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**Affiliated to the University of Madras
Approved by the Government of Tamil Nadu
An ISO 9001:2015 Certified Institution**



PG DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

SUBJECT NAME: DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

SUBJECT CODE: HAB4B

SEMESTER: IV

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Development Planning Total Teaching Hours: 60

Objectives

- To develop theoretical understanding of development and planning
- To enable students to gain an understanding of the administrative machinery involved in development.
- To provide knowledge on various methods strategies and development efforts.
- To understand the role and contribution of professional social worker in the development.

Unit 1

Development Planning: Planning – Concept – models, approaches – types planning process – need and importance of planning for development. Development – definition – concepts – indicators – types – models, social development and planning as a major development thrust in India.

Unit 2

Participatory Planning: Participatory planning and development – history of participatory development in India – models and approaches – participatory planning in Panchayati Raj institutions.

Unit 3

Agriculture and Development: Government's plan for Agricultural development – agricultural productivity – causes and problems of agriculture in India – marginal and small farmers agricultural problems and strategies to solve them.

Unit 4

Co-operative Movement in India: History, Principles – legislations planning to cooperatives – Role and achievements of cooperative – problems and limitations of cooperatives – problems and limitations of cooperatives – types of cooperatives – Role of Cooperatives to develop the poor.

Unit 5

Development of SC & ST: Concept, constitutional provision, problems and programmes for their development – control and state schemes – Role of Professional Social Workers, NGO's in the development of SC & ST, Refugees and displaced.

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1. Development Planning

1.1. Planning

Kimball Young

Planning is a programme aimed at socio cultural change in a particular direction with a given aim or goal in mind.

Alfred J. Kahn

Planning is a policy choice and programming in the light of facts, projections and application of values.

- Planning is a policy formulation and realization through choices and rationalization.
- Planning is the process of preparing a blue print of actions to attain stated objectives within a time frame.
- It is a thinking process, organized foresight the vision based on figures, experience that is required of intelligent action.
- First concept of management
- Focuses on objectives
- It is intellectual process
- It is continuous process
- It is dynamic process
- It acquires efficiency, economy and accuracy
- It forecasts waste, It is realistic
- It should be practical

1.1.1. Concept

Planning is based on the theory of “thinking before acting”. Planning is an integral part of our life. We make plans in each and every step of life whether it be to go to school or to buy household goods during shopping. We make plans according to the limitations of our budget and resources to get maximum satisfaction and to fulfill goals from our activities.

Planning is the most basic and primary function of management. It is the pre-decided outline of the activities to be conducted in the organization. Planning is the process of deciding when, what, when where and how to do a certain activity before starting to work.

It is an intellectual process which needs a lot of thinking before a formation of plans. Planning is to set goals and to make certain guidelines achieve the goals. Also, Planning means to formulate policies, segregation of budget, future programs etc. These are all done to make the activity successful.

All other function of management is useless if there is not proper planning system in an Organization. So planning is the basis of all other functions. Thus Planning is the map or a blueprint for the organization.

According to **Theo Haimann**, “Planning is deciding in advance, what is to be done. When a manager plans, he projects a course of action for the future, attempting to achieve a consistent, coordinated structure of operations aimed at the desired results.”

According to **Alford and Beaty**, “Planning is the thinking process, the organized foresight, the vision based on fact and experience that is required for intelligent action.”

According to **ME. Hurley**, “Planning is deciding in advance what is to be done. It involves the selection of objectives, policies, procedures and programs from among alternatives.”

1.1.2. Models

There are 5 models that you can choose when applying strategic planning to your company. **They are all efficient, and you must select the one that fits better your organization.**

1 – Basic strategic planning process model

This strategic planning model is best suited for new organizations that never did the project before, small or busy organizations. The steps are:

- Identify the **purpose**
- Identify specific approaches and strategies
- Identify actions **plans** to achieve the strategy
- **Monitor and update** plan

2 – Issue-based strategic planning model

It is an enhancement of the basic plan, and it is used by companies that want to go deeper into the strategic planning. It has these steps:

- SWOT analysis – **Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats**
- The stakeholders identify the major issues and goals
- Review the mission, vision, and values of the company
- Develop **action plans** (yearly if possible)
- Establish budget
- Execute and monitor. Read more about **business process automation**.

3 – Alignment strategic model

The focus of this model is to assure alignment between the company’s mission and its resources. It can be useful to business that wants to learn why their goals are not achieving the result expected, or want to fine-tune their objectives.

- Outline mission, resources, and actions
- Identify what it is working and what needs change
- Determine how the changes will occur
- Add the changes to the strategic planning process model

4 – Scenario strategic planning

Best used with other models to ensure that the strategic planning and thinking is incorporated into the process.

- Stakeholder project different scenarios that could occur and have an influence on the organization
- For each scenario, they discuss three possibilities: **the worst, the best and the reasonable case**
- **Brainstorm** of how would the organization respond to each one, in the best way
- Add it to strategic plan

5 – Organic strategic planning model

This strategic model differs from the other ones. It unfolds more naturally than the previous, which follow a more linear and structured approach.

It uses through the continual focus on shared values, consistent communication, and dialogue among stakeholders.

- Clarify the company's cultural values
- Articulate the vision
- Talk about what processes are needed to arrive at vision and what will be done now to the organization's processes
- Establish a culture that reminds that this type of strategic planning process model is never finished, and updated always
- **Focus on learning and reflection.** Read more about **business process improvement**.

Now that you know all the strategic planning process models study your company and see which one will serve you better! Also read about **Lean Business Process Improvement**, and turn your business into the best version of itself.

