

# Rural Industrialisation and Options for Self Employment in Rural Areas

NLI Research Studies Series  
No. 139/2019

Dr. Poonam S. Chauhan  
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**V.V. Giri National Labour Institute**



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ISBN: 978-93-82902-68-3

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No. of Copies : 300

Year of Publication : 2019

This document can be downloaded from the Institute's website at [www.vvgnli.gov.in](http://www.vvgnli.gov.in)

Opinions expressed in the study are solely of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views of the Institute.

Printed and Published by V.V. Giri National Labour Institute, Sector-24,  
Noida-201301, U.P.

Printed at: Chandu Press, D-97, Shakarpur, Delhi-110092

## Preface

Village and cottage industries have an important role in the Indian economy. Because, these industries provide employment to a significant number of workers in the rural areas of the country. The Government had earlier accorded due importance to and provided for the growth of rural industries through Five Year Plans and industrial policies because of their high employment intensity. Since employment is a means to achieve growth with social justice, a number of programmes and schemes have been designed and implemented for their development after the independence. It has helped in the redistribution of income and wealth among different sections of people to a great extent. Many studies have been conducted to examine the needs and relevance of rural development and rural industrialization efforts in the country. The main purpose of the present study is to explore ways and means to suggest areas and sectors which could be taken up for rural industrialisation.

The study has been divided into nine chapters.

**Chapter One:** Chapter One gives a detailed introduction and overview of the rural India and rural industrialization, its needs and efficacy.

**Chapter Two:** Chapter Two discusses in the Five Year Plans for Rural Development.

**Chapter Three:** Chapter Three provides information regarding self-employment in rural areas, covering the present scenario and future trends.

**Chapter Four:** Chapter Four provides information about industrialization in rural areas, by capturing the experience and success in rural region of the country.

**Chapter Five:** Chapter Five discusses about certain successful case studies on self-employment.

**Chapter Six:** Chapter Six provides profile of the areas/villages studied.

**Chapter Seven:** Chapter Seven presents existing situations of two villages, where survey was undertaken for the study.

**Chapter Eight:** Chapter Eight highlights the existing situation in the study area and prospects and potentials.

**Chapter Nine:** Chapter Nine gives suggestions and recommendations

We hope this study will be useful to students, researchers, institutions, organizations and policy makers who are interested in and committed to overall development of people in general and rural workers in particular.



(H. Srinivas)

Director General, VVGNI



## Acknowledgement

We are beholden to our Director General, Dr. H. Srinivas for his continuous support and encouragement.

We thank RAG members, especially Mr. V.S. Nirmal and Dr. M.M. Rehman for their suggestions.

We are also indebted to Mr. Rajinder Singh, computer operator under the project, for his diligent work throughout the project. His patience and unending support to carry forward the work are remarkable.

We express our gratitude to Mrs. Valsamma B. Nair and Mr. Rishabh Bajpai for typing some part of this report.

We are also grateful to Mr. Dinesh Sharma, field investigator in the project.

Last but not least, without the support from Director General, the study would not have been completed.

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# Contents

Chapter One	: Introduction and Overview	1 – 8
Chapter Two	: Five Year Plans and Rural Development	9 – 12
Chapter Three	: Self Employment in Rural Areas – The Present and the Future	13 – 37
Chapter Four	: Rural Industrialization in Rural Areas: Experience and Success	38 – 48
Chapter Five	: Case Studies on Rural Development	49 – 61
Chapter Six	: Village Scenario in 2011	62 – 73
Chapter Seven	: Surveyed Village Profile	74 – 96
Chapter Eight	: The existing situations: Prospects and Potentials	97 – 98
Chapter Nine	: Suggestions and Recommendations	99 – 106
Executive Summary		106 – 109
References and Bibliography		110



# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

### Introduction

Mahatma Gandhi had rightly said “*India lives in villages*”. This stands true even today as the majority of the population of India still lives in villages and strive to seek livelihood in agriculture and allied services. (68.84 per cent of the total population lives in rural areas while 31.16 per cent resides in urban areas: 2011)

Over the years, attention is being paid towards improving the rural economy and quality of lives of rural people. The contemporary approach is of inclusive growth. This strategy implies that we cannot imagine the development of our economy unless we incorporate the development of our villages and living condition of people many of who are living in abysmal poverty.

The rural population, particularly, the poor peasants and casual labour households have been subjected to economic deprivation, discrimination and oppression of worst kind and of all types. The Five Year Plans could not implement the plans judiciously. Various programmes benefited both the advantaged and disadvantaged strata of the rural society asymmetrically. As the benefits of many programmes have, not reached the most needy people whose deprivation story is not a new phenomenon.

The concept of rural development was first discussed by Gandhi and Tagore. Gandhi wanted to develop rural societies and its people through khadi movement.

Rural development is still a burning issue in our country, ‘Rural refers to any area classified as village as per the revenue records of the state irrespective of population. According to Vedic definition – “*A village is an aggregate of several families sharing the same habitation. The rural areas are backward and underdeveloped in every respect. The local human and physical resources are not utilized optimally.*” The rural masses live under difficult and inhuman conditions. Through proper planning, education, awareness and income generation, one can develop villages and its people. The country cannot be developed until and unless the rural people are uplifted from their deplorable living conditions.

The concept of development implies, ‘*advancement to a higher state*’ or a process of planned institutional change to bring about better adjustment between human needs and aspirations on one hand and social policies and

programmes on the other. Development is brought about through positive progress in a society's condition by preventing decline or stagnation. Rural development means the total development of the area but also the development of the people living in rural regions. The objectives of rural development must focus upon:

- (a) Sustained increase in per capita output and outcomes;
- (b) Expansion of productive non-farm employment; and
- (c) Greater equity in the distribution of the benefits of growth. Rural development aims at increased employment, higher productivity, higher income, adequate food and nutrition, clothing, shelter, education including compulsory education, health and hygiene and building up of a sound value system.

During the current period, the rural development programmes must include issues like population control and compulsory and mandatory education. Without population control, fruits of development would not reach to others. It will always remain inadequate.

The rural development could be interpreted as following:

1. Development implies development of agriculture - because agriculture and allied activities are the main economic occupation in rural areas.
2. It also refers to economic development which focuses upon increase in national and per capita income of rural community by improving industrialization and creating employment opportunities.
3. Rural development means holistic development of rural community, which includes development of agriculture and strengthening rural economy, creating large number of jobs in non-farm sector and helping the rural people meet their minimum need, eradicating poverty and unemployment.

During the contemporary period, the focus of 'rural development is towards developing and utilizing natural and human resources, technologies, infrastructural facilities, institutions and organizations, government policies, schemes and programmes, which in turn, will accelerate the rural economic development; help in providing employment opportunities and would faster the improvement of quality of life of rural people and their overall sustainable development. Besides, it is also imperative to change the perceptions, beliefs, rituals, customs and attitudes of the rural people.

The Khadi Village Industries Commission (KVIC) has been rightly visualized, designed and programmed to be a pioneer rural development

institution to improve the economic and social life of rural poor through promotion of khadi and village industries.

In the past, several attempts were made for rural development through variety of experiments. Some of the significant experiments in this regard are as follows:

- The Sriniketan Experiment
- The Martandum Experiment
- The Gurgaon Experiment
- The Baroda Experiment
- The Bombay Experiment

An analysis of these experiments designed for rural development shows that individually each of the above was successful but only in the area of operation.

It did not spread to entire country because of vast dispersed areas and lack of proper co-ordination, and the desire for continued professional guidance and trained personnel.

Rural development programme should be based upon following four components:

1. Economic emancipation of the family with particular attention to provision adequate employment opportunities to women who are largely engaged at present in unpaid and underpaid jobs, often characterised by physical drudgery. Skill development is perquisite for women workers in rural areas.
2. Education of children and adults. Education of children should be free compulsory and mandatory upto 16 years of age.
3. Provision of minimum needs like safe drinking water supply, health care and rural communication.
4. Promotion of a small family norm through social and health education.

Thus, rural development should include and concentrate on every aspect of rural life by effectively organizing' planning, developing and utilizing resources for the good of the entire rural population and ample opportunities for decent livelihood of the rural people.

According to the Khadi and Village Industries Commission's contribution of Rural Development report -

- Natural resources management such as land, water, fisheries, poultry, dairy farming, etc.
- Exploiting natural resources for human welfare would include utilization of existing energy resources effectively and developing new sources of energy.
- Managing and developing human skills – it will include identifying craftsmen engaged in cottage and small industries which could utilize local skills, providing them training for effective management and marketing of the village industries produce.
- Maintenance systems would include health and family welfare for improving the living conditions and ensuring a better quality of life.
- Development system would include education and cultural activities. Humanistic system compassing social welfare sections of the society (including women and children), to uplift the lot of poorer people. Rural development must include overall positive changes in farm as well as non-farm sector.

The rural areas and population could be developed through development of roads, transport, power, insurance, banking and cottage industries which can play significant role in overcoming different problems. The rural poverty and unemployment can be minimised by focusing on developing traditional crafts and industries. At the same time, imparting modern education, health facilities and providing them with cheap and decent housing facility.

The rural development could be made effective by integrated approach such as:

- Making rural people critically aware about the benefits of rural development.
- Sensitizing them towards collective decision making and initiating collective action for their own development.
- Developing strong, effective and dedicated leadership in different parts of rural regions.
- Imparting scientific knowledge to the rural people and developing appropriate technology to improve productivity at every level.
- Agricultural development and development of its allied services.
- Enhancing drinking and irrigation facilities by improved water management via constructing tanks, small dams and canals etc. Water harvesting will also be a good initiative of providing water in rural areas.

- Creating new employment opportunities by promoting subsidiary occupations.
- Developing local resources by developing cottage and village industries in rural regions.
- Developing non-farming skills to promote and sustain service sector.
- Strengthening the delivery system and making it really efficient in order to provide easy supply of inputs, credit and good outlet for marketing their products.
- Rural development is utmost important for improvement of agriculture and allied activities such as animal husbandry, dairying, forestry and cottage and small industries. This will enhance employability of rural workers. These areas of work will have scope for labour absorption and income generation. *“increased production in the rural areas will lead to higher purchasing power in the hands of rural people which in turn will create more effective demand both for agriculture and industrial commodities. Household and small scale industries producing consumer good for mass consumption hold out the greatest potential for employment. However, this is the sector which has received inadequate attention in the earlier plans”* (Ibid.).

Dr. Abdul Kalam during his discussion about action plan for rural employment generation, stated that *“about 76 million people in rural areas needed to be gainfully employed in next five years. This would help ensure a sustained 10 per cent GDP Growth for a decade, thereby helping development of the country.”* He has suggested the following areas in which the job could be created:

- Textile Industry
- Boi-level generation
- Wasteland development
- Water harvesting and ranching
- Bamboo cultivation
- Health care and development of village knowledge centres.

Some other potential areas of employment generation in rural areas could be in agro-processing, horticulture, floriculture, domestic dairy, fishery, handicrafts, forestry, sericulture, animal husbandry and cottage and village industries. Creation of village infrastructures like roads, power, transport, communication network may result into huge employment.

Ignacy Sachs (2002). In his recent book has discussed employment policies for fostering jobs in following areas:

- i) "Exploring highly productive small-scale agriculture and making efforts for introducing second biology based green revolution.
- ii) Expanding the biomass utility for energy and industrial purposes.
- iii) Activating the rural non-agricultural sector, specially the small, decentralized industries.
- iv) Expanding public work in order to improve the systematic competitiveness of national and regional economics through better infrastructure, and
- v) Developing social services by highly labour - intensive delivery systems."

Unemployment and under-employment are the burning problems of our country. It has serious socio-economic repercussions. Hence, it is almost necessary to utilize our idle work force, especially in the rural areas, into productive activities in different sectors of the economy. A nations' progress rests upon strategic development which can take a balanced path between modernization and employment generation. It is a sizeable proportion of rural population trapped by never ending poverty and unemployment. They are forced to live in dehumanized living and working conditions. To tackle these ever mounting problems. We need to develop a massive and holistic strategy of sustained rural development.

For the realistic rural development we need a synergy strategy which not only takes care of the goals of rural development i.e. poverty alleviation, employment generation, income augmentation equitable distribution of fruits of development, but should also cater to the environmental protection.

Any strategy of rural development should include the development of agriculture and its allied avenues. This in turn, will improve the quality of life of rural people.

For this to happen the convergence of all government departments, ministries and agencies is imperative for developing the rural people and the rural societies. All system of governance to must work together for the development of rural India. There are multiple agencies for rural Development - such as government, corporate and voluntary agencies involved in rural development. Apart from these, there are a number of scientific and technological organisations engaged in various parts of the country for the rural development. There is a need for a single authority

for all these organizations, so that the goal of rural development could be achievable.

### **Rationale**

As India's overwhelming proportion of population lives in rural areas and majority of the population (in rural areas) eke out their livelihood from agriculture and allied activities, more often than not, the existing opportunities of employment in agrarian sector are not adequate enough to absorb the increasing number of employment seeking population.

However, there is enough scope in rural areas if proper industrialization is undertaken in judicious manner through a planned process. The resources are abundant – human, material, financial, social, etc. If these resources are harnessed systematically, there would be enough scope for employment opportunities in rural areas.

Keeping this in view, the present study was undertaken.

### **Scope**

The present study examined how, both at micro and macro levels, employment generating activities and opportunities are taking place in rural areas; and how and to what extent, rural workers are participating.

The scope of the study included employment generating potentials in the area of the study. In addition, it also looked into:

- (a) Resources endowment.
- (b) Implementation process of various development/ employment generating programmes;
- (c) Occupational pattern; and
- (d) Participation level of rural workers.

### **Objectives**

The main objective of the study was to examine how combining various factors, employment of work seeking population could be increased in different sectors of rural industry.

Some specific objectives were:

- (i) To study the existing level of rural industrialization and examine the potential in the selected areas;
- (ii) To study the existing self-employment opportunities in the selected areas and its potential;

- (iii) To identify employment generating rural based industrial endeavours and opportunities;
- (iv) To study some cases of successful rural industrialization; and
- (v) To recommend policy measures to enhance rural industrialization and self-employment opportunities.

### **Area**

The survey was conducted in two villages in district Faridabad, Haryana.

### **Research Methodology**

The study was conducted by using several methods and tolls:

- 1) Administration of questionnaire /schedule
- 2) Observation
- 3) Interviews
- 4) Focus Group Discussions.

Using the above methods primary information was collected. In addition, secondary information from Census, NSSO and other records and documents etc. were also be tapped for gathering information.

## CHAPTER TWO

# FIVE YEAR PLANS AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

After India's independence in 1947, the Indian Government took several initiatives to develop the country. One of the important initiatives was the adoption of Five Year Plans for socio-economic development. The first one was announced in 1951. The thrust of this plan was to develop cottage and village industries. To turn the plan into action the government of India established "Khadi and Village Industries Board, Central Silk Board, and Coir Board. The purpose of the First Five Year Plan (1951-1956) was to develop cottage and village industries and was treated as adjunct to the development of agriculture. The focus of this plan was to reduce the pressure on agriculture and to solve the problem of under-employment.

In the second plan, it was believed that production of consumer goods by the cottage and village industries would reduce inflation and meet the growing demand for commodities by the rural people. It was also envisaged that these industries would increase work opportunities, improve the quality of life of the rural households and result into more balanced and integrated rural economy.

In the Second Plan the recommendations by the Karve Committee (1955) were to develop programmes for village and small industries. The committee emphasized on organization of industrial cooperatives and regular programmes for transition for higher-technology in the Second Five Year Plan (1956-61).

The Industrial Policy was announced, which was the basic document which highlighted the long term policies for development of small industries. These small scale industries promoted large scale employment and also lead to ensuring a more equitable distribution of resources of capital and skill which otherwise might remained unused.

In the Third Five Year Plan (1961-66) the focus was on integration of villages industries with the rural economy. For the first time the concept of 'Rural Industrialization was discussed improvement of technology was further taken up through KVIC and other Rural Development Agencies, various programmes were initiated to provide assistance in improve the skills and training, in order to develop entrepreneurship among the people of rural societies.

The Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-74) showed a different approach of development. Three objective were more emphasized, such as -

1. Social objective of providing employment,
2. Economic objective of providing of production, saleable articles, and
3. Wide objective of creating a spirit of self-reliance and building a strong rural community. It also suggested adopting an appropriate technology.

In the Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-79) it was proposed to extend the development scale to give attention to traditional artisans in order to provide them sustainable employment in village itself. For the first time it was thought to give institutional credit for cottage and village industries. Research and development received greater attention National Committee on Science and Technology (NCST) also supported Cottage and village industries. During the same period (1969) the banks were nationalized, which opened a new avenue for development. The government announced 20 points programme, which included the enhancement of cottage and village industries.

These industries were included in Government's poverty alleviation schemes.

During this period (1977-79) the Janta Party Government announced a new Industrial Policy. In this policy the focus was on effective and aggressive promotion of cottage and village industries in rural areas and small towns. *"Reservation of spheres of production for the small-scale sectors, identification of tiny sector, launching of District Industries Centres for providing all support to small units at one place, closer coordination between development of large, medium and small sectors were the salient features of this new policy. Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) was launched, which included Industry, service and Business (ISB) component"*.

During the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85) a new Industrial Policy was announced which included the promotion of industrial in the country. It emphasized on economic viability in the villages, promotion of suitable industries in rural areas in order to accelerate higher employment and higher per capita income for the villages in the country. The government gave attention to promote handlooms, handicrafts, khadi and other village industries.

In 1981 new textile policy was announced by the Government of India. *"The policy highlighted measures for maximum possible growth of handlooms in the decentralized sector and faster growth of khadi, hosiery and natural silk sectors to generate more employment and raise standard of living of weavers and others in these sectors."*

The cottage and village industries were given greater attention with the thought that these would alleviate poverty by employment generation in rural areas in the non-farm sector. The development of cottage and village industries became the part of anti-poverty strategy for rural development. The aim was employment and income generation in rural regions.

The programme concentrated upon development of agriculture, horticulture, animal husbandry and dairying, poultry, piggy, fisheries, soil and water conservation, setting up of agro-based, forest-based industries and village and cottage industries, providing meaningful options for rural artisans and encouragement for self-employment schemes. The government stressed that greater attention must be given for development of backward areas, weaker sections and enhance women's participation. Emphasis was also given to improving technology and promoting training.

The Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90) focused on poverty alleviation and creating productive employment through upgradation of technology and providing institutional credit to rural people through cottage and village industries.

The Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97) and the Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002) outlined the importance to the development of large-scale industry and infrastructure growth. As a result the cottage and village industries declined.

The Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-2007) had the following features:

- Self-reliant grown
- Greater dependence on institutional credit
- Reduction in subsidies and grants, and curtailment of financial concessions.

In the Tenth Five Year Plan set out the following objectives:

- The removal of unemployment and under employment.
- An appreciable rise in the standard of living of the poorest sections of the population.
- The state must provide the basic needs of people such as clean drinking water, adult literacy, elementary education, health care, rural roads, rural housing or landless households and basic minimum services for the urban slums.

A committee for strengthening of the Khadi Village Industries Commission (KVIC) sector was setup under the chairmanship of Shri K.C. Pant,

Deputy Chairperson, Planning Commission. The report was submitted in November, 2001, recommended a special package for the development of the KVIC sector.

In the Tenth Five Year Plan following are stipulated:

- “No Loss” instead of “No Profit” by KVI organizations/ institutions.
- Provide employment to rural people.
- Produce saleable/marketable products.
- Creating self-reliance among the people and building up of strong rural community spirit.

In the XIth and XIIth Plans, similar efforts were made to enhance rural industrialization.

Rural industrialization in realistic term is the need of the hour. Rural industries refer to a host of industries, which not only includes the khadi traditional handicrafts and artisan industries, but also agro-based industries, light engineering, and consumer good producing industries. They are the good source of rural employment.

## CHAPTER THREE

# SELF EMPLOYMENT IN RURAL AREAS - THE PRESENT AND THE FUTURE

In rural areas the levels of unemployment, under-employment, poverty, economic inequality are some serious problems. The Indian Government has implemented several development programmes and schemes with the concern to improve the deplorable conditions of rural workers. But most of the programmes have failed to effectively address the target population. Despite general economic growth and overall gains in attaining food-sufficiency, rural poverty, unemployment and underemployment continue unabated.

There is need to review the country's past and current policies, strategies and programmes for employment generation in rural areas. For complete development of a rural region. Economic development should be linked to social development. Since poverty is caused by inaccessibility of employment opportunities. Thus, the focus of the policy makers should be to generate adequate productive employment.

The proportion of population residing in rural parts of the country is quite large and hardly changed over the years. The labour force growth rate quite often exceeds that of the population. There are following reasons for it:

- (i) There is substantial level of unemployment and under employment in the economic dominated by agricultural and rural activities.
- (ii) Although absolute poverty has not increased, the poverty ratio for India is still considerably high.
- (iii) The existing inequality among rural households, in terms of landholdings, income, cattle and other assets has widened. "In addition to poverty estimates, details of calorie - intake and other basic needs indicators show that in several countries the conditions of the rural poor have become worse" (G. Edgren and M. Muqtada).
- (iv) The phenomenal increase in population has led to the increased landlessness in rural areas.

Unemployment is one of the prominent causes of rural poverty. Also, the employment must offer adequate wage income to sustain a rural household at least to a threshold level. Real wage rates must adequately compensate for rural agricultural and non-agricultural activities.

In several countries the real wages have shown a declining trend. Increased levels of poverty, inequality, landlessness and unemployment in the rural areas contributes to rural-urban and regional disparities. Informal sector is swelling because of gross unemployment in the rural areas.

### **Employment Generation in Rural Areas**

Government of India has announced several employment generation programmes in rural areas. The intention was to create direct employment of the rural poor. These programmes have supplied both temporary supplement income and created physical infrastructure. These programmes also helped to promote non-farm employment, but did not address the question of erasing total unemployment. The impact of these programmes were limited, localized and offered brief employment entitlements to the landless and marginal farmers.

The thrust of rural development development programmes shifted to creation of self-employment and entrepreneur programmes.

Investments in self-employment and entrepreneur programmes are generally through provision of credit, some tools and equipments, training extension services and market information. Self-employment schemes are specially addressed toward target groups, whether they be landless agricultural workers, marginal farmers, women or unemployed youth. The United Nations standard classification of labour force defines self-employed persons as those who “run their own business, alone or in association with other owners, appropriating the profits therefore, who do not regularly employ the variant, must relate to an activity where the owner is also a worker, often the principle workers.

The self employment schemes are operated through public agencies and non-governmental organizations. The major characteristics of Self-employment programmes are as follows:

- i) There are target oriented schemes which often adhere to strict criteria in choosing potential beneficiaries;
- ii) Concentrates especially on women workers;
- iii) These schemes offer subsidies and collateral-free credit to landless workers and other rural poor;
- iv) The schemes encourage entrepreneurship among poor individuals, and in some cases, such as the Grameen Bank in Bangladesh, there is a built-in supervision as well as compulsion to create savings and emergency funds through group formation.

