post per 250 people.
- IV. The water source must be within the habitation/within 1.6 kilometres in the plains and within 100 metres in the mountains. Elevation in hilly regions.

Pradhan Mantri Gram SadakYojana (PMGSY)

In India, the construction of rural roads is not a novel phenomena. Historically, Rural Roads were seen as a tool for revenue authorities to collect land taxes from the people, rather than as a service to the community. However, the building of village roads was included in the Minimum Needs Programme (MNP) for the first time in the 5th Five Year Plan (1974-79), which envisioned the development of All-Weather Roads to link populations of at least 1,500 people. In each year of the Fifth Five-Year Plan, a stated expenditure was allocated for this programme, albeit it dropped in the succeeding Five-Year Plans. In addition, the Government of India established a number of programmes, such as the National Rural

Employment Programme (NREP), the Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP), the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY), the Innovative Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (IJRY), the Basic Minimum Services (BMS), the Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS), and other similar programmes, under which Rural Roads were constructed year after year and plan after plan. In recent years, the Rural Infrastructure Development Fund (RIDF) Scheme of the National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) has produced notable results.

The project, which was launched on December 25, 2000 by then-Prime Minister Atal Bihari Vajpayee, intends to improve rural road connections. This programme delivers connection to areas with little or no connectivity and reduces poverty by increasing access to economic and social services. This promotes a long-term decrease in poverty by providing individuals with the ability to interact with the rest of the world. Several villages have benefited from the programme, which is helping them live better lives. Nearly 82% of roads have been constructed as of December 2017, effectively connecting rural regions to cities. By March 2019, the remaining 47,000 settlements will likewise be linked by all-weather highways. Previously, the programme was supported only by the central government, but after the 14th Finance Commission's proposal, the cost is now divided by both the central and state governments.

Rural Electrical Distribution

Rural Electrification is not only a method for supplying communities with electricity for household, agricultural, and commercial purposes, but also a symbol of rural development in India. The program's most recent aim is to attain complete rural electrification. The procedure of supplying electrical electricity to rural and distant places. Not only is electricity utilised for lighting and domestic uses, but it also enables the automation of several agricultural processes, such as threshing, milking, and lifting grain for storage. In regions with labour shortages, this enables increased production at a lower cost.

Priority areas for Rural Electrification under the MNP have been identified as follows: i) All the North-Eastern hill states (Meghalaya, Tripura, Assam, Manipur, Nagaland, Sikkim, Arunachal Pradesh, and Mizoram) and the Union Territories; ii) Districts in other states with less than 65 percent electrification, with the districts with the lowest percentage of electrification covered first; and iii) All areas included in the Tribal Sub-Plans.

By the end of the year 2000, of the country's 5,87,000 villages, over 5,00,000 villages, or 86%, were electrified. However, just 31% of rural households have access to power. In the agricultural sector, 12.5 million wells have been powered up to date.

Mid-day Meal (MDM)

In India, the midday meal (MDM) is a nutritious, freshly-prepared lunch offered to students in government and government-aided schools. The Supreme Court of India issued an order on 28 November 2001 saying, "We direct the State Governments/Union Territories to implement the Mid-Day Meal Scheme by providing every child in every Government and Government assisted Primary School with a prepared mid-day meal."

The Mid-day Lunch Scheme is a school meal programme aiming to improve the nutritional status of school-aged children across India. Children in primary and upper primary classes in government, government-aided, local body, Education Guarantee Scheme, and alternative innovative education centres, Madarsa and Maqtabas supported under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, and National Child Labour

Project schools run by the ministry of labour receive free lunches on school days through this programme. It is the world's biggest of its type, serving 120,000,000 students in approximately 1,265,000 schools and Education Guarantee Scheme locations.

Article 24, paragraph 2 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, to which India is a party, requires India to provide children with "adequate nutritious food". Since its inception in 1995, the programme has undergone several adjustments. National Food Security Act of 2013 applies to the Midday Meal Scheme. Legal support for the Indian school food programme is comparable to that given by the National School Lunch Act in the United States.

In India, school lunches have a long tradition. Madras Municipal Corporation initiated the Mid-Day Meal Programme for poor children in 1925. By the mid-1980s, three states, namely Gujarat, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu, as well as the Union Territory of Pondicherry, had universalized a cooked Mid-Day Meal Programme using their own resources for primary school students. By 1990-91, the number of states implementing the cooked Mid-Day Meal Programme using their own resources on a universal or large scale had increased to twelve.

1. The National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education (NP-NSPE) was launched as a Centrally Sponsored Scheme on 15 August 1995, initially in 2408 blocks across the country, with the aim of boosting enrolment, retention, and attendance, as well as improving the nutritional status of children. By 1997-98, the NP-NSPE had been implemented in all regions of the nation. In 2002, the programme was expanded to include not only pupils in grades I through V of government, government-aided, and local body schools, but also those attending EGS and AIE centres. The plan included a free supply of 100 grams of food grains each child every school day, as well as a subsidy of up to Rs 50 per quintal for the delivery of food grains.
2. In September 2004, the plan was updated to give a prepared midday meal with 300 calories and 8 to 12 grams of protein to all students enrolled in classes I through V in government and aided schools as well as EGS/ AIE institutions. In addition to free supply of food grains, the revised scheme provided Central Assistance for (a) Cooking cost @ Re 1 per child per school day, (b) Transport subsidy was raised from the previous maximum of Rs 50 per quintal to Rs. 100 per quintal for special category states, and Rs 75 per quintal for other states, (c) Management, monitoring, and evaluation costs @ 2% of the cost of foodgrains, transport subsidy, and cooking assistance, and (d) Provision of mid-day
3. In July 2006, the scheme was revised to provide assistance for cooking costs at the rates of (a) Rs 1.80 per child/school day for States in the North Eastern Region, on the condition that the NER States contribute Rs 0.20 per child/school day, and (b) Rs 1.50 per child/school day for other States and UTs, on the condition that these States and UTs contribute Rs 0.50 per child/school day.
4. In October 2007, the plan was expanded to initially include pupils in upper primary (classes 6 to 8) in 3479 Educationally Backward Blocks (EBBs). This expansion covered around 1.7 billion youngsters in upper elementary school. From 2008-09, i.e., as of 1st April 2008, the programme will include all students enrolled in Government, Local Body, and Government-aided elementary and upper primary schools, as well as EGS/AIE centres, Madarsas, and Maqtabas sponsored by SSA in all regions of the nation. Providing 150 grams of food grains (rice/wheat) per child/school day will provide a minimum of 700 calories and 20 grams of protein for a midday meal at the upper primary level.

5. As of 2009, the following modifications have been made to enhance the scheme's implementation:
- The quantity of pulses has been increased from 25 grams to 30 grams, the quantity of vegetables has been increased from 65 grams to 75 grams, and the quantity of oil and fat has been decreased from 10 grams to 7.5 grams in order to ensure that children in the upper primary group have a balanced and nourishing diet.
 - As of 1.12.2009, the cooking cost (excluding labour and administrative fees) has been increased from Rs.1.68 to Rs.2.50 for primary students and from Rs.2.20 to Rs.3.75 for upper primary students in order to facilitate the provision of nutritious meals in the prescribed quantity and quality to eligible students. The cooking cost for is Rs. 2.69 per child per day and Rs. 4.03 for upper primary children from 1.4.2010. The cooking cost will be revised with prior approval from competent authority by 7.5% every financial year from 1.4.2011.
 - The honorarium for cooks and helpers/assistants was covered by the labour and other administrative fees of Rs. 0.40 per child per day covered by the cost of cooking. In a few instances, the honorarium was so little that it was quite difficult to find somebody to prepare the lunch. Since December 1, 2009, a separate payment component of Rs.1,000 per month per cook-cum-helper was in place. The cook's assistant will get an honorarium at the above-mentioned amount. In certain states, however, the honorarium given to cook-cum-helper is more than Rs. 1,000/-. The following guidelines have been established for the hiring of cook-cum-helpers:
 - a) One cook- cum-helper for schools up to 25 students.
 - b) Two cooks-cum-helpers for schools with 26 to 100 students.
 - c) One additional cook-cum-helper for every addition of upto 100 students.
 - During 2016-17, more over 25.25 million cooks and cooks' helpers were employed by states and union territories to prepare and serve midday meals to children in elementary schools:
 - A cooking shed construction unit cost of Rs. 60,000 for the whole nation was unrealistic and insufficient. Now, the cost of building a kitchen-commodities-store will be evaluated using the plinth area standard and the State Schedule of Rates. The Department of School Education and Literacy, by letter No.1-1/2009-Desk (MDM) dated 31 December 2009, had mandated a plinth space of 20 square metres for schools with up to 100 students. For every extra 100 youngsters, 4 square metres of plinth space will be added. States and territories have the discretion to adjust the Slab of 100 children according to local conditions.
 - Due to the tough physical terrain of Special Category States, the transportation cost of Rs. 1.25 per quintal was insufficient to cover the real cost of transporting foodgrains from FCI warehouses to schools in these states. On the request of the North Eastern States, the assistance for transportation in the 11 Special Category States (Northern Eastern States, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, and Uttarakhand) has been brought to parity with the Public Distribution System (PDS) rates prevalent in these states as of December 1, 2009.
 - The present procedure for the Government of India to pay FCI for the cost of foodgrains is susceptible to delays and danger. Since 1.4.2010, the decentralisation of payment of

the cost of foodgrains to the FCI at the district level has enabled authorities at the State and National levels to concentrate on the Scheme's rigorous monitoring.

4.4. Social Security and Flagship Programme



Figure 4.5 Major Social security Programmes

National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP)

The National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP) is a Centrally Sponsored Scheme of the Government of India that offers social pensions to senior citizens, widows, and those with disabilities. The National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP) is a major step towards the realisation of Article 41's Directive Principles. The programme developed a National Policy for Social Assistance for the Poor and seeks to guarantee a minimum national standard for social assistance in addition to the benefits that states already give or may provide in the future.

Components

The National Assistance Program is comprised of the following five sub-schemes:

1. Indira Gandhi National Pension Program (IGNOAPS)

The Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Program (IGNOAPS) is a non-contributory old age pension scheme for below-poverty-line residing Indians aged 60 or older. IGNOAPS is available to all adults over the age of 60 who live below the poverty level. All IGNOAPS recipients aged 60 to 79 get a Rs. 300 monthly pension (Rs. 200 by central government and Rs. 100 by state government). Those aged 80 and above get a monthly pension of Rs. 500. States are strongly advised to pay an extra sum at least equal to the support provided by the central government so that recipients get a sufficient level of aid.

2. National Indira Gandhi Widow Pension Plan (IGNWPS)

Introduced in 2009, the Indira Gandhi National Widow Income Scheme (IGNWPS) pays a monthly pension of Rs. 200 per beneficiary to BPL (Below Poverty Line) widows between the ages of 40 and 64 (later

reduced to 40 to 59). After age 60, they are eligible for pension under the Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme (IGNOAPS). They should reach 2000 points. This initiative was initiated by the Ministry of Rural Development in 2007.

3. National Disability Pension Scheme of India (IGNDPS)

Dated 22-11-2000, the Indira Gandhi National Disability Pension Scheme (IGNDPS) provides financial support to severely ill and handicapped individuals.

- The impaired individual's age must be under 64 years old.
- Must have at least an 80% disability.
- The family income of the handicapped person must not exceed 16 (Sixteen) on the BPL (Below Poverty List) list for rural and urban regions, and the disabled person must hold the BPL (Below Poverty List) beneficiary mark according to the Urban Development rules.
- Minimum of ten years as a permanent resident of Gujarat State
- Must have a State-issued Identification Card for the handicapped.

4. National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS)

In the case of the death of a household breadwinner, the grieving family will get a lump amount of \$40,000. The age of the breadwinner should have been between 18 and 64 years old. Whenever the major breadwinner of a home passes away, the support would be offered.

In our nation, every effort is made to assist the underprivileged in escaping poverty. However, there are instances when the poor cannot wait for the advantages of development programmes to reach them; for example, imagine the untimely loss of a family's major earner and the resulting helplessness of the family. Such a family needs quick support to escape poverty. The government has enacted the National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS) to aid impoverished families impacted by the accidental or natural loss of a major breadwinner. The programme gives the impacted family with a kind of immediate compensation to assist them in escaping the circumstance. It is, however, just a one-time support for afflicted families.

5. Annapurna Scheme

In 2000-2001, the Ministry of Rural Development initiated the programme. Indigent elderly adults aged 65 or older who are entitled for old age pension under the National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS) but are not receiving the pension are insured and provided with 10 kilograms of food grains per person per month free of charge.

Flagship Programme

The term flagship refers to the finest or most significant asset or product of a certain firm. Similarly, the government's flagship programmes are those programmes that address the nation's most pressing issues in the health, education, environment, irrigation, urban and rural development, employment, and other areas. As these initiatives are of the highest significance, their financing is significantly more than that of other programmes.

The Union Cabinet or the Development Evaluation Advisory Committee (DEAC) of Planning Commission declares these programmes. The DEAC may sometimes change the flagship schemes. The ultimate goal of these programmes is to promote a widespread increase in the living conditions of our citizens and to guarantee that growth is well distributed.

Here are some of the government's most significant flagship programmes:

Digital India Programme

Digital India is a programme designed to turn India into a digital society and knowledge-based economy. Digital India is transformative in character and will make government services accessible online to individuals. It will also increase public accountability through required electronic delivery of government services, a Unique ID, and e-Pramaan based on legitimate, standard-based, interoperable, and integrated government apps and data. The initiative will be implemented in stages.

In the mid-1990s, the path of e-Government projects in India expanded to include larger sectoral applications with a focus on citizen-centric services. Later, a number of States/UTs initiated a variety of e-Government initiatives. Despite the fact that these e-Government programmes were citizen-centric, they may not have had the expected effect. In 2006, the Indian government announced the National e-Government Plan (NeGP). Initiated were 31 Mission Mode Projects across several disciplines. Despite the successful deployment of several e-Government initiatives around the nation, e-Government as a whole has been unable to have the anticipated effect and achieve all of its goals.

Pradhan Mantri Suraksha Bima Yojana

PMBSY is an accident insurance programme funded by the Indian government. It was officially inaugurated in Kolkata in May 2015 by Prime Minister Modi. This programme aims to offer inexpensive insurance coverage for impoverished and disadvantaged individuals between the ages of 18 and 70. A applicant is required to have a bank account in order to participate in this programme. The yearly premium for PMBSY is 12 Rupees, exclusive of all taxes. This programme is free from the Goods and Services Tax. The Pradhan Mantri Suraksha Bima Yojana is a social security programme for persons living below the poverty line. Accidents occur regardless of a person's socioeconomic status and are immediately deducted from the account.

The following are the characteristics of this scheme:

- a) The accidental death insurance coverage is annually renewed.
- b) The yearly premium is twelve rupees. This price excludes the 14% service tax that is assessed.
- c) Coverage of up to Rs.2 lakh is provided to the subscriber's nominee if he or she dies or becomes permanently incapacitated as a result of an accident.
- d) The premium is automatically deducted from the subscriber's bank account.
- e) The subscriber may choose the long-term option or renew the plan annually.
- f) The subscriber may opt out of the programme at any time and may join at any point in the future.

Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana

The Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY) is the National Mission for Financial Inclusion to provide inexpensive access to banking/savings/deposit accounts, remittance, credit, insurance, and pension. Any bank branch or Business Correspondent (Bank Mitr) outlet may establish an account. Accounts established under PMJDY are opened with zero balance. However, if the account holder wants a chequebook, he or she must meet minimum balance requirements.

Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana is a government-run welfare programme administered by the Department of Financial Services, Ministry of Finance. Under this programme, almost 1.5 billion bank accounts were established on the day of its launch. Additionally, the accomplishment was recognised by the Guinness Book of World Records. This plan, which was launched in August 2014, aims to make financial services like as bank accounts, remittances, loans, insurance, and pensions more accessible.

Objectives

- I: Universal availability of financial services
- II. Providing RuPay Debit Cards

- III. Promoting Financial Literacy
- IV. Establishing a Credit Guarantee Fund
- V. Micro-insurance
- VI. Unorganized sector pension plans

Beti Bachao Beti Padhao

Beti Bachao, Beti Padhao (translation: Save the daughter, educate the daughter) is a programme of the Indian government that seeks to raise awareness and enhance the efficacy of social services for females in India. Child Sex Ratio (CSR) between 0-6 years has reached an all-time low of 918, according to statistics from the 2011 Census. The problem of CSR decrease is a crucial indication of women's disempowerment since it represents both pre-birth discrimination expressed in gender-biased sex selection and post-birth discrimination against girls (in form of their health, nutrition, educational needs). The primary reason why the Child Sex Ratio is so unfavourable is the low Sex Ratio at Birth (SRB). Social constructs that discriminate against females, on the one hand, and the simple availability, low cost, and consequent abuse of diagnostic techniques, on the other hand, have been significant factors in the decline of CSR. The situation has been exacerbated by strong sociocultural and theological prejudices, a predilection for boys, and discrimination against girls.

Prime Minister Narendra Modi announced Beti Bachao Beti Padhao in January 2015 in Panipat, Haryana, as a comprehensive initiative to address the decreasing Child Sex Ratio (CSR) and associated Women Empowerment concerns. The objective of the Beti Bachao Beti Padhao initiative is to enhance the status of women in India through increasing women's empowerment. It involves the Ministries of Women and Child Development, Health and Family Welfare, and Human Resource Development.

Beti Bachao Beti Padhao is an initiative of the Indian government aimed at reducing female foeticide and raising awareness about the issue. The programme also intends to improve the efficacy of social programmes for women. Other aims include eliminating gender-based sex-selective elimination, honouring the girl child and facilitating her education, and assuring the female child's education and engagement.

Objectives

- I. To end discrimination against girls and the use of sex determination tests
- II. To prevent gender biased sex selective elimination
- III. To ensure survival and protection of the girl child
- IV. To ensure the participation of girls in education and other areas

Components

Two essential components comprise the Beti Bachao Beti Padhao (BBBP) project.

- (I) Mass Communication Campaign and
- (II) Multi-sectoral action in 100 selected districts (as a pilot) with adverse CSR, covering all States and UTs.

Pradhan Mantri Kaushal Vikas Yojana (PMKVY)

The Pradhan Mantri Kaushal Vikas Yojana (PMKVY) is the Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship's flagship programme (MSDE). The purpose of this Skill Certification Scheme is to allow a large number of Indian youth to pursue industry-relevant skill training, therefore improving their standard of living. Under Recognition of Previous Learning, individuals with prior learning experience or skills will also be tested and certified (RPL). Under this Scheme, the government pays for all Training and Assessment costs.

Objectives

- I. To enable and organise a significant number of youngsters to enrol in industry-specific, high-quality skill training, become employed, and support themselves.
- II. To increase the productivity of the current workforce and connect skill training with the country's real requirements.
- III. To encourage the standardisation of the Certification procedure and provide the groundwork for establishing a register of abilities.
- IV. To benefit 10 million youth during a four-year period (2016- 2020).

Salient Features

1. Common Standards
2. Mechanism of Payment
3. Accreditation and Affiliation of Centres
4. Target Allocation
5. Mobilisation
6. Enrolment, Instruction, Training and Curriculum
7. Evaluations and Certifications
8. Marketing and Public Relations
9. Re-Evaluation of Candidates
10. Mentorship and Placement
11. Monitoring
12. Grievance Redressal
13. Assistance for Special Areas or Groups

Components

1. Short-Term Education

The Short-Term Training provided at PMKVY Training Centres (TCs) is anticipated to help individuals of Indian nationality who have either dropped out of high school or college or are jobless. In addition to offering training in accordance with the National Skills Qualification Framework (NSQF), TCs must also teach Soft Skills, Entrepreneurship, Financial Literacy, and Digital Literacy. The training duration varies per position, ranging from 150 to 300 hours. Training Partners will give placement help to applicants upon successful completion of their exam (TPs). Under PMKVY, the government pays for all training and evaluation costs. Payments must be made to the TPs in accordance with the Common Norms. Trainings provided under the Scheme's Short-Term Training component must be at or below NSQF Level 5.

2. Prior Learning Accreditation

The Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) component of the Scheme will test and certify individuals with prior learning experience or skills. RPL seeks to match the competences of the country's unregulated workforce with the NSQF. Project Implementing Entities (PIAs), including Sector Skill Councils (SSCs) or other agencies recognised by MSDE/NSDC, should be encouraged to execute RPL projects in any of the three Project Types (RPL Camps, RPL at Employers Premises and RPL centres). To alleviate knowledge gaps, PIAs may offer RPL applicants Bridge Courses.

3. Unique Projects

The Special Projects component of PMKVY entails the creation of a platform that will facilitate trainings in special areas and/or premises of Government bodies, Corporates, or Industry bodies, as well as trainings in special job roles that are not defined by the available Qualification Packs (QPs)/National Occupational Standards (NOSs). Special Projects are those that need a departure from the requirements

and conditions of Short Term Training under the PMKVY for any stakeholder. A proposed stakeholder may be Government Institutions of Central or State Government(s)/Autonomous Entity/Statutory Body or any other analogous body or corporations wishing to teach candidates.

4. Kaushal and Rozgar Mela

Social and community mobilisation is vital to the success of the PMKVY. The active engagement of the community provides openness and accountability and facilitates the use of the community's accumulated knowledge for improved operation. In accordance with this, PMKVY places a premium on the targeted beneficiaries' participation in a well-defined mobilisation process. TPs are supposed to organise Kaushal and Rozgar Melas every six months, with press/media coverage, and to actively engage in National Career Service Melas and on-the-ground activities.

5. Placement Guidelines

PMKVY intends to connect the aptitude, desire, and knowledge of the skilled workforce it develops with market job prospects and needs. The PMKVY TCs must thus make every effort to offer placement opportunities for applicants who have been trained and certified under the Scheme. TPs must also contribute to the growth of entrepreneurship.

6. Monitoring Guidelines

NSDC and empanelled Inspection Agencies should employ multiple approaches, including self-audit reporting, call validations, surprise visits, and monitoring via the Skills Development Management System, to guarantee that PMKVY TCs maintain high quality standards (SDMS). These approaches will be improved by the use of cutting-edge technology.

4.5. Area Development Programmes

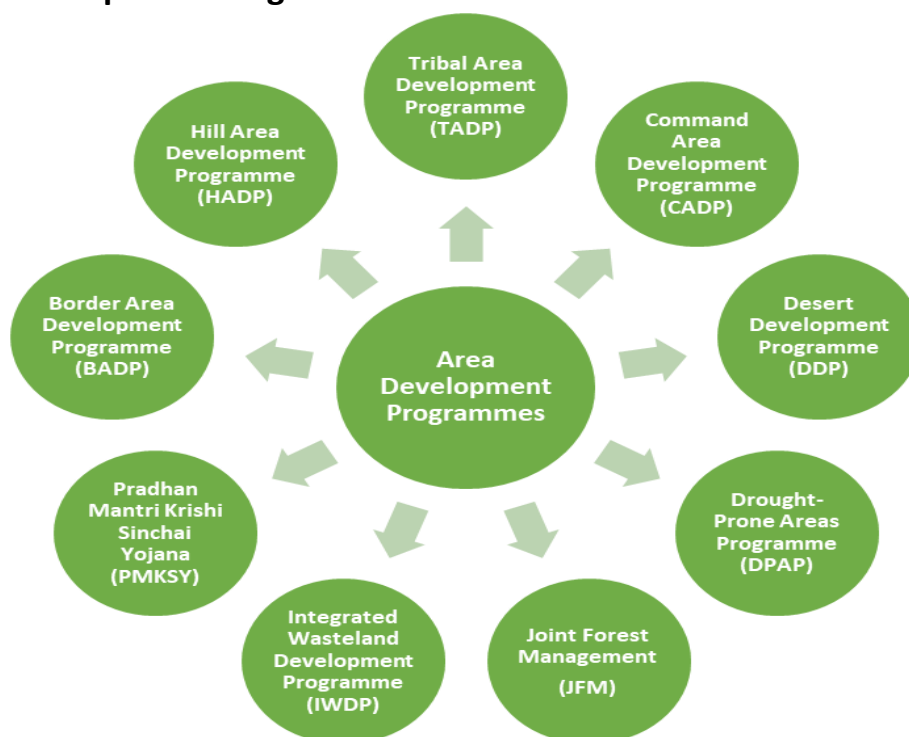


Figure 4.6: Major Area Development Programmes

Desert Development Programme (DDP)

Department of Land Resources, Ministry of Rural Development's Desert Development Programme (DDP) seeks to reduce the negative impact of drought and combat desertification by revitalising the natural resource base of the specified desert regions. The programme is sponsored on a 75:25 basis by the Central and State governments. The DDP encompasses 235 blocks in 40 districts across 7 states.

The DDP is currently implemented on a watershed basis, similar to the DPAP, in accordance with the new watershed development principles. In sandy regions, the planning unit for area development is a cluster of communities on an index catchment. In sandy regions, sand dune stabilisation and shelter belt planting are the most important operations, in addition to the development of dairy, irrigation infrastructure, forestry, and pastures. This programme receives a 100 percent funding from the Center. North-western India, Rajasthan, and neighboring states gain the most from it.

Objectives

- i. To combat desertification in desert regions by integrating and coordinating with other relevant state and central programmes
- ii. To conserve, develop, and use land water and other resources, especially precipitation, for the long-term restoration of ecological equilibrium

Drought-Prone Areas Programme (DPAP)

In 1973, the Drought-Prone Areas Programme (DPAP) was initiated. The programme seeks to maximise the use of land, water, and cattle resources, to restore ecological balance, and to stabilise the incomes of the population, especially the poorer members of society. Some of the important elements of the programme include:

- (ii) Soil and moisture conservation measures, (iii) A forestation with special emphasis on social and farm forestry, (iv) Development of pasture lands and range management in conjunction with development of sheep husbandry, (v) Live-stock development and dairy development, (vi) Restructuring of cropping pattern and changes in agronomic practices, and (vii) Development of subsidiary occupations.

Since 1995-96, the programme has been administered on a watershed project basis in accordance with revised Watershed Development principles. Local residents are participating in the design and development of the watershed project. Seventy-five percent of the authorised cost of the watershed is released to and used by the Watershed Committee.

During the span of four years (from 1995-1996 to 1998-1999), 4,995 watershed development projects were planned. The Central portion of DPAP budget for 1996-97 and 1997-98 is 125 and 115 crore rupees, respectively. This initiative was established during the fourth five-year plan with the goals of producing productive assets and providing jobs in drought-prone regions. This initiative initially prioritised the development of labor-intensive civil works. Later, the focus shifted to irrigation projects, land development programmes, afforestation, grassland development, and the construction of essential rural infrastructure, including power, roads, markets, credit, and services. The National Committee for Development of Backward Areas evaluated the effectiveness of this initiative. It has been noticed that this programme focuses primarily on restoring ecological balance via the expansion of agriculture and associated industries. There is a need to establish alternative job options in drought-prone regions due to the fact that increasing population pressure forces society to use marginal lands for agriculture, consequently creating ecological deterioration. Micro-level integrated watershed development is one of the additional techniques for the development of these regions.

The primary purpose of the Drought-Prone Areas Programme is to mitigate the consequences of drought via an integrated development of the region and the use of relevant technology. It focuses mostly on irrigation projects, land development programmes, afforestation, grassland development, rural electricity, and other infrastructure development programmes pertaining to roads, markets, credit, service, etc. Each state has developed its own organisational structure for the plan for drought-prone areas. The District Planning Board of Maharashtra is responsible for the program's implementation. A decision of the State Government of Karnataka has established a district authority with the Divisional Commissioner as its chairman. Under this scheme, Tamil Nadu has established a District Development Corporation for one of the two districts.

The Desert Development Programme seeks to halt the degradation of desert regions and increase the productivity of local resources in order to increase the income and employment levels of the local population. The scheme is being conducted in both the country's hot and cold desert zones. The initiative focuses on combating desertification by restoring ecological balance, stabilising sand dunes, and facilitating soil and water conservation. The initiative employs a number of methods to support the cattle economy, including the planting of shelterbelts, the use of water collection techniques, and the creation of pastures. It is planned to promote innovative land use for forage crops, pastures, and fuel and forage plants.

Consistent with the biological constraints of the area, this diversification may substantially boost the economics of arid regions. In the cold, arid regions of Ladakh and Spiti, activities such as irrigated agriculture and enhanced animal husbandry would be encouraged. In 1977-78, the Desert Development Program (DDP) was initiated. It has 227 development blocks in 36 districts and a total area of 4,574,322 square kilometres across seven states. These states include Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Karnataka and Rajasthan. A number of projects have been designated and approved for execution in certain locations under the programme.

All of these projects are expected to be finished within four years. There are now 1,747 Watershed Projects in various phases of development in seven programme states. Currently, the programme is entirely funded by the central government (75:25 bases in hot arid areas between centre and the state). The funding is allocated to DRDAAs and ZPs for watershed project design and development. Eighty percent of the total budget is sent to the bank accounts of the Watershed Committees and Gram Panchayats responsible for implementing the programme.

Objectives

- To minimize the adverse effects of drought on the production of crops, livestock and productivity of land, water and human resources with drought proofing techniques
- To promote economic development and improve the socio-economic conditions of vulnerable groups.

Command Area Development Programme (CADP)

The Command Area Development Programme is an integrated strategy to developing the command areas of the country's big and minor irrigation projects. The objective of the initiative is to close the gap between built irrigation capacity and its usage in the command area.

In 1974-75, the plan was initiated as a Centrally-sponsored scheme with the primary goals of enhancing agricultural productivity and output from irrigated regions by unifying all tasks linked to irrigated agriculture and maximising usage of irrigation potential. In 1974, the CAD programme was first

implemented in the Indira Gandhi Canal Command Area. During the Fifth Plan (1974-1978), 38 command area development administrations were established to oversee 50 irrigation projects.

By the end of March 1980, the number of CAD Authorities had risen to 143. As of March 1998, the overall number of command area development projects had reached 217, with a cultivable command area (CCA) of 21.78 million hectares distributed throughout 23 states and 2 union territories. The Programme includes the implementation of on-farm development projects such as the installation of Field channels and Field drains, land levelling and contouring, and the concurrent use of surface and groundwater. Warabandi, or the rotating method of water distribution, is used to ensure that farmers get an equal and timely supply of water.

Farmers are urged to participate in adaptive trials, demonstrations, and training in order to spread technical knowledge for developing acceptable cropping patterns, enhancing agricultural methods, and preserving soil health. Other characteristics of command area development include the preparation of input supply plans for credit, seeds, fertilisers, and pesticides, the updating of land records, the construction of roads, and the promotion of ancillary activities such as marketing, processing facilities, animal husbandry, and farm forestry.

Diversification of the crop pattern is also emphasised so that water is used optimally and land production is enhanced. During such diversion Frication, focus would be placed on the production of oil seeds, pulses, etc., in an effort to reduce their deficit as much as feasible.

Under the CAD programme, the Ministry of Water Resources is also introducing and supporting participatory irrigation management in the CAD Projects by raising awareness and giving financial support to farmer's groups. Reclamation of flooded regions in irrigated commands is another essential component of the programme.

Integrated Wasteland Development Programme (IWDP)

Land is the most significant natural resource, upon which all human activity depends. However, man's inexorably ongoing growth has significantly degraded our land resource base. Additionally, land is impacted by numerous types of soil erosion, degradation, and deforestation. Estimates range from 38.40 million to 187 million hectares for the total area affected by land degradation. The National Remote Sensing Agency (NRSA) of the Department of Space in Hyderabad has estimated the size of the country's wastelands to be 63.85 million hectares, or around 20 percent of the country's total land area. The development of wastelands is crucial for maximising the potential of accessible land resources and preventing future deterioration. Complex and multidimensional, the issue of degraded land and its management necessitates a scientific, comprehensive, and inventive solution. The dilemma is whether such land is really unusable or if it may be reclaimed for agriculture. This section attempts to clarify the guiding concepts, fundamental characteristics, and institutional structure for Integrated Wasteland Development Programme execution.

According to the 1987 Report of the Technical Task Group constituted by the Planning Commission, wastelands are "degraded lands that can be brought under vegetative cover with reasonable efforts and that are currently under utilised, as well as land that is deteriorating due to a lack of appropriate water and soil management or natural causes."

The following factors contribute to degradation -

- i) Increasing biotic pressure on the fragile ecosystem
- ii) Population pressure, unplanned urbanization and rural poverty

- iii) Breakdown of traditional institutions that manage the Common Property Resources
- iv) Lack of appropriate management practices

Objectives

The primary objective of the initiative is to improve the nation's wastelands and degraded areas in an integrated way through village/micro watershed remediation programmes. Specifically, the programme intends to achieve the following goals:

- 1) Developing wastelands/degraded lands on watershed basis, keeping in view the capability of land, site-conditions and local needs.
- 2) Promoting the overall economic development and improving the socio-economic condition of the resource poor and disadvantaged sections inhabiting the programme areas.
- 3) Restoring ecological balance by harnessing, conserving and developing natural resources, i.e. land, water, vegetative cover.
- 4) Encouraging village community:
 - a) To undertake sustained community action for the operation and maintenance of assets created and to further the development of the potential of the natural resources in the watershed;
 - b) To adopt simple, easy and affordable technological solutions and institutional arrangements that make use of, and build upon, local technical knowledge and available materials.
- 5) Employment generation, poverty alleviation, community empowerment and development of human and other economic resources of the village.

(Source: egyankosh.ac.in)

Pradhan Mantri Krishi Sinchai Yojana (PMKSY)

The Pradhan Mantri Krishi Sinchai Yojana is a nationwide initiative that aims to increase agricultural output and better use the nation's resources. A budget of 53 billion (\$770 million) has been allotted to this programme for the 2015-2016 fiscal year. The decision was made during a meeting of the Cabinet Committee on Economic Affairs (CCEA) on 1 July 2015, which was chaired by Prime Minister Narendra Modi. The expenditure of 50000 crore rupees over a five-year period has been authorised (2015-16 to 2019-20).

The programme will be managed and monitored by an Inter-Ministerial National Steering Committee (NSC), which will be formed under the leadership of the Prime Minister and comprised of Union Ministers from the relevant Ministries. Under the leadership of the Vice Chairman of NITI Aayog, a National Executive Committee (NEC) would be established to supervise programme execution, resource allocation, inter-ministerial coordination, monitoring and performance evaluation, administrative concerns, etc.

The agriculture industry has a significant impact on India's economy. Each year, a large population fundamentally need an increase in food production. This reliance is most evident in years when a below-average rainfall causes food costs to soar.

Objectives

- Convergence of investment in irrigation at the field level
- Expand cultivable area under irrigation
- Improve On-farm water use efficiency to reduce wastage of water
- Enhance the adoption of being precise in irrigation and other water saving technologies (more crop per drop)

(Source: pmksy.gov.in)

Joint Forest Management

Joint Forest Management, abbreviated JFM, is the official and commonly used name in India for collaborations in forest movement including state forest agencies and local communities. Joint Forest Management (JFM) is an approach and programme initiated within the context of the National Forest Policy of 1988, in which state forest departments assist local forest-dwelling and forest-fringe communities in protecting and managing forests and sharing the costs and benefits of forests with them. Communities form a JFM Committee to conserve and manage neighbouring woods in accordance with locally drafted bylaws and micro plans. The most important aspect of JFM is that communities have the authority to govern forest usage by members and exclude non-members. The advantages include direct access and control over the use and sale of the majority of NTFPs, a portion of the revenue from wood, and other intangible benefits from local ecosystem services, such as water recharge, pollination, and animal habitat. Therefore, community participation in forest and animal protection is of essential importance.

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Communities' centrality to forest conservation and management was acknowledged in the National Forest Policy of 1988, which resulted in the 1 June 1990 JFM Circular and the 2000 and 2002 Guidelines, which established the basis for state level regulations, resolutions, and guidelines for JFM. The Panchayati Raj Act, the Private Forestry Enterprises Act, and the Forest Rights Act of 2006 enhanced the rights and obligations of local people in relation to forests.

The reasoning and logic behind JFM is that the previous model of government control of forests by states placed the responsibility of preservation and management on forest department personnel and excluded uninterested local residents. Simultaneously, woods were redirected for other purposes. In the 1970s and 1980s, population growth led to rapid forest degradation and loss, and the first State of the Forest Report, issued in 1987, emphasised the effect on forest cover. The fact that working plan prescriptions expected protection after felling, which was almost impossible to implement and led to poor regeneration, may have been a significant factor. The initial JFM trials in West Bengal were successful because they included local people and guaranteed them both a short-term alternative income and a long-term participation in the wood.

India is the seventh biggest nation in the world, with a total land area of 3,280,000 square kilometres, of which 23% is covered by forest. Forest cover is necessary for both the sustenance of life and the preservation of ecological, biological, and environmental balance. Concern for forest conservation, animal preservation, and people's engagement in the protection and management of forests has risen during the last three decades. In reality, the 1980s are believed to have marked a paradigm change in India's forest policies and laws. The passage of the Forest Conservation Act in 1980 was followed by a variety of steps to launch a community-supported forest conservation movement in India.

The National Forest Policy of 1988 was the first attempt to establish guidelines for community involvement in forest management. The 1988 revision of the National Forest Policy considers the symbiotic link between forests and indigenous locals, as well as their involvement in the conservation, regeneration, and development of forests. This was the first stage in the shift from government-managed to community-managed forests. In June 1990, the Indian government issued a circular to implement the relevant aspects of the National Forest Policy of 1988. So was born Joint Forest Management. As of now, "Participatory Forestry Management" is an intrinsic component of forest governance and management. Under the Joint Forest Management (JFM) programme, local communities and the government (Forest Department) manage forest lands on a care and share basis. In addition to Non-Timber Forest Products, the locals get bamboo, tiny timbers, and a percentage of the ultimate timber harvest for their assistance in forest growth and conservation (NTFPs).

People in Gujarat have a long history of interest in forest conservation. Resolution of Forest & Environment Department, Govt. of Gujarat No. FCA-1090-125-V (3) dated 13/3/1991 and Resolution of Forest & Environment Department, Govt. of Gujarat No. FCA-1090-125-K (Part-3) dated 27/6/1994 implement Joint Forest Management in the state of Gujarat. The first Resolution emphasised the village organization's obligation to safeguard forest area from unwanted encroachment, illegal cutting, and grazing. This has had a significant impact on forest growth and conservation and has been positively received by the population. Joint Forest Management (JFM) will be expanded to excellent forest areas with tree densities over 0.40, in addition to degraded forest areas, in accordance with Resolution of Forest & Environment Department, Government of Gujarat No. JFM-1005-191-G dated 17 December 2005.

Objectives

1. To involve all the stakeholders in the preservation conservation of forest and restoration of degraded forests.
2. To ensure effective coordination between the state governments and local communities who are dependent on forests.
3. To use JFM to prevent soil erosion and deforestation.

Villagers in turn are entitled to intermediary benefits like non-timber forest produces.

Border Area Development Programme (BADP)

The Border Area Development Programme (BADP) has been implemented through 17 States (viz. Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand and West Bengal) which constitute the International Land Borders.

The major issues with which India's borders are plagued with include – poor accessibility, economic backwardness, sense of insecurity among people living in border areas etc. Thus, development of the border areas was envisaged as an important element of the border management policy of the government. In this direction, the Border Area Development Programme (BADP) was started as early as 1987 along with India-Pakistan border.

The Border Area Development Programme (BADP) was initiated in western region of country, for ensuring balanced development of border areas through development of infrastructure and promotion of wellbeing and a sense of security among the border population. The programme has been expanded since to cover the border blocks of the 17 States (including 8 North Eastern States), which have international land borders with Pakistan, China, Nepal, Bhutan, Myanmar and Bangladesh. The

development of border areas is now viewed as a part of the comprehensive approach to the Border Management, which focuses on socio-economic development of the people and promotion of wellbeing and a security environment in the border areas.

Border Area Development Programme (BADP) was implemented in Mizoram in 1993-1994. BADP is implemented in 16 R.D Blocks whose geographical area totals 12665.09 sq.kms. Of these, 11 R.D Blocks are situated along the Indo-Myanmar border and the rest 5(five) R.D Blocks are along the Indo-Bangladesh border.

The programme is supplemental in nature to fill the gaps and the funds under BADP are provided to the States as a 100% non-lapsable Special Central Assistance for execution of projects relating to infrastructure, livelihood, education, health, agriculture, and allied sectors to meet the special developmental needs of the people living in remote and inaccessible areas situated near the international border.

The BADP is being implemented by the Department of Border Management, Ministry of Home Affairs through the State Governments. Guidelines of the programme are prepared by the Ministry of Home Affairs in consultation with Planning Commission, Ministry of Finance and concerned State Governments. Formulation of schemes/projects, their approval and execution is the primary responsibility of the State Governments. Implementation of the Programme is monitored and reviewed by the State Governments and Ministry of Home Affairs.

(Source: badp.mha.gov.in/)

Objectives

- To create infrastructure in border areas
- To provide economic opportunities to people living in the vicinity of the border
- To instil a sense of security among the people living in border areas

Hill Area Development Programme (HADP)

The mountainous regions of Uttar Pradesh (now Uttarakhand), Assam's Mikir Hill and North Cachar hills, West Bengal's Darjiling district, and Tamil Nadu's Nilgiri district were all included in the Fifth Five Year Plan's Hill Region Development Projects. All of the country's hill regions with a height over 600 m that aren't included in the tribal sub-plan were designated as "backward hill areas" by the National Committee for the Development of Backward Area in 1981. Topographical, ecological, social, and economic circumstances informed the development strategies for hill regions. These initiatives sought to improve horticulture, plantation agriculture, animal husbandry, poultry, forestry, and small-scale and village industries in the hill regions so as to make better use of the region's natural resources.

The hill areas in India constitute roughly 17 per cent of the country's total land mass and about 11 percent (62.15 million in 1981) of its total population.

These areas broadly fall into two categories: (1) those that are co-extensive with the boundaries of the State or the Union Territory, and (2) those which form a part of a State. The first category includes the states and union territories of the North-Eastern Region, Jammu and Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh. These are termed as 'Special Category States' whose outlays are met, substantially out of Central assistance.

Government has set up the North Eastern Council in 1971 by an Act of Parliament. The Council takes up such schemes as are of common interest to more than one State or Union Territory and to the region as a whole under its development plans. The Council has played an important role in the For the

integrated development of the hill states and union territories of the North-Eastern region, the Central development on inter-regional programmes of power generation and transmission, construction of roads, agriculture, animal husbandry, fisheries etc. It has been supporting research and experimental projects. A training infrastructure is being built up for manpower development in the region under the auspices of the Council.

Hill areas forming part of larger composite State occur in Assam, Uttaranchal (formerly Uttar Pradesh), and West Bengal in the Himalayan sub- Himalayan region. These incorporate Karbi Anglong and North Cachar districts of Assam (area 15,200 sq.km.), Darjeeling district of West Bengal (area : 2,400 sq. km), and Dehradun, Pauri Garhwal, Tehri Garhwal, Chamoli, Uttarkashi, Almora, Pithoragarh and Nainital districts of Uttaranchal (area :51,100 sq. km). Although the primary responsibility for the development of these hill areas is that of the concerned State Government, the need for Central assistance has been realized as far back as the Second Five Year Plan.

Arrangements for providing Central Assistance to the Hill Areas Development Programme have been further systematized since the commencement of the Fifth Five Year Plan. The Special Central Assistance is being allocated among the constituent States, giving equal weight age to the area and population of the hill areas.

Since the Fifth Plan, the concept of a sub plan has been introduced, in order to ensure complementarity and linkage among the schemes formulated under the various sectors of the State Plan and out of the Centre additive. Another important hill area extends over the Western Ghats region which incorporates 132 talukas in the States of Maharashtra, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Goa and Kerala (area : 134,500 sq. km). Here Central assistance is provided for development programmes in these areas, though the concept of sub-plan has not been introduced. The Tamil Nadu Hill Area is another hill area covering a total area of 2,500 sq. km.

The hills pose problems which are peculiar and different from the problems encountered in the plain area. The terrain, besides cultural and socio-economic diversities, calls for formulation of altogether different methodologies as also norms and planning standards. The formulation of region specific development strategies for the different hill areas of the country requires as a basic pre-condition detailed information about the social, economic, political and cultural features, resource endowment (both human and physical), development potential and their particular problems.

The guiding principles on which the hill area development programmes should be based are the promotion of secure basic life support system and judicious utilization of land, mineral, water and biotic resources in a total perspective embracing interests of the hills and plains. The whole strategy should centre on the active participation of the people, particularly of women, in the fulfilment of their basic needs. The people's involvement can be ensured by encouraging the concept of "social fencing" which implies a voluntary and self-imposed discipline in managing society's resources at a local level.

The hill area programmes place adequate emphasis on exploiting the indigenous resources of the hill through specially designed programmes for the development of horticulture, plantations, agriculture, animal husbandry, poultry, bee-keeping, forestry, soil conservation and suitable village industries. The focus is essentially on a package of activities that could be absorbed by the local people and in themselves interact to produce the desired results. Strengthening of the co-operatives or farmer's service societies has been given great importance. In forestry programme, production forestry such as the plantation programme (for coffee, tea, spices, etc.), agro forestry and social forestry have been emphasized. In the

horticultural programme, it is not merely the development of orchards (apple, grapes, banana etc.), but tying them up with marketing has been emphasized.

In some of these hill areas there is an element of tribal population also and practices like Jhum cultivation are prevalent. In this context, special programmes have been devised to prevent Jhum cultivation and to rehabilitate the Jhumiyas in settled agri-cultivation. Programmes have been initiated for developing plantations of coffee, and rubber etc. (cash crop plantations) and rehabilitating the Jhumiyas in such plantation agriculture, making them progressively owners of the plantation estate.