At present, there are several weaknesses in self-employment schemes such as:

- (a) Simply providing access to credit is not sufficient for self-sufficient for self-employment generation. Various other inputs like information and marketing support are required;
- (b) Self-employment activities are rudimentary in nature (often concentrating on a small range of activities, for instance, cattle or poultry farming);
- (c) Single credit delivery is insufficient. Repeat loans are necessary;
- (d) These schemes have weaker employment and income multiplier effects, thus implying a massive coverage under their operation;
- (e) The cost-effectiveness of such resource diversion is questionable. Cost-effectiveness analysis is required and
- (f) These schemes while helping a few families to cross the poverty line, do not necessarily ensure any check against the growth of poverty, unemployment and landlessness in the economy.

Another important concern regarding planning and promoting self-employment in rural areas is whether, within the resources available; the administration and design of such mass scale programmes will be a durable source of employment and income for the rural poor. It has been experienced that the multiplier effects of these programmes are low, reaching millions of poor entails substantial resource diversion. The success of the programmes and schemes promoting self-employment in rural areas depends upon proper planning and effective implementation. This may ensure viable employment and create backward and forward linkages with related sectors. Self-employment has attained a country-wide scale only in India's IRD Programme (K. Prasad).

According to Deolalikar (1986) "Although opinions of the extent of success of India's IRD vary, its widespread application is undisputed. IRD schemes are usually meet successful in regions with well-developed infrastructure and support facilities".

Self-employment programmes have a number of variants, some schemes emphasis on entrepreneurship and enhance productive assists by providing credit, subsidy a simple tools and equipment. The most pervasive self-employment schemes are generally heavily dependent on credit. Training and skill development from another component of self-employment schemes. These schemes are administrated by vocational training institutions, NGOs, and public sector agencies at center or at

various decentralized levels. Agriculture, non-agriculture activities ranging from cultivation practices, promotion of fisheries and livestock to simple skill development in small scale industrial and cottage level production constitute training activities. Training cum-credit schemes are common, self-employment consisting of credit subsidies at various stages of production, skill training, motivation, marketing and information, would be more viable.

“The complex labour categories, particularly in rural sector, do not readily lend themselves to simple classifications. In fact, the dictomy between the wage-employed and self-employed is tenuous since both categories may co-exist within a household, or be practiced by a single workers.

These self-employed persons freedom in the production process strongly depends on assets ownership. The ownership of means of production, extent of profits occurring from the enterise and freedom in decision making are the important dimensions in categorizing self employment.

It has been noted that in the self-employment in farm and non-farm sectors, majorly based on family skills, already exists. If “unpaid family helpers” are accounted for, more than 50 per cent of rural households in Asia are, in some ways, already self-employed. But, such self-employment, which deals in low productive activities, co-exists with high degree of underemployment.

The Indian government from its first five year plan of 1950-55, has been committed to to combat the problem of unemployment in the country specially in rural areas. Indian Government’s goal of economic planning and development incorporates employment generation. Although, employment creation is the prime concern but, its policies of import substitution, capital subsidization, currency over valuation, and industrial capacity licensing, have been contrary to the goal of employment generation (26). For example, “relative emphasis on import substitution as opposed to export promotion as a strategy of industrial growth has meant an over emphasis on the domestic production of capital goods that have low labour contents and relative neglect of labour-intensive traditional export goods. An over-valued rupee has produced the same result. The large number of investment allowanced, tax holidays, and capital subsidies offered to industry have resulted in a bias toward capital-intensity in the organized industry sector”.

In addition, “The National Bank of Agricultural and Rural Development bank (NABARD) has recently decided to permit refinancing of loans for purchase of combine – harvesters at concessional interest rates, even though

there is a sufficient evidence supporting the large labour-displacing nature of such harvesters. Finally, capacity licensing in certain labour – intensive industries, presumably meant to prevent economic concentration in the organized sector of these industries to protect the unorganized informal sector, may have discouraged a potential flow of resources from the organized sector of other more capital intensive industries to the organized sector of the labour intensive industries”.

The government has followed these employment-reducing trade and fiscal policies at the same time as it has been implementing special employment-generating policies.

In the third five year plan ‘Rural Work Programme’ appeared but in a small way. In the first two plans the emphasis was on long-term policies to generate rural employment. In the Third and the subsequent plans the focus was on long term policies of combating rural unemployment permanently. Along with this, it was also envisaged that short-term or interim relief programmes for the rural poor, for instance, public works or credit and subsidies for asset creation for the self-employed with the Sixth Five Year Plan the Government of India’s commitment to poverty alleviation and generating rural employment, become much more serious in the Sixth Plan a specific time frame was decided to poverty alleviation and employment generation in rural areas and it announced a package of programmes to achieve the target. It also provided much larger funds for these programmes, than ever before.

From the time of independence, ‘Growth with Social Justice’ has been the core objective of India’s development planning. (Planning Commission, 2001) unemployment and poverty have been the serious problems in the country, which is the greatest hurdle in development. But, the Government of India did not give any long term policy to resolve the problems of unemployment and poverty. For a substantial period of time it was thought that economic growth would automatically lead to increased employment opportunities and would also fulfill the requirements of growing labour force. But the outcome was quite depressing. The number of unemployed persons increased from 22 million in 1969 to 42 million in 2004 (Sen Gupta, 2008). Then, the Government of India announced several schemes and programmes for providing additional employment options and various special schemes of employment generation i.e. self-employment and wage-employment programmes.

According to Government of India, “as per 55<sup>th</sup> round of National Sample Survey (NSS) on employment and unemployment in India 1999-2000, 55 percent of the employed males and 57 percent of the employed females

in the rural areas were self-employed persons. At the same time, only 9 per cent of the employed males and 3 per cent of employed females were regular employees". The Planning Commission for the 10<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan had highlighted that about 36 to 40 per cent of the rural population still required casual wage employment. Hence, the government of India has taken several initiatives to provide self-employment to rural population, in order to uplift them from abysmal poverty.

## **II (A) (1). Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)**

IRDP was a centrally sponsored self-employment scheme, which had been in operation in all the Blocks of the country since 1980 during the Sixth Five Year Plan. The scheme was financed on 50:50 basis by the Centre and the States. The Central funds were allocated to the States on the basis of the proportion of rural poor in a State to the total rural poor in the country. The programme aimed at providing self-employment in a variety of activities like sericulture, animal husbandry and land-based activities in the primary sector; weaving, handicrafts, etc. in the secondary sector, service and business activities in the tertiary sector. The acquisition of productive assets or appropriate skills would help the rural poor to generate additional income on a sustainable basis which will enable them to cross the poverty line. The target group consisted largely of small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers and rural artisans living below the poverty line, Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes families and physically handicapped persons. Within the target group, there was an assured coverage of 50 per cent for Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes, 40 per cent for women and 3 per cent for the physically handicapped. Based on the feedback received from the State governments, suitable changes were made in the guidelines for the IRDP, from time to time.

The total investment under IRDP during the Sixth Five Year Plan was Rs. 4762.78 crore as against the target of Rs. 4500 crore. The number of families benefited during the period was 165.62 lakh, of which 64.64 lakh belonged to Scheduled Caste/Scheduled Tribe (Planning Commission, 1985). During the Seventh Plan period, the total investment was increased to Rs. 8080.56 crore and about 181.77 lakh households were benefited. The sectoral composition indicates that, of all the schemes selected, 44 per cent were in the primary sector, 18.5 per cent in the secondary sector, and 37.5 per cent in the tertiary sector (Planning Commission, 1992). During the Eighth Five Year Plan, the total investment amounted to Rs.11541.06 crore and 10.83 million families were covered against the initial target of 12.6 million families. Of the families covered, 50.06 per cent were from Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes. The coverage of women was only 33.59 per cent which was lower than the target of 40 per cent (Planning Commission, 1998).

In 1993, the RBI appointed a High Power Committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. D.R. Mehta, to make an in-depth study of IRDP and recommend suitable measures for its improvement. Based on the recommendations of the Committee, new initiatives were taken by the Government under IRDP in the Eighth Plan. It was decided to bring the literate unemployed youth (below the poverty line) for IRDP activities by giving them subsidy for projects. Group activities involving at least 5 members were promoted by enhancing the ceiling on subsidy to Rs.1.25 lakh or 50 per cent of the project cost, whichever was less. Even the cut-off line was abolished to enable all families below the poverty line to be assisted under the programme. There had been considerable diversification of IRDP activities since the inception of the programme. Initially, a majority of the beneficiaries under the programme subscribed to primary sector activities. In 1980-81, IRDP activities were heavily skewed towards the primary sector which accounted for 93.56 per cent, while the shares of the secondary and tertiary sectors were 2.32 per cent and 4.12 per cent respectively. Over the years, the share of the primary sector came down to around 55 per cent, while the shares of the secondary and tertiary sectors increased proportionately to 15 per cent and 30 per cent respectively (Planning Commission, 1998).

In the 10th Plan document, the Planning Commission had stated that 54 million families had been benefited under the IRDP till March 1999, since the inception of the programme. The total investment including subsidy was Rs. 33,953 crore. The results of the last Concurrent Evaluation revealed that 14.8 per cent of the beneficiaries assisted under the IRDP could cross the revised poverty line of Rs.11000/annum (1991-92 prices). Though the programme was successful in reducing poverty in India to a certain extent, many criticisms were raised against the efficiency in the implementation of the programme, particularly about the recovery performance which was only 41 per cent as on March 1996 (Planning Commission, 2002). It was also criticised that the programme badly affected the health of the lending financial institutions due to increasing proportion of non-performing assets and resulting defaults in loan payments. With effect from 1st April 1999, the scheme was merged into Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY).

## **II (A) 2. The Scheme for Training of Rural Youth for Self- Employment (TRYSEM)**

The scheme, Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), was started in August 1979, as an allied programme to strengthen the IRDP. It aimed at training about 2 lakh rural youths every year to enable them to be self-employed. Under this scheme, 40 youths were selected from each Block and, to be eligible for selection, the person should belong to rural

families having an income less than Rs. 3500 p.a. It was also prescribed that at least of 1/3 of the rural youths trained were to be women. Against the target of 10.01 lakh youths to be trained during the Sixth Plan, 10.14 lakh youths were actually trained, out of which 4.783 lakh youths were self-employed. Members of SC and ST accounted for 32.9 per cent of the persons trained, while women accounted for 33.8 per cent (Planning Commission, 1985). While reviewing the rural development and poverty alleviation programmes, the Planning Commission for the 8th Plan reported that during the Seventh Plan, 9.97 lakh youth were trained under TRYSEM, of which 46.5 per cent took up self-employment and 13.13 per cent got wage employment (Planning Commission, 1992). During the Eighth Plan, 15.28 lakh youth were trained under TRYSEM, of whom 34.16 per cent took up self-employment and 15.05 per cent, wage-employment; the remaining 50.79 per cent remained unemployed (Planning Commission, 1998). The report of the Working Group on Rural Poverty Alleviation Programmes for the 10th Five Year Plan states that 45.56 lakh youths had been trained under the TRYSEM from 1980-81 to 1998-99 (Planning Commission, 2001). The TRYSEM was merged into Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) in 1999.

### **II (A) 3. Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA)**

Another programme, Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA), was introduced in September 1982, in 50 districts on a pilot basis on account of the lesser provision and benefit for women under IRDP during the first three years of the 6th Five Year Plan. The basic objective was to provide necessary support services to enable the women to take up income-generating activities. The scheme aimed at improving the living conditions of women and children by providing opportunities for self-employment and access to basic social services. The main strategy adopted under this programme was to facilitate poor women in the rural areas with employment, skill upgradation, training, credit and other support services so that the DWCRA women can take up income-generating activities for supplementing their incomes. Assistance was to be given either to individual women or to organized groups of women to take up economically viable activities. Under the scheme, women were granted assistance to take up viable economic activities with Rs. 15,000 as a one-time grant to be used as a revolving fund.

Analysing the rural development and poverty alleviation programmes, the Planning Commission for the 7th Plan reported that the outlay for the scheme during the Sixth Plan was Rs. 15.60 crore, which was to be shared equally by the Centre and the States. It was also felt that

Government efforts were to be supplemented by voluntary agencies also. Thus, assistance from UNICEF was also made available to the extent of Rs. 5.40 crore. During the 6th Plan alone, 3308 Groups covering 52170 women beneficiaries were actually organized under the Programme (Planning Commission, 1985). During the Seventh Plan, the scheme was extended to 161 districts and about 28,000 groups were formed during this period against the target of 35,000 with a membership of 4.6 lakh women (Planning Commission, 1992). During the Eighth Plan, the programme was extended to all the districts of the country and the Union Government took several initiatives to strengthen the programme. The revolving fund was increased from Rs.15,000 to Rs.25,000, and the formation of smaller DWCRA groups was permitted in remote areas. The Child Care Activities scheme was introduced in the DWCRA programme in 1995-96 with the objective of providing child care services for the children of DWCRA women. Similarly, the Information, Education and Communication (IEC) component was introduced to generate awareness among rural women about the development programmes implemented for their uplift and welfare. Altogether, 141386 DWCRA groups covering 2268327 women were formed during the 8th Plan, spending 190.74 crore (Planning Commission, 1998). The Working group on rural poverty alleviation programmes for the 10th Five Year Plan reported that 2.73 lakh groups were formed with 41.45 lakh members under the DWCRA during 1982-83 to 1998-99 (Planning Commission, 2001). The DWCRA was merged into Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) in 1999.

#### **II (A) 4. Supply of Improved Toolkits to Rural Artisans (SITRA)**

Under this programme, improved toolkits were provided to rural artisans (except weavers, tailors, needle workers and beedi workers) all over India at 90 per cent subsidy, to ensure increased income to the beneficiaries, besides achieving improved quality of life, enhanced production and reduction in migration to urban areas. The scheme was launched in July 1992, as a subsidiary scheme of IRDP in selected districts and was then extended to all the districts of the country. The scheme aims at supply of a kit of improved hand tools within a financial ceiling of Rs.2000 for which the artisans need pay only 10 per cent, while the remaining 90 per cent is the subsidy from the Government of India. The supply of power-driven tools costing Rs.4500 is also permitted under this scheme. Besides this, the artisans were trained under TRYSEM and any additional finance required by the artisans was to be provided through loans under IRDP. Since the inception of this scheme in 1992-93, up to 1998-99, 10.61 lakh toolkits were been distributed to rural artisans at an expenditure of Rs.209.92 crore. The scheme was merged into Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) in 1999.

## II (A) 5. Ganga Kalyan Yojana (GKY)

In order to focus on the irrigation requirements of small and marginal farmers, Ganga Kalyan Yojana (GKY) was introduced in 1996-97 as a sub-scheme of the IRDP. Though a provision of Rs. 19081.50 lakh was made by the Central Govt. in this direction during 1996-97, the fund was actually released during March 1997, and only Rs 1093.545 lakh was utilized during 1997-98. Altogether, 6142 individuals and 1536 groups were also benefited under the scheme with the provision of wells and tube wells (Planning Commission, 2002). Due to some operational problems in its implementation, the scheme was discontinued from 1998-99 and the unutilized funds were pooled with the new scheme of Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) with effect from 1.4.1999.

## II (A) 6. Million Wells Scheme (MWS)

The Ministry of Rural Areas and Employment launched a Million Wells Scheme (MWS) in 1988-89. The objective of the scheme was to provide open wells, free of cost, to poor SC/ST farmers in the category of small and marginal farmers, and to free bonded labourers. Where such wells were not feasible, the amounts allotted were to be utilised for other schemes of minor irrigation projects and activities like irrigation tanks, water harvesting structures and also for development of lands of SCs/STs and freed bonded labourers. The beneficiaries had to undertake the construction of wells through their own labour and local labour for which they were to be paid. Thus, the scheme could help in the creation of employment and capital formation. Till 1998-99, a total of 1308433 wells were constructed under MWS with an expenditure of about Rs. 4976.63 crore (Table 3.1) (Planning Commission, 2002).

**Table 3.1**  
**Funds Allocated and Wells Constructed under MWS Plan**

Funds allotment year	Total Fund Allocated (Rs. in crores)	Expenditure (Rs. in crores)	% of Expenditure to Fund Allocated	No. of Wells Constructed
Seventh Plan	271.44	241.15	88.84	137979
Annual Plan 1990-91	524.63	279.74	55.32	56433
Annual Plan 1991-92	524.63	495.19	94.39	172328
Eighth Plan	3727.45	2990.59	80.23	743030
Ninth Plan 1997-99	1120.17	969.96	86.59	198663
Grand Total	6168.32	4976.63	80.68	1308433
Average/Well (Rs) (Under the Scheme)	47142.80	38035.04	-	-

Assets with the help of bank credit and government subsidy. The scheme was introduced on the assumption that the rural poor had competencies of producing valuable goods and services, if they were given the right support and assistance by the Government. The scheme was launched in April 1999, by restructuring the erstwhile rural development programmes like IRDP and its allied programmes, namely, TRYSEM, DWCRA, SITRA and GKY besides MWS. The programme covered all aspects of self-employment such as selection of key activities, planning of activity clusters, organization of the poor into Self Help Groups (SHGs) having 10-15 members, and building their capacities through social mobilization, training and skill development, creation of infrastructure, provision of technology and marketing support, etc. The SGSY was implemented by the District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs) with the active involvement of Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs), banks, State government and Non-Government Organizations (NGOs). Key activities selected were to be such as give the Swarozgaris an income of Rs 2000 per month, net of bank loan repayment. The programme provided special safeguards for the weaker sections and women. It was provided that 50 per cent of the groups formed and 40 per cent of the Swarozgaris assisted should be women. Similarly, SC/STs should constitute 50 per cent, and the disabled should constitute 3 per cent of the Swarozgaris assisted. Further, 15 per cent of the funds under the SGSY was set apart at the national level for special projects, which had self-employment generation potential in rural areas. The fund under the programme was shared between the Centre and the State on 75:25 basis.

As per the guidelines, the SHGs had to open an account in a nearby bank to get the loan from that the bank and also to deposit the fund raised by them in the bank. The SHGs would receive a revolving fund of Rs. 25,000 from banks as cash credit facility. Of this, Rs. 10,000 would given to the bank by the DRDA and the banks were to charge interest only on the sum exceeding Rs. 10,000. The subsidy allowed under the programme was uniform at the rate 30 per cent of the project cost, subject to a maximum of Rs.7500 per individual Swarozgari, 50 per cent of the project cost subject to a maximum of Rs.10000 in the case of STs & SCs and disabled Swarozgaris, 50 per cent of the cost of the scheme subject to a ceiling of Rs.1.25 lakh for group projects. The monetary ceiling on subsidy was not applicable to irrigation projects. The funds for the SGSY were shared on 75:25 basis between the Central and State Governments.

The actual budgetary allocation was only Rs.12334.3 crore (69.3 per cent). The draft Approach Paper further lays down that during 10 years of

implementation of SGSY, 3.6 million SHGs were formed, out of which only 0.08 million SHGs took up economic activities. In spite of the huge investments made by the Government on SGSY, the physical output had not been so impressive. Target-driven SHGs formations, subsidy-driven corruption, obsession with asset formation without proper marketing mechanism, etc., were observed as the major problems by the Demands for Grants of the Ministry of Rural Development (2010-11). Poor administration and management of the scheme and inadequate banking staff, leading to non-repayment of loans, were noted as the major difficulties in the implementation of the scheme.

Since 2011, SGSY has been renamed as National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM) along with incorporation of new provisions. NRLM is designed as a demand-driven programme and the State Governments have to formulate their own poverty reduction action plans based on their past experience, resources and skills base. Similarly, NRLM will provide for a professional support structure for implementation at all levels from National to Sub-district level in different streams.

## **II (B). Wage Employment Programmes**

Poverty eradication has been one of the major objectives of the development planning process in India since the inception of the formal planning process in the country in 1951. Among the poverty alleviation schemes, the wage employment programmes play an important role as they are intended to provide employment opportunities to the rural poor not only during lean agricultural seasons but also in times of floods, droughts and other natural calamities. These programmes help in the creation of community assets such as village ponds, schools, rural roads, etc., for the direct and continuing benefits of the poverty groups. These programmes had also put an upward pressure on market wage rates by attracting people to public works programmes, thereby reducing labour supply and pushing up demand for labour. Enhanced allocations by Central and State Governments for the provision of education, health, sanitation and other facilities for the rural poor have certainly made improvement in the overall quality of life in the rural areas. Believably, due to the sustained efforts of Government interventions, rural poverty could be brought down from 56.4 per cent in 1973-74 to 37.3 per cent in 1993-94 and further to 28.3 per cent in 2004-05 (Planning Commission, 2008). In short, with over 300 million poor people living in poverty, the country has been struggling to find ways to eradicate poverty (Planning Commission, 2008). Since 1960, a series of wage employment

programmes for the rural poor have been launched by the Government of India. They are:

1. Rural Manpower Programme (RMP) in 1960 -61
2. Rural Work Programme (RWP) 1970-71
3. Crash Scheme for Rural Employment (CRSE) in 1971-72
4. Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme (PIREP) in 1972
5. Small Farmers Development Agency programme (SFDA)
6. Food for Work Programme (FWP) in 1977
7. National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) in 1980
8. Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) in 1983
9. Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS) in 1993
10. Jawahar Rojgar Yojana (JRY) in 1993-94
11. Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY) in 1999-2000
12. Sampoorna Grameen Rojgar Yojana (SGRY) in 2001-02
13. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme

## **II (B) 1. The Rural Manpower Programme (RMP)**

The Rural Manpower Programme (RMP) was the first among the rural employment programmes and was started towards the end of 1960-61. The programme aimed at providing employment for 100 days to at least 2.5 million persons by the last year of the Third Plan, thereby to utilize the manpower resources of the country to the fullest extent possible. Initially, it was introduced in 32 Community Development Blocks on a pilot basis for utilizing rural labour force. Then, the programme was extended to a thousand Blocks by the end of 1964-65. It also helped to ensure a substantial expansion in employment opportunities in areas exposed to seasonal unemployment. The report of the Planning Commission for the 10th Five Year Plan reveals that the resource constraints limited the scope of the scheme and only 20 per cent of the originally envisaged outlay of Rs. 150 crore could be provided. The programme ended in 1968-69, generating 137 million man-days of employment (Planning Commission, 2001). The physical performance of the programme over the years is depicted in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2**  
**Employment Generation under RMP Plan**

Plan	Year	Employment in Man days (in lakhs)	Change (+/-)
<b>Third Five Year Plan</b>	1961-62	18.96	--
	1962-63	57.15	38.19
	1963-64	178.93	121.78
	1964-65	222.42	43.49
	1965-66	346.87	124.45
<b>Annual Plans</b>	1966-67	245.35	-101.52
	1967-68	195.53	-46.82
	1968-69	82.26	-116.27
<b>Total</b>		<b>1370.21</b>	<b>--</b>
<b>CAGR (%)</b>		<b>21.3</b>	<b>--</b>
<b>R2</b>		<b>0.2924</b>	<b>--</b>

Source: Report of the Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Community Development & Co-operation, GOI 1966-67

## II (B) 2. Rural Work Programme (RWP)

On an evaluation of the reasons for the failure of the RMP, it was decided to revive it as the Rural Work Programme (RWP) so as to utilize the manpower resources of the country to the fullest extent and to ensure a substantial expansion in employment opportunities. The new scheme, started in 1970-71, aimed at generating employment for 1 lakh people in terms of 100 days' work for each person during the 1st year of the programme and for about 2.5 million persons by the end of the Fourth Plan. Initially, a sum of Rs. 150 crore was provided for the five-year period. But, scarcity of resources was the major problem in this case also, and the programme was pruned considerably and only a sum of Rs.19 crore was made available during the whole Plan period. As reported by Khan (1976), the scheme failed to achieve even the lower target. At the end of the 4th Plan only Rs. 8 crore could be spent on various projects, and employment could be provided to 4,00,000 people in terms of 100 days' work in a year for each person.

The Programme Evaluation Organization of the Planning Commission opined that the programme did not achieve satisfactory results due to various reasons. Drastic curtail in the fund allotment created uncertainties about the continuation and extension of the programme. As a result, the State governments could not even plan and service the project systematically. Lack of conformity of areas and schemes with the criteria laid down, delay in release of funds, and lack of co-ordination between

Central and State governments, weak organization, defective planning and incorrect estimate of the locally available material and technical personnel were reported to be the major causes for the failure of the programme (Gupta, 1971).

### **II (B) 3. Crash Scheme for Rural Employment (CSRE)**

The Crash Scheme for Rural Employment (CSRE) was introduced in 1971-72 with the twin objective of direct generation of employment in all districts of the country at the rate of 2.5 lakh man-days per annum in each district through the execution of labour-intensive projects and creation of durable assets like roads, means of irrigation, soil conservation, culverts, forestation, land reclamation, development of Panchayat land etc., in consonance with local development plans. Though the entire cost of the scheme was met by the Government of India, the implementation was done through the State governments and Union Territories. The total outlay sanctioned for the scheme was Rs.142.74 crore in 3 years, of which Rs.122.63 crore was released. In addition, the State governments and Union Territories spent Rs.2.75 crore, bringing the total expenditure to Rs.125.38 crore. Reports confirm that the scheme could create 3168.35 lakh man-days of employment (Khan, 1976). It was alleged that almost all the States and Union Territories either underpaid the labourers or spent less amount on materials used in the construction of projects than the ratio prescribed by the Central Government. It had badly affected the interest of the labourers and quality of assets generated. Moreover, inadequate publicity for the scheme, chance of better wages elsewhere, contractual obligations and pre-occupation with own holdings were also reasons for the non-popularity of the scheme (Planning Commission, 1979).

### **II (B) 4. Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme (PIREP)**

The implementation of RMP and CSRE led to the realization that more concerted efforts were needed at least in some selected areas to bring about a considerable impact of the employment schemes. Thus, along with CSRE, a Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme (PIREP) was started in November 1972 in 15 selected Community Development Blocks for a three-year period. The basic objectives of the PIREP were providing additional employment opportunities for unskilled labour and creation of assets, which could have a multiplier effect on new job opportunities on a continuing basis. In the first year of operation, Rs.1.22 crore was spent, which resulted in the generation of 32.82 lakh man days of employment. A further allocation of Rs. 2.48 crore was made in 1973-74 and Rs. 6 crore for 1974-75. The project completed its full term of three years and generated 18.16 million man-days of employment.

## **II (B) 5. Small Farmers Development Agency Programme (SFDA)**

The Small Farmers Development Agencies programme has been in operation since 1971 and has covered 1818 Blocks in the country (Planning Commission, 1981). The programme aimed at raising the income level of identified persons in the target group of small and marginal farmers and agricultural labourers, by helping them to adopt improved agricultural technology and acquiring means of increasing agricultural production like minor irrigation sources, and to diversify their farm economy through subsidiary activities like animal husbandry, dairying, horticulture etc. The main implementation agency for the programme was the Block Development Agencies. The selected persons in the target group were enrolled as members of co-operative societies so that they could draw necessary assistance from them. As reported by the Planning Commission in the 6th Five Year Plan, up to March, 1980, the agencies had identified 16.7 million persons from the target group for assistance. Of these, 8 million beneficiaries (including 1.3 million belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes - 7.78%) were assisted under the programme. Among the selected beneficiaries, 6.1 million (75%) were helped in acquiring access to improved agricultural practices through subsidized supply of inputs, improved implements and field demonstrations. The remaining 1.9 million beneficiaries were covered under the more substantive asset development programmes like acquisition of milk cattle, sheep, poultry, piggery etc. (0.9 million), minor irrigation (0.9 million), and other categories including forestry and village industries (0.1 million). Short-term credit advanced to the beneficiaries of this programme during 1979-80 was Rs.27.76 crore through cooperatives and Rs.6.03 crore through commercial banks. The cumulative medium-term and long-term loans advanced through cooperatives up to March, 1980 amounted to Rs.112.82 crore and Rs.140.20 crore respectively. The total outlay utilized under the scheme by way of subsidy to beneficiaries and other grants, and expenditure on execution amounted to Rs. 156.10 crore during the period 1974-'79 (Planning Commission, 2001).

The programme was not so successful due to its low coverage and the main reasons for this were the progressive erosion in the integrated functioning of the Block agency, inadequacies of the participating credit institutions, and lack of coordination and adequate support from the departments concerned. It can be seen that while the number of beneficiaries identified for assistance represented only a small segment of the target group, the numbers benefited were only about half the number identified. Further, the nature of assistance given to the bulk of them comprised items which did not lead to any specific additional asset creation. The actual impact of the use of these items of assistance on the income of the beneficiaries was of little significance. However, where the assistance was given for

developing minor irrigation sources or for acquiring milch cattle, sheep, goats, poultry etc., the impact was significant. Finally, the programme was merged with IRDP in 1980.

## **II. (B) 6. Food for Work Programme (FWP)**

Wages have no meaning if they cannot buy the daily needs of food grains. The problem can be solved to some extent if wages are paid partly in food grains. So the government of India decided to use the buffer stock of food grains as payment for the whole or part of the labour rendered in the execution of specified projects. The programme aimed to generate additional employment for both men and women in rural areas and to create durable community assets which would strengthen the social infrastructure in order to increase production and raise the standard of living of the rural people. The basic objectives of the FWP launched in 1977 were:

- i) To generate additional employment opportunities to large numbers of unemployed and under-employed persons in the rural areas which would increase their income and consequently their nutritional levels;
- ii) To create durable community assets and strengthen the rural infrastructure which would result in high production and better living standards in rural areas; and
- iii) To utilize the surplus food grains for development of human resources.

The programme gained momentum in 1978-79, when over 12 lakh tons of food grains were utilized creating 372.8 million man-days of employment (Planning Commission, 2001). Considering the difficulties experienced by the States in the implementation of the programme, the scheme was liberalized to include all ongoing plan and non-plan works and new items of public and community works. Later, the programme became very popular in the rural areas and was recognized as a major instrument of rural employment generation. A total employment of 979.32 million man-days was generated during the period 1977-78 to 1979-80 (September) (Planning Commission, 2001). The programme was helpful in creating additional employment in the rural areas even during lean employment periods and also helped to check the rise in prices of food grains. However, a number of deficiencies were noticed in the planning, supervision and implementation of the programme. The report of the Working Group on rural poverty alleviation programmes pointed out three major counts on which the programme suffered a setback. First, the programme continued on a year-to-year basis. The State Governments, in the context of uncertainty, were not able to provide the needed technical

and administrative support for effective planning and to monitor the programme. No serious attempts were made by the State Governments to develop useful projects which could suit the local needs of each Block where the programme was being implemented and also the national priorities. As a result, works of low priority with dubious utility were taken up at several places. Finally, due to lack of finance and administrative and technical back-up, many works taken up were non-durable in nature and were often executed through contractors. Hence, it was decided to revamp and restructure the programme and, accordingly, it was renamed as National Rural Employment Programme in October 1980.

## II (B) 7. National Rural Employment Programme (NREP)

The NREP was meant to help the rural population which mainly depended on wage-employment by the generation of additional gainful employment during lean agricultural periods. The scheme also aimed at the creation of durable community assets and the raising of nutritional standards of the rural poor. The programme was implemented from April 1981 as a centrally sponsored scheme. But its financial burden was shared between the Centre and the States on 50:50 basis. The Centre would provide its share in the form of food grains to the extent surplus food grains were available and the rest in cash.

**Table 3.3**  
**Performance of NREP**

Five Year Plans	Year	Resource Availability (Rs. in crores)	Expenditure (Rs. in crores)	% of Expenditure to Fund Available	Employment Generation (in million man-days)
Sixth Five Year Plan	1980-81	346.32	219.03	63.24	413.58
	1981-82	460.37	317.63	80.72	354.52
	1982-83	540.15	394.76	73.08	351.2
	1983-84	535.59	392.22	73.23	302.76
	1984-85	590.68	519.14	87.88	352.31
Seventh Five Year Plan (first 4 years)	1985-86	593.08	531.95	89.69	316.41
	1986-87	765.13	717.77	93.81	395.39
	1987-88	888.21	788.31	88.75	370.77
	1988-89	845.68	901.84	106.64	394.96
<b>Total</b>		<b>5565.21</b>	<b>4782.65</b>	<b>85.94</b>	<b>3251.9</b>
<b>CAGR (%)</b>		<b>10.57</b>	<b>16.48</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>0.39</b>
<b>R2</b>		<b>0.9224</b>	<b>0.966</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>0.0104</b>

Source: Planning Commission, Government of India

The States were also encouraged to procure locally grown food grains and utilize them under the scheme. Suitable financial and operational arrangements were to be worked out in each State in this direction. It was also decided that the wage paid under the programme should be on a par with the minimum agricultural wage prescribed for the area. The wages were to be paid both in cash and in the form of food grains, but the food grains component should not exceed 2 kg. per head per day. Thus, the programme envisaged a total outlay of Rs. 2473.11 crore during the 6th Plan period to generate additional employment opportunities to the extent of 300 to 400 million man-days per year. The actual expenditure on implementation was Rs.1842.78 crore and the total employment generation during the period was 1774.37 million man-days (Planning Commission, 1985). However, during the first four years of the 7th Plan, 1477.53 million man-days were created and the actual expenditure on the programme was Rs.2939.87 crore (Planning Commission, 1992). On 1st April 1989, the scheme was merged into the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana.

## **II (B) 8. Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP)**

The programme was introduced from 15th August 1983, with the objective of expanding employment opportunities for the rural landless. The programme aimed at providing guarantee of employment to at least one member of every landless household, up to 100 days in a year. Under this scheme, durable assets were created for strengthening the rural infrastructure so as to create employment opportunities for the rural landless. The scheme was totally financed by the Central Government and the implementation was entrusted to the States/Union Territories. Funds amounting to Rs. 500 crore were allocated to them in the last two years of the Sixth Plan. Though it was originally expected to generate 360 million man-days of employment during 1983-'85, the actual figure was only 260.18 million man-days (Planning Commission, 1985). Altogether, a sum of Rs 2640.27 crore was made available under the programme during the Seventh Plan. But the actual expenditure was Rs 2411.98 crore and 1154.39 million man-days were generated during the period (Planning Commission, 1992). The resource availability, actual expenditure, percentage of expenditure to fund available.

## **II (B) 9. Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS)**

The Employment Assurance Scheme, launched on 2nd October 1993, was implemented in 1778 identified backward Blocks situated in drought prone, desert, tribal and hilly areas. The scheme was then universalised to cover all the rural Blocks in the country with effect from 1.4.1997. The main objective of the EAS was to provide about 100 days of assured casual manual

employment during the lean agricultural season, at statutory minimum wages to 2 members in a rural family in the age group of 18 to 60 years, who needed and sought employment, on economically productive and labour-intensive social and community works. The EAS was a demand-driven scheme with the Centre providing 75 per cent of the funds and the States bearing 25 per cent. Initial national allocations were made to districts at the commencement of each year and thereafter depending on the demand for supplementary employment and the actual utilization of funds, the districts demanded additional funds. The Central share was directly released to the District Regulatory Development Agency of the concerned district, and the States' matching share was required to be released within a fortnight of the receipt of Centre's share. Since the inception of EAS in 1993-94, a total amount of Rs. 6514.65 crore (Centre and State) was released under the programme up to 1996-97, against which the total utilization was Rs.5278.16 crore. From 1999, resources were allocated to the States based on the incidence of poverty. In 1999-2000, a massive allocation of Rs. 2,040 crore was provided for EAS and it declined to Rs. 1300 crore in the year 2000-2001 (Dhingra, 2013). The Planning Commission for the 10th Five Year Plan had reported that 10,729.59 lakh man-days of employment were generated during the Eighth Plan under the scheme and that it increased to 14633.46 lakh man-days during the Ninth Plan (Planning Commission, 2002). The programme was merged into the SGRY from September 2001.

## **II (B) 10. Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY)**

By merging the two erstwhile wage employment programmes, National Rural Employment programme (NREP) and Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP), the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) was started with effect from 1st April 1989, on 80:20 cost-sharing basis between the Centre and the States. The main objective was the creation of sustained employment by strengthening rural economic infrastructure and assets in favour of rural poor for their continuing benefits. Priority was given to enhancement of productivity of land. Though the people below the poverty line were the target group for employment, preference (22.5 per cent of annual allocation) was given to the schemes for the benefit of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and freed bonded labourers. Thirty percent of the employment opportunities were to be reserved for women in rural areas. An important feature of the scheme was that Gram Panchayats were to be involved in the planning and implementation of the programme

Initially, the JRY also included the Indira Awas Yojana (IAY) and the Million Well Scheme (MWS). Both these schemes were made into independent schemes in 1996. While evaluating the poverty alleviating

programmes in rural India the Planning Commission for the 10th Five Year Plan reported that Rs. 18691 crore was allocated under JRY during the Eighth Plan. However the share went down to Rs 11688 crore during the Ninth Plan. Under JRY, 73764.83 lakh man-days of employment were generated till 1998-99. Employment generation progressively declined over the years, partly due to lower Central allocations in the Ninth Plan and partly due to the increasing cost of creating employment. Over 47 per cent of the employment generated benefited SC/STs. The share of landless labourers among the beneficiaries was 36 per cent. However, against 40 per cent of the rural population who sought work, only 15 per cent were actually employed. Puri and Misra (2008) reported that JRY was superior to NREP and RLEGP in two respects. First, under JRY, priority was given to economically productive investments, especially to those activities which enhanced productivity of land. Second, the involvement of Panchayats in planning and implementation of employment schemes was appreciable. With effect from April, 1999, JRY had been restructured and had been renamed JGSY.

## **II. (B) 11. Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY)**

The scheme was launched on 1st April 1999 and was designed to improve the quality of life of the rural poor by providing them additional employment. The primary objective of JGSY was the creation of infrastructure and durable assets at the village level so as to enable the rural poor to increase the opportunity for sustained employment. The secondary objective was the generation of supplementary employment for the unemployed poor in the rural areas. The village panchayats were the sole authority for preparation of Annual Action Plan and its implementation, with the approval of Gram Sabhas. For works/schemes costing more than Rs.50,000, after taking the approval of the Gram Sabhas, the village panchayat should seek the technical/administrative approval of appropriate authorities. District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs)/Zilla Parishads (ZPs) were responsible for overall guidance, coordination, supervision, monitoring and periodical reporting. The programme was implemented as a centrally sponsored scheme on cost-sharing basis between the Centre and the States in the ratio of 75:25. DRDAs/Zila Parishads would release the funds including State share directly to village panchayats. In the case of Union Territories, the entire funds under the scheme were provided by the Centre. The Panchayats were given the option to invest 15 per cent of the fund allocated on maintenance of assets created under the programme. It was compulsory that 22.5 per cent of the annual allocation must be spent on beneficiary schemes for scheduled castes/scheduled tribes and 3 per cent for the creation of barrier-free infrastructure for the disabled. The

wages under the programme were either the minimum wages notified by the States or the higher wages as fixed by the States through the prescribed procedure. As a result of decline in allocation coupled with the increased cost of providing employment, only 6227.04 man-days of employment could be generated under JGSY (Planning Commission, 2002). The scheme was merged into SGRY from September 2001.

## **II (B) 12. Sampoorna Grameen Rojgar Yojana (SGRY)**

To provide a greater thrust to additional wage employment, infrastructural development, food security and improving nutritional levels in the rural areas, the Govt. of India announced a new scheme with effect from 25th September 2001, by merging the employment assurance scheme and the Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana. The initial outlay for the programme was Rs.10,000 crore. Under the scheme, 50 lakh tonnes of food grains costing Rs. 5,000 crore (at economic cost) was being provided every year, free of cost, to the State Governments and Union Territories. Rs. 5,000 crore had been kept to meet the cash component of wages and material cost. About 100 crore man-days of employment were envisaged to be generated every year in the rural areas through the SGRY. Every worker seeking employment under the SGRY was provided a minimum of 5 kg. of food grains per man-day as part of wages. The balance of wages was paid in cash so that they were assured of the notified minimum wages. The programme was implemented as a centrally sponsored scheme on cost-sharing basis between the Centre and the States in the ratio of 75:25. In the case of Union Territories, the Centre provided 100 per cent of the funds under the scheme. Food grains were provided to the States/UTs free of cost. The SGRY was open to all rural poor who were in need of wage employment and desired to do manual and unskilled work in and around his village. While providing wage employment, preference was given to agricultural wage earners, non-agricultural unskilled wage earners, marginal farmers, women, and members of Schedule Castes/Schedule Tribes and parents of child labour withdrawn from hazardous occupations, parents of handicapped children or adult children of handicapped parents who were desirous of working for wage employment.

The Programme was implemented through the Panchayati Raj Institutions. Out of the annual allocation, 22.5 per cent (inclusive of food grains) was compulsorily earmarked for individual beneficiary schemes of SC/ST families living below the Poverty Line. It was also prescribed that a minimum 50 per cent of the allocation (inclusive of food grains) to the Village Panchayat should be earmarked for the creation of need-based village infrastructure in SC/ST wards and 30 per cent of employment opportunities should be reserved for women. The works taken up were mainly labour-intensive, leading to the creation of additional wage

employment. Reviewing the implementation of SGRY, the Planning Commission had revealed that during 2002-'05 the total expenditure incurred was Rs. 1122.32 crore and total employment generation reported was 9.74 crore man-days, while food grains distributed was only 2.89 lakh MT (Planning Commission, 2008). In April 2008, the scheme was merged into Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme (MGNREGA).

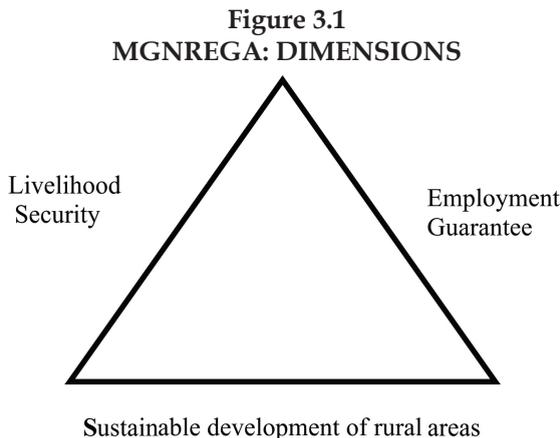
All the self employment and wage employment schemes have aimed to provide employment to rural/agricultural workers. MGNREGA is the only scheme Act that provides 100 days of assured wage employment.

Despite all these earlier efforts, the problem of rural unemployment and underemployment continues to remain quite disturbing and intractable.

In order to tackle this problem finally the Govt. of India came-up with the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, 2005, which has amended and renamed it as the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Act.

The main aim of the Act is to provide 100 days employment to any adult member of a rural household who is willing to undertake any manual work in different permissible works in rural areas of the country. It is stated that "MGNREGA is the first ever law, internationally, that guarantees wage employment at an unprecedented scale." The World Bank Report 2014 has stated that MGNREGA is a "stellar example of rural development." The main features of the Act are: it is based on right based framework; it gives time bound guarantee of employment allowance and wage; it is labour intensive work; it is inclusive programme giving special share to women, the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes.

MGNREGA is also considered a growth engine. And it has three dimensions as illustrated below:



### **Achievements under MGNREGA**

- More than 4.8 crore rural households have been provided employment during 2015-16;
- During the same period (2015-16), the average employment provided to each household was 49 days;
- 49 lakh rural households completed 100 days employment during 2015-16;
- Another laudable feature had been that 61 % of the total expenditure was on assets related to agriculture and allied sector;
- Through MGNREGA works, 44.85 lakh hectare irrigation potential was created and about 33.90 lakh households benefitted by creating individual assets on their land;
- More than 8000 Barefoot technicians engaged under skill training of MGNREGA.

MGNREGA has a huge potential. It is creating green jobs and greening rural India slowly but steadily. During different structural shocks, MGNREGA provided a huge cushion to absorb these shocks by providing employment in rural areas.

### **Deendayal Antyodaya Yojana - National Rural Livelihood Mission (AY NRL)**

The main aim of the DAY-NRLM is to mobilize all poor rural households into Self-Help-Groups (SHGs) in a phased manner. The purpose is to provide them long term support to attain appreciable increase in incomes over a period of time to improve their quality of life and come out of abject poverty.

In order to train the members of SHGs and others, the govt. has decided to come up with one **Rural Self Employment Training Institute (RSETI)** in each district of the country and by now 583 RSETI have been started functioning in the country.

About 8.17 youths have been trained. And 3.96 lakh youths have been provided employment. Several other sub-components like, Mahila Kisan Sashaktikaran Pariyojana (MKSP) and Start-Up-Village Entrepreneurship Programme have also been initiated.

“The major achievement of the DAY-NLRM are : DAY NRLM has covered 3045 blocks in 429 districts; 59 lakh households have been mobilized and 5.31 lakh SHGs have been formed; 29900 village organizations (VOs) have

come up; and more than 85000 trained Community Resource Persons (CRPs) and 10,000 Bank Mitras have been created by 2016-17.

These two major programmes, MGNREGA and DAY - NRI,M, have been providing employment to a huge number of workers in the country.

However, other programmes like, Deen Dayal Upadhyay Grameen Kaushalya Yojana, Pradhan Mantri Sadak Yojana, Pradhan Mantri Awaas Yojana - Gramin, Shyama Prasad Mukherji Rurban Mission, etc. are also creating employment in rural areas in on a substantial scale.

### **Issues & Challenges**

- Rural development is sine qua non for rural employment. As overwhelming majority of India's population live in villages and many of them still live in poverty, to lift them out of it, the main strategy is to increase opportunity for employment.
- For a massive awareness of the stakeholders, especially among the beneficiaries and implementers is very much important. In addition to, massive awareness the stakeholders like implementers and beneficiaries, organizers', such as trade unions and civil society organizations should also be trained in the nitty-gritty of the implementation process.
- Women workers in rural areas must be empowered by developing their vocational and soft skills, so that they can participate in the development process, more actively and creatively.
- Second, adequate financial and material support is a pre-requisite for employment generation.
- Third, participation of the beneficiaries in a proactive and creative manner has to be promoted to encourage them to become partners in the development process.

## CHAPTER FOUR

# RURAL INDUSTRIALIZATION IN RURAL AREAS: EXPERIENCE AND SUCCESS

### Introduction

In India 65 per cent population lives in rural areas. But their contribution to GDP is only 18 per cent. There is a huge disparity in various respects as the division of economic activities between urban and rural areas. Rural economy is based on agriculture, while most of the industries are located in urban areas, and there is a very weak linkage between urban and rural areas which slowed down the development in rural areas. Industrialization has a major role to play in economic development of underdeveloped countries. The structure of economic developed and under developed countries lead to disparity and gap in the per capita income between the two types of economics.

Sector-wise classification of rural economy pertains to three broad categories such as primary, secondary and tertiary sectors. Agriculture and allied activities constitutes primary sector. The secondary sector includes existing rural industries and the tertiary sector refers to the service activities in rural regions. The growth of agriculture sector could be accessed through aspects like, land use pattern, distribution of operational holdings, growth in area of crops, growth in yield of principal crops.