Animal husbandry programmes need to be appraised keeping in view the stock of animals and availability and status of pastures and forests. The programme needs scientific breeding approach, strong protective and curative animal health cover, and processing and marketing the produce. The hill areas are particularly suited to industries which require pollution free atmospheres, cold climate based on high skills and high value additions like electronic, watch making, optical glass, collapsible furniture, medicines and drugs etc. Cottage industries like carpet manufacture and handlooms are also suitable activities. Along with this tourism is one of the most important industries and it should be properly developed.

The Hill areas, particularly the Himalayan region, is rich in genetic material of medicinal and food plants, fruits, including citrus and a wide range of other economic plants, orchids and other flowers. Some rare wild life occurs in these areas. It would be important to have an integrated strategy for the preservation of the valuable flora and fauna through a chain of biosphere reserves, national parks and gene-sanctuaries.

For the scientific planning of the hill areas vital information on resources, such as occurrence of minerals, soil characteristics, vegetation types, estimation of the volume of surface and sub-surface flow in watersheds, etc., is required. Such information also needs to be constantly updated. Remote-sensing techniques and air-photo interpretation combined with ground truth studies hold great possibilities for this purpose.

A perspective plan spelling out the long-term and short-term developments in the area should be drawn up. Plans should also be drawn up for the regional, sub-regional, taluka (block) and settlement levels. While the use of legal and executive powers provide necessary protection to the environment, it should be made effective, and far more reliance should be placed on people's action to achieve the desired results.

The need for increasing public awareness about the environmental issues and to stimulate public participation in activities for environmental protection has to be emphasized. The concept of eco-development needs to be built into the programmes selected for implementation. Keeping constant need for eco-preservation in view, it is necessary that economic projects located in these areas build into their cost, the cost of eco-restoration. For example, a paper project should include the cost of a forestation and its economic viability determined accordingly.

To summarise, new approaches will have to be introduced for meeting the basic needs of hill people comprising water, food, work, fodder, feed, fuel and fertilizer. Water will have to be harvested in small ponds and reservoirs on a watershed basis and stored for use during winter and spring.

Since the land in the hills is best used for perennial crops, it will be advisable to store the needed food grains in small storage structures at numerous points so that food availability attains the requisite degree of viability for persuading farmers to adopt cultivation of annual crops in steep slopes.

Tribal Area Development Programme (TADP)

The tribal composition of the nation is diverse. In certain regions, a large proportion of the population is comprised of Tribes, whilst in others, they make up a tiny percentage of the population. Some tribal communities are still in the food-gathering phase, while others engage in shifting cultivation and still others may conduct rudimentary kinds of agriculture.

The tribal regions are largely underdeveloped. Their relative seclusion impeded the winds of change; even cultural interactions with the rest of the world brought up several difficulties. It was hypothesised that the alterations seen among the tribes were a result of cultural interaction. Contact with foreign immigrants is an ancient occurrence.

There is a symbolic tie between the Indian tribes and the forestlands. The forests have influenced their habits, religious rituals, social structure, and folklore. They rely on trees for food, medicinal plants, building materials, cooking fuel, illumination, and warmth, as well as fodder for their survival. Even during regular times, the roots, fruits, and flowers enhance the tribal diet significantly. According to the 1991 Census, there are 67.75 million tribals (about 8.08 percent of the total population of India). It has 365 tribes organised into 58 tribal communities. These tribals make up 94.75 percent of Mizoram's population, followed by Lakshadweep (93.15 percent), Nagaland (87.70 percent), Meghalaya (85.33 percent), Dadra and Nagar Haveli (78.99 percent), and Arunachal Pradesh (63.66 per cent). In addition, nine states (Manipur, Tripura, Madhya Pradesh, Sikkim, Orissa, Gujarat, Assam, Rajasthan, and Maharashtra) and two union territories (Daman and Diu and Andaman-Nicobar Islands) have a higher proportion of tribal residents than the national average (8.08 percent).

There are 19 districts (Dhar and Mandla in Madhya Pradesh; Surguja and Bastar in Chhattisgarh; Sundergarh, Mayurbhanj, and Koraput in Orissa; Lahul and Spiti and Kinnaur in Himachal Pradesh; and Sundergarh, Mayurbhanj, and Koraput in Himachal Pradesh). Dungarpur and Banswara in Rajasthan; Ranchi in Jharkhand; Valsad in Gujarat; Kameng, Lohit, and Tirap in Arunachal Pradesh; Mikir Hills and North Cachar Hills in Assam; and Manipur North in Manipur) in the nation where more than fifty percent of the population is tribal. Similarly, Scheduled Tribes constitute the absolute majority in 332 talukas/tahsils throughout the nation.

The north-eastern hills, the Meghalaya-Karbi-Anglong plateau, the Chota Nagpur plateau, the eastern borders of the Aravallis and Vindhyas, the Western Ghats, and the high Himalayan valleys have the highest concentrations of these species. These are mountainous, wooded, and semi-arid regions that are often economically and socially underdeveloped.

Tribal regions have a high degree of natural biodiversity; hence, their development demands and issues are of varying order and kind and need micro-level planning. The tribal area development programme has been designed as an integrated pro" strategy for places having a tribal concentration of at least 50 percent.

The focus is on the construction of a subplan for such places with the following long-term goals:
: (i) to narrow the gap between the levels of development of tribal and other areas, and (ii) to improve the quality of life of the tribal communities. The sub-plan areas have been identified in 19 states and 2 union territories. Extensive areas covered by this programme are in Madhya Pradesh (including Chhattisgarh), Orissa, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar (Jharkhand), and Rajasthan.

The primary sources of funding for the tribal sub-plan are state plan funds, central ministry investments, special central assistance, and institutional financing.

During the formation of the sub-plan, extra efforts are being made to create the programmes so that they are particularly appropriate to the communities residing in these regions and are meant to address the issues they confront. The conditions are that they should benefit the ordinary man, especially the weaker tribes, and be quickly yielding and simple for the typical tribal member to attack. Special issues such as shifting cultivation, forced labour, and land alienation are given a high priority, as are credit and marketing, forestry, and road programmes.

For the tribal sub-plan, the tribal territories have been separated into micro, meso, and macro stages of development. Micro region has been designated as a tribal development block. The "meso area" is made up of many tribal development units. Typically, it shares a boundary with a Taluk, subdivision, or tahsil.

The next-highest level of development management is the "macro area," which encompasses the whole region of tribal concentration in a given state. However, if more than one unique tribal territory exists, there may be more than one macro region for tribal growth.

The first step of the tribal sub-plan is to identify tribal development blocks within the state with a majority tribal population, followed by the formulation of integrated tribal development projects, the earmarking of funds from the central and state plans, and the creation of an appropriate administrative structure and the adoption of appropriate personnel policies.

The programme of the tribal sub-plans would need an increase in agricultural and horticultural output, animal husbandry, forestry, small and village industry production, and marketing. These must be coupled with enhanced post-harvest technologies. Another important issue is the transfer of technology, which would include the gradual adoption of new agricultural, horticultural, and animal husbandry techniques, etc., without harming the tribals' economic foundation. Education should be seen as the cornerstone to human resource development in tribal regions. In addition, the tribe should provide sufficient provisions for essential necessities such as clean drinking water, appropriate housing, health care, and enough nutrition. Their unique health issues, including sickle cell anaemia, goitre, leprosy, and other endemic diseases, need sufficient care. States and union territories get Special Central Assistance (SCA) as part of the Tribal Sub-Plan strategy. During 1997-98, the whole 330-crore budget allocation was disbursed.

For tribals living outside of the sub-plan area and in pockets of concentration, integrated plans of infrastructure development, such as schools, primary health care centres, etc., and family welfare have been implemented. These programmes have been integrated into broader rural development initiatives.

Special consideration must be given to the formulation of project reports and programmes for the primitive tribes. It is necessary to establish a different organisational structure and carefully choose employees to address their challenges with compassion. Monitoring and concurrent assessment arrangements should be strengthened. No consistent tribal cultural and economic development policy can be recommended or implemented. This requires a simultaneous development process in the fields of culture, economics, and political awakening.

In the tribal sub-plan, it is envisioned that the planning efforts of all groups would be merged into a single development programme. However, this is not occurring due to a variety of obstacles. The tribal sub-plan has a tendency to diverge from state-level programmes and become another centrally-funded

initiative. Several adjustment issues have arisen and need rapid action; else, the process of alienation and rootlessness will change tribes and tribal ethos.

Participatory development programmes and constructive political awakening have to be given greater attention. This will eventually and firmly lead to the development and integration of tribal territories into mainstream India.

Summary

Various schemes for rural development and poverty reduction were implemented in the nation as part of numerous five-year plans in an effort to combat rural poverty. These programmes are changed periodically depending on their performance and the circumstances. However, the fundamental aims of each programme remain mostly unchanged. In rural India, poverty and unemployment have decreased as a result of the adoption of these programmes, even if they have not all been entirely successful. Some programmes, especially those geared at area and infrastructure development, were designed to increase rural regions' capital base.

To Do Activities -

1. Visit any near by Panchayat and list ongoing rural development programmes implemented in that Panchayat.
2. Organise one awareness camp on Swachh Bharat Abhiyan in your locality.
3. Contact your nearby block office and meet any Self- Help Group (SHG) and learn its functioning.

Model Questions

1. Discuss the salient features of IRDP.
2. Mention the main features of major Self Employment Generation Programmes.
3. Differentiate between IRDP and SGSY.
4. Mention the objectives of 5 major self-employment programmes.
5. Write salient features of major wage employment programmes in India.
6. What is the importance of PDS in rural development?
7. Write short note about minimum need programmes.
8. What are area development programmes? Mention objectives and salient features of three area development programmes.

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Chapter 5 Case Studies

Introduction

The chapter is an assortment of case studies on rural development programmes in India. The different case studies include - Case Study on Rural Development Experiment in Pre-Independence India : Etawah and Nilokheri Pilot Projects, Case Study on Rural Reconstruction in Pre-Independence India: Gandhi’s Sevagram Experience and Tagore’s Sriniketan Experience, Case Study on Rural Development in Post-Independence India: Ralegan Siddhi experiments of Anna Hazare & Tarun Bharat Sangh experiment of Rajendra Singh, Case Study on Rural Development Planning, and Case Study on Successful Rural Development Programmes In India. The objectives of rural development Programmes are to improve the quality of life of the rural population; to improve the infrastructure of the rural areas; to reduce unemployment by providing opportunities for employment; to provide hygienic environment, clean water, education facilities, electricity and proper communication. A case study is a type of research methodology that produces a thorough, multifaceted knowledge of a complicated problem in its actual setting. It is a well-known research strategy that is widely applied in a range of fields.

Objectives

- To discuss case studies on rural development experiment in pre-independence
- To discuss case studies on rural reconstruction in pre-independence India
- To discuss case studies on rural development in post-independence India
- To discuss case studies on rural development planning
- To discuss case studies on successful rural development programmes

Structure of the Chapter



5.1 Case Study on Rural Development Experiment in Pre-Independence India

Mahewa-Pilot Project – 1948

An experiment was conducted in Mahewa in the Etawah District with the assistance of the skills of American architect Albert Mayer by the Uttar Pradesh Government. The selection of the Mahewa Project was based on the premise that the location chosen should be comparable to any other typical region in the nation, suggesting that the work facilities there were not extraordinary. Mahewa, located twenty-seven kilometres east of Etawah, was the focus of the first region to be explored. The first year of the programme included 70 communities.

The Primary Objective of this Pilot Project

Etawah Pilot Project drew inspiration and direction from the work of the missionaries and other institutions, organisations, and people that existed in the area prior to the Pilot Project and considered their strengths and weaknesses. The primary objective of the Pilot Project, Etawah, was to achieve a synthesis of the good features of the various fragmentary approaches and efforts and to conduct action research experiments to develop suitable programmes, methods, institutions, and administrative patterns for a balanced physical, economic, and social development of rural communities through the combined and systematically planned efforts of local people, government agencies, and voluntary organisations, on an aided and assisted basis.

Objectives

1. To determine the extent to which productive and social progress, as well as initiative, self-confidence, and cooperation, may be accomplished in the village of a district that has not benefited from any particular conditions and resources, such as hydroelectric development or large-scale industry.
2. To determine how soon these achievements may be attained so that they become a permanent part of the mental, spiritual, and technological equipment and viewpoint of the population once the exceptional pressure is withdrawn.
3. To determine if these results, if possible, may be achieved at a cost in material and manpower that is within the reach of the state's current departments and agencies.

Strategy and Methods

The following are some of the fundamental concepts that influenced the strategy and techniques of work in the Pilot Project:

1. Self-help is given priority.
2. concurrent enhancement of physical and human plans
3. democratic attitude and engagement of the people
4. Reproducibility
5. The local potential - the local perceived requirements and the available local resources, supplemented by external resources as the program's base.
6. Integrated and exhaustive approach
7. Gradual progression from simple to complex by means of selectivity, concentration, and time-growth
8. Economic spear head-focus of activities must be chosen, based on the villager's felt-needs, around which we can later expand his horizon of needs
9. Meticulous planning and attainable goals
10. Changes in the attitudes of government officials
11. Institutional cooperation
12. Cooperation between government and non-government agencies

13. Complete information sharing across change agencies
14. Upkeep, follow-up, and personnel takeover
15. Economic programmes as essential pillars of community development
16. Coordination of extension services and supplies
17. Collaboration between social scientists and technicians

In the context of community development, both the technical and social sciences play significant and complementary roles. Both the technical as well as the social sciences have their important and complementary roles to play in community development. The provision of a Rural Life Analyst and social education workers is as vital as that of the men qualified in physical sciences. Thus we find right types of methods and approach being made in the Pilot Project.

Organisation

The employees who participated in the programme were reoriented as the people's servants and not as people's masters. It was a group effort. The "Multipurpose Village Level Worker," who was responsible for numerous activities at his level, was a vital component of the team. The concept of a village labourer was not novel. Brayne had his "Village Guides," while Tagore and Gandhi had their own village workers. However, Mayer's Village Level Worker was more educated and well paid.

Mayer's team also included a rural life analyst who was a professional sociologist. One District Planning Officer and four Deputy Development Officers (Agriculture, Engineering, Training, and Village Participation) worked at the Project headquarters as the other members of the team. They received assistance from two Area Assistant Development Officers and five Assistant Development Officers who were responsible for their respective regions. There were 12 village-level employees in each region, covering around four communities each, who had the most direct interaction with the inhabitants. To keep the employees in contact with the programme and with one another, a regular meeting of the "Team Working Council" was conducted every two weeks, at which all officials and two rotating representatives of the village level workers participated. Panchayat secretaries, co-operative supervisors, adult literacy instructors, and women welfare officials of the region used to attend the separate meetings held by the village-level employees. Discussions were open and choices were made collectively.

Program of Work

The specific work plan included - increasing agricultural production through the use of improved seed varieties, chemical fertilisers, green manuring, composting, improved implements, irrigation, plant protection measures, horticultural development, soil conservation, improved cultural practises, etc.; improving animal husbandry through the upgrading of cattle; providing cooperative services for credit, production, and marketing; better sanitation and health services, the control and eradication of human epidemics, the provision of maternity and child welfare services, the improvement of roads, water-supply, drainage, and other public utility works, the improvement of housing, and last but not least, a broad-based social education programme through the use of adult literacy classes, study tours, field demonstrations, the provision of reading room and library service, one-act plays, competitions, farmers' fairs, and work with women cooperatives.