The rural industries also not only work in rural areas, but also cater to towns and cities, or even to export market and also earn foreign exchange for the economy. The rural industrial sector could be divided into two categories i.e., modern small industries and power-looms, and khadi and village industries, handloom, sericulture, handicrafts and coir industries are part of the traditional industries functioning in rural areas: the urban industries have high level of automation and use of heavy machinery with advance technology, huge capital investment and substantial amount of financing through big financial institutions. Agro-based industries mostly lack technical specialization and proper funding.

According to Khadi and Village Industries Commission reported that – *“Any industries or commission located in rural areas, village or town with population of 20, 000 and net per capita investment between 3 to 4 crores, i.e., plants and machinery is classified as village industries. The most prominent rural industries are as follows – Mineral based industries, forest based industries, agro-based industries, polymer based industries and textile industries.*

## **India's Initiatives of Industrial Development in Five Year Plans**

During early fifties, the Indian Government began the process of industrialization and as part of its economic policy. The Second Five Year Plan programme for industrialization was contingent upon the industrial policy resolution of 1956, which promoted a big expansion of public sector, with substantial investment. There was a rapid expansion of machine building industries for utilization in agriculture and transport. The village and small scale industries were expanded. About 60 estates consisting of 1000 small factories which were setup during this period. There was substantial progress during the above mentioned period. The third plan also gave way for maximum rate of investment the industry, power and transportation and hasten the process of industrial and technological change. Maximum programmes were announced to strengthen the public sector. During the Fourth Five Year Plan efforts well made to complete the industrial development project initiated in third plan. During this plan Rs.24,00/- crores was earmarked for public sector. During fifth plan rapid growth of steel, coal and machine building industries.

“The actual industrial growth rate was the order of 5.3 per cent against the targeted annual growth rate 8.1 per cent. A review of the progress of the industrial growth during the Sixth Five Year Plan reveals that against the target of 7.0 per cent growth in the industrial sector productions but the actual growth was only 5.5 per cent” (Ahamad and Pandey 2015). During Seventh Five Year Plan ‘sunrise industries’ such as telecommunication, computers, ceramic composites and bio-technology were emphasized. During Eight Five Year Plan private sector emerged and they developed considerably entrepreneurial, managerial, technological, financial and marketing strengths was emphasized. In the Ninth Five Year Plan it was targeted to have industrial growth rate to 8 per cent, but the actual growth rate was only 5 percent which was lower that growth rate obtained in Eighth Five Year Plan (7.3 per cent). During the Tenth Five Year Plan rupees 44,695 crores at 2001-02 prices, was allocated to public sector. Plans are announced and executed, but rural sector is still suffering from problems of unemployment, lower saving, poor standard of living and highly increasing rate of rural to urban migration. Due to this the total amount of cultivated land is shrinking and cities are over populated. “Villages are converting into city by acquiring rural land by the real state. This has resulted into low contribution of agriculture to the GDP. If the government consent moves in the favour of development of rural industries then the spirit of entrepreneur can also be boosted by the new business employment opportunity.” (ibid, 2015).

The industrial policy of 1948 and 1956, paved way for small scale industries, which was thought to provide additional employment. The capital investment in these small industries was Rs.5 lakhs. In 1947, on the recommendation of Abid Hussain Committee, the government of India raised the investment from 60-75 lakh to Rs. 3 crore for the small industries in developing plant and machinery. The investment in extremely small units was caused increased from 5 lakhs to 25 lakhs, and all the medium enterprises from 25 lakhs to 5 crore and from Rs.5 crore and Rs.10 crores. During 2006 Micro Small and Medium Enterprises Development Act, was enacted. A common classification between traditional small industries and modern small industries is that traditional small industries included “khadi’ and handloom, village industries, handicrafts etc., whereas modern small scale industries were ‘television sets and other engineering products etc.,.

### **Why Rural Industrialization?**

Rural Industrialization is need of the hour as nearly 65 percent of India’s total population lives in rural areas with an average income of \$42 per month (\$504 per year). Majority of the rural areas have extremely minimal storage facility, no refrigeration and literacy rate 58.9 per cent. In rural areas 48 per cent of the total population is in the age-group of 15-25 years. They are mostly unutilized or underemployed, and neglected. The outcome of this is increasing unemployment.

Rural industrialization can contribute towards sustainable development of rural areas. It is important to generate employment and income for rural people. Rural industrialization means encouraging relocation of larger and small scale industries from urban to rural areas. Under this programme rural non-farm activities such as village industries, farm equipment, repair shops, carpentry and produce marketing are a vital element. This will not only develop the rural areas, but also supply services and inputs which are important for increasing agricultural productivity.

Time to time government has announced policies for the development of rural industries, through it five year plans and industrial policies. These policies help in employment generation, because employment is a means to achieve growth with social justice. Some of policies for enhancement of agriculture and allied activities and rural development are as follows:

**Fiscal Policy:** Fiscal Policy is to bring about an increase in investment in both old and new industries sector and to discourage speculative investment in unproductive activities and increase the productivity of the various factors of production engaged in secondary sector. Tax concessions are designed

to influence those responsible for decision about investment, whether in new or expanding enterprises or private or institutional investors.

**Credit Policy:** in most undeveloped countries, especially those in which deliberate efforts have been made to accelerate the rate of economic advance, the probability of excess credit resulting in inflation is generally far greater than that of shortage of credit.

**Balance of Payment Policy:** The process of establishing a new industry in an underdeveloped country almost inevitably involves the use of foreign exchange. In the absence of foreign assistance the rate of industrialization is limited in the first instance by the size of the current balance of payment surplus, which determines the resources available for financing imports capital goods.

The previous economic policy has impacted on the growth of rural industrial economy. But, still a lot of work has to be done in this regard. Rural industrialization not only boosts rural industrial economy, but along rural development also improves life style of rural people, and addressing the question of poverty. The government should introduce new schemes under the Rural industrialization. The major concern is to improve the delivery system. The implementing machinery should be strengthened and sensitized to reach to rural people earnestly. The rural industries have huge potential in employment generation and increasing the household income in rural regions. In the contemporary period all round economic development of rural economy and industries can be an effective tool to overcome the underdevelopment of rural areas and industries (Ahmad and Pandey, 2015).

India is one of the fastest growing economies of the world. But a large area of the country is in rural region. Majority of the Indian population lives in rural area (about 69 per cent) and mostly the people depend on agriculture for their livelihood according to the Sample Survey Organization (2012) about seven crore about seven crore people are unemployed. Due to shrinking employment in agriculture, there is substantial migration of people from rural areas to urban regions. The distress migration of rural people has become phenomenal. There is a strong need to strengthen employment opportunities in the rural areas by promoting rural entrepreneurship.

In the opinion of Sangram and Keshari (2006) "The term rural entrepreneurship refers to the self-employment programmes exclusively meant for rural people". It can also be said that establishing industrial and business units in the rural areas refers to rural entrepreneurship. Rural entrepreneurship means rural industrialization. Rural entrepreneurship can be defined as entrepreneurship emerging at village level which can take place in a variety of fields of endeavour such as business, industry, agriculture and acts as a potent factor for economic development.

“The Notion of “Rural Entrepreneurship” is not limited to agriculture and related activities such as food processing, but rather it covers industrial development in general. In addition, the concept is not restricted to villages but also pertains to small towns and sub-urban areas. Broadly speaking, the concept relates to areas industry and tourism are not developed” (Kulawezuk Przemyslaw, 2010).

Rural entrepreneurs may be defined as ‘Any individual or group of persons carrying out economic activity with profit motive in the rural areas with or without any proper infrastructure facilities can be termed as rural entrepreneurs’. Rural entrepreneurs are broadly classified into Agricultural Entrepreneurs, Micro Entrepreneurs, Small Business Entrepreneurs and Rural Artisans” (Desai, 2010).

Several studies regarding developing entrepreneurs in rural areas as a step towards rural industrialization, have been conducted at national and international levels. The findings of these researches studies highlight the following:

- (1) Kanitkar (1994) developed 86 villages’ case studies from different regions of India, focusing upon socio-economic profile of entrepreneurs, their motivation for shifting from an agricultural – based occupation to a non-farm activity, their approach to raising resources for their enterprises and the factors that facilitate entry of the village based entrepreneurs in to a business activity. The author found a positive correlation between development of rural entrepreneurship and employment.
- (2) A research study was conducted by Orhan and Scott (2001) wherein they surveyed 25 women entrepreneurs to find out the causes that motivated the women to enter into business. The study highlighted many motivating factors categorized as influence of environment, push factors and pull factors. According to the author – ‘Dynastic Compliance’ and ‘natural succession’ were environmental influences. Push factors were ‘no other choice’, and forced entrepreneurs’. Pull factors included ‘informed entrepreneurs’ and ‘pure entrepreneurs’.
- (3) In another study by Sarri and Trihopoulou (2005) found out that the education level of the respondents was high, mostly of the women were married and had children. These women preferred to enter to a business activity during their old age. These women were majorly motivated by full factors such as self-fulfillment, need for creativity and independence. Thus, it can be stated that the personal characteristics and high motivation were important in starting business activity.
- (4) A study carried out in seven districts of Odisha by Mishra and Bal (1997), on entrepreneurial motivation. Their sample size was entrepreneurs. A substantial number of factors like financial,

institutional, cultural and political structure, overall socio-economic background, government policies, individuals' preferences, and willingness were found to be responsible for entrepreneurial activity in the area. Along with these, dissatisfaction with the previous job dependency situation, insistence by elders were strong compelling factors. It is important to note here, is that among the internal and external factors, business experience and liberal financial help from financial institutions emerged as major factors. Among the other motivating factors, availability of raw materials, marketing support from the government, accessibility of infrastructure, technology, moral support etc. were responsible for entrepreneurial development and business activity in the rural areas of Odisha.

- (5) According to Psaltopoulos and Skurs (2004) found a strong association between rural entrepreneurship processes and the formulation of integrated and competent policies by the government.
- (6) Kaippachery (2005) in his study a negative relation been economic reforms and employment earning capacity and availability of raw materials. The study was conducted in Kannur district of Kerala.

The another suggested that development rural financial markets, trade fares, advertisement, displays etc. to improve marketing of rural industrial products and dissemination market information to customers, were the important factors for entrepreneurial development in rural areas.

- (7) Mondal (2007) in his research of Khadi and Village Industries in North Eastern States found growth and development of KVIs is very essential for rural employment in particular and economy in general. He states that 'top priority should be given to small sale industries like KVIs, which need light machine, tools and other equipment to produce qualitative products.'
- (8) Srivastava and Syngkon (2008) in their study of small scale industries in North Eastern States found that the manufacturing, assembling, processing activity is the major activities among the other activities of the small scale industrial sector in rural areas of North East. The study also revealed that the number of women and rural entrepreneurs increased manifold.

Shahiduddin et al. (2008) in their research found that financial management skills and the group identify of the women borrowers have significant relationship with the development of rural women entrepreneurs in Bangladesh.

- (9) According to Khanka (2009) that the entrepreneurship was primarily motivated by the need for economic achievement, personal growth, autonomy and recognition.

- (10) Banerjee and Banerji (2011) conducted a study on rural entrepreneurship development programme. An impact evolution in seven states of India i.e. Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Himachal Pradesh, Odisha, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. The findings of the study highlighted that Rural Entrepreneurship Development Programme (REDP) is an efficient instrument in creating income and deployment opportunities for the rural youth, particularly, the women in rural and semi-urban areas. The author opined that there is a need to adopt a comprehensive strategy to benefit more and more number of potential entrepreneurs under REDP through 'Entrepreneurship Development Institutes (EDI), voluntary organization or NGO to operationalise the strategy for developing rural entrepreneurship. Kumar and Lalhunthara (2012) studies socio-economic background of micro-entrepreneurs in Aizawl district of Mizoram. The authors found that education, experience, age and family care are the potential reasons for entrepreneurial development in the area. It was also found that one-fourth of the entrepreneurs were women.

*"Entrepreneurship plays a vital role in the growth of our economy. It acts as a catalyst in fostering the initiative to undertake economic activities for the production and distribution of wealth. In rural areas larger amount of potential, remain untapped due to lack of supportive means and management. Proper entrepreneurial skill and marketing talent are to be given to rural entrepreneurs through proper training programmes for carrying entrepreneurial activities. What the rural micro entrepreneurs need is encouragement and support from the family members, government and societies. These rural entrepreneurs must be involved in modern small scale units. If they are properly trained and provided with the required capital rural India and informal sector will develop, and this, in turn, will reduce the migration of rural people to urban areas in search of livelihood."*  
Chakmarborth and Barman (2014)

*"The livestock sector is rapidly industrializing, particularly in developing or emerging economies, where most of the growth in meat production is projected to take place (OECD-FAO, 2011). Approximately 80 percent of the growth in this sector is already in the form of industrial farm animal production (Steinfeld et al, 2006). Worldwide, industrial systems account for approximately two-thirds of egg and poultry meat production and over half of pork production (FAO, 2007), with developing countries producing approximately half of the world's industrial pork and poultry (Steinfeld et al, 2006a). At the same time, there is increasing consolidation of holdings in the farm animal sector (Steinfeld et al, 2006b; FAO, 2009). Between 1980 and 2000, global pork production nearly doubled, with a decrease in the total number of farms and an increase in larger facilities raising 1000 or more pigs (Cameron, 2000). In India, six large poultry companies account for nearly 40% of the egg industry (Rattanani,*

2006). In addition to such concentration, farm animal production is becoming geographically clustered (FAO, 2009). Between 1992 and 2001 the proportion of pigs housed on 5% of Brazil's land area rose from 45% to 56% (Steinfeld et al, 2006). It is important to evaluate these trends for impacts on social and development goals. For example, a 2010 study found that animal agriculture alone will help push the planet to the brink of several sustainability boundaries (Pelletier & Tyedmers, 2010). Industrial animal agriculture has been shown to threaten the environment due to waste management challenges (Pew, 2008) (U.S. EPA, 2003). The economic concentration in the farm animal sector been shown to push small farmers out of the market and reduce employment opportunities (McLeod et al, 2009, Ikerd, 2004). This paper will analyze peer-reviewed studies, government data, and industry reports in order to better understand the impact of these structural changes on environmental sustainability and household food security in developing countries." (Chetna Mirle)

A 2004 report from the University of Missouri on the economic impacts of industrialized pig production estimated that if industrialized pig production facilities replaced independent farms producing the same amount of animals, approximately two pig farmers would be left without a job for each new job created (Ikerd, 2004). The industrialization of farm animal production in Mexico has reduced the number of small farmers and their participation in the market (Ponette-Gonzales & Fry, 2010). Increased levels of intensification in egg and chicken meat production have also been shown to decrease the number of women involved in small-scale poultry keeping in the developing world (Gueye, 2005).

The few small or mid-size farmers who continue to farm will likely do so by adopting industrial farm animal production practices, and by becoming contract farmers to large corporations (McMichael, 2001). The corporations supply company-owned animals, feed, and transportation, but the growers, who likely own the land, must construct company buildings according to the corporations' own specifications (Wing et al, 2000). Growers are also typically responsible for managing the animals' waste (Pew, 2008), and therefore the controlling companies may have no financial obligation to control or rectify pollution from these facilities. In countries including India (Karunakaran, 2005) and the United States (Pew, 2008), complaints are emerging about inequities in the contract system.

Industrialization may also reduce the need for on-farm labor (Durrenberger & Thu, 1996) (Ikerd, 2004). The University of Missouri study found that ten small-scale farmers collectively producing 12,000 feeder pigs per year can create eight full-time positions, while a single industrial farm animal facility producing the same number of pigs employs 2.5 people (Ikerd, 2004). In Mexico, the industrialization of the farm animal sector has meant

fewer agricultural workers are needed and salaries are typically lower than average (Ponette-Gonzales & Fry, 2010).

Over the years there has been tremendous growth and rise in the egg, meat and milk production. According to Pew (2008) – *“Animal agriculture has achieved ‘warp speed’ growth over the last 50 years, with intensification resulting in an almost logarithmic increase in numbers”*. This has resulted into increased in consumption of eggs, meat, and milk for certain segment of the global population, especially those in industrialized countries as well as higher income group, urban consumers in developing countries. A review of data from South Asia and Latin America indicates that the industrialization of animal agriculture has failed to improve nutritional outcomes along the marginalized and poor income population.

As noted above, despite the growing epidemic of overweight and obesity related illness in the developing world, malnutrition also remains rampant: a fact that highlights the gross inequalities in nutrition both among and within countries. Despite increased world food production in the last few decades, the global effort to meet the Millennium Development Goal of reducing hunger by half by 2015 now appears beyond reach (UNCTAD, 2011). *“The current system of industrial agriculture (and related international trade), productive as it has been in recent decades, still leaves 1.3 billion people under-nourished and poverty stricken, 70 per cent of whom live in rural areas”* (UNCTAD, 2011).

In much of Latin America, the incidence of malnutrition is higher in indigenous children relative to the national average (Hall & Patrinos, 2005) (Rivera et al, 2003). The growth in Latin America’s farm animal sector in the 1990s (FAO, 2012) had not been accompanied by significantly improved nutritional or economic outcomes for these households by the early part of the 21st century (Hall & Patrinos, 2005). A 2005 study on poverty amongst indigenous peoples in Latin America concluded that *“poverty rates changed little for indigenous people over the 1990s, and where poverty declined, progress was slower for indigenous peoples”* (Hall & Patrinos, 2005). Further, the prevalence of malnutrition amongst indigenous children remains extremely high relative to the general population (Hall & Patrinos, 2005).

South Asia is home to the largest number of malnourished people in the world, despite India and other nations in the region maintaining surplus food stocks (Zehr, 2001). The increase in egg and poultry meat production in India, specifically, has failed to equitably increase the intake of ASF by the poorest communities. Rapid industrialization of India’s poultry sector has put it amongst the top egg and chicken meat producers in the world (Clements, 2010) (Government of India, 2011). Over the past 50 years, egg

and chicken meat production in India has been radically transformed from a largely backyard activity to a massive agro-industry (Mehta & Namibiar, 2008). By the 1990s, production and consumption of poultry meat in India was growing by as much as 15% annually (Landes et al, 2004).

However, by the start of the 21st century, people in the lowest income quintile in rural areas were still consuming fewer than 10 eggs per capita per year; average per capita consumption in urban areas was nearly five times greater, with higher income urban consumers likely consuming significantly more eggs as the average urban consumer (Mohanty & Rajendran, 2003). This is notable because the prevalence of underweight children amongst the Indian population is higher in rural areas than in urban areas, and the prevalence of underweight children is approximately 60% in the lowest wealth quintile (World Bank, 2006). Moreover, during the 1990s, while commercial poultry production continued to expand in India (Landes et al, 2004), the urban-rural and inter-income-quintile inequalities in nutritional status widened throughout India (World Bank, 2006).

### **Rural industrialization: The China Experience**

In China industrialization was used as a policy tool for rural development. In their view, employment was the major source of development and a powerful medium of distributing income to the poor. The government of China took an initiative to abandon the heavy industries development strategy in order to develop rural industrial sector. The development of industrial sector in rural China was helped by the urban light manufacturing industry.

The investment in rural infrastructure was key to help comparative advantage in land and land endowment. The rural industrialization helped in raising the rural incomes. This was accomplished through mass education and rural labour supply. Public TVEs were mandated to contribute a small portion of their profits to agriculture as well as social sectors.

An impact analysis of rural industrialization shows that income of rural people increased. Rural unemployment problem was solved. It also checked rural-urban migration, and enhanced effectiveness of agriculture. The other social sectors were also developed. The rural industrialization in China transformed the socio-economic environment of rural China.

As compared to China, in India, industrial development has benefitted a small proportion of urban population. In India, rural non-farm employment has increase only moderately. The rural industrial growth in India has become stagnant. Differences in structure and functioning of local governments, credit institutions and rural infrastructure are the main causes of poor performance of industrial development in rural areas in India.

In China, the local government played very crucial role in establishing rural TVEs in whereas panchayats are not empowered in India, despite policy provisions

### **Industrialization of Rural Development Policy Tool in India**

Parikh and Thornbecke (1998) examined socio-economic impact of rural industrialization in two villages by using Social Accounting Matrix and cost benefit analysis. They chose two villages broadly similar, however, one situated near factory while other relatively far. It was found that the village near factory has benefitted from its presence.

The prominent areas were as follows:

- Awareness in education, lower exploitation of labour, rise in salaries, lower income inequality between household classes.
- Comparatively, rural industrialization shown to be most effective policy tool as compared to irrigation provision and two different IRDP alternatives.
- Movement from agrarian to industrial society is neutral neither from the economic nor cognitive standpoint.
- Development projects in rural communities provide a timely and valuable laboratory to learn how industrial restructuring affects local structure
- Underlying tension between free movement of capital on one hand, and community instability and worker welfare on the other.
- Rural industrialization can generate employment and prosperity in the area. However these need to be distributed uniformly across communities.
- There are costs associated with growth and their distribution is not always matched with distribution of benefits.
- Often community members already disadvantaged receive smaller or even negative benefits.
- May be understood by directing attention to spatial pattern of social, political and economic inequality and to the mechanisms that generate sustain these unevenness.
- Poverty alleviation should be a primary goal of rural industrialization and not merely a positive externality.
- Need to effectively complement and if possible, integrate rural industrialization and agriculture as is perhaps being done in China. (Venkatesh and Jain 2012).

## CHAPTER FIVE

# CASE STUDIES ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT

## Tilonia: A Bloom in the Desert

### Introduction

Village Tilonia is located in district Ajmer, Rajasthan. In 1964, a small experiment was initiated in the village by Bunker Roy under the Social Work & Research Centre, an NGO founded by him. Today this village is known across the different parts of the world for its many innovative activities.

The activities initiated by this organisation have brought a new hope in the horizon of rural development by the people of the villages where the organization now known as the "Barefoot College" has helped unleash people's imagination and innovation. Its activities include:

- i) Forestation;
- ii) Water Conservation;
- iii) Small Scale Cottage Activities;
- iv) Extending Medical Assistance;
- v) Solar Energy Technology Education;
- vi) Education of the Villagers;
- vii) Empowerment of Socio-economically Disadvantaged Social Group, like the 'Sahariya a Tribals';
- viii) Strengthening Panchayati Raj Institutions;
- ix) Leadership Development among Women; and
- x) Self-Help Group Development, among Other Activities.

Details of some main activities are given as below:

### Forestation

Tilonia is located in arid areas. When the Barefoot College started its activities, it took upon itself, the rejuvenating activities relating to plantation in the denuded areas of the village. By seeking participation of the villagers, and within a couple of years, the areas green coverage was rejuvenated. This helped villagers with fuels for cooking and fodder for their livestock. Today one can see the green expanse around the

villages. This also sets an example that if energy of the villagers especially the women is harnessed properly, many resources, especially water and agriculture could be revived and its productivity increased.

Because of the increasing green coverage, the climatic ambience has also changed for better in and around the villages.

### **Health Services**

The Barefoot College has imparted medical training to some people and they are today providing medicare to patients with general medical problems. This has provided employment as well as relief for many.

### **Handlooms**

Today a number of people are employed in these activities. A shop in the premises of the college sells handicrafts, clothes and other items. The most important achievement of the Barefoot College is the involvement of marginalized people in its activities.

### **Solar Energy**

Barefoot has been providing training in low-cost solar technology not only in India but people from other parts of India. Those who undergo training, they get employment in their respective areas.

### **Skill Development**

Over the decades, the Barefoot College is also imparting training in some skills, thus equipping the disadvantaged people from rural areas to find employment or to start their own economic activities.

The following pages illustrate the effort of the Barefoot College:

### **MANTHAN - Hope for Thirsty Villages**

“Traditional wisdom which represents the accumulated knowledge of so many generations in agriculture, animal husbandry, irrigation, water conservation, crafts and other important areas of rural life is of the greatest importance in rural development initiatives. At the same time such efforts need to be benefit from the new possibilities opened up by the more recent scientific progress. The challenge before development activists is to carefully select those aspects of modern scientific progress which are in keeping with the needs of sustainable development with special emphasis on all weaker sections.

“The various organizations and initiatives associated with the ‘Barefoot College’ movement/concept centred in Tilonia (Rajasthan) have attracted

widespread appreciation for their balanced approach to tackling these challenges. Once such organisation is 'Manthan' founded by one of the earliest associates of Barefoot College Tejaram. Tejaram started his association as a teacher in the night schools of 'Barefoot College' and while education still continuous to be his first love, in keeping with the needs of people 'Manthan' has been giving even greater priority to meeting the water needs of people.

"Manthan works in about 45 villages which are located partly in Ajmer district (Silora Block) and partly in Nagaur district (Parbatsar and Kuchaman blocks) of Rajasthan. The headquarter of Manthan is based in Kotri village. These villages are located close to the famous Sambhar lake which is an important centre of making salt. Salt pans have spread from the vicinity of about 1 km around the lake to about 10 kms or even more recent times. With this the problems related to brackishness of water are increasing. People in villages were forced to buy normal sweet water at a high price. Some settlements of dalits and other weaker sections more or less had to be abandoned due to the scarcity of drinking water.

"The check this deteriorating situation Manthan held extensive discussions with villagers. Special effort was made to learn about the traditional water structures which had served the villagers very well for a long time. Soon proposals started coming from villagers regarding naadis or water harvesting and collection works that can be taken up in their villages at suitable sites.

"A common experience of these works (mostly naadis and tanks) taken up by Manthan with the cooperation of villagers has been that these have provided a very cost effective way of conserving water, providing water to people as well as animals for several dry months. Moisture and greenery increased in the surrounding area, and water levels in wells increased, contributing to over all better eater availability and living/livelihood condition for water stressed communities. These works also had a good record of timely payment of proper wages, and careful methods of calculating just wages which were subsequently used as a model for MGNREGA workers movements (the slogan of nyari napti nya i rate). These methods emphasized that workers can work in small groups and separate measurements can be made for the work of each group so that each group gets just wages for the actual work done.

"In Paner village Samdaliya naadi was made on the basis of a proposal made by village women's group. This work taken up a accost of Rs.82614 provided employment to 70 persons from poor households and in one year of average rainfall provides water to about 100 families and about 500 animals for a period of about 5 months.

“Kardali village’s only naadi had breached and its land had been occupied by influential men. An effort initiated with the cooperation of villagers and Manthan led to the removal of encroachment. Dalit families played a Rs. One Lakh. Conducive soil conditions provide for considerable recharge so that water availability in a tubewell has also improved and water needs of about 150 villagers in the village are now met in a much more satisfactory way.

“Futiya naadi constructed in Bala Ji Ki Dhaani has helped to improve water availability to many salt workers as well as shepherds. In this way several other naadis constructed by Manthan have helped to meet the water needs of needy villagers, farm animals as well as wild animals and birds. In the construction of tanks (under-ground rainwater stoppage tanks), the efforts of Manthan have benefited even more from traditional wisdom. In Kotri village a very good traditional water source existed in the form of wells made inside a tank but these had silted up. Manthan worked with villagers to clean these wells. This also led to more water availability from a nearby tubewell.

“While Manthan has benefited much from traditional wisdom in all these efforts, it has also used the most modern technology of reverse osmosis to obtain normal sweet water from brackish water. The RO plant based in Kotri runs on solar energy and is operated by a dalit youth who has received school education up to primary level only. Thus the water programme of Manthan provides a good example of combining traditional and modern knowledge and utilizing the abilities of elderly people as well as youths.

“In a similar vein while in Manthan we can see members working with computers and at solar workshops, they are also encouraged to maintain close links with their agriculture, animal husbandry and traditional livelihoods.

“In keeping with the priorities of ‘Barefoot Collage’ Manthan emphasizes their priority need of the weakest sections. As a matter of policy this organization works more closely with neglected communities like Kalbelias, Bagarias, Banjaras, Sathia and Rebaris. The settlements of such communities are frequently marginalized and neglected, but Manthan places these weaker sections at the centre of its work.” (from Dogra, Bharat, 2015), Barefoot College.

## SOCIO-ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT THROUGH COLLECTIVE ACTION

### RURAL WOMEN OF BANKURA BRING CHANGE

Bakura district of West Bengal, not very fertile, water resources are less, it is mostly habituated by Santhal tribes. Most of its land is barren. Jhilmili village is in Bankura district. The area is characterized by wide range of hills, with overexploited land and water resources. Long time ago the district had thick forests of *sal*, *neem* and *kendu*. *Santhal* tribes lost their forest land to people settled in plain areas. The traders, cultivators and contractors capitalized the forest for supplying cities and developing pockets with timber, forest products and then agricultural produce from cleared patches.

The tribals were very simple people and they were fooled by the smart world. They sold their prizable land for few sacks of grains. It was a great loss to them, it was not only their land, but they lost their disappearance of forests which was their natural habitat, and their life support system.

In Bankura district, the options for employment were very limited or almost, absent especially wage labour. Majority of the workers migrated to neighbouring Hoogly and Burdwan districts to earn their living. In Bankura, the major source of income was migratory wage labour. The government's ongoing employment programmes generated about 5 weeks' work in a year for rural workers, but they need employment for all round the year.

The migratory workers worked for 14 hours on big cultivators' land and earned Rs.5 only. Most of the rural women workers are employed, illiterate assetless, destitute beast of burden, exhausted from the life which is almost empty for them, and they were absolutely tired and weakened by socio-economic disparities and gendered position.

The Bankura women also practiced ad-hoc method of survival. Although it is for individual survival, but there is somewhat collective action among *Santhal* community. "*The community members make group ritual offerings in the forest, women collect minor forest products in groups, and families live in a close cluster of hamlets.*" (ILO, 1991).

Among the *Santhal* Women group, there was a bold, confident women named Badani, who questioned the minister for Land Reforms who was worried about women's poor presence in Barga Operation for determining inheritance rights of share - croppers, distribution of homesteads and institutional credit.

Badani informed the Minister that – *“We have been losing our forests, which gave us food, fodder, fuel and a livelihood. Today, we have too little work here, and have to go on Namal (migrate) why don’t you give land to women? Are we not peasants? Why are homesteads not in our name? how do you protect the children when our men throw us out?”*

The Minister told her that women have been working throughout their life and they should not allow their men to treat them badly.

Badani replied – *“We have to because we don’t have enough work, and we are powerless. We can deal with them if we are strong and organized. Can’t you give us work locally? Then we can organize”.*

All the proceedings were noted by the officials. But, they could not find a government scheme that would capitalize collectively the women’s optimism and determination. The government officials requested CWDS (A Delhi based organization) to ensure government action for the welfare of these women. Being optimistic about some initiatives and action. The women from three villages in Bankura district’s Raibandh block, grouped together in informal clusters. CWDS representatives registered them as Gramin Mahila Saramik Unayan Samiti. (GMSUS). One organization for each village clusters, i.e. Jhilmili and Chendapather.

The representatives of CWDS discussed with the women about elections and democratic decision making. The rural women of Bankura, voted and some leaders as well as figure heads were elected as Executive Committee Members. Now, the question was, what activities these women groups should start unanimously, they decided that they would not go for Namal (Migration) any more. The samiti members suggested that it was the season for *kendu* leaves and *sal* seeds. If the government gave them fair prices they would sell both the produce to the government. The government helped them. It was the government order to the local cooperative to give an agency to the Samiti. The Samiti began to organize the collection and sale of *kendu* leaves and *sal* seeds from the forest. Later, Samiti members and CWDS representatives thought over that unless and until the Samiti members are not represented on the local bodies, they would be neglected. Thus, two of the Samities became affiliated to the West Bengal Tribal Development Cooperatives Corporation (WBTDC) and got accessibility to the Local LAMS (Large Multipart Pose Cooperative Society) which trades in forest produce.

Seed collection spread over Jhilmili and reached to other parts of Bankura’s hilly terrain. A new travelled from there that the private land has been donated to the Samiti by the villagers for plantation with arjun and asan,

the host plant of the tassard, silk worm. Rearing of tassard cocoon in the forest is the traditional occupation and the land will be used by the Samiti women for cocoon production.

The Samiti got nine acres of land. The Bankura women were very delighted. The smile on their faces was really encouraging. Those women, who had donated the land, were also in all smile. The CWDS organizer thought - "At this level of poverty, perhaps only a group can ensure survival of individuals. Emotions are important in an innovative endeavour because they mirror the human trauma which accompanies change. In Bankura, very poor families gave away their land to an untested Samiti, while landless women began to experience asset holding for the first time. Says an organizer, their attachment to the land grew. They started visiting the plot and planning its use" (ILO, 1991).

Coming to the group, the women developed sensitivity towards each others' needs. To make the dream desirable, CWDS organizer contacted the local forest ranger, and he provided 'arjun' and 'asan' saplings to the Bankura Samiti. The organizer also helped to transport the saplings from Birbhum, where the forest department raised the nurseries. The Tribal Welfare Department of Government of West Bengal sanctioned Rs.100,000/- for the plantation. Men cleared the field and women planted the saplings. The women pondered over the responsibilities of different members and fixation of wages for each of the worker member. Their hard work and success gained them about ten acres land in Jhilimili and Chendapather districts.

The CWDS organizers visited district headquarters and Calcutta. Some Samiti women also accompanied. They went to writers building, the secretariat complex was the venue for meeting with the Chief Minister and the Minister for Land and Land Reforms, and Panchayat and Rural Development. Although funds were not allocated to the Samiti members, but Samiti members' access to various schemes was strengthened with the help of the CWDS representative the Samiti women understood that without developing entrepreneurial skills to gain knowledge and access to the development programmes and schemes. Government assurance, that is those women made a demand collectively, they will get full support from it. The government funds helped them to meet the cost of saplings, its plantation and labour. The three Samities were getting fund from 12 government schemes. The grants ranged from Rs. 500/- to Rs.396,000/-

Slowly the Samiti member decided to diversify the employment. They began new income generating activity, which matched their knowhow and skill. They started local demand based work and used the local raw

materials like sal three leaves. Traditionally, with sal leaves leaf plates and cups were made. The Samitti initiated the production of the upgraded sal leaf 'table-wage, with polythene lining. They learnt machine operations and repair of equipment. The Samitti decided that they will half day shift for Rs.3 a shift and rotate the women members once a fortnight one shift. The chain assemble method provided a fortnight's assured part time employment to 50 women on 8 machines, about 5 times as many as would have been benefitted from one-women - per machine norm. The women women's earning increased. Some of them worked in agriculture. Some differences occurred on and of, but the women handled it quire practically Samities activities expanded in Jhilmili, such as rope making trading of Mahua seeds, individual women advance from Samitti for purchase of paddy for rice husking. Along with, some dairy based works were also started, cultivation of fodder grasses on Samiti's plots, pig raising, khaki Campbell paper from babul grass, nurseries for forest plantation vegetable cultivation, lac articles, bone digester units, tassar spinning and weaving, rice husking, soap making, tailoring, small shop for local needs, and rabbit rearing. This shows their entrepreneurial zest and zeal.

The Samiti members were not successful in every activity but their determination did not fail them. CWDS organized continuous training for Samiti women, especially on professional management. CWDS beloved that women need continuous training in management of assets, enterprise, and organization and organization building. The Samiti women were especially trained for professional and occupational - related skills.

Rigorous training resulted in many positive outcomes such as women are active participants in management, and they have acquired technical skills for regeneration of wasted community assets. They themselves have become expert trainers.

Through women's mobilizing and technical skills, non-productive land has been reclaimed and returned to the productive system as an economic resource. The community has fought against the ecological degradation.

## THE STORY OF HOME BASED WOMEN WORKERS IN UNORGANIZED SECTOR

### SHANTABAI - I WILL NOT PROTEST

A mother can sleep on hungry stomach, but, would not like her children to starve. She is 28 years old and has four children. Her husband is a mill worker, but it does not help them in any way, because most of time he is either asleep or drunk.

Shantabai has a frail physique, and poverty has made her to look older than her age. She is a domestic worker, goes to several houses to wash utensils, clothes, and clean and mop the floor. Some people paid her Rs.50/- a month and some Rs.75/-. For doing extra work she was paid some small amount Shantabai earn in all Rs.200/- per month. But it is not sufficient for her children's survival.

An older women introduced Shantabai to a Seth who owned an agarbatti factory. The desperation and uncertainty was clearly written on the face of Shantabai. The Seth offered her the job of rolling agarbatties. Although, Shantabai physically and emotionally not in a position to take a new venture, but the thought of her children, made her to accept the job.

Every morning after completing her domestic worker's duties, she went to the factory. The factory was a two room set, with a verandah, when in women sat on the ground and performed their work. Shantabai just performed the work of agarbatti rolling every day. She did not know anything about the 'Seth', who was only a contractor, and not the principal employer. She was not aware of where the Seth lives.

At the factory a kind of secrecy was maintained over the formula of paste which is combustible on the agarbatti.

"The technological secret draws a gulf between Shantabai and her contractor - proprietor. He creates a distance between himself and Shantabai not only vis his capital, but also vis technological know who. Her ignorance is pitted against his knowledge, and her financial and social vulnerability against his risk-bearing capacity."

Rolling 500 agarbatties into the 'masala' are technological a days' food. She works from 12 noon to 5pm in the factory, because in the factory for per thousand agarbatti rolling she earned Rs.25/-. If she worked from home the earning per thousand agarbatti would reduce to Rs.2/- or less. Technological has quietly accepted her destiny.

SEWA Organisers approached several agarbatti rolling women workers. Many women attended the meeting, but Shantabai declined. She was fearful of losing her job.

SEWA encouraged the women to organize and take up their issue collectively to the Seth with SEWA some representatives of Labour Commissioner Office and Public Departments were also present. It organized delegations went to 2 or 3 Seths, initially he resisted, but with the presence of Labour Officials, he succumbed and increased the rate from Rs.2/- to Rs.2.25/- per thousand sticks of agarbatti. This has brought a positive change in the life of women rolling agrbatti, that their children have started to go to school, although with great difficulty. Shantabai and other women in agarbatti rolling always got lesser price for per 500 agarbatties. The contractor deliberately rejects the agarbatties, and thus pays them less. But Shantabai, never says anything. She is illiterate and too fearful to lose her job. She quietly accepts her existing reality. She silently signs on the papers and accepts the money, whether it may less.

Shantabai also shares some of her problems. She could not use tap water after 6am, because 18 people share the same tap. And her powerful brother-in-law working in city transport company. He and his wife throw their weight around. They think that when they wake up, others should clear the way.

Shantabai is getting some rights without participating in the fight carried forward by other women. Shantabai is not aware of her rights but is motivated to learn them.

### **Fatima – Struggle and Fight for Survival**

Fatima, has grown up in purdah from childhood. She thought she was not pretty and also did not have confidence. At the age of 45, her struggle has not stopped. The fight for right is a continuing battle for her. Fatima's husband had a kiosk for cycle repairs in Ahmadabad's Lal Chowk area. Due to malnutrition, drink and traffic fumes he has developed T.B.

Fatima has five children i.e. three girls and two boys. When her husband became ill, Fatima started doing odd jobs with family earning Rs.1 or 2. Then she began working as domestic help for Rs.50/- a month, for six families. In her words – "I suffered a lot because when they ate, I thought of my children. The locality talked about the affaires I must be having with house owners".

Fatima's elder daughter was 11 years old. Everyday she used to visit her aunt and watcher her stitch clothes. Within three weeks she learn to

stitch petticoat. Her daughter was desperate to help her mother, thus she pressurized her to buy a sewing machine.

According to Fatima, *"I took the 30 year old which my father bought for his mother. It was with my mother in a broken condition they spent Rs.50/- on it for repairs. And my daughter started stitching at home."* The peculiar sound of the machine filled the house and brought a new ray of hope in their life, and they dreamt of better times.

The Seth of the garment factory gave Fatima's daughter assignment of preparing petticoats. Mother and daughter bought the necessary items for stitching petticoats. Fatima's daughter with great determination worked hard day and night to complete the task given to her. She finished her work and the Seth said her 50 paise per petticoat. Soon, it was raised to 75 paise. To help us to live in a better way my daughter left her studies, Fatima could not see her daughter toiling away from dawn to late in the night. She also started to learn stitching from her daughter and also made her other two daughters to also learn stitching.

Fatima and her daughter walked to 3kms to the Seth's godown, to save Rs.2 bus fare for per person. In Fatima's words – *"My heart was always light on these trips although we carried 10 kgs cloth pieces on our heads, the money meant food, clothes, medicines for my husband and sound sleep for all of us"*.

The eye sight of Fatima and her daughters became weak. Fatima started wearing glasses, but her daughters were shy to wear specs.

But, as Fatima says – *"It takes a lot of sufferings to put your bread to jeopardy she further expresses, starvation under feeding becomes a monster that does not let you standup. The fear of starvation puts water in your knees. That's why you go along, ruin your eyes and you surrender your due."*

It was difficult times for them and they have very little money. At this time of bleakness and uncertainty a SEWA organizer called Zohra Bibi, the garment making women workers. On her request, Fatima contacted all women, going door to door, for the meeting, and then going for a strike to fight against the exploitation, women were worried of losing their jobs and also about their negotiation with the officers of labour department. Zohra Bibi took responsibility for negotiation. The garment women workers went for a strike. The demand was to raise their wage to Rs.11 per dozen petticoats.

In between Zohra Bibi withdrew from the leadership role in the strike. She lost temper at the women workers. 120 women left the strike and joined the Seth with the previous wage rate. The Seth sacked older women with

poor eye sight. 75 new and younger women join the garment factory. 30 women stuck to the strike. Sixty-five days had passed. If Fatima and other garment workers win the case they would get Rs.11/- per dozen petticoat and regular work. Along with it another support would be the labour legislations and government machinery, which protect the rights of home based workers. Fatima has not given up her fight continues may be time will bring silver lining in the horizon.

SEWA has been organizing self-employed women since 1974. Initially, SEWA was established as 'Textile Labour Association of Ahmadabad. It was very powerful. SEWA has relentlessly struggled in Labour Courts to be recognized as a Workers' Trade Unions. After winning this status, SEWA consolidated the worker's productive capacities by establishing a bank, facilitating loans and deposits, unlicensing for higher wages and negotiating for competitive rates of raw materials.

With great determination, its members spread out on the streets of Ahmadabad and began organizing self-employed women workers for instance women entrepreneurs who invested their own small capital to produce goods or service, which had a market in the big textile city. Through their collective action they also interacted with the police and the landlords.

But, they were still to reach the neediest and exploited group the home based workers, among the other unorganized workers.

The home based work system is extremely exploitative women work at the mercy of the contractor. These home based women workers are mostly, illiterate, unskilled, without any training, and resource less. Most of these women head their families because their husbands either are drunkards or suffering from chronic illness. Their children are their responsibility. They have five to six children. The home based women are socially restricted and selected and suffer acute gender discrimination in all spheres of their lives. Mostly are in debt. The contractor pays them as he wishes. Most of the women are under paid and the life cycle of starvation or underacting is the worst condition that continuous. Most of these home-based women workers are invisible. In 1991 census of India 'home based work is recognized as a category of workers. The government and the other organizations have now recognized home based work and have also realized that the fastest growing segment of the work force in India's cities and mega towns.

*"As a production processes become more specialized in the manufacturing of consumer goods and services, manufactures are subcontracting jobs to contractors, and the latter are now tapping the powerless but willing reservoir of home-based*

*women in cities. This reflects today's world-wide reality, i.e., as industrialization intensifies, so does exploitative home-based work because of the manufacturers' compulsion to remain ever competitive"*

SEWA because committed to organize these home-based women workers especially beedi and agarbatti workers. They organized these women, created awareness among them about their legal rights representation letter writing to courts and bargaining power and skills, especially bargaining with employers helped them in negotiation process. The outcome was collective bargaining power in negotiating for increase in piece rates, introduction of systematic norms for rejection and to ensure security of employment for home based workers through direct negotiations with the contractors.

SEWA, also took initiative for lobbying at the policy level, for expanding the framework of legal protection to include as many home-based trades and workers as possible. The main issue was to modify the legal interpretation of the employer-employee relationship. It was propagated that a workers is an employee no matter where he or she works, as it had been ruled in case of Ahmadabad beedi workers earlier. This recognition gave the women a right to demand for minimum wage.

According to an organizer of SEWA - "It was only a theoretical right, but a right nevertheless, which has word of meaning for a women who has worked casually, wordlessly, and paylessly.

SEWA's efforts to organize garment making home-based women workers resulted in including these women workers in the Minimum Wage Schedule in Gujarat. "Central Welfare Fund Commissioner has issued 6000 identity cards to SEWA members in Gujarat, officially conforming the women's 'Workers' status; 1000 children of the home based workers have received scholarships from Beedi Workers' Welfare Fund. Bonus was distributed by the contractor in some trades, in some selected cases equal pay for equal work had been implemented, 1200 beedi workers in India have received Provident Fund, etc". (Ibid, 1991).

## CHAPTER SIX

### VILLAGE SCENARIO IN 2011

#### VILLAGE: PANHERA KALAN: I

According to the Primary Census Abstract data 2011, in Panhera Kalan village there were total 599 households. The sex-wise distribution of the population shows that out of total, 45.1 per cent were male above 6 years of age and 7.4 per cent males were between 0-6 years of age. 40.9 per cent females were above 6 years age group and 14.1 per cent were in 0-6 years age (Table 6.1).

**Table 6.1**  
**Total Population**

Population	Males	%	Females	%	Total	%
Above 6 years	1524	45.1	1382	40.9	2906	85.9
Children (0-6 years)	250	7.4	226	6.7	476	14.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,774</b>	<b>52.5</b>	<b>1,608</b>	<b>47.5</b>	<b>3382</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Total Household 599						

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

The distribution of sex wise and caste wise population shows that in the village 11.1 per cent were scheduled caste males and 41.4 per cent males belonged to other category.

As regard to females. 21.4 per cent and 78.6 per cent belonged to SC and Other Categories.

**Table 6.2**  
**SC/ST Population**

SC/ST Population	Males	%	Females	%	Total	%
SC	374	11.1	350	10.3	724	21.4
ST	--	--	--	--	--	--
Other	1400	41.4	1258	37.2	2658	78.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,774</b>	<b>52.5</b>	<b>1,608</b>	<b>47.5</b>	<b>3382</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Table 6.3 provides details of literate/illiterate males and females in the village. It can be noted that 40.5 per cent males were literate and 11.9 per cent were illiterate and 25.8 females were literate and 21.7 per cent were illiterate females.