Results

The initiative has yielded significant results in a variety of disciplines. Various people from other regions of India, as well as numerous nations in Asia, Europe, North America, and Africa, visited the Pilot Project to study its operation with the intention of extending the lessons to other parts of the globe. The Project's success cleared the door for the Indo-US Technical Co-Operation Agreement of 1952 for the extension

of the community Development Programmes on a broad scale, and the first 55 Community Development Projects were hailed on Gandhiji's birthday, October 2, 1952.

Regarding the accomplishments in numerous sectors of the Project, agricultural production has produced amazing results. As outlined in the work plan, various innovations were successfully implemented in the agricultural sector. Animal husbandry, live-stock improvement, and the prevention and eradication of illnesses and epidemics have all achieved comparable levels of success.

The cooperative movement gathered steam. In 1948-49, the project area was covered by 30 societies with 608 members, Rs.3,086/- in share capital, and Rs.10,506/- in loans. By 1961, the entire project area was covered by 265 societies (later reduced to 192 due to mergers into large-size societies) with 23,628 members, Rs.654,580/- in share capital, and Rs.2,410,822/- in loans.

As part of the initiative, co-operative brick-kilns, the production of agricultural equipment, sericulture, and canning and fruit preservation have been established in rural areas. Cooperative brick-kilns have achieved unparalleled success, and the industry expansion has been spectacular.

Additionally, substantial progress has been made in the realm of community works. The input of people was considerable. In addition to a huge number of roads, culverts, drains, school buildings, and other community works, the Shramadan (Gift of labour) organisation was also founded in the project area. In the area of sociology education, village leaders', training camps and study trips have gained popularity, and adult social education courses in the villages, the creation of community centres, and, most importantly, youth programmes have made significant progress. In addition, the general education curriculum achieved significant progress.

In addition to remarkable accomplishments, there were several errors and failures in the pilot experiment. What distinguishes the Etawah project is that errors were not repeated often.

The Effect of Etawah

The Etawah experiment demonstrated that -

- (1) Indian farmers, if persuaded and convinced, could adopt new methods and significantly increase farm yield;
- (2) self-generating rural development work need not necessarily take a very long time;
- (3) planned expenditure on rural development was an investment that yielded measurable economic returns; and
- (4) the Etawah story could be replicated elsewhere. Encouraged by the successes, the government intended to expand the Etawah Program to other regions. Between 1949 and 1951, the original project expanded to encompass more than 300 villages within the same district and was replicated in four centres of Uttar Pradesh.

It has been said that what the Rockdale experiment in England was to the World's co-operation movement, the Etawah project was to the revitalization of the world's peasantry. We must claim that the Etawah experiment started a new chapter in the history of rural reconstruction in India and gave a blueprint for a structure that might be constructed throughout the country.

Motives for Success

Systematic planning and a democratic approach to implementing the programme contributed to its success. Myer's strong leadership was another aspect. His technological expertise contributed to growth in various sectors. As a soldier, he had the essential managerial ability. He meticulously planned, maintained the supply line open, meticulously trained his co-workers, and set goals for accomplishment. Thus, his employees understood the "how," "what," and "when" of the whole initiative. Another aspect

was that he was free of red tape. This whole freedom to experiment provided him with a great deal of action freedom and adaptability. He began by addressing the issue of agricultural productivity, which was also a significant component. Increased yield per acre persuaded the farmer of the value of development efforts. This was one of the most important reasons for Etawah's success, since it provided the essential psychological and economic foundation for subsequent endeavours. Thus, Mayer's (and his associate's) personal traits, his direct approach to Nehru and Patel, and the effectiveness of his agricultural programme were the three most influential reasons in the success of the Etawah experiment. After Mayer's departure, work slackened.

Nilokheri -S. K. Dey-1949

Nilokheri was another pioneering effort that attracted national attention and impacted the C.D. Movement both directly via its example and indirectly through S.K. Dey, the former minister of Community Development and cooperation who was the driving force behind the initiative. The refugee situation was caused by the country's partition, and the government could no longer feed, clothe, and house these thousands of unhappy uprooted individuals forever. They need rehabilitation. From a diverse group of individuals, a new, harmonious civilization had to be fashioned. Kurukshetra, a hundred and fifty kilometres from Delhi on the main route to Ambala, was receiving the majority of the refugees. This monumental burden rested on the capable and eager shoulders of S.K. Dey. S.K. Dey, a foreign-educated engineer with administrative experience, was living among the displaced in Kurukshetra at the time. He was worried about the future of tens of thousands of displaced people. His understanding and familiarity with his own local group assisted him in designing a new civilization. He conducted a study of the camp population, their immediate needs and requirements, as well as their potential. This potential was used to its fullest extent, and one plan followed another, each stressing self-help; thus, a new township and society formed.

On 1100 acres of marshy land that was ceded to the colony in 1948, Nilokheri Township was meant to rehabilitate around 7,000 displaced people. The township was subsequently united with the surrounding 100 villages. The plan was named "Mazdoor Manzil" because it was founded on the principle of "He who would not work neither shall he eat". Right of living was guaranteed. Religion was declared a private affair. The right to live was assured. Religion was deemed a personal matter.

The goal was to achieve fundamental self-sufficiency for the township and nearby communities. A vocational training centre was the epicentre of all activity. The colony had its own cooperatively operated dairy, poultry, printing press, engineering workshop, tannery, and bone-meal mill. In order to staff these cooperative firms, individuals were taught during their vacation of choice. Approximately 750 acres of swampy ground were removed and ploughed. These industrial activity employed around 1,200 of the 1,400 able-bodied individuals. Not only was the colony self-sufficient for its daily requirements, but it could also eventually return the principle with interest.

Panchayat Rejuvenated

In addition to economic activities, social welfare and cultural activities were considered. As indicated before, the majority of economic activity were conducted along cooperative lines. Alongside the revitalization of cooperative activities, the Panchayat's activities were also revitalised. The Panchayat was tasked with managing the political and social elements of the colony's community life; it was responsible for law and order, cleanliness, and community welfare, as well as providing aid to the most vulnerable members of the society. The panchayat intended to serve as the venue for the people's concerns and complaints. Special sub-committees of the Panchayat were responsible for planning and supervising its varied operations. Thus were the seeds of functional sub-committees, which adorn the Panchayat-Raj scheme today, sown in the little township of Nilokheri.

Difficulties Encountered

As the municipality expanded, challenges started to arise. The volume of economic activity organisation proven to be a difficult hurdle. To enjoy competitive advantages, it was necessary to develop specialisation, size, and managerial flexibility. Cooperative mode of planning and selling output was unsuitable for sectors requiring managerial abilities of such a kind that equality or near-equality of income could not be maintained. Neither were they suitable for businesses whose success depended on an intimate response to customer needs and a flexible approach to manufacturing and sales. The co-operatives had difficulty establishing consensus and interest, especially among the co-operative firms' managerial personnel. Therefore, the cooperative sector withdrew from many of its former strongholds and made way for the state or the private sector.

Second, unless the economic activities were connected with comparable ones in other regions of the country, the expanding need for employment could not be fulfilled, especially for the large number of employees who became jobless after the conclusion of a specific building programme. The unhappiness had a negative impact on the cohesion of the institutions, notably the Panchayats and cooperatives, which were severely stressed by the smouldering resentment of unemployed workers. The villages that were envisioned as key parts of the Nilokheri project did not expand at the pace anticipated.

Participation of Nilokheri

Nilokheri has, however, made its mark on the Community Development Programme in India. It established the nation's first administration (Dey) of Community Projects. The concept of agro-industrial township as the nerve centre of rural development services was acknowledged in the draft of the First Five Year Plan and incorporated into the layout of the financial plan for the first fifty-five community projects, despite the fact that this concept was shelved and an attempt was made to recapture it in the Second Five Year Plan.

Nilokheri Today

Subsequently, the township of Nilokheri was transferred to the administration of East Punjab (now Haryana) with proper protections for its institutions and residents. The government agreed to shoulder the cost of critical obligations for as long as it was deemed unavoidable. The administration of the municipality was entirely merged with the state's Rehabilitation Department. The economy of the municipality has been integrated with the rest of the nation. Nilokheri has repaid a significant portion of the investment put in the colony and continues to pay off the remainder.

Nilokheri still exists as a materialised vision of an agro-industrial township and a perpetual reminder to the country of a once-valuable concept that has been lost to history. It continues to assert its maturity via its sense of community and increased employment and income levels. Through self-help and cooperation, Nilokheri became a symbol of development. It was a remarkable experiment in the application of secular socialism. Nilokheri remains an immediate centre for training all types of development persons and is rightfully regarded as a destination of pilgrimage for development workers despite the experiment's issues and shortcomings.

In October 1953, Prime Minister Nehru summed up the importance of the Nilokheri experiment in a message to the anniversary issue of "Kurukshestra." "All over India we have centres of human activity which are like lamps spreading their light more and more in the surrounding darkness. This light has to grow till it covers the land. Among these centres, there is Nilokheri which has achieved a good deal of fame in India and outside. That brings a greater responsibility on Nilokheri and other like centres. They are the example for others to follow and they must keep up the standards because it is quality that will tell in the end, not the quantity".

5.2 Case Study on Rural Reconstruction in Pre-Independence India

Sriniketan: Rabindranath Tagore - 1921

Rabindranath Tagore, India's venerated poet-philosopher, was also a painter, musician, playwright, actor, educator, and rural reformer. In all fields, he had his unique work style and left his imprint as an individual. It is odd to realise that this great poet, who mostly lived in his own world of thoughts, was a pioneer of the village uplift movement in India and the inventor of the village that completely shared the lives of its inhabitants while working for their welfare.

Tagore first came into touch with rural life towards the end of the nineteenth century, when he inherited the administration of his ancestors' zamindari. There he saw the existence of poverty and misery of the people and realised that the true answer for national revitalization lay in elevating the rural population.

Tagore's Rural Reconstruction Concepts

Tagore had no specific rural rehabilitation ideas. He had a few fundamental beliefs. He lay them out and instructed field employees to fill in the specifics. He could labour on a small scale in a few communities to accomplish economic, social, physical, cultural, and spiritual regeneration, if he had the necessary resources. Tagore was deeply troubled by the dreary existence of peasants. For him, the eradication of sadness was more essential than the eradication of poverty, and in this regard, the poet differed significantly from Gandhi, for whom the eradication of poverty was the first and foremost issue.

Another facet of rural life that troubled the poet was the people's absolute powerlessness. Tagore desired for the people to stand on their own and avoid seeking assistance from others. To do this, he believed in educating the population rather than providing alms. In his rural programme, he emphasised the concept of self-help. According to him, attempting to save a community from the outside was an unnatural practise, and he, like Gandhi, thought that the village's redemption must eventually come from inside. He emphasised the training of employees in Europe, the United States, and Japan for effective training in diverse agricultural issues. In contrast to Gandhi, he felt that Indian villages might flourish with the assistance of science and technology. Tagore thought that if labour is performed vigorously in a small region, its influence would radiate outward and spread far. Tagore was also responsible for the concept of recruiting eager boys and girls for rural development activities. He emphasised the need of selecting agency workers with a healthy attitude and approach, so that they took pleasure in their job, inspired others by their example, and exhibited a live touch of compassion.

Earlier Rural Reconstruction Attempts

Tagore began his first rural restoration attempt in 1908 in Silaidaha (Bangladesh), a village on his land, and in Patisar (Rajshahi Dist). In these two previous attempts, the poet took the initiative, and the people just followed or agreed with his proposals.

Sriniketan Experiment (1921)

Tagore was dissatisfied with his previous efforts at rural rebuilding and desired to conduct a more thorough and complete experiment. With the assistance of Mr. and Mrs. L.K. Elmhirst, he founded an Institute of Rural Reconstruction at Sriniketan (Birbhum District) in 1921. Sriniketan was a decrepit area with low soil, little land, decreasing cottage industries, a malarious environment, and people who were unenthusiastic, conservative, impoverished, distrustful, and ill. When analysing the success and failure of Sriniketan, we must remember that the rehabilitation of such a territory was an arduous effort.

The Reconstruction of Rural Areas by the Sriniketan Institute

The Sriniketan Institute had four primary departments: the Department of Village Welfare, the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Industries, and the Department of Education. The Village welfare section was responsible for extension work and served as a contact between the villages and the institution.

Village Welfare Department

The activities of the department of village welfare may be split into three categories:

- (1) Education
- (2) Health and Sanitation
- (3) Agriculture and Industry

The department's teaching efforts were limited to introductory lectures on general and rural issues.

Health Improvement Measures

Around Sriniketan, malaria was a significant problem. Eighty percent of all fatalities were attributable to it. It also contributed to the low birth rate and population decline. To combat this sickness, a dispensary was first established at the Institute's cost; nevertheless, the outcome was unsatisfactory, since the villagers did not assist the dispensary but expected medical treatment as a matter of right. In 1932, a new health Co-operative plan was established, as a result of the abandonment of the previous plan. The Health Co-operative was a village-based co-op that provided medical services to its members at an affordable cost. Each society had a dispensary staffed by a competent physician and compounder. The members contributed to the Health Co-operatives' recurrent and non-recurring expenses. Despite a variety of issues and constraints, the Health Co-operative showed its utility.

1. Economic Operations

Better farming techniques were shown to farmers in order to increase agricultural output; improved seeds were supplied; and cottage enterprises were created to complement villagers' incomes. Additionally, cooperative credit organisations were established. The Agriculture, Industries, and Education departments assisted the extension agency by conducting research and conducting experiments in their respective domains.

2. Agriculture Department

On its 25-acre farm, the agriculture department attempted to resolve the many agricultural issues of the region. Agricultural crops were introduced. The construction of storage facilities was undertaken. To increase soil fertility, the agricultural department showcased new farming techniques. Particular focus was placed on the selection of seeds, the rotation of crops, green manuring, the avoidance of manure, the conservation of moisture, and the use of better tools that were well within the financial means of the peasants. In addition to land issues, the agricultural department was also responsible for cattle breeding, poultry farming, vegetable gardening, and fodder production. Consequently, it attempted to do as much as it could given the circumstances to address the region's pressing agricultural issues.

3. Industries Department

The primary purpose of the industries department (known as Silpa Bhavan) was to revitalise cottage businesses that were in decline. With this goal in mind, Sriniketan experimented with several cottage industries, including as weaving, leatherwork, woodwork, bookbinding, needlework, and tailoring, among others. The industrial department's duties included training, manufacturing, marketing, and extension. Its primary objective was to teach young men in diverse professions so that they might make a living from their particular trades. The organisation also attempted to assist local craftsmen by supplying them with raw materials and buying their completed goods for cash. Thus, the institution

supplied employment to employees in homes and workshops, trained fresh hands, and assisted them in establishing themselves in life.

Department of Education

Sriniketan made a significant contribution to rural rehabilitation by introducing the Shiksha-Satra programme for village elementary education. The purpose of this plan was to provide the child with the same freedom of development that a young tree demands from its sensitive shoot, that space for self-expression where all young lives find both training and delight. It was an experiment that mixed work with recreation and recreation with education. There was no test, fixed curriculum, textbooks, schedule, or rod to be used on their fragile bodies. It was a modified version of the ancient ashram education, in which students lived with the instructor, prepared their meals, cleaned their clothing, scrubbed their rooms, managed their gardens, learned the three Rs and a specific skill, played games, and went on field trips. They studied nature and lived in harmony with it.