**Table 6.3**  
**Education Status**

Education Status	Males	%	Females	%	Total	%
Literate	1,371	40.5	874	25.8	2,245	66.4
Illiterate	403	11.9	734	21.7	1,137	33.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,774</b>	<b>52.5</b>	<b>1,608</b>	<b>47.5</b>	<b>3,382</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

The distribution of respondents by the working statue is illustrated in Table 6.4. It can be seen that out of the total population, 21.3 per cent were total males workers, where as only 4.3 per cent females were workers.

31.2 per cent males and 43.3 per cent females were non-workers.

**Table 6.4**  
**Workers and Non Workers**

Workers	Male	%	Female	%	Total Person	%
Total Worker	720	21.3	144	4.3	864	25.5
Non Worker	1,054	31.2	1,464	43.3	2,518	74.5
<b>Total Population</b>	<b>1,774</b>	<b>52.5</b>	<b>1,608</b>	<b>47.5</b>	<b>3,382</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Table 6.5 highlights the distribution of population by main and marginal workers. It can be noticed that 72.8 were male main workers, while 14.2 per cent females main workers.

10.5 per cent males and 2.4 per cent females were in the category of marginal workers.

**Table 6.5**  
**Main and Marginal Workers**

Workers	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Main Worker	629	72.8	123	14.2	752	87.0
Marginal Worker	91	10.5	21	2.4	112	13.0
<b>Total Worker</b>	<b>720</b>	<b>83.3</b>	<b>144</b>	<b>16.7</b>	<b>864</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

In Table 6.6 the sex-wise distribution of main workers in Panhera Kalan village. It can noted that out of the total population 7.7 per cent males were cultivators, followed by 8.6 per cent were agricultural workers, 2.1

per cent were in household industries and 65.2 per cent were in 'other' category of work force.

While 1.6 per cent females were cultivators, followed by 0.9 per cent, who were agricultural workers, 0.5 per cent were household industry workers and 13.3 per cent were 'other' workers.

**Table 6.6**  
**Main Workers**

<b>Workers</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Main Worker - Cultivator	58	7.7	12	1.6	70	9.3
Main Worker - Agricultural Labourers	65	8.6	7	0.9	72	9.6
Main Worker - Household Industries	16	2.1	4	0.5	20	2.7
Main Worker - Other	490	65.2	100	13.3	590	78.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>629</b>	<b>83.6</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>16.4</b>	<b>752</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Table 6.7 projects the distribution of marginal workers by sex and industrial categories. It can be noted that 14.3 per cent males were marginal cultivators, followed by 23.2 per cent who were agricultural labourers, 8.9 per cent were household industrial workers and 34.8 per cent males were 'other' marginal workers, while 2.7 per cent females were marginal cultivators, followed by 0.9 per cent who were marginal agricultural labourers, 1.8 per cent were household industrial workers and 13.45 per cent were on 'other' category of work.

**Table 6.7**  
**Marginal Workers**

<b>Marginal Workers</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Marginal Worker - Cultivator	16	14.3	3	2.7	19	17.0
Marginal Worker - Agriculture Labourers	26	23.2	1	0.9	27	24.1
Marginal Worker - Household Industries	10	8.9	2	1.8	12	10.7
Marginal Workers - Other	39	34.8	15	13.4	54	48.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>81.3</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>18.8</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Table 6.8 illustrates the distribution of marginal workers by period of available work for males and females. The data show that out of the total, 15.2 per cent marginal male cultivators got work for 3-6 months in a year, followed by 18.5 per cent agricultural labourers who could get work for 3-6 months, similarly for 6.5 per cent household industrial workers and 39.1 per cent 'other' category workers.

With regard to women, 3.3 per cent female marginal cultivators got work for 3-6 months, followed by 1.1 per cent agricultural labourers, 2.2 per cent household industrial workers and 14.1 per cent 'other' workers could get work for 3-6 months.

**Table 6.8**  
**Marginal Workers - (3-6 Months)**

<b>Marginal Workers (3-6 months)</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Cultivator	14	15.2	3	3.3	17	18.5
Agriculture Labourers	17	18.5	1	1.1	18	19.6
Household Industries	6	6.5	2	2.2	8	8.7
Marginal Worker - Other	36	39.1	13	14.1	49	53.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>79.3</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>20.7</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Sex-wise and industry wise distribution of marginal workers is shown in Table 6.9. It can be seen that among the male marginal workers 10.0 per cent cultivators, 45.0 per cent agricultural labourers, 20.0 per cent household industrial workers and 15.0 per cent 'other' workers got work between 0-3 months. Among the female marginal workers 10.0 per cent 'other' workers got work for 0-3 months.

**Table 6.9**  
**Marginal Workers - (0-3 Months)**

<b>Marginal Workers (0-3 months)</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Cultivator	2	10.0	0	0.0	2	10.0
Agriculture Labourers	9	45.0	0	0.0	9	45.0
Household Industries	4	20.0	0	0.0	4	20.0
Other Workers	3	15.0	2	10.0	5	25.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>90.0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>10.0</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Table 6.10A presents the details regarding number educational amenities available in the village. The village Panhera Kalan has one pre-primary schools, 2 primary schools. There one middle school between 5 to 10 kms, followed by a secondary school which was at the distance of less than 5 kms and senior- secondary school and degree college of Arts, Science and Commerce are situated more than 10 kms away from the village.

**Table 6.10 A**  
**Number of Educational Amenities available - 1**

Pre-Primary School (PP)	1
Primary School (P)	2
Middle School (M)	Between 5 to 10 Kms
Secondary School (S)	Less than 5 kms
Senior Secondary School (SS)	More than 10 kms
Degree College of Arts Science & Commerce (ASC)	More than 10 kms

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Number of educational amenities (2) is given in Table 6.10 B. It can be noted that Engineering College, Medical College, Management Institute, Vocational Training School, Polytechnic, Vocational Training School, Non-Formal Training Centre and Special School for Disabled, all were at the distance more than 10 km from the village

**Table 6.10 B**  
**Number of educational amenities available - 2**

Engineering College(EC)	More than 10 kms
Medical College (MC)	More than 10 kms
Management Institute (MI)	More than 10 kms
Polytechnic (Pt)	More than 10 kms
Vocational Training School /ITI	More than 10 kms
Non-Formal Training Centre (NFTC)	More than 10 kms
Special School for Disabled (SSD)	More than 10 kms

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

In Table 6.11 the number of Medical amenities available in the village is shown. The village has one each, the primary health centre, primary health sub centre and maternity and child welfare centre. Rest other amenities mentioned in the Table are more than 10 kms from the village.

**Table 6.11**  
**Number of Medical Amenities available**

Community health centre (CHC)	Less than 5 kms
Primary health centre (PHC)	Less than 5 kms
Primary health sub centre (PHS)	Less than 5 kms
Hospital-alternative medicine (HO)	Less than 5 kms
T.B. clinic (TBC)	More than 10 kms
Maternity and child welfare centre (MCW)	More than 10 kms
Hospital-allopathic (HA)	More than 10 kms
Dispensary (D)	More than 10 kms
Veterinary hospital (VH)	More than 10 kms
Mobile health clinic (MHC)	More than 10 kms
Family welfare centre (FWC)	More than 10 kms

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Table 6.12 highlights the data on number of non-governmental medical amenities available in Panhera Kalan village. There is one charitable non-governmental hospital/nursing home in the village followed by two each medical practitioner with M.B.B.S. degree, medical practitioner with other degree, medical practitioner with no degree, traditional practitioner and faith healer and medicine shops, available in the village.

**Table 6.12**  
**Number of Non-Government Medical Amenities available**

Charitable non Govt. hospital/Nursing home	1
Medical practitioner with MBBS Degree	2
Medical practitioner with other degree	2
Medical practitioner with no degree	2
Traditional practitioner and faith healer	2
Medicine Shop	2

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

## VILLAGE: PANHERA KHURD: II

According to the Primary Census Abstract, 2011, in Panhera Khurd village of district Faridabad, the total population was 3346, out of which 45.9 were adult males and 7.5 per cent were male children. It can be noticed further that 40.7 of the total population was, female and 5.9 per cent were female children.

**Table 6.13**  
**Population**

Population	Males	%	Females	%	Total	%
Above 6 years	1536	45.9	1361	40.7	2897	86.6
Children (0-6 years)	251	7.5	198	5.9	449	13.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,787</b>	<b>53.4</b>	<b>1,559</b>	<b>46.6</b>	<b>3346</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Total Household 598						

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

The distribution of total by caste category shows that out of the total, 6.9 Scheduled Caste males and 46.5 per cent belonged to 'others' category. It can be seen that 7.0 per cent were SC females and 39.6 per cent females were from 'other' category.

13.9 per cent of the total populating was from Scheduled Caste category and 86.1 per cent form 'other' category.

**Table 6.14**  
**SC/ST Population**

SC/ST Population	Males	%	Females	%	Total	%
SC	230	6.9	235	7.0	465	13.9
ST	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other	1557	46.5	1324	39.6	2881	86.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,787</b>	<b>53.4</b>	<b>1,559</b>	<b>46.6</b>	<b>3346</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Table 6.15 illustrates the distribution of total population by educational status. The data show that 39.9 per cent of the total, were literate males and 13.5 per cent males were illiterate. Among the females, 25.9 per cent were literate female and 20.7 per cent were female illiterates. A glance at the total population indicate that 65.7 per cent out of the total, were literate and 34.3 per cent were illiterates.

**Table 6.15**  
**Education Status**

Education Status	Males	%	Females	%	Total	%
Literate	1,334	39.9	865	25.9	2,199	<b>65.7</b>
Illiterate	453	13.5	694	20.7	1,147	<b>34.3</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,787</b>	<b>53.4</b>	<b>1,559</b>	<b>46.6</b>	<b>3,346</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

The distribution of total population by working/non-working states is presented in Table 6.16. It can be noted that out of the total, 22.9 per cent males were working, whereas 30.5 per cent males were not working. Among the females only 8.5 per cent were working and 38.0 per cent were not working. It is also observed that 31.5 per cent were total workers and 68.5 per cent were non workers.

**Table 6.16**  
**Workers and Non Workers**

Workers & Non-Workers	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Total Worker	767	22.9	286	8.5	1,053	31.5
Non Worker	1,020	30.5	1,273	38.0	2,293	68.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,787</b>	<b>53.4</b>	<b>1,559</b>	<b>46.6</b>	<b>3,346</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

The data in Table 6.17 shows the distribution of population by sex and main and marginal workers. It can be seen that 51.6 per cent male workers were in 'main' work category, and 21.3 per cent were marginal workers. As far as females were concerned, 22.2 per cent were main workers and 4.9 per cent were marginal female workers. In Panhera Khurd village 73.8 per cent workers were main workers, of the total population. workers and 68.5 per cent were non-workers out of total population.

**Table 6.17**  
**Main and Marginal Workers**

Workers	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Main Worker	543	51.6	234	22.2	777	73.8
Marginal Worker	224	21.3	52	4.9	276	26.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>767</b>	<b>72.8</b>	<b>286</b>	<b>27.2</b>	<b>1,053</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

The sex-wise and industry-wise distribution of total workers population in 'main' category is illustrated in Table 6.18. As can be noted of the total, 14.2 per cent males were cultivators, followed by 5.1 per cent who were agricultural labourers, 1.3 per cent were in household industries and 49.3 per cent main workers were in 'other' category.

4.8 per cent female cultivators were main works from the total, followed by 2.1 percent females worked as agricultural labourer, 0.9 per cent were in household industry and, 22.4 per cent females under main category were working as 'other' workers.

**Table 6.18**  
**Main Workers**

<b>Main Workers</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Cultivator	110	14.2	37	4.8	147	18.9
Agricultural Labourers	40	5.1	16	2.1	56	7.2
Household Industries	10	1.3	7	0.9	17	2.2
Main Worker - Other	383	49.3	174	22.4	557	71.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>543</b>	<b>69.9</b>	<b>234</b>	<b>30.1</b>	<b>777</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

The data in Table 6.19 depicts the distribution of total marginal workers by sex and industry. It can be noted that 14.1 per cent were marginal works out of the total, were cultivators, followed by 27.5 per cent respondents who were agricultural labourers, 1.1 per cent marginal workers were in household industry and 38.4 per cent marginal workers belonged to 'other' category, of the total.

5.8 per cent female marginal workers were cultivators, followed by 5.1 who were agricultural labourers, 1.1 per cent in household industries and 6.9 per cent female marginal workers were in 'other' works' category.

**Table 6.19**  
**Marginal Workers**

<b>Marginal Workers</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Cultivator	39	14.1	16	5.8	55	19.9
Agriculture Labourers	76	27.5	14	5.1	90	32.6
Household Industries	3	1.1	3	1.1	6	2.2
Marginal Workers - Other	106	38.4	19	6.9	125	45.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>224</b>	<b>81.2</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>18.8</b>	<b>276</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Table 6.20 focuses upon the marginal workers who got work between 3 to 6 months. It could be noticed that 14.2 per cent male cultivators, of the total, got work for 3-6 months, followed by 34.0 per cent agricultural labourers who worked for 3-6 months, 0.5 marginal household industries' workers got work for 3-6 months and 31.6 per cent marginal workers of the total, worked for 3-6 months.

5.7 per cent marginal female cultivators got work for 3-6 months followed by 6.1 per cent who were agricultural labourers 1.4 per cent marginal female household workers and 6.6 per cent marginal workers of females as other work for 3-6 months.

**Table 6.20**  
**Marginal Workers - (3-6 Months)**

<b>Marginal Workers (3-6 Months)</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Cultivator	30	14.2	12	5.7	42	19.8
Agriculture Labourers	72	34.0	13	6.1	85	40.1
Household Industries	1	0.5	3	1.4	4	1.9
Other	67	31.6	14	6.6	81	38.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>170</b>	<b>80.2</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>19.8</b>	<b>212</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

The distribution of marginal workers who got work for the period of 0-3 months, by industrial categories. It can be seen that 14.1 per cent marginal male cultivators of the total, got work between 0-3 months, followed by 6.3 per cent male agricultural labourers could get work between 0-3 months, 60.9 per cent marginal male in 'other' category worked from 0-3 months.

As regard to females, 6.3 per cent marginal females workers were cultivators who got work between 0-3 months followed by 1.6 per cent agricultural labourers worked for 0-3 per cent and 7.8 per cent marginal females in 'other' category could get work for 0-3 months.

**Table 6.21**  
**Marginal Workers - (0-3 Months)**

<b>Marginal Worker (0-3 Months)</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Cultivator	9	14.1	4	6.3	13	20.3
Agriculture Labourers	4	6.3	1	1.6	5	7.8
Household Industries	2	3.1	0	0.0	2	3.1
Other Workers	39	60.9	5	7.8	44	68.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>84.4</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>15.6</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

The distribution of households by their condition is given in Table 6.22. Among those who had their homes, 20.8 per cent households residence was in good condition, followed by 74.8 per cent whose place of living was in just livable condition and 1.1 per cent household of residence was in dilapidated conditions.

In the category of residence-cum-other use, 3.1 per cent houses were in livable condition while 0.2 per cent residence-cum-other us place was in dilapidated condition.

**Table 6.22**  
**Number of households with condition (in percentage)**

Residence		Residence-cum-other use		Total	
Good	20.8	Good	0	Good	20.8
Livable	74.8	Livable	3.1	Livable	77.9
Dilapidated	1.1	Dilapidated	0.2	Dilapidated	1.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Table 6.23A presents the details regarding number of educational amenities available in Panhera Khurd village. There are 2 pre-Primary schools, 5 Primary schools, followed by 5 middle schools, 3 secondary schools and 3 senior secondary schools. A degree college of Arts, Science and Ecommerce is situated more than 10 kms, from the village.

**Table 6.23 A**  
**Number of Educational Amenities available 1**

Pre-Primary School (PP)	2
Primary School (P)	5
Middle School (M)	5
Secondary School (S)	3
Senior Secondary School (SS)	3
Degree College of Arts Science & Commerce (ASC)	More than 10 kms

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Number of educational amenities is given in Table 6.23B. It can be noted that Engineering College, Medical College, Management Institute, Vocational Training School, Polytechnic, Vocational Training School, Non-formal Training Centre and Special School for Disabled, all were at the distance of 10 kms from the village.

**Table 6.23 B**  
**Number of educational amenities available 2**

Engineering College(EC)	More than 10 kms
Medical College (MC)	More than 10 kms
Management Institute (MI)	More than 10 kms
Polytechnic (Pt)	More than 10 kms
Vocational Training School /ITI	More than 10 kms
Non-Formal Training Centre (NFTC)	More than 10 kms
Special School for Disabled (SSD)	More than 10 kms

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

In Table 6.24 the number of medical amenities available in the village is shown. The village has one each, the Primary Health Centre, Primary Health sub-centre and Maternity and Child Welfare Centre. Rest other amenities mentioned in the Table are more than 10 kms from the village.

**Table 6.24**  
**Number of Medical Amenities available**

Primary health centre (PHC)	1
Primary health sub centre (PHS)	1
Maternity and child welfare centre (MCW)	1
Community health centre (CHC)	More than 10 kms
Hospital-alternative medicine (HO)	More than 10 kms
T.B. clinic (TBC)	More than 10 kms
Hospital-allopathic (HA)	More than 10 kms
Dispensary (D)	More than 10 kms
Veterinary hospital (VH)	More than 10 kms
Mobile health clinic (MHC)	More than 10 kms
Family welfare centre (FWC)	More than 10 kms

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

Table 6.25 highlights the data on number of non-government medical amenities available in Panhera Khurd village. The village has one medical practitioner with M.B.B.S. degree followed by two medical practitioner with other degree, one traditional practitioner and faith healer and two medicine shops.

**Table 6.25**  
**Number of Non-Government Medical Amenities available**

Charitable non Govt. hospital/Nursing home	0
Medical practitioner with M B BS Degree	1
Medical practitioner with other degree	2
Medical practitioner with no degree	0
Traditional practitioner and faith healer	1
Medicine Shop	2

Source: Primary Census Abstract Data, 2011

## CHAPTER SEVEN

# VILLAGE PROFILE SURVEY: PANHERA KALAN

### Age Profile

Of the total 50 respondent households, 44.0 per cent were in the age-group 41-50, followed by 24.0 in the age-group 31 to 40, and the rest in the age-group of 51-60.

**Table 7.1**  
**Distribution of household head by age and gender**

Age-group	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Below 30	0	--	0	--	0	0.0
31 to 40	12	24.0	0	--	12	24.0
41 to 50	19	38.0	3	6.0	22	44.0
51 to 60	16	32.0	0	--	16	32.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>94.0</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

### Educational Profile

In Table 7.2 it could be seen that of the total respondents, 12.0, 16.0, 26.0 and 30.0 per cent respondents possessed education from upto primary, upto middle, upto secondary and upto senior secondary levels correspondingly. Two respondents had education upto graduation level. 14.0 percent respondents were illiterate.

**Table 7.2**  
**Distribution of household head by gender and educational level**

Educational level	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Illiterate	5	10.0	2	4.0	7	14.0
Upto Primary	6	12.0	0	--	6	12.0
Upto Middle	8	16.0	0	--	8	16.0
Upto Secondary	13	26.0	0	--	13	26.0
Upto Senior Secondary	15	30.0	0	--	15	30.0
Upto Graduation	0	--	1	2.0	1	2.0
Upto Post Graduation	0	--	0	--	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>94.0</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

### Distribution of population by age-group

It could be seen in Table 7.3 that of the total population 5.8 per cent were in the age-group upto 14 years, 22.0 per cent in the age-group 15-20 years, 25.6 per cent were in the age group 21-30 per cent, 16.6 per cent were in the age-group 31-40 years and another 16.6 per cent were in the age group 41-50 years, the rest 13.5 per cent in the age-group of 51 and above years.

**Table 7.3**  
**Distribution of household members by gender and age-group**

Age-group	Male	%	Female	%	Total	
Upto 14	1	0.4	12	5.4	13	5.8
15 to 20	21	9.4	28	12.6	49	22.0
21 to 30	32	14.3	25	11.2	57	25.6
31 to 40	17	7.6	20	9.0	37	16.6
41 to 50	30	13.5	7	3.1	37	16.6
51 to 60	21	9.4	9	4.0	30	13.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>122</b>	<b>54.7</b>	<b>101</b>	<b>45.3</b>	<b>223</b>	<b>100.0</b>

### Occupational Profile

Of the total respondents, 40.0 per cent are engaged in private job, 28.0 per cent in animal husbandry, 16.0 per cent reported their activity as agricultural labour. Some respondents occupations are carpentering and construction work, 8.0 per cent are engaged in shop-keeping.

**Table 7.4**  
**Distribution of household head by Main occupation**

Occupation	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Private Job	20	40.0	0	--	20	40.0
Animal Husbandry	13	26.0	1	2.0	14	28.0
Agricultural Labour	8	16.0	0	--	8	16.0
Construction Worker	2	4.0	0	--	2	4.0
Carpenter	2	4.0	0	--	2	4.0
Shop Keeping	2	4.0	2	4.0	4	8.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>94.0</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

### Income profile

In Table 7.5 it could be observed that 8.0 per cent respondents are in the income category of rupees below Rs.5001. 66.6 per cent respondents are in the income group of 66.0 per cent, 22.0 per cent are in the income group of Rs.10001 to Rs.15000 and a rest 4.0 per cent in the income group of Rs.15001 to Rs.20000.

**Table 7.5**  
**Distribution of household head by income (in rupees)**

Income in rupees	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Below 5,001	2	4.0	2	4.0	4	8.0
5,001 to 10,000	32	64.0	1	2.0	33	66.0
10,001 to 15,000	11	22.0	0	--	11	22.0
15,001 to 20,000	2	4.0	0	--	2	4.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>94.0</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

### Problems profile

The respondents were asked to point out the problem relating to works. The figures in Table 7.6 show that they face problems like resources, transportation, money, cleanliness, tools, training and roads. Still in village lack of such resources hinder development.

**Table 7.6**  
**Problems during work**

Problems	Frequency	%
Resources	26	52.0
Transportation	26	52.0
Money	23	46.0
Cleanliness	18	36.0
Tools	15	30.0
Training	13	26.0
Roads	5	10.0

The respondents were worked to express their capability of being other works. The figure in Table 7.7 show that many reported animal husbandry, agriculture, simple labour, food processing and mechanical activities along with their main occupations.

**Table 7.7**  
**Capability of doing other work except main work**

Skills	Frequency	%
Animal husbandry	39	78.0
Agriculture	24	48.0
Labour	15	30.0
Food processing	12	24.0
Mechanic	5	10.0

### Working days

The details of working days of the respondents are given in Table 7.8. It could be seen that of the total respondents, 68.0 per cent working days are

30 days, 22.0 per cent respondents working per month are 10 days. The 10.0 per cent respondents reported it between 10 to 20 days a month.

**Table 7.8**  
**Working days in a month**

Working days in a month	No. of respondents	%
Below 10 days	11	22.0
10 to 20 days	5	10.0
21 to 30 days	34	68.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

In the event of not being engaged in their regular activities, they either sit idle (22.0 per cent) some (54.0 per cent) take up some secondary occupation, while some also go to city in search of work (24.0 per cent).

**Table 7.9**  
**Work performed during unemployment condition**

Unemployment condition	Response	%
Sit Idle	11	22.0
Secondary work	27	54.0
Go to city	12	24.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

### Saving

The respondents were asked whether they save some money. The majority reported that they did not (96.0 per cent).