In addition to the three Rs, needlework, cooking, and gardening were taught at the girls' school. The Siksha-Satra programme, which highlighted the importance of indigenous culture and sought to retain students in the villages, deserves commendation. The Siksha-Satra students attained leadership positions in their community and had great insight and foresight throughout their lives. Even Gandhiji was reportedly quite pleased with this school, and he persuaded Tagore to lend him the services of the headmaster of Shiksha-Satra so that he might establish an all-India Primary Education Scheme. Shiksha-Satra was the precursor of elementary schooling. Again, Tagore's unique experience in rural development offered educationalists with several useful suggestions for formulating a nationwide plan for rural higher education.

An Assessment

The Sriniketan method is defined by: 1) a holistic vision of life and its unity; 2) the need to culminate the complete personality of man; and 3) the need to coordinate cultural, material, and intellectual impoverishment. Tagore stressed traditional means of communication and media for the transmission of ideas among the rural population. He understood that education is the only means through which peasant perspectives can be altered. Tagore highlighted that research and teaching expansion are inseparable components of a healthy education. He emphasised the need of self-help. He believed in science and technology and highlighted the need of worker training and passion. Tagore has taken an integrative approach to solving the people' interconnected challenges. However, the experiment has certain limits and flaws.

Factors inhibiting advancement

The initiative was motivated by ideological zeal, but lacked scientific, economic, and sociological study, as well as coordination with existing administrative apparatus. Tagore took the initiative for the endeavour, not the people. The research and professional help were insufficient to address more complex issues. It was unable of providing the service and supply requirements of the surrounding villages. The administration was unwilling to commit to a comprehensive programme of rural rehabilitation. The modifications could not be achieved by a single person or a group working together. The evaluation does not, however, indicate a total failure of the trial. There were physical outcomes, significant outcomes. "Economic returns were such that the area's improving level of life was readily apparent. The confidence of these people increased. Together, they felt capable of tackling new challenges, overcoming pessimism, and achieving success.

Moreover, according to the poet himself, "The immense benefit realized by the surrounding villages through constant inspiration, of sympathy and encouragement of Sriniketan must never be belittled in

favor of some impersonal abstractions of service, however valuable they may be the valuable gift of sympathy is some of our humble workers has worked miracles which must not be contemptuously mentioned because it has neither been measured nor accurately recorded”.

Sevagram: Mahatma Gandhi: 1931

The Community Development Project in India, which aims to commence a process of transforming the social and economic life of the village, is reportedly, with a few modifications, the official version of Mahatma Gandhi's Constructive programme. It was on his birthday October 2, 1952, that the community initiatives were inaugurated around the nation. Gandhiji attracted the attention of the Indian people to the 7,000,000 (of India and Pakistan) villages and said as early as 1916 that the farmer was India's last hope for salvation. The purpose of Gandhiji's project or rural reconstruction was to rebuild the villages as self-sufficient entities for meeting fundamental necessities of human existence. It was consistent with the life philosophy and cultural background of the rural people and also fit their economic circumstances at the time.

At Sevagram, Gandhiji experimented with his ideas. The village-improvement efforts of the older rural reformers, such as Tagore, Hatch, and Brayne, never caught the attention of the whole nation and were mostly localised. The scenario with Gandhiji was different. His preaching, practise, connection with the ordinary masses, and battle for the betterment of the common man had a profound and widespread influence on the population.

Gandhian Rural Reconstruction Experiment

At Champaran in 1917, he had close touch with peasants persecuted by indigo plantation owners. He saw their poverty, illiteracy, ignorance, and sickness. Champaran village exemplified the average Indian village. Gandhiji began his rural rebuilding work in education, health, and cleanliness, etc., in this area. However, owing to a lack of local volunteers, this effort could not be sustained, and it ceased when Gandhiji and his volunteers departed the area (Gandhiji stayed at Champaran, for eight months). Champaran was the first laboratory in India where he built his political weapon and constructive agenda.

Sevagram

Gandhiji, despite his many pursuits, never forgot rural India's abject poverty. In 1934, in an effort to reduce chronic unemployment and underemployment in the village, he founded the All India Spinners' Association, whose goals were to promote Khadi (a fabric that is hand spun and hand woven), restore the fading local businesses, and strive for all-around village development. In April 1936, he moved to Segaoon (since renamed Sevagram), a 600-person village near Wardha, in order to get first-hand knowledge of rural life. The community was severely lacking in basic essentials and facilities. At the age of 67, Gandhiji opted to live in a one-room mud and bamboo house and focus on community activities. Since sanitation was the most important aspect of the village revitalization, the Gandhian workers started by cleaning the village alleys and encouraging the villagers to utilise a community toilet area. It was requested that individuals bring their children to school and learn to spin.

Under the aegis of the All-India Village Industries Association, a small number of industries were established in the village to provide residents with leisure-time employment. To provide them with a hands-on demonstration of better farming practises, a portion of the ashram's property was planted with new crops such as sugarcane and papaya. Additionally, a journal and a tiny hospital were created. The villagers were first sceptical, but they were eventually won over, and the experiment's effectiveness in altering the villagers' attitudes for the better and in eradicating certain societal customs has not been outstanding. Gandhiji's preoccupation with other political issues in his last sixties prevented him from

devoting more time to the village's development. This was the primary cause for Sevagram's very modest advancement.

But the essence of the issue is not what Gandhiji did, but rather what he accomplished through his different public service organisations. All India Spinners' Association, All India Village Industries' Association, Adim Jati Seva Sangh (Aborigines' Service Society), Harijan Sevak Sangh, Go Seva Sangh, (cow protection society), Hindusthani Talimi Sangh, Kasturba Trust, Gandhi Seva Sangh (1922-40), etc., had carried Gandhiji's message of rural uplift into countless villages of India and performed yeoman service for the country.

The Gandhian approach to Rural Reconstruction

Gandhiji's blueprint for national rebuilding, which has since become renowned as his "constructive Programme," focused primarily on the revitalization of India's 7,00,000 villages (before partition). For economic development, the policy emphasised

- (1) The conservation and promotion of Khadi,
- (2) The development of village industries,
- (3) The improvement of livestock,
- (4) Socioeconomic equality. On the social front, it sought
- (5) Community Unity,
- (6) The abolition of untouchability,
- (7) The prohibition of alcohol,
- (8) Equal status for women,
- (9) The welfare of adivasis (natives). On the educational front, emphasis was placed on
- (10) Adoption of Basic Education,
- (11) Working for Adult Education,
- (12) Development of Provincial Languages,
- (13) Adoption of Hindustani as the official language.
- (14) Improve the general health and cleanliness of the village
- (15) Provide health education In this regard, it also urged individuals
- (16) To watch out for jumpers. On the political front, it emphasised the need to organise
- (17) Peasants and labourers for the protection of their fair rights
- (18) Students for social service.

Gandhiji saw the eradication of hunger and poverty as the primary issue. In his efforts to revitalise Khadi and village industries, Gandhiji sought to offer villagers with honourable employment and teach them the value of self-help and independence. Gandhiji was also cognizant of the need of developing the breed of cattle in an agricultural nation like India.

Gandhiji intended his social programme to unite India as a country and elevate the social standing of women, scheduled castes, and tribal people. He did not want Indians to stay religiously and socially divided. Therefore, he pushed the workers to struggle for communal harmony, the abolition of untouchability, the advancement of tribal people, and the elevation of women in the household and society. As drinking was prevalent among the scheduled-caste and tribes and was also responsible for the mistreatment of women, he emphasised the elimination of this social curse.

The Gandhian Primary Education Program

Gandhiji, persuaded that the then-existing system of rural primary education was flawed, devised a seven-year programme of basic education for village children in 1937, which has since become renowned

as "Basic Education." It is a craft-centered and life-centered education that aims to improve the body, mind, and spirit. While assigning crafts the central position in his scheme of education, Gandhiji kept in mind the importance of a liberal education in the overall development of the child. As a result, he also included drawing, music, social studies, elementary sanitation, hygiene, and nutrition principles, etc. in the curriculum. The plan's response was mixed, and it currently exists mostly on paper.

Village Sanitation and Nature-Based Treatment

Attention to sanitation and cleanliness, in his opinion, was unquestionably the first step towards village restoration. Therefore, he advised the village employees to educate the locals about sanitation and hygiene and to provide a good example of cleanliness. He emphasised cleanliness and hygiene so much because he believed in prevention above treatment.

Gandhiji also wished for the locals to adopt a diet consisting of unpolished rice, hand-ground flour, palm gur, soya-beans, green vegetables, and seasonal fruits that would maintain their health. A nutritious diet should not be expensive and should be within the financial limits of the poorest, was his central argument. According to him, nature was the greatest physician since it healed what man had harmed; thus, cooperating with nature was the most effective treatment.

Gandhiji's constructive programme aimed to develop the country from the ground up and revitalise Indian communities economically, socially, mentally, physically, and politically. His key contribution was that he attempted to see all situations through the perspective of a peasant and, as a result, was able to strike chords in rural India that no one else could.

A significant aspect of the Sevagram initiative was its focus on methods and process rather than outcomes and outcomes. Gandhiji did not place as much emphasis on the success of a programme as he did on the techniques and means used, which led to his stress on the educational engagement of the people, who were supposed to stand on their own with as little outside assistance as possible.

The Ideal Gram Sevak according to Gandhiji

Gandhi's development of the image of the constructive worker was one of his most significant accomplishments. His ideal village worker would constantly hold the following eleven pledges in front of him as a guiding light. Nonviolence, truth, non-theft, Brahmacharya (celebration), non-possession, body-labor, palate control, fearlessness, equal regard for all faiths, Swadeshi, and the spirit of unexclusive brotherhood. He should be an example of diligence. His lifestyle should reflect that of the village. He should not have a biased view of the peasants. He need to be both a teacher and a student. He should refrain from engaging in politics and stay above local groups.

Some of Gandhiji's qualifications were applicable to employees in the constructive programme, but the traits listed above are essential for village-level workers in the C.D. Program.

Several Defects

The Gandhian approach to rural regeneration has flaws. First, it was impossible to deploy seven million Mahatma Grama Sevaks in every village. Second, since he was required to labour eight hours per day for his livelihood and two hours per day for cleanliness, he would have little time for anything else. Thirdly, the whole notion of the constructive programme was based on altruism for the benefit of the wretched poor, and was to some degree infused with a condescending attitude that deafened the fundamental ideology of village regeneration. Fourthly, since it was based on foreign leadership and inspiration, it mainly failed to foster local leadership, which is the final test for any village-uplift initiative. Despite the fact that the core and essential objective of the rural rebuilding plan was to revitalise the villages and

make people self-confident and self-reliant, progress fell short of the anticipated objective. Gandhiji's prescriptions and programmes must be interpreted in light of the context, circumstance, and requirements of the period. They must be adapted to the constantly shifting environment.

The Gandhian approach to Community Development and Rural Reconstruction

Despite claims that the Community Development Programme is the official version of Gandhiji's constructive agenda, a detailed examination reveals that it diverges significantly from the Gandhian approach to rural rebuilding.

1. Gandhiji emphasised the notion that, as much as possible, village development should be carried out "Within the men of the villagers without government support," so that villagers acquire self-help and self-reliance and stop seeking outside assistance. However, under the development programmes, the government spends enormous sums of money in the villages, while the people's contributions are modest and frequently overstated.

2. The Gandhian definition of progress was well-rounded and included the moral, material, and social growth of the population. His constructive programme was founded on his lifelong principles of truth and nonviolence and emphasised communal unity, the eradication of untouchability, and the promotion of prohibition, whereas the current Community Development Programme largely disregards these aspects and focuses on material welfare.

Moreover, the Community Development programme focuses primarily on agricultural development by constructing irrigation systems and distributing seeds and fertilisers. Thus, it enables wealthy landlords to become even wealthier, thus widening the economic gap between the haves and the have-nots. The C.D. Plan differs from the Gandhian constructive programme in a number of respects. The current IRD, which concentrates on those living below the poverty line, mitigates the problem to some degree.

5.3 Case Study on Rural Development in Post-Independence India

Ralegan Siddhi

Ralegan Siddhi is a village in Parnertaluka in Ahmednagar District in the western Indian state of Maharashtra. It is approximately 87 kilometres away from Pune. The size of the settlement is 982.31 hectares (1991). It is considered an environmental conservation model. The village has implemented tree-planting, terracing to decrease soil erosion, and canal-digging initiatives to conserve rainfall. The village obtains its energy from solar power, biogas (part of which is produced by the community toilet), and a windmill. The initiative is hailed as a sustainable village republic model.

The greatest achievement of the community is its usage of renewable energy sources. For example, each street light in the village has its own solar panel. The village is led by the Gram Panchayat's leader, the Sarpanch (village panchayat).

"The World Bank Group has concluded that the village of Ralegan Siddhi was transformed from a highly degraded village ecosystem in a semi-arid region of extreme poverty to one of the richest in the country. The Ralegan Siddhi example, now 25 years old, by demonstrating that it is possible to rebuild natural capital in partnership with the local economy, is a model for the rest of the country."

Anna Hazare, a Gandhian at heart, has transformed the very degraded village of around 2,500 inhabitants into a paradise for the destitute peasants. Historically, this community was severely damaged and unsustainable. It was characterised by poor agricultural techniques that resulted to low land production. People had minimal employment opportunities and participated in illicit alcohol distillation. There were widespread migrations, poor health, and alcohol-fueled violence against women.

Today, the view of Ralegan Siddhi is enhanced. Enhanced agricultural output demonstrates the significance of sustainable agriculture. Anna's proposed scientific agricultural techniques have revolutionised the prior condition. Man's intellect is driven by hunger, and Anna satisfied it first. The village is now self-sufficient in grains and other essential agricultural products. After completing their everyday tasks, individuals may now readily engage in community service. All humans have a feeling of community and cooperation. Ralegan has shown to the world how a whole system can be reconstructed from junk. It not only exhibits what village residents are capable of when they take charge of their own development, but it also demonstrates their care for the environment by using environmentally friendly techniques.

The People's involvement has Anna's utmost support. Through better farming techniques, watershed development, use of renewable energy, etc., governments offer a variety of village development programmes. All of these unique ideas, however, stay on paper since the execution lacks the necessary funds, personnel, and the actual purpose of local representatives and government officials. Anna evaluated all of these elements and used them to her advantage by including the community in all government and self-funded development initiatives. He understood the significance of rainwater collection, watershed improvement, and renewable energy. (Read more about India and water shortage). The residents of Ralegan Siddhi maximised their participation in community programmes by contributing thousands of hours to development work. Human muscle strength was stimulated by a shared interest, resulting in the prosperity of the town, which is today the nation's premier example of watershed management.

Ralegan Siddhi: A Sustainable Development Model

The ideology of Swami Vivekananda had a significant impact on Anna Hazare. His ideas and actions have been an endless source of inspiration for him. He had resolved to devote his life to social work while serving in the Indian Army, but he did not know where to start. During his annual leave while serving in the military, he would spend two months at his hometown. The state of the community was pitiful and deplorable. The terrain was arid and undulating. As the community is situated in a rain-shadow region, the yearly precipitation is just 400–500 millimetres. All of the precipitation runs off and is lost. It was impossible to collect this valuable resource. The gathered rainwater was only adequate to plant a single crop on 300–350 acres of the 2200 acres of land available in the village. 80% of households were subsisting on one meal every day.