**Table 7.10**  
**Saving profile**

Saving	Response	%
Yes	2	4.0
No	48	96.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

### Food type

The respondents were asked to state the types of food they generally take. The figures in Table 7.11 show that they generally consumed wheat flour, rice, green vegetable ghee (refined butter) and other milk products.

Meat and fish consumption found to be very negligible among the respondents.

**Table 7.11**

**Food type items taking per day**

<b>Consumption of food items per day</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Roti	50	100.0
Rice	50	100.0
Green vegetables	50	100.0
Refined/ ghee	50	100.0
Milk products	42	84.0
Meat/ fish	5	10.0

**Cooking medium**

It can be seen in Table 7.12 the firewood, cow dung and PLG gas are predominant cooking medium, other medium are not being used by this group of respondents. It may be noted here that some households may use all these three medium in combination.

**Table 7.12**  
**Medium of cooking**

<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Response</b>	<b>%</b>
Firewood	50	100.0
Cow dung	50	100.0
LPG	50	100.0
Kerosene	0	--
Coal	0	--
Electricity	0	--
Bio-gas	0	--

**Water Supply**

**Table 7.13**  
**Source of drinking water**

<b>Source of drinking water</b>	<b>Response</b>	<b>%</b>
Supply	50	100.0
Well	0	--
Handpump	0	--
River/pond	0	--

Water is supplied by the government. And this is a great relief. All the respondents' households received water from the supply provided by the government.

### Type of houses

Today almost all the houses in the village are pucca. Here out of the total respondents, only two reported that they kacha house.

The once mud houses have disappeared and its place has been occupied by pucca houses.

**Table 7.14**  
**Type of House**

House type	Response	%
Kacha	2	4.0
Pucca	48	96.0

### Toilet facilities

The figures in Table 7.15 show that of the 50 households surveyed, 32 have toilet facilities while rest 18 households do not have. While discussing with the villagers, it was reported by them that slowly, toilet facilities are being constructed in all houses.

**Table 7.15**  
**Toilet**

Toilet	Response	%
Yes	32	64.0
No	18	36.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

### Livestock profile

Today many villages are possessing livestock. It may seen in Table 7.16 only buffalo and milch cows are reared for milk. And today it is a great source of both earning money and using as food items. Other types of livestock are almost vanishing.

**Table 7.16**  
**Possession livestock**

Livestock	Yes	%	No	%	Total
Ox	0	--	50	100.0	50
Buffalo	12	24.0	38	76.0	50
Cow	15	30.0	35	70.0	50
Goat	0	--	50	100.0	50
Pig	0	--	50	100.0	50
Donkey	0	--	50	100.0	50
Poultry	0	--	50	100.0	50
Horse	0	--	50	100.0	50

## Household items

Today every household possess an array of items for its daily use like different type of furniture, communication and entertainment medium like, mobile phones, television, ornaments etc. The figures in Table 7.17 illustrates the types of items possessed by the respondents households.

**Table 7.17**  
**Possession of household items**

items	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Chair	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Table	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Plank	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Cot	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Television	46	92.0	5	10.0	51	102.0
Mobile Phone	46	92.0	10	20.0	56	112.0
Sofa set	42	84.0	13	26.0	55	110.0
Cycle	40	80.0	9	18.0	49	98.0
Sewing Machine	37	74.0	5	10.0	42	84.0
C.D. Player	30	60.0	32	64.0	62	124.0
Motor Cycle	29	58.0	32	64.0	61	122.0
Torch	28	56.0	28	56.0	56	112.0
Gold	2	4.0	45	90.0	47	94.0
Silver	2	4.0	45	90.0	47	94.0

## Women's education

The respondents were asked to state different reasons for women's low participation. The figures in Table 7.18 illustrate the reasons, like veil system, rituals, because of take care of small children, household chores, poverty religious pressure, etc.

**Table 7.18**  
**Reason of lack of education of women**

Reason	Yes	%	No	%	Total
Veil system	50	100.0	0	--	50
Rituals	50	100.0	0	--	50
Care for little children	50	100.0	0	--	50
Home work	50	100.0	0	--	50
Poverty	50	100.0	0	--	50
Unemployment	25	50.0	25	50.0	50
Religion	0	--	50	100.0	50
Caste	0	--	50	100.0	50

**Table 7.19**  
**Problems in schools for women**

Problems	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
High fee	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Problem in understanding language	12	24.0	38	76.0	50	100.0
Problem in study	5	10.0	45	90.0	50	100.0
School is far distance	0	--	45	90.0	45	90.0
Teacher's rude behaviour	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Coeducation	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0

Some reasons like high school fees, language barriers, distance between school and home, teacher's rude behaviours are also mentioned as problems in schools.

### Knowledge about Government Schemes

The figures in Table 7.20 show that the majority of the respondents surveyed here are not acquainted with the programmes launched by the government. As results, many potential beneficiaries fail to take benefits from the programmes and schemes.

**Table 7.20**  
**Knowledge about government schemes**

Schemes	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
MGNREGA	15	30.0	35	70.0	50	100.0
Old Age Pension Yojana	15	30.0	35	70.0	50	100.0
Unemployment Allowance	5	10.0	45	90.0	50	100.0
Atal Gram Swarojgar Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Indira Old Age Pension	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
National Family Assistance Scheme	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Janani Surksha Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Janshri Bima Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Aam Admi Bima Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Ajeevika	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Gr. Kaushal Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
TRYSEM	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Kutir Jyoti Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Jeevan Surksha Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Aayushman Bharat Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0

### Industries suggested by the respondents

The figures in Table 7.21 show that majority of the respondent said that small sale industries could be opened. Similarly agro-industry also mentioned to be another preferred option. Khadi, handicraft and embroidery also mentioned by some respondents to suitable for them.

**Table 7.21**  
**Industries needed in village level for employment and development**

Industries	Frequency	%
Small Scale Industries	45	90.0
Agriculture Industry	40	80.0
Khadi Industry	15	30.0
Handicrafts	10	20.0
Embroidery	5	10.0
Horticulture	1	2.0
Packaging	1	2.0
Sewing	1	2.0

### Means need for self-employment

The respondents as can be noted in Table 7.22 also said that to start any self-employment activities. They require finance, tools and skills and also mentioned be another requirement.

The interesting point which could be noted here is that propel aware about their capability has to be fostered and supported by proper policy and opportunities.

**Table 7.22**  
**Means needed for developing self employment**

	Frequency	%
Finance	48	96.0
Tools	25	50.0
Skill development institute	25	50.0
Land	19	38.0

### Resources for women's self-employment

The respondents were asked to state what were needed for women's self-employment. The figures in Table 7.23 show that 72.0 per cent said that women required vocational training, education in general and also training in weaving, sewing and animal husbandry.

**Table 7.23**  
**Which resources is needed for women' self-employment**

	Frequency	%
Vocational Training	36	72.0
Education	35	70.0
Weaving	24	48.0
Sewing	24	48.0
Animal Husbandry	32	64.0

### **Resources need for the development**

The figures in Table 7.24 clearly depict the requirement and it is soothing to know that our people know what is required for their development. Resources and activities, like rural industrialization, employment, cleanliness, transportation, good roads, anti-drug mission, training school, social capital like brotherhood and medical facilities are the things, according to them, that are required for the development of their villages.

Keeping this in view attempts should be made to plan village development programmes.

**Table 7.24**  
**Things needed for overall development of village**

<b>Resources need for the development</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Rural Industrialization	42	84.0
Employment	42	84.0
Cleanliness	33	66.0
Transportation	23	46.0
Good roads	23	46.0
Anti Drug Mission	22	44.0
Training School	20	40.0
Brotherhood	20	40.0
Medical Facilities	16	32.0

## VILLAGE PROFILE: PANHERA KHURD

Table 7.25 shows the distribution of household heads by age and gender. It cannot be noted that out of the total, 4.0 percent males in below 31 age group were heading their households, followed by 12.0 percent, 56.0 percent and 24.0 percent males in age groups 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60 were heads of their households respectively.

As regard to women, 4.0 percent women of the total, in age group below 31. In rest of the age groups mentioned that 12.0 percent, 60.0 percent and 24.0 percent were household heads respectively.

**Table 7.25**  
**Distribution of household head by age and gender**

Age-group	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Below 31	2	4.0	0	--	2	4.0
31 to 40	6	12.0	0	--	6	12.0
41 to 50	28	56.0	2	4.0	30	60.0
51 to 60	12	24.0	0	--	12	24.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>96.0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>4.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The gender wise and educational level wise distribution of households heads in village Panehera Khurd is given in Table 7.26. It can be noted that 24.0 percent males of the total had education up to middle level, followed by 22.0 percent who were having education up to primary level and 18.0 percent each were illiterate and second pass, respectively.

Majority of women, out of the total (24.0 percent) had education up to middle followed by 22.0 percent who had literacy up to primary level, 20.0 percent women heads were illiterate and 18.0 percent had education up to secondary level.

**Table 7.26**  
**Distribution of household head by gender and educational level**

Education level	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Illiterate	9	18.0	1	2.0	10	20.0
Upto Primary	11	22.0	0	--	11	22.0
Upto Middle	12	24.0	0	--	12	24.0
Upto Secondary	9	18.0	0	--	9	18.0
Upto Senior Secondary	7	14.0	0	--	7	14.0
Upto Graduation	0	0.0	1	2.0	1	2.0
Upto Post Graduation	0	0.0	0	--	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>96.0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>4.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The distribution of household members by gender and age group is presented in Table 7.27. It can be noted that 20.4 percent male members of the village were in 21-30 age group, followed by 11.7 percent who belonged to 41-50 age group and 8.7 percent males were in 14 to 20 age group.

While the data on women shows that 15.5 percent women were in 31 to 40 age group, followed by 7.8 percent each in age groups 21-30 and 51-60 respectively.

**Table 7.27**  
**Distribution of household members by gender and age-group**

Age-group	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Upto 14	13	6.3	8	3.9	21	10.2
14 to 20	18	8.7	7	3.4	25	12.1
21 to 30	42	20.4	16	7.8	58	28.2
31 to 40	10	4.9	32	15.5	42	20.4
41 to 50	24	11.7	9	4.4	33	16.0
51 to 60	11	5.3	16	7.8	27	13.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>118</b>	<b>57.3</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>42.7</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>100.0</b>

**Table 7.28**  
**Distribution of household members by gender and educational level**

Education level	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Illiterate	18	8.7	38	18.4	56	27.2
Upto Primary	17	8.3	0	0.0	17	8.3
Upto Middle	15	7.3	10	4.9	25	12.1
Upto Secondary	21	10.2	16	7.8	37	18.0
Upto Senior Secondary	27	13.1	9	4.4	36	17.5
Upto Graduation	5	2.4	9	4.4	14	6.8
Upto Post Graduation	4	1.9	0	--	4	1.9
Diploma	4	1.9	0	--	4	1.9
JBT	0	0.0	2	1.0	2	1.0
L.L.B.	2	1.0	0	--	2	1.0
Infant	5	2.4	4	1.9	9	4.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>118</b>	<b>57.3</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>42.7</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>100.0</b>

In Table 7.28 illustrate the distribution of household members by gender and educational level. It can be seen that out of the total, 13.1 percent males had education up to upper senior secondary level, followed by 10.2 percent who were educated up to secondary level, 8.3 percent males had education up to primary level and 8.7 percent males were illiterate.

Among the women, 18.4 percent of the total, were illiterate, followed by 7.8 percent who had education up to secondary level and 4.9 percent females had education up to middle level.

Table 7.29 depicts the distribution of household heads by their main occupation. It can be noticed that out of the total, 30.0 percent were engaged in animal husbandry, followed by 22.0 percent who had private job, 20.0 percent were agricultural labour and 16.0 percent males were working in construction industry.

As regard to women household heads, only 2.0 percent each of the total, were engaged in animal husbandry and private job respectively.

**Table 7.29**  
**Distribution of household head by Main occupation**

Occupation	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Animal Husbandry	15	30.0	1	2.0	16	32.0
Private Job	11	22.0	1	2.0	12	24.0
Agricultural Labour	10	20.0	0	--	10	20.0
Construction Worker	8	16.0	0	--	8	16.0
Shop Keeping	3	6.0	0	--	3	6.0
Building material supplier	1	2.0	0	--	1	2.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>96.0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>4.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 7.30 presents the distribution of household heads by secondary work. It can be noted that out of the total, 34.0 percent males were in animal husbandry followed by 16.0 percent who worked as agricultural labour and 36.0 percent males had no secondary occupation. While, among the women, 2.0 percent of the total, were engaged as agriculture labour and 2.0 percent did not have any secondary labour.

**Table 7.30**  
**Distribution of household head by secondary work**

Secondary work	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Animal Husbandry	17	34.0	0	--	17	34.0
Labour	5	10.0	0	--	5	10.0
Agricultural Labour	8	16.0	1	2.0	9	18.0
No secondary work	18	36.0	1	2.0	19	38.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>96.0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>4.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

In Table 7.31 the distribution of household's head by income is shown. The data indicate that 52.0 percent males of the total, earned between

Rs.5,001 to 10,000/-, followed by 28.0 percent whose income monthly, was between Rs.10,001 to 15,000/-, 8.0 percent each earned between Rs.15,001 to 20,000/- and below 5001. Only 4.0 percent women household heads earns below Rs.5001/- per month.

**Table 7.31**  
**Distribution of household head by income (in rupees)**

Income in rupees	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Below 5,001	4	8.0	2	4.0	6	12.0
5,001 to 10,000	26	52.0	0	--	26	52.0
10,001 to 15,000	14	28.0	0	--	14	28.0
15,001 to 20,000	4	8.0	0	--	4	8.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>96.0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>4.0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The distribution of respondents by their possession of tools is given in Table 7.32. It can be noted that all the respondents had spade, followed by 84.0 percent, who possessed tasala, 76.0 percent had sabal and 12.0 percent axe.

**Table 7.32**  
**Possession of Tools**

Possession of Agricultural Tools	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Spade	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Tasla	47	94.0	3	6.0	50	100.0
Sabal	38	76.0	12	24.0	50	100.0
Axe	6	12.0	44	88.0	50	100.0

Table 7.33 focuses upon the facilities during at work. It can be noted that 52.0 percent respondents reported that they got work tools at workplace, where as 20.0 percent informed that they get food at workplace and 44.0 percent got no facilities at their workplace.

**Table 7.33**  
**Facilities during at work place**

Facilities	Frequency	%
Work tools	26	52.0
Food	10	20.0
Travel Allowance	0	--
Security tools	0	--
Nothing	22	44.0

In Table 7.34 the work problems have been listed 46.0 percent respondent of the total said that there was no cleanliness at their workplace, followed by 34.0 percent who reported that they did not get any resources at work,

26.0 percent respondents reported that the money paid to them as wages was inadequate and 22.0 percent each said they did not get tools at work and transportation was a big problem, respectively.

**Table 7.34**  
**Problems during work**

Problems	Frequency	%
Cleanliness	23	46.0
Resources	17	34.0
Money	13	26.0
Tools	11	22.0
Transportation	11	22.0
Roads	7	14.0
Education	5	10.0
Crop warm	3	6.0
Lack of money	3	6.0
Stray animal	3	6.0
Lack of Security tools	2	4.0
Medical	2	4.0

Table 7.35 gives details of working days in a month. It can be seen that 60.0 percent respondents got work for 21 to 30 days in a month, followed by 24.0 percent who get work for less than 10 days and 16.0 percent got work for 11-20 days in a month.

**Table 7.35**  
**Working days in a month**

Working days in a month	No. of respondents	%
Below 10 days	12	24.0
11 to 20 days	8	16.0
21 to 30 days	30	60.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The details of working months in a year is shown in Table 7.36. It can be seen that out of the total respondents 60.0 percent got work between 9 to 12 months, followed by 24.0 percent who could get work for 1 to 4 months and 16.0 percent got work from 5 to 8 months.

**Table 7.36**  
**Working months in a year**

Months	Response	%
1 to 4 months	12	24.0
5 to 8 months	8	16.0
9 to 12 months	30	60.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 7.37 illustrates the distribution of respondents by the work they perform during unemployed period. It can be noticed that out of the total, 62.0 percent respondents did same secondary work and 38.0 percent did nothing.

**Table 7.37**  
**What you do in unemployment condition**

Unemployment condition	Response	%
Sit Idle	19	38.0
Do secondary work	31	62.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 7.38 provides information about whether the respondents could save their money. It can be seen that out of the total respondents 90.0 percent reported that they were not saving any money, while only 10.0 percent respondents could save some money.

**Table 7.38**  
**Saving profile**

Saving	Response	%
Yes	5	10.0
No	45	90.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 7.39 illustrates the list of food items consumed by the respondents per day. The data indicates that almost all respondents to ate roti, rice, green vegetables, refined oil/ghee respectively. 76.0 percent people took milk products also and 14.0 percent ate meat/fish etc.

**Table 7.39**  
**Frequency of food taking items per day**

Consumption of food items per day	Frequency	%
Roti/Chapti	50	100.0
Rice	50	100.0
Green vegetables	50	100.0
Refined/ghee	50	100.0
Milk products	38	76.0
Meat/fish	7	14.0

Table 7.40 presents the information about the medium of cooking used by the respondents. It could be noticed that all the respondents used firewood, cow dung and LPG respectively

**Table 7.40**  
**Medium of cooking**

<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Response</b>	<b>%</b>
Firewood	50	100.0
Cow dung	50	100.0
LPG	50	100.0
Kerosene	0	--
Coal	0	--
Electricity	0	--
Bio-gas	0	--

In Table 7.41 the details of sources of drinking water is presented. All respondents got their drinking water from tap supply, as reported.

**Table 7.41**  
**Source of drinking water**

<b>Source of drinking water</b>	<b>Response</b>	<b>%</b>
Supply	50	100.0
Well	0	--
Handpump	0	--
River/pond	0	--

Table 7.42 depicts the type of houses the respondents owned. It can be noticed that 94.0 percent respondents of the total, had pucca houses and only 6.0 percent respondents had kaccha houses.

**Table 7.42**  
**Type of House**

<b>House type</b>	<b>Response</b>	<b>%</b>
Kaccha	3	6.0
Pucca	47	94.0

It can noted in the Table 7.43, that 72.0 percent respondents had kitchen in their houses and 28.0 percent did not have kitchen.

**Table 7.43**  
**Kitchen**

<b>Kitchen</b>	<b>Response</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes	36	72.0
No	14	28.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 7.44 gives details of whether the respondents households had toilet in their houses, while 20.0 percent did not have any toilet.

**Table 7.44**  
**Facility of Toilet at home**

Toilet	Response	%
Yes	40	80.0
No	10	20.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

In Table 7.45 it could be notice that 46.0 percent of the total had two rooms in their houses, followed by 36.0 percent who had one room in their homes and 18.0 percent had three rooms in their house.

**Table 7.45**  
**Possession of rooms**

No. of rooms	Response	%
One	18	36.0
Two	23	46.0
Three	9	18.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 7.46 presents the data regarding possession of livestock. It can be seen, 26.0 percent respondents out of the total had cow and 22.0 percent had buffalo apart from these, none of the respondents households did not possess any livestock.

**Table 7.46**  
**Possession livestock**

Livestock	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Ox	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Buffalo	11	22.0	39	78.0	50	100.0
Cow	13	26.0	37	74.0	50	100.0
Goat	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Pig	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Donkey	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Poultry	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Horse	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0

Table 7.47 illustrates the distribution of respondents by possession of household items.

All households, 100 percent each had chair, table, lamp, cot respectively. 90.0 percent had sewing machine followed by 86.0 percent, 82.0 percent and 80.0 percent possessed television, cycle and mobile phone respectively. (for other details please the Table 7.47)

**Table 7.47**  
**Possession of household items**

items	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Chair	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Table	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Plank	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Cot	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Sewing Machine	45	90.0	5	10.0	50	100.0
Television	43	86.0	7	14.0	50	100.0
Cycle	41	82.0	9	18.0	50	100.0
Mobile Phone	40	80.0	10	20.0	50	100.0
Sofa set	37	74.0	13	26.0	50	100.0
Torch	22	44.0	28	56.0	50	100.0
Motor Cycle	18	36.0	32	64.0	50	100.0
C.D. Player	18	36.0	32	64.0	50	100.0
Gold	5	10.0	45	90.0	50	100.0
Silver	5	10.0	45	90.0	50	100.0

Table 7.48 presents the information about importance of education in the perception of the respondents. All respondents (100%) agreed that education was extremely important. They expressed that in social, economic, political and business fields education played crucial role.

**Table 7.48**  
**Importance of education**

Importance of education	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Social level	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Economic level	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Political level	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Business level	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0

Table 7.49 provides data regarding the reasons for which woman had poor access to education 100 percent respondents each reported that veil system, rituals, care for little children, home work, poverty were main reasons for which created impediment in women's education. 50 percent respondents believed that due to unemployment women were not able to educate themselves.

**Table 7.49**  
**Reason of lack of education among women**

Women education	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Veil system	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Rituals	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Care for little children	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Home work	50	100.0	0	---	50	100.0
Poverty	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Unemployment	25	50.0	25	50.0	50	100.0
Religion	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Caste	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0

The Table 7.50 highlights the problems women faced in school. All respondents (100 percent) reported high fee was the main problem in schooling of women, followed by 82.0 percent stated that the school was at far distance from their home stead and 20.0 percent said that they had problems in study.

**Table 7.50**  
**Problems in schools for women**

Problems	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Problem in study	10	20.0	40	80.0	50	100.0
School is far distance	41	82.0	9	18.0	50	100.0
High fee	50	100.0	0	--	50	100.0
Problem in understanding language	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Teacher's rude behaviour	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Coeducation	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0

Table 7.51 depicts the data regarding the respondents knowledge about government schemes. It can be notices only one person (2.0 percent) was aware about unemployment allowance and rest all the respondents were not aware about any of the development programmes and schemes.

**Table 7.51**  
**Knowledge about government schemes**

Schemes	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Unemployment Allowance	1	2.0	49	98.0	50	100.0
Atal Gram Swarojgar Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Bank Loan	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Indira Old Age Pension	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
National Family Assisstance Scheme	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0

MGNREGA	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Janani Surksha Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Old Age Pension Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Janshri Bima Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Aam Admi Bima Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Ajeevika	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Deen Dayal Upadhyaya G, Kaushal Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
TRYSEM	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Kutir Jyoti Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Jeevan Surksha Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0
Aayushman Bharat Yojana	0	--	50	100.0	50	100.0

Table 7.52 give information regarding whether any of the respondents received any benefit from government schemes. Rest all the respondents (98.0 percent) did not get benefit from any of the government schemes.

**Table 7.52**  
**Benefited by government schemes**

Beneficiaries	No. of response	%
Yes	1	2.0
No	49	98.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Provides information regarding the name of the scheme under which one person got benefit under 'Saksham' scheme one respondent received Rs. 7000/- .

**Table 7.53**  
**Name of scheme which benefited**

Name of scheme	Saksham
Got amount (in Rs.) under this scheme	7000

In Table 7.54 the data indicates about the industries needed at the village level for employment and development. 76.0 percent respondents reported that Agriculture industry is required for generating employment in the village, followed by 76.0 percent expulsd about having small scale industry, 34.0 percent wanted food industry, 30.0 percent respondents desired for khadi industry, 20.0 percent opted for handicrafts industry and 10.0 percent each said these should be Bakery and Embroidery industries respectively.

**Table 7.54**  
**Industries needed in village level for employment and development**

Industries	Frequency	%
Agriculture Industry	38	76.0
Small Scale Industries	38	76.0
Food Industry	17	34.0
Khadi Industry	15	30.0
Handicrafts	10	20.0
Bakery	5	10.0
Embroidery	5	10.0
Health Industry	1	2.0
Horticulture	1	2.0
Packaging	1	2.0
Sewing	1	2.0
Small market	1	2.0

Table 7.55 provides information about what things were needed to promote self employment in the village out of the total, 82.2 percent respondents expressed that land is most essential for self employment in the village, followed by 76.0 percent who said that they require loan (money), 74.0 percent stated that tools were very important and 52.0 percent respondents told that there should be 'Skill Development Institute' in the district/village to promote self-employment in the village.

**Table 7.55**  
**Which things needed for developing self employment**

	Frequency	%
Land	41	82.0
Loan (money)	38	76.0
Tools	37	74.0
Skill development institute	26	52.0

In Table 7.56, information regarding the kind of resources needed for generating self employment among women. 72.0 percent of the total said, there should be weaving centre, another 72.0 percent wanted sewing centre, followed by 58.0 percent who reported that animal husbandry work options would be ideal, 52.0 percent respondents opted for education, 10.0 percent said that painting work will be also beneficial for women and 8.0 percent expressed that small shop is necessary for women's self-employment.

**Table 7.56**  
**Which resources is needed for women' self-employment**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Weaving	36	72.0
Sewing	36	72.0
Animal Husbandry	29	58.0
Education	26	52.0
Painting	5	10.0
Small shop	4	8.0

Table 7.57 illustrates the information about things that were needed for overall development of village. 92.0 percent out of the total reported that employment was most important, followed by 76.0 percent thought rural industrialization is most essential, cleanliness (72.0 percent), medical facilities (64.0 percent), antidrug mission(60.0 percent), transportation(44.0 percent), good roads (44.0 percent), training school(30.0 percent), school (30.0 percent), brotherhood(12.0 percent), social work(10.0 percent) were the salient things needed for generation employment especially self- employment in the village and its overall development.

**Table 7.57**  
**Which things is needed for overall development of village**

<b>Overall development of village</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Employment	46	92.0
Rural Industrialization	38	76.0
Cleanliness	36	72.0
Medical Facilities	32	64.0
Anti Drug Mission	30	60.0
Transportation	22	44.0
Good roads	22	44.0
Training School	15	30.0
School	15	30.0
Brotherhood	6	12.0
Social work	5	10.0

## CHAPTER EIGHT

# THE EXISTING SITUATIONS: PROSPECTS AND POTENTIALS

### Introduction

In order to understand the prospects and potential of rural situation, two villages located in district Faridabad, Haryana have been visited and studied. The purpose of selecting these two villages was the fact that the architect of Gurgaon Rural Development project initiated in 1920s was by Sir F.L. Bryne, who visited rural areas in the then Gurgaon (now Gurugram) district and he gave us some strategic inputs for rural development. To collect data and information, meetings and Focused Group Discussions were held with the villagers. Both the villages were visited by the researcher. During the visits, educational institutions, temples, primary health centres, panchayat bhawans were also visited and studied. Interactions with youths of the villages were held to understand their aspirations and expectations. In addition, one schedule was also administered to elicit information from respondents living in the villages to get some insights into what people think and to seek their opinion on different issues.

The villages studied are namely: (i) Panhera Kalan and (ii) Panhera Khurd. First an effort was made to identify problems, perceived by the informed with who the researcher interacted.

### Identification of problems

The important problems which emerged from the study of the two villages are described as below:

- I) **Unemployment:** The burgeoning population of the villages wanted paid and regular employment. Today agriculture is slowly becoming unprofitable, because of rising input costs and falling or stagnant crop prices. To meet the rising expenditure on rising living standard, a regular employment in industry, education or anywhere is in a great demand. The educated youths are not interested in agricultural activities anymore in this situation.
- II) **Transport Facilities:** Today people in villages move - in search employment, for education, medical care, meeting social obligation and for other economic need fulfillment.

The people expressed that transport facilities are inadequate. The villages are located more than 15 kms away from Ballabgarh, a nearest town connected by both rail and road networks. But from Ballabgarh transport facilities are uncertain and inadequate.

- III) Ineffective Local Administration:** It was also reported that local administration does not pay much attention to the problems of the villages and its population.
- IV) Absence of a girl college in the villages deters many girls ambitions for higher education, especially girls who belong to the socio-economically disadvantaged sections of the population.
- V) Absence of adequately staff in the Primary Health Centre was also cited as a problem.
- VI) Political representatives do not visit the villages except during election.
- VII) Prices of agricultural commodities is falling, resulting in distress sale of farm products.
- VIII) It was reported that doctors in the PHC are not adequately trained.
- IX) Ambulance facilities is absent in the villages. In any eventualities especially during the nights, people suffer a lot.
- X) Villages are very dirty. Cattle dung is heaped in and around the village roads, lanes and tracks, resulting in very unhygienic conditions.
- XI) Except some educational institutions, domestic diary, shop keeping, construction activities, there are no other opportunities for non-farm employment.
- XII) The supply of electricity is erratic.
- XIII) Village schools are in dilapidated conditions although the schools are run by the government. The upkeeping remains much to be improved.
- XIV) In and around the villages, there is no technical training institute which the inhabitants feel is very much needed.
- XV) The respondents also said that some government lands are occupied illegally by some villagers.
- XVI) There is a Panchayat Bhawan in the villages and there are seven temples in the village Panhera Khurd.
- XVII) Disease Profile  
The respondents reported that the following ailments are on the rise among the village people:
- (a) Cancer
  - (b) Blood pressure
  - (c) Heart ailment
  - (d) Rising alcoholism
- XVIII) Liquor shops in the villages have become nuisance. The respondents demanded that the shops should be closed and selling of liquor should be banned.

## CHAPTER NINE

# SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

During the colonial period sporadic efforts were made by the then government to develop villages in India. The efforts were largely limited to developing infrastructure like roads, some irrigation networks. It was thought that providing these facilities would eventually led to development of rural areas. Which would pave the way for expanding employment avenues for people in rural areas. After independence, the effort for rural development was not much radically different. It was assumed that emphasis on industrial development in urban areas or in urban areas or in urban agglomeration would lead to the country's development and simultaneously to increasing employment opportunities. The assumed employment opportunities in urban industrial hub would absorb growing employment seeking population. To a great extent this approach has work. But it did not solve the problem of unemployment to substantial extent. This let a rethinking - that rural industrialization might help to redeem the situation. And for a couple of decades, some ides were generated and also some actions were undertaken to spread industrial activities in rural areas to develop rural economy as well as to provide employment to the ever burgeoning population.

However, situation did not turn up the way it was thought. The unemployment situation is becoming quite dismal. Young people from rural areas of the country want regular employment. They want also decent employment. With education, the aspirations of the youth have also soared. Not finding employment opportunities in their places of origin they are migrating enemas to the country's town and cities. They are mostly landing up with employment opportunities which more often ensures their bare minimum survival.

The major resources of employment in rural area is agriculture, and the agrarian situation today is highly critical. Farmers across the country are debt ridden, facing twin challenges - one, falling prices of their products and ever rising prices of inputs essential for production.

Many efforts are being made to resolve these crises; the efforts include weaving loans, providing minimum support prices of their products, especially paddy, wheat and sugar canes. These measures though have helped, to some extent, to alleviate the deteriorating conditions of the farmers, but have not made any substantial and long term dent on the multiple crises. This because of several issues which are still being overlooked or assumed that in course of time the issues will be

automatically disappear. Here an attempt will be made to underline the issues and challenges which are nagging India's farm sector both at **macro** and **micro level**.

## **The main issues**

### **1. Structural issues**

The landholding pattern and its operation is becoming slowing non-viable. The fine past-cards size PBTS that our countryside cannot be operated on scale. The earlier assumption that small holdings can be productive is longer true, because long since, the small holdings have become smallest day by day. The sized are becoming smallest. The continuous sub-inundation has led to such situation.

### **2. Human Resources Issues**

Over the decades, despite many programmes and schemes, people who are intimately involved in farming operations, like the farmers, i.e., the landowners, agricultural labourers, sharecroppers, and other have been grossly neglected in terms of developing their capabilities. And the capabilities could have been developed by giving them. First, soft skills and second, technical/vocational skills. In fact, opportunities accessing to both the types of skills should have been simultaneous and successive.

Absence of these opportunities has left the vital sections of the farming community in the mercy of their assumptions. But farming is a serious business. The economy is globally integrated. What is happening in one country, that influences economy of another country.

Today in villages, farmers do not know what crops to grow. Their only index is the high or low prices of their crops produced in an earlier year. Therefore, enhancing knowledge and information of people who are directly involved in farming is *sine qua non* for rural development and rural industrialization.

### **3. Financial Issues**

Access to financial institutions is very important for industrializing rural area because rural industrialization also means industrial way development of agriculture too. And to initiate rural industrial transformation, what is pre-requisite is the attempt to develop agriculture as industry with proper technology and market accessibility.

Over the years, the government is making through several dedicated financial institutions, namely: Small Industries Development Bank of

India (SIDBI), National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) and Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC).

However, without developing human resources engaged in different layers of rural economy mere availability of financial resources would not make much headway in effort of expanding rural industrialization process. Therefore proper training in sustainable rural industrialization will be needed as a pre-requisite.

#### **4. Social Capital Development**

Appropriate social infrastructure is very much needed to create trust and mutual cooperation among different sections of rural society and different climate groups. This again require simultaneous and successive effort at enhancing both soft skills, like leadership, emotional intelligence, decision making skills, communication skills, etc. and vocational skills in different but relevant skills and their practical use.

The social capital will eventually help rural industrial development process more effectively eliciting participation of all rural stakeholders.

Apart from government institutions in the country there, are millions of civil societies which are engaged in the development of rural society. Enhancing their entrepreneurship skills for rural industrialization will help in the task of building social capital needed for the task.

#### **5. Rural Transport Resource Issue**

One of the major obstacles to rural industrialization and rural development is the absence or unfriendly or sometimes inappropriate transport system. Due to lack of road network, both public and private transport system is not available. As a result, timely transport of goods, services and human become a problem and this dissuades people from undertaking economic activities which may contribute to development of industries. For example, if agro-industrial activities are planned to be set-up, the immediate requirement is transportation of inputs and outputs to and from one place to another i.e., from the production sites to markets.

Unfortunately, many rural areas in India do not have their facilities. The facilities include (Donnges, 2003).

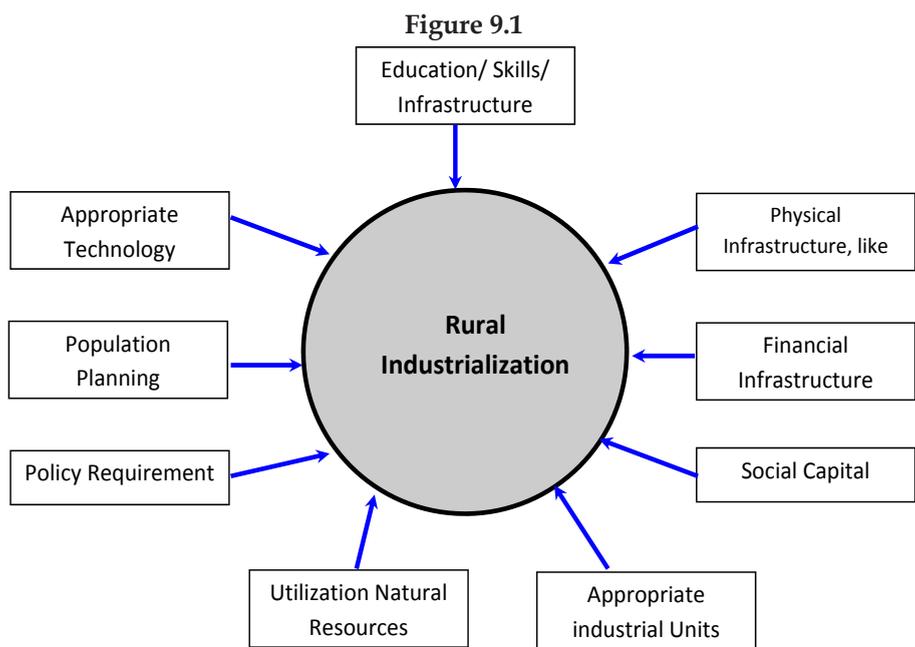
- “The development of road network;
- Improvement of the village level transport network including paths, tracks, and footbridges;
- Development of transport services; (and)

- Increased use of Intermediate Means of Transport (IMI)''.

These transport facilities according to people’s needs are very important requirement for rural industrial development and employment creation.

### Education and Skill Development

Like other pre-requisites, education and skill development of all the economically active population is again a most vital requirement for rural industrial development. For agricultural development, traditional skills many be helpful to some extent, but rural industrialization requires proper technical knowledge and skills. For an overwhelming number of economically active populations in rural areas in India, this requirement is still in short supply. And wherever, it is available, the extent and relevance are into quite upto the mark (see Figure 9.1).



The different requirements illustrated in above Figure are too made available simultaneously and successively to develop rural industrial process sustainably.

The process of development should be based on the premises of three achievable indicators, like:

- Ecological Balance

- Social Balance
- Economic Balance

A proper mapping of resources, their availability, viability, utilization and its future implications are also be needed to initiate rural industrialization process in proper and relevant manure. Here, it is suggested that some areas could be taken up for intiating rural industrial activities. The details are given as below:

On the basis of the present study, the following small scale industrial activities can be suggested. Because of the labour intensive nature of these activities employment generation potentials are quite high.

These are:

1. Agro-based activities like:
  - i). Horticulture
  - ii). Nursery
  - iii). Vegetable cultivation and its processing
  - iv). Poultry farming
  - v). Domestic dairy
  - vi). Boi-fertilizer
  - vii). Fishery
2. Non-agricultural activities
  - i). Tailoring
  - ii). Mechanics
  - iii). Handloom and handicraft

In order to initiate these employment generation activities, the following steps should be taken:

- (a) Awareness about the needs and relevance of the activities.
- (b) Basic skill training consisting the following.
  - (i) About the knowledge and skills
  - (ii) Accounting and financial rules
  - (iii) About marketing.

**The fourth industrial revolution will further marginalize the subaltern**

**Hindustan Times, March 28, 2019**

The new economic reality demands more tech skills and creative thinking for which the the segment is not equipped

The fourth industrial revolution promises to transform the entire economic structure as we know it. By changing the economic basis of social organisations, technological revolutions fundamentally transform the entire social structure. In India, apart from economic classes, we also have caste and the intricate web of relations between castes. In simple terms, castes are endogamous social groups organized around hereditary professions. Even though hereditary profession are breaking down in the past few decades, there still exists strong correlation between the caste and broad professions category with forward castes concentrated in the upper echelons of the value chain in the production process while backward castes are at the lower end.

As the old age village economy melts away in the face of urban industrialization, many of these caste-based professions have become obsolete, already throwing millions of people into a crisis of survival. Since India has failed to invest in social goods like health and education, these sections of society have been unable to move to different professions, which require educational capital. This lies at the root of the “late convergence stall” in India. Late convergence stall refers to the phenomenon of a late comer being unable to make the jump to a higher income status and remaining stuck in the low income category. One of the main reasons is the increasing technological divide between countries and the inability of the late comers to bridge the gap by investing in human capital. It is extremely difficult train an illiterate and unskilled workforce to handle new hi-tech production processes.

The problem is daunting in India. The advent of the modern capitalist economy under the colonial rule and acceleration of the industrialisation after in independence reinforced the economic and social distance between castes. The backward castes stayed where they were while forward/ dominant castes leapfrogged into the modern economy due to higher social and educational capital.

The difference between them was now overlaid with the urban-rural divide as well as with the divide between high-productivity modern and low-productivity traditional sectors of the economy. This process

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exaggerated the inter-caste inequality far beyond what was possible in the rural-agrarian economy where all the castes shared the same, albeit an unequal, space.

Now, Artificial Intelligence and the fourth industrial revolution may herald another phase where those with requisite skills due to the higher social and educational capital can further move up the economic value chain under the new structure of production leaving those at the bottom further behind. This can lead to mass social antagonism and unrest, which can potentially become a breeding ground for radical and anarchist ideologies and groups. Already the old stable permanent jobs are disappearing, which so far have been the most crucial and, for some castes, the only way up the ladder. The new economic reality demands more flexibility, technological skills and creative thinking for which a large section of the marginalised castes is unequipped. The technological disruptions also demand frequent retraining, which involves an economic cost that might be unaffordable for those who are already marginalised.

But the political discourse in India, especially of the champions of social justice, remains oblivious to these developments. There is no focus on how to train the subaltern for the new economic structure or how to ensure social security when permanent jobs cannot longer be guaranteed. What we fail to understand is that rhetoric is no substitute for a policy roadmap. And it is time that we start demanding it from our politicians. What is the reason that in states like Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, political parties ruling for decades in the name of subaltern and health and education?

What India needs is a new political discourse which locates social justice in ensuring universal health and education, skill development, easy market-entry for entrepreneurs from the job and place of work. What we need is a fundamental rethinking of our social and economic future. Discourse can no longer work.

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Views expressed are personal

# Rural Industrialization and Options for Self-Employment in Rural Areas

## Executive Summary

- The overwhelming majority of population of India still lives in rural areas – almost 70 per cent of her total population (68.84 and 31.16 per cent of the total population in India in 2011 live in rural and urban areas respectively). The majority of its population still depends on agriculture for their livelihood and survival. Again almost half of its workers are engaged in agriculture and allied activities.
- Today, however, the dependence on agriculture is becoming untenable. The growth of population and consequent increase in labourforce have become a burden on the rural economy as unemployment, under-employment and disguised unemployment have become are becoming intractable phenomena over the decades.
- The reasons behind the emergence of this situation are many. But the main reason is the slow growth of the rural economy and rural industrialization process.
- Before independence, there were a number of rural industrial activities, like handloom, handicrafts, tannery, beedi rolling, fishery, and a host of other rural industrial activities which provided employment. But in course of time, the capacity of these activities to provide employment to the growing number of labourforce has declined. This is due to many factors, like unplanned growth of manpower, neglect of rural industrial activities, absence of rural industrial policy at national level and finally the failure to grasp the problem in its entirety. In addition, continues decline in rural investment.
- It was thought and still being thought that to some extent industrial development in urban areas would pull people from rural areas and would provide them employment. To a some extent it has happened. But the pace of industrialization in urban areas has not been in commensurate with the demand for employment by the increasing labourforce mostly originating from areas of the country.
- The ‘trickle down effect’ did not percolate down to a desired extent. As a result, rural industrialization did not progress to a scale that could have ensured employment.
- The Five Year Plans envisaged planned development of the economy in terms of sectors and industry. What was, however, needed, was to envisions an industrial development which would have taken into the spatial dimension of the issue of rural industrialization.

- After independence, a number of programmes and schemes have been launched. The programmes have impacted, to a great extent the employment generation process in the country.
  - Government of India has announced several employment generation programmes in rural areas. The intention was to create direct employment for the rural poor. These programmes have provided income and also created physical infrastructure in rural areas. These programmes also helped promote non-farm employment in rural areas.
  - However the impact of these programmes were limited, localized and offered brief employment entitlements to the landless and marginal farmers.
  - The thrust of rural development programmes shifted to creation of self-employment and entrepreneurship programmes.
  - However, the efforts did not provide adequate employment to the growing employment seeking population. This leads to migration of people from rural areas to urban areas.
  - It may also be noted here that lack of adequate investment and appropriate management, agriculture has slowly become unprofitable. Even today, agriculture is highly unplanned.
  - What requires is the industrialization of agriculture by planned development of infrastructure in rural areas, like road, water, human resource, financial investment, etc.
1. Of the total employment in 2011-12, the employment in agriculture and allied activities has remained as high as 48.9 of the total workers.
    - Though the share of employment in agriculture and allied activities is high, the share of agriculture in GDP is very low.
  2. To the remedy the situation, major emphases of the programmes are to create self-employment and wage employment.
  3. Currently, the Government has set-up a mega food park in Rajasthan.
    - The Government has launched the Pradhan Mantri Kisan Samman Nidhi and transferred Rs.2,021 crores to the beneficiaries. The efforts will help speed up the pace of rural industrialisation.
    - The Government announced the Agriculture Export Policy, 2018. It will increase India's exports to US\$60 billion by 2022.
    - To provide fair prices, government announced Rs.15,053 crore procurement policy. It is named as 'Pradhan Mantri Annadata Aay Sanrakshan Abhiyan.'

- The Government has made an investment of Rs.50,000 crore for the development of irrigation facilities in the country.
  - The Government is also committed to an investment of Rs. 6,000 crores for enhancing food processing sector.
  - All this resulted in may outcomes.
  - Sugar production increased to 27.35 millions in 2018-19.
  - Electronic National Agriculture Market was launched in 2016.
  - Agriculture storage capacity increased considerably.
  - During the study, efforts were made to examine what people needed.
4. The respondents who were interviewed, said that resources for undertaking any economic activity is a problem (52.0):
- As 52.0 percent said transport is a serious problem.
  - Some of them also reported that lack of training is also a handicap.
  - The majority of respondents (78.0) said that they are capable to run animal husbandry activities.
  - The Government has launched a number of programmes but lack of awareness about them is found very high.
  - Only 30.0 per cent of the respondents said they know about MGNREGA.
  - Another 30.0 are aware about Old Age Pension Scheme.
  - Only 5.0 per cent of the respondents know about unemployment allowance.
  - The respondents suggested that the following industries could be useful in providing employment in the areas:
    - ❖ Agriculture related activities like food processing (80.0%)
    - ❖ Khadi industries (30.0%)
    - ❖ Handicrafts (20.0%)
    - ❖ Embroidery (10.0%)
    - ❖ Horticulture (2.0%)
    - ❖ Packaging (2.0%)
    - ❖ Sewing (2.0%)

- For employment, 96.0 per cent respondents said they required Finance.
  - 50.0 per cent respondents required tools.
  - Another 50.0 per cent said they required skill development.
  - The rest 38.0 per cent said they required land.
  - The issues which emerged from the study of two villages, namely, Panhera Khurd and Panhera Kalan are almost same.
  - In this background it is suggested that, first, proper development of human resources is required. Second, communication, transport financial assistance are to be provided for developing rural industries.
  - In addition social capital has to be adequately developed and fostered.
5. Government of India is making considerable investment for industrial development. To enhance growth, rural areas need productive activities that promote rural exports: goods and services that can be traded outside rural areas. This requires enhancing investment in a planned manner.
- A clear cut policy for rural industrialization is to be evolved which should address the likely pitfalls in the road to rural industrialization. Special efforts should be made to strengthen the economy of marginal and small farmers, artisans, unskilled workers, etc., so that they can also contribute to economic growth.
  - This would need strengthening of programmes based on skills and assets that the poor possess, and helping them with credit and market support.
  - There is also a need for developing awareness among rural peoples about development programmes of the Government.
  - There is no significant technology up gradation in rural industries. This has to taken up urgently so that urban intensive technology could be introduced.
  - About 60 percent of artisans are still carrying on their traditional occupation in primitive way. Although, a lot of work for providing suitable technology to the rural industries has been done, still there is an urgent need for R&D in rural industrial sector.
  - To encourage rural industrialization, it is necessary to continue to provide concessional credit to the rural entrepreneurs.

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