As food production was inadequate and there were no economic prospects in the community, some residents began manufacturing alcohol to support themselves. The number of breweries gradually increased to 35. They were aware that what they were doing was socially and ethically unacceptable, yet they felt compelled to pursue this career in order to make a living. Some peasants had to go 5–6 kilometres each day to find jobs in neighbouring communities.

The hopelessness brought on by poverty and debt led to desperation and, eventually, drinking. Street brawls and altercations were common occurrences. Hazare's residence was located in a village barely half a kilometre from the town centre. Hazare avoided entering the core of the community owing to its deplorable state. He constantly felt powerless since he was unable to alter the existing situation in the community.

In 1975, when he resolved to devote his life to a humanitarian cause, he thought that generosity should begin at home. Swami Vivekananda's words rang in his head: people would not listen to philosophical doctrines if they were hungry. If individuals are plagued by the everyday struggle to make ends meet,

then social reform is impossible. Hazare racked his head for a solution to this critical issue. In 1972, the late Mr. Vilasrao Salunkhe initiated trials in watershed improvement and water management in villages near Saswad in the Pune district, as he recalled. His work was once widely discussed at casual meetings worldwide. Therefore, Hazare visited his initiative and was moved by it. This visit provided direction to my thoughts, and I determined to do comparable watershed development in my community, as stated by Hazare.

Hazare then visited the office of Mr. Dikshit, the then-Director of Agriculture, and informed him that he had resolved to work for the improvement of his fellow people. He stated his wish to cooperate with him on water conservation projects in his community. After a few days, Mr. Dikshit accompanied his subordinates to Ralegan Siddhi to conduct a geographical study. He concluded that the village's topography was suited for implementing the watershed development programme and made the choice to do so.

On the restart of the village's watershed improvement work, Hazare began inspecting the sites from dawn to sunset without receiving any compensation. He saw it as social work, and his expertise and knowledge grew with each passing day. With people's cooperation, he developed several water collecting structures using his experience and expertise. 48 nulla bunds, five cement check dams, and sixteen Gabion structures have been completed so far. On 500 acres of land, the villagers under Hazare's direction constructed fodder development, continuous contour ditches, and loose boulder constructions.

The work on the watershed contributed to the conservation of every drop of rainfall in the village and the recharge of the groundwater aquifers. Consequently, the water table rose. In the same community where it was previously impossible to cultivate more than 300–350 acres of land for a single crop, the locals today grow 1500 acres of land for two crops. Due to the availability of water, agricultural output has increased. The agricultural expansion has generated a substantial number of jobs in the village. Not only has the emergency migration ceased entirely, but now wage labourers from nearby villages must be employed in order to perform numerous multicultural activities on schedule.

Today, the locals have totally abandoned alcohol production. Nobody sells alcohol in the town. Additionally, shops have not sold cigarettes, chewing tobacco, or tobacco for the last thirteen years. Until recently, just 300 litres of milk were sold in the community. Currently, milk output has increased to 4000 litres. This milk is bought by cooperative and independent dairies. This generates between 1.5 and 15 million rupees yearly for the community. The dairy company has thrived as a subsidiary of agriculture, providing jobless youngsters in the area with a new source of income.

The income per capita of the villagers has grown from Rs. 225 to Rs. 2500. This has radically changed the village's economy. The villages' living circumstances have improved, and the gap between the wealthy and the poor has shrunk. Through financial donations and Shramadaan, the locals rebuilt the ancient village temple after the community's economic development. Generally, 25 to 30 weddings at a time are organised in the community in an effort to save costs. This has contributed to the elimination of caste boundaries and the promotion of social cohesion.

Hazare reproduced the successful watershed development effort in Ralegan Siddhi in the four surrounding villages. The outcomes are promising. Now, the same concept is being reproduced in 80 to 85 Maharashtra villages. Ralegan Siddhi, like every other village in India, has a societal issue with untouchability. Today, people of different castes and religions coexist in harmony, as if they were part of the same family. Consecutive droughts prevented the Dalit community from repaying agriculture-related

bank debts. The bank chose to sell the mortgaged property in order to collect the debts. At this crucial moment, the remaining villagers agreed to harvest crops on Dalit farmland in order to repay the debt. In 1983-1984 and 1984-1985, the villagers farmed their land via Shramadaan (volunteer labour), returned their bank debt, and preserved their land.

In Ralegan Siddhi, numerous institutions and cooperatives have been working for the last 35 years, including Gram Panchayat, Cooperative Consumer Society, Cooperative Credit Society, Cooperative Dairy, Educational Society, Women's Organization, and Youth Organization. To date, there have been no elections for the choosing of members of these entities. The members of the Gram Sabha were chosen unanimously by the locals. Gram Sabha has developed as a formidable venue for village-level collective decision-making. After obtaining the Gram Sabha's approval, every development scheme in the village is undertaken.

Since the beginning of the 21st century, tens of thousands of researchers from India and elsewhere have visited Ralegan Siddhi to examine the effect of watershed development. Researchers, academics, farmers, government officials, people's representatives, and students are included.

Realizing that there was a shortage of qualified personnel in Ralegan Siddhi was necessary for the implementation of the watershed programme. A training institution for watershed development training was developed. The Training Centre on Watershed Development has educated around 17,000–18,000 individuals from various Indian states to far.

Ralegan Siddhi should not be regarded through the limited lens of materialistic progress, such as watershed constructions or economic growth. Ralegan Siddhi's development method goes beyond this. A social and patriotic thread runs through the transformation process.

Large dams are filling with silt as a consequence of soil erosion caused by unchecked tree removal in catchment regions. There was little attention on soil protection and range development. The top layer of loose dirt is annually washed away by rains and deposited in the large dams. The topsoil is the land's creamy covering. According to experts, 1 inch of top soil takes more than a century to create. On the one hand, this valuable supply of top soil is being swept away from communities, and on the other, it is being deposited in large dams, so shortening their lifespan. This will cause several issues in the near future.

All of the larger cities get their water supply from adjacent dams. All the enterprises and sugar mills get their water supply from the same dams. The hydroelectric power plants are placed on enormous dams. When the dams are entirely clogged with silt, all these facilities will be rendered inoperable. These dams will face the destiny of death; perhaps after 100 or 200 or 500 years. Nobody can escape this unfortunate situation. With a backwater stretch of 60 to 90 kilometres, neither the government nor the people would be able to de-silt these large dams. It will be impossible to remove the 90-kilometer-long, 200-300-foot-tall mountain from the dam site. There will be no other locations for the building of new dams. What will become of all these large dams? This is the query.

Change of the village economy might result in transformation of the national economy. Only via a watershed development programme is this achievable. Our current notion of progress is founded on the exploitation of the environment and mankind. We imagine a future in which subterranean and surface resources, such as petroleum, coal, groundwater, vegetation, and aquatic resources, are extracted without restriction.

The expanding population places an enormous strain on the available resources. Demand will continue to increase. Due to the depletion of groundwater resources, India's villages are experiencing a lack of potable water. Water trucks traversing rural roads to serve settlements with potable water is becoming a familiar sight. If the trend continues, one day there will be no water available, not even for tanker delivery. What will happen to future generations if all groundwater, petroleum, and coal supplies are exhausted?

Individual, family, and community growth cannot be achieved by indiscriminately abusing the environment, but rather through the sustainable use of existing resources. Watershed development and water management is the appropriate strategy in this regard. Every nation faces the challenge of environmental deterioration today. International leaders and scientists are equally concerned about the Earth's future. The development of watersheds will give a solution for preserving ecological equilibrium.

Our conception of development is restricted to the construction of tall buildings and large roadways. On the one hand, building heights are increasing daily, but on the other side, human values are declining. This is not genuine progress. Individuals must be able to stand on their own while also considering the welfare of others; this is real growth. One should be able to think about one's neighbour, community, and country in addition to oneself. Today, it is necessary to cultivate people who are capable of seeing beyond themselves. These persons are not produced by contributions, subsidies, or grants. This is feasible via a local leadership development programme that emphasises character, values, and commitment. Someone is required to make sacrifices.

His plan's well-developed managerial sense is the key to its success. Checking with the modification of all-way development, he devised an all-encompassing strategy for the development of the rural population, who are otherwise underserved. His six-point agenda includes a prohibition on open grazing, a ban on tree chopping, a ban on dowry, a ban on alcohol consumption, family planning, and labour donations. Following a tour of the village's high school, administrative building, community hall, dam, temple, and museum, students accompanied by faculty members had the chance to speak with Anna, who discussed rural sustainable development and its significance to the nation's economy as a whole. It is his ideology's originality.

A field full of swaying crop indicates that a grain has buried itself in the soil to produce thousands of grains. The grains that do not bury themselves are transported to a mill where they are processed into flour. The grains that sacrifice themselves by burying themselves in the earth produce a swaying crop field.

Anna's Ideology and Further Processing

It is considered that true India resides in rural areas. People might get assistance for their own growth independently. Currently, the grassroots approach is essential for rural development, since the bureaucracy should let rural residents to determine their own development. Keeping the policy of "for the people, by the people, and of the people" indicates an inclusive strategy for rural development. If people assume responsibility for their own development, it will be much simpler to ensure the accountability of rural development-focused government that is not influenced by party connections. Mr. Hazare has made it very distinct from the past, as Gandhian rural development advocated for fundamental promotion by addressing development issues separately, however the Ralegan Movement saw society as an integrated whole. This strategy should be applied in India, and all rural development projects would be comprehensive. Components of educational accomplishment should be included into economic planning, and vice versa. Development decisions should be determined by the people themselves, since they are most familiar with their environments.

Tarun Bharat Sangh experiment of Rajendra Singh

Tarun Bharat Sangh (TBS) is a non-profit environmental organisation based in Bheekampura, Alwar, Rajasthan. Since 1985, Dr. Rajendra Singh (known as the Water Man of India) has been the head of TBS. TBS began its work by rallying communities around the subject of water and assisting them in reviving and rejuvenating the traditional methods of water management via the building of 'Johads,' 'Anicuts,' and 'Bands' for rain water gathering by Shramadaan and in part by TBS. TBS has used the existing cultural traditions of the region to revitalise the village residents' sense of oneness with environment and to promote an understanding and ethos of integrated ecosystem development. Presently, the organization's contributions are distributed throughout 1000 villages in 15 districts of Rajasthan. The organisation has contributed to the revitalization and revival of eleven rivers in the state of Rajasthan, including Ruparel, Sarsa, Arvari, Bhagani, Jahajwali, and Shabi, as well as the creation of around 11,800 johads. In 2015, TBS was awarded the STOCKHOLM WATER PRIZE (the Nobel Prize for water) because to these accomplishments. Currently, TBS focuses on access to water via the revitalization of water resources, addressing problems like as human and animal conflicts, and combatting mining mafias for the benefit of the local population.

Through sustainable development methods, Tarun Bharat Sangh aspires to bring dignity and prosperity to the lives of a part of the nation's poor. The objective of the TBS is the complete development of men, women, and children, independent of their socioeconomic status, caste, or religion. TBS encourages decentralised, community-driven management of natural resources.

Objectives

TBS is aiming to empower communities believing in Gram Swarajya, or rural self-government. Unique to TBS's development strategy is the promotion of community independence. This occurs when the community is invited to participate in all phases of their growth.

- Expansion or Restoration of social and cultural values via welfare action as an example.
- Striking a balance between the growth of people and natural resources.
- Ensuring women's involvement in the decision-making process.
- Enhancement of the community's educational standard
- Incorporation of improved health facilities to generate a healthier population.

Strategies

- The TBS was bolstered by frequent engagement with local communities in order to develop an approach to working with the people. Its approach developed progressively into five areas.
- The initiative must be a community-wide one from which all members would gain proportionally from the projected change.
- The collective intelligence might be envisioned in an environment characterised by informal communication and equal chance to be heard.
- All judgements would be firmly enforced, and the community would be responsible for its own discipline.
- Each member of the community would be personally accountable for completing the responsibilities.
- The community would only employ outside assistance as a catalyst for guiding and facilitating the work processes.

Profiting from the Achievement

- Nature should be conserved and fostered not just for its own purpose, but also for the benefit of human growth.
- A well-managed environment may further improve the quality of life, eliminating the need to further exploitation.

- The purpose is to foster a connection between people and nature. Nature should not be exploited, and protecting nature may improve human life.
- The evolution of social networking may aid in nature's metamorphosis, and the public's conception of nature can contribute to its preservation.
- The rural development plan must be created by the community members alone, since they have lived in the natural environment for generations and can thus better manage it.

5.4 Case Study on Rural Development Planning

Village Level Micro Planning in India: Vehicle for Integrated District Planning

Village micro planning, as done in India, is a participatory process of community mobilisation and need-based planning at the Gram Panchayat level, which may serve as the basis for the DPCs' preparation of integrated district plans. Teams of local youth are extensively taught in Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) methodologies and behaviour change communication to assist micro-planning (BCC). PRA and BCC training manuals are complete, and a state-wide partnership of master trainers has been established. Consequently, a precise method exists for producing huge pools of trained young facilitators at any location and within a certain time frame.

When micro planning is launched in a district or block, the local government is initially brought on board via orientation seminars or workshops. The local government finds reputable local NGOs and enters into Memorandums of Understanding (MOUs) with them in order to help the micro planning process. In response, NGOs arrange PRA/BCC training for selected local youth and then employ them to facilitate practical micro planning in rural areas. The connection between local administration, non-governmental organisations, and youth networks lends credibility and adaptability to the local arrangement for supporting micro planning activities. A team of three to five trained facilitators visits a community and resides there for around one week. The team collaborates with farmers, school-aged children, teenage females, self-help groups, youth groups, landless labour, etc., to enable collective reflections on their developmental issues and difficulties. Health, education, and other village-level personnel are engaged in the process. Also requested is the active involvement of members of the Gram Panchayat and numerous village-level committees.

The village micro planning process consists of four steps: inventory, visioning, need identification, and plan creation. On the last day of the process, the village plan is submitted to the village council, known as the Gram Sabha, and is fully reviewed and verified by the Gram Sabha. The participatory approach has three effects: the community is mobilised, a community assessment of village needs and issues is conducted, and a tangible village plan document is approved by the Gram Sabha. Certain data-capture formats have been established to ease the integration of village plans into the district planning process. These forms meet the planning demands of important national programmes and schemes for health, education, child development, agriculture, livelihood, and employment, etc. Each format depicts the present state of basic infrastructure, common services, and individual and family benefits as guaranteed by these programmes at the village level. The minimal standards of basic infrastructure, services, and beneficiary coverage established by these programmes are utilised to pinpoint precise gaps and deficiencies at the village level. These gaps and accompanying requests are documented in village plans and may be readily included into sector plans due to the usage of the same sets of standards. In addition, extensive village baseline data is collected using a mix of household surveys, social mapping, Gram Panchayat record analysis, etc. In India, state institutes of rural development, concerned government departments, non-governmental organisations, youth networks, and bilateral institutions have

collaborated to establish village micro planning as a common vehicle for bottom-up planning in various sectors, ultimately feeding into integrated district planning.

Managing Paradigm Shift in Integrated District Planning- A Success Story of India

In 1995, the District Planning Committee (DPC) Act was enacted in Madhya Pradesh, India, and all districts constituted DPCs. However, significant efforts to decentralise planning did not begin until 2000-2001, when 31.46 percent of the state's budget was dedicated to the district sector programme. Five pilot districts were established in 2009 to illustrate the benefits of integrated district planning. In 2010–11, the scheme was extended to all fifty of the state's districts, and a budgeted amount was allocated to develop the decentralised planning procedure.

All Panchayats and municipalities encountered barriers related to capability (institutional and individual), resources (human and financial), and goal clarity on the route to plan formulation (roles and responsibilities). All the authorities engaged in executing the decentralised district planning process in the state had a sincere desire to influence the attitudes and behaviours of the key stakeholders of the Panchayats and municipalities so that they would collaborate to achieve the aim. In addition, the financing of programmes in a state as vast as Madhya Pradesh is a challenge. In order to overcome these challenges, the State Planning Commission (SPC) of Madhya Pradesh used a multidimensional approach while initiating the plan-drafting process.

To start the process, the SPC convened a workshop at the state level and provided suggestions for the construction of decentralised district plans. For district government officials, PRI representatives, and ULB representatives to participate in capacity building and training (CB&T) activities, an Integrated District Planning Manual and Information, Education, and Communication (IEC) training materials were developed. Subsequently, the SPC established technical support groups (TSGs) to provide help at various planning phases. TSGs were created at the village/city, block, and district levels. These TSGs met with community members and organised discussion groups in order to identify and prioritise local development issues.

In order to carry out this monumental task, the SPC formed partnerships and a network of organisations to provide technical assistance at various phases of plan creation. State Planning Commission (SPC) has acknowledged eleven state-level technical support institutes to educate and develop the competence of district government officials, PRI members, and ULB representatives on decentralised planning (TSIs). In conjunction with district administration, these TSIs organised CB&T activities at the district, block, and community levels to ensure that all key stakeholders participated. Jan Abhiyan Parishad (JAP) was also engaged to teach district-level civil society organisation leaders on decentralised planning. The JAP chose CSOs with a substantial presence on the ground and organised training programmes in each region.

The software for distributed planning was created to speed the planning procedure and ensure the convergence of different schemes and programmes as well as the integration of plans across tiers. The software has made planned plans public, since they are now available online and can be seen by interested persons. Response plans required line departments to explain candidly what they can and cannot do this year and in future years. The SPC has also provided districts with information on the resource envelope so that they have a broad knowledge of the budget for the next fiscal year. This supported the refinement of preliminary district development plans by DPCs. This is an important step in resolving governance issues with accountability, transparency, and performance management. Additionally, the SPC has developed a state-level helpline. The names and mobile phone numbers of eight professionals are supplied to all levels in order to solve any kind of plan-related query or challenge at any stage of preparation.

As a direct result of this:

The decentralised district planning process trained around 70,000 persons, including government officials and non-governmental groups.

Citizen Gram Sabha and Ward Sabha were used to facilitate involvement in the planning process.

Plan decentralised for 22,931 Gram Panchayats, including 51,806 villages, and 360 Urban Local Bodies, encompassing 6,000 wards.

During the 2011-12 fiscal year, a total of 1,668,161 decentralised plan activities were approved and Rs. 886,889.71 lakh were supplied, compared to the baseline budget of Rs. 787,050 lakhs.

5.5 Case Study of Successful Rural Development Programmes in India

Role of Panchayat

Bastar, Chhattisgarh, is one of the tribally dominated areas in India, with each farmer possessing between 2 and 5 acres of farmland. Rice, corn, and vegetables are the primary crops grown in this region. However, yields are lower and farmers are not receiving the maximum price for their goods. Under the Mahila Kisan Sashaktiran Pariyojana (MKSP), an intervention was launched to assist farmers in realising a higher price for their vegetable harvest. Two cooperative societies comprised of women farmer SHGs in the Bakawand block were founded to engage in sustainable vegetable production and sales. The primary goals of the interventions were to increase price realisation and allow them to retain a percentage of their earnings.

This initiative aimed to remove Kochiyas (middlemen) by developing direct retail connections with customers. 1. Justification for Formation a. Potential Vegetable Consumption Assessment in both rural and urban regions is on the rise. Additionally, there is still a desire for organic or pesticide-free vegetables to protect the quality and safety of the food ingested. a. Intervention scope of the business Jagdalpur is the closest market to which Bastar's agricultural farmers deliver their product. In the city of Jagdalpur, people often buy vegetables in the Sanjay market. No contemporary retail system has been established in the city. So, it was extrapolated that there may be a possibility to offer vegetables in the city via a retail shop. It was intended to have better facilities than the current market and supply organic/chemical-free vegetables, which are positioned as healthy foods.

The city and its surrounding areas are seeing significant industrial development activities. NMDC, for instance, is constructing a massive greenfield steel mill at Jagdalpur. This would build a city with a vast population that requires a great deal of vegetables. Member Farmers are required to keep the margin supplied to the intermediaries, which would be either handed to them immediately after sales of vegetables through Mahila Vikas Sag Sabji Sahakari Samiti 's Innovative efforts. The development of a farmers' market was anticipated to offer an alternative outlet for the farmer members' products. Thus, it will provide farmers with some leverage when negotiating pricing with Kochiyas (middlemen).

This market was planned to pay the price of vegetables supplied by farmers on the same day itself. This was contrary to the existing method of selling at a credit to the middleman.

Description of the Enterprise:

a. Area of Operation - The Harihar Bazaar farmers market in the centre of Jagdalpur is the focal point of business. This market complex includes a retail shop, a warehouse, and a cold storage facility. The two Farmer Producer Organizations (FPOs) have vegetable-growing communities within 30 kilometres of the market. One of these two FPOs is Mahila Vikas Sag Sabji Sahakari Samiti (MVSSSS), which manages the Harihar Bazaar. This market is also managed by the other FPO, Nai Disha Sag Sabji Sahakari Samiti (NDSSSS).

b. Operating Model - The operating model of this intervention is to develop a strong vegetable supply chain and capture value at each level of vegetable production and commercialization. c. Sources Organic manure and pesticides (Handikhata and Jeebamruta) were promoted with the aim of reducing input costs and ensuring their long-term viability. Women farmers were given kits for the manufacturing of organic fertiliser and insecticides. However, farmers must acquire their own seeds. Although farmers are urged to utilise their own conserved seeds, they often purchase popular hybrid seeds to produce crops. Production: With agronomic guidance from the MKSP team, farmers prepare their fields and cultivate vegetables for a better output of high-quality crops. Support in this respect was given by Panchayat Resource Persons (PRPs) and Community Resource Persons (CRPs) as part of the MKSP programme. When a crop is ripe, farmers harvest it. After harvesting, they do basic cleaning and sorting before supplying the market. Planning and aggregation of vegetables The administration of Harihar bazaar determines which vegetables and in what amount are to be purchased for the next day, and requests that their coordinator collect these items from the member farmers. Accordingly, the coordinator aggregates the vegetables and retains at his house in the evening of the day before or in the morning of the day when it is going to be sold in the bazaar. Farmers want to deliver the amount requested by Harihar bazaar before Sanjay market or any other intermediary. A minitruck is supplied to the FPO for transporting purposes. Vegetables gathered by the coordinator are loaded by the women farmers or their families in the morning for transit to Harihar market. It leaves Baniyagaon between 7:00 and 8:00 am and arrives at the market between 9:00 and 10:00 am.

1. The stock is unloaded and weighed by the farmers themselves after the delivery of the produce.
2. After weighing, merchandise is organised for sale in the shop. Thereafter, until 7:00 p.m. in the evening, there are consumer sales. The weekend has larger sales than the weekdays.
3. Pricing and payment for members - Initially, when the bazaar first opened, the prices were somewhat higher than those at Sanjay Market due to the organic origin of the vegetables. However, when the stocks did not move as anticipated, a course correction was made, and the vegetables are now priced competitively in comparison to the local market, which is very beneficial to the farmers. Similarly, the price given to farmers is 1 Rupee more than the market price at which their produce is sold to local market dealers. It is essential to remember, however, that payment is given at the end of the day.
4. IT systems - Although the implementation of IT systems is planned, it has not yet occurred. However, members converse by voice call or SMS using their smart phones.
5. Feasibility – viability and profitability - This business strategy relies on the demand for vegetables from the Harihar market to be successful. This approach is self-sustaining. The FPO anticipates the addition of more goods to its portfolio in the near future, which will increase revenue and mitigate risk if one category fails.
6. Business plan and strategy - Current aim is to maximise commerce at Harihar bazaar, and there are plans to establish more bazaars similar to this one in the city. In the future, home delivery and distribution to additional markets are also anticipated. With the assistance of Bastar Swak Mandal (BSM), a two-year business strategy has already been developed.
7. Revenue and margin model - Sales realisation from vegetables is the major income source as of now. However, as noted above, new items are expected to be introduced in future. Already, they have begun selling processed millet-based goods from another FPO. On average, the gross margin on vegetable sales is expected to be approximately 20 percent. However, after accounting for expenses, the net profit may be much lower.
8. Financing - Although membership fees of Rs 125 was received from each member farmer, it was not enough to operate the firm. Therefore, assistance from SRLM and NABARD aided in the operation of the firm. Under the MKSP programme, SRLM authorised Rs. 2,250/- for business promotion operating capital. In addition, NABARD granted the FPO with Rs 25,000 in operating capital assistance. SRLM,

District Mining Fund, awarded FPO a grant for the establishment of Harihar market, cold storage, furnishings, and the acquisition of a transport vehicle (DMF).

Impact of Panchayati Raj

Participatory development is essential in India. The people's growth must be led by them. A person from a different context of life would be far less aware of the people's situation than they are. It is a question of the self-drawn excellence's multilinear connotation. The relationship between people and governance has given it a specific significance when government accountability may be a social weapon for maximising the utilisation of human resources. It is an effort to use the greatest social understanding. It is the use of natural resources for human progress in conjunction with their complete exploitation. In this system, individuals may be sufficiently driven to form exceptional and effective social bonds. The residents may administer the local administration of their community. In this method, it is possible to keep individuals interested in their own growth. The development will be sufficiently rapid, and an inclusive trend will persist.

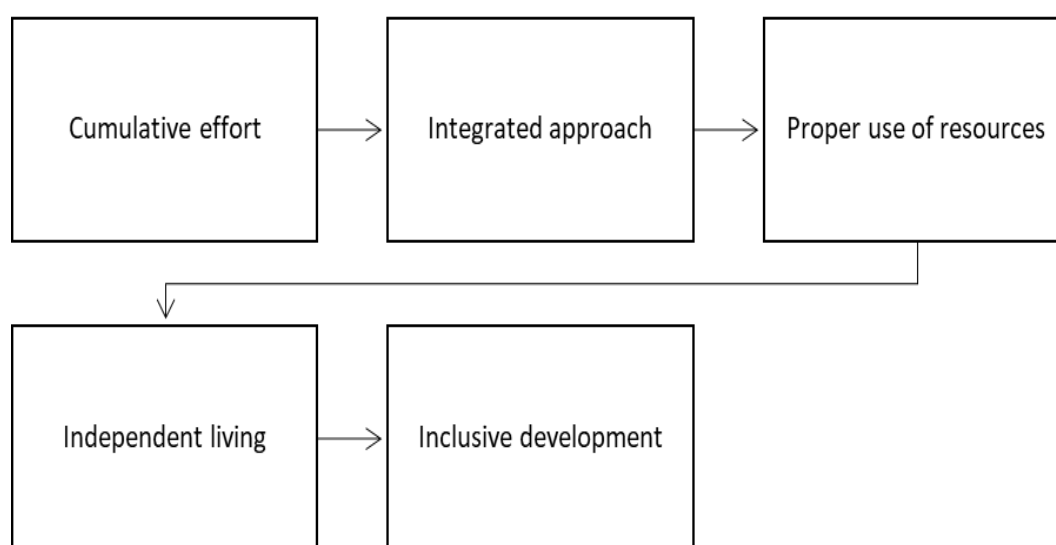


Figure 5.1 : Learning from Panchayati Raj

Relation of Panchayati Raj and Sustainability

It is possible to effectively identify the methods to attain a goal by using a collection of well-established concepts. The term "sustainability" refers to the use of resources in a manner that does not jeopardise the opportunities available to future generations. It has come to a point in time when the uniqueness of the cooperative management of development will be preserved inside the society. When the people will be able to match with the need and use by coming forward in society with the motivation to come in the line of resource management, then it will be useful for the people to make a mind for not wasting anything. People will come forward in society with the motivation to come in the line of resource management. The people may be employed by the government in its alternative form in order for them to choose their own social destiny. The community-based resources will be distributed to those individuals who are able to form some kind of emotional connection with those services. When the people in a democracy are happy enough with their own functionality, it is a special concept of democracy.

To Do Activities

1. Visit nearby District and write a case study on any successful project implemented by the district administration.
2. Visit nearby rural development block and write a case study on successful implementation of MGNREGA.
3. Visit any nearby village and write a case study on any successful women SHGs.

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Editors' Profile

Dr. W. G. Prasanna Kumar

Dr. W. G. Prasanna Kumar, PhD in Education with basic degree in Social Work and Master's Degrees in Sociology, Public Administration and Political Science has professional education in Environmental Economics, Public Relations, Communication and Training and Development. Presently Chairman, Mahatma Gandhi National Council of Rural Education (MGNCRE) under the Ministry of Human Resource Development, in Government of India strives to promote resilient rural India through Higher Education interventions. The national initiative of reviving Mahatma Gandhi's ideas of NaiTalim, spearheaded by Dr. W G Prasanna Kumar, has met unprecedented success at both national and state levels. The primary objective of this initiative is to promote Gandhiji's ideas on Experiential Learning, NaiTalim, Work Education and Community Engagement, and mainstreaming them in School Education and Teacher Education Curriculum & Pedagogy. As Professor and Head Centre for Climate Education and Disaster Management in Dr MCR HRD Institute, conducted several capacity building and action research programmes in climate education, disaster management and crowd management. He has handled many regional, national and international environmental education programmes and events including UN CoP11 to Convention on Biological Diversity and Media Information Management on Environmental Issues.

He was Director in National Green Corps in the State Government for over 11 years and Senior Social Scientist in State Pollution Control Board for 6 years. Conducted various curriculum and non- curriculum related training programmes in environmental education. He was a Resource Person for AP Judicial Academy, AP Police Academy, AP Forest Academy, EPTRI, Commissionerate of Higher Education and Intermediate Education, State Council for Educational Research and Training and National Council for Educational Research and Training New Delhi, CCRT, Bharathiya Vidyapeet University Pune, CPR Environmental Education Centre Chennai and Centre for Environment Education Ahmedabad. Dr W G Prasanna Kumar was trained in Community Consultation for Developmental Projects in EPA Victoria Australia in 1997 trained as State Chief Information Officer by IIM Ahmedabad and MCRHRDI Government of Andhra Pradesh in 2004 and trained in Environmental Education and Waste Management Technique by JICA, Japan in 2011.

He was awarded Best State Nodal Officer of National Green Corps Award from Centre for Science and Environment, New Delhi, 2008, Jal Mithra Award from Earthwatch Institute of India and Water Aid New Delhi, 2014 and Certificate of Commendation for the services in UN Conference of Parties to Convention for Biodiversity conducted at Hyderabad from 1-20 October 2012 by the Government of Andhra Pradesh 2012.

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