1.1.3. Approaches

1. **Reactive** - **past oriented**
Reactive planning is an active attempt to turn back the clock to the past. The past, no matter how bad, is preferable to the present. And definitely better than the future will be. The past is romanticized and there is a desire to return to the "good old days." These people seek to undo the change that has created the present, and they fear the future, which they attempt to prevent.
2. **Inactive** - **present oriented**
Inactive planning is an attempt to preserve the present, which is preferable to both the past and the future. While the present may have problems it is better than the past. The expectation is that things are as good as they are likely to get and the future will only be worse. Any additional change is likely to be for the worse and should therefore be avoided.
3. **Preactive** - **predict the future**
Preactive planning is an attempt to predict the future and then to plan for that predicted future. Technological change is seen as the driving force bringing about the future, which will be better than the present or the past. The planning process will seek to position the organization to take advantage of the change that is happening around them.
4. **Proactive** - **create the future**
Proactive planning involves designing a desired future and then inventing ways to create that

future state. Not only is the future a preferred state, but the organization can actively control the outcome. Planners actively shape the future, rather than just trying to get ahead of events outside of their control. The predicted changes of the preactive planner are seen not as absolute constraints, but as obstacles that can be addressed and overcome.

1.1.4. Types of planning

Any organization can have different plans. We can classify the types of plans in the following ways:

On the basis of Nature

- **Operational Plan:** Operational plans are the plans which are formulated by the lower level management for short term period of up to one year. It is concerned with the day to day operations of the organization. It is detailed and specific. It is usually based on past experiences. It usually covers functional aspects such as production, finance, Human Resources etc.
- **Tactical Plan:** Tactical plan is the plan which is concerned with the integration of various organizational units and ensures implementation of strategic plans on day to day basis. It involves how the resources of an organization should be used in order to achieve the strategic goals. The tactical plan is also known as coordinative or functional plan.
- **Strategic Plan:** Strategic plan is the plan which is formulated by the top level management for a long period of time of five years or more. They decide the major goals and policies to achieve the goals. It takes in a note of all the external factors and risks involved and make a long-term policy of the organization. It involves the determination of strengths and weaknesses, external risks, mission, and control system to implement plans.

On the basis of managerial level:

- **Top level Plans:** Plans which are formulated by general managers and directors are called top-level plans. Under these plans, the objectives, budget, policies etc. for the whole organization are laid down. These plans are mostly long term plans.
- **Middle-level Plans:** Managerial hierarchy at the middle level includes the departmental managers. A corporate has many departments like purchase department, sales department, finance department, personnel department etc. The plans formulated by the departmental managers are called middle-level plans.
- **Lower level Plans:** These plans are prepared by the foreman or the supervisors. They take the existence of the actual workplace and the problems connected with it. They are formulated for a short period of time and called short term plans.

On the basis of time:

- **Long Term Plan:** Long-term plan is the long-term process that business owners use to reach their business mission and vision. It determines the path for business owners to reach their goals. It also reinforces and makes corrections to the goals as the plan progresses.
- **Intermediate Plan:** Intermediate planning covers 6 months to 2 years. It outlines how the strategic plan will be pursued. In business, intermediate plans are most often used for campaigns.
- **Short-term Plan:** Short-term plan involves plans for a few weeks or at most a year. It allocates resources for the day-to-day business development and management within the strategic plan. Short-term plans outline objectives necessary to meet intermediate plans and the strategic planning process.

On the basis of use:

- **Single Plan:** These plans are connected with some special problems. These plans end the moment of the problems to be solved. They are not used, once after their use. They are further re-created whenever required.
- **Standing Plan:** These plans are formulated once and they are repeatedly used. These plans continuously guide the managers. That is why it is said that a standing plan is a standing guide to solving the problems. These plans include mission, policies, objective, rules and strategy.

1.1.5. Planning Process

Planning is a complex process which requires high level of studies and analysis. To create a plan there must be determination of objectives and outlining of the course of action to achieve the goals. There is no set formula for planning. A planning process which is suitable for one kind of organization may not be suitable for another type of organization. However, we can take the following steps as the guideline to draw a plan:

1. **Analysis of the environment:** Planning begins with the awareness of the opportunities in the external environment and within the organization. For this SWOT analysis is most suitable. Strength and weaknesses are the internal factors whereas opportunities and threats are the environmental factors which are to be analyzed.
2. **Setting the objectives:** The second step of planning is to set objectives and goals for the organization as a whole and for each department. Long term, as well as short-term plans, are to be created. Objectives are specified to each and every manager and department head. Objectives give direction to the major plans. So managers should have an opportunity to contribute their ideas for setting their own objectives and of the

organization.

3. **Develop premises:** Planning premises are the assumptions about the future on the basis of which the plans will be ultimately formulated. Planning premises are the key to the success of planning as they supply pertinent facts and information regarding the future such as general economic conditions, production cost, and prices, probable competitive behavior, governmental control etc. Forecasting is an essential part of premises.
4. **Determine and evaluate alternatives:** The fourth step is to search and identify the alternative course of action. It suggests that a particular objective can be achieved through numerous ways. But the most relevant alternatives must be listed down so that selection is made easier. Once various alternatives are identified, they must be well analyzed with their strong and weak points.
5. **Selection of Best Alternative:** This is the point where the certain plan is adopted. When the alternatives are determined most suitable alternative must be chosen out from the list which can give maximum output with minimum risk.
6. **Formulation of a derivative plan:** Derivative plans are the backing plans which are very essential. Once the basic plan has been formulated, it must be translated into day to day operation of the organization. Middle and low-level managers must draw up the appropriate plans, programs and budget for their sub-units.
7. **Budget formulation:** After decisions are made and plans are set the next step is giving them sufficient funds to carry them out. Optimum budgeting must be done for every course of action.
8. **Implementation of a plan:** Once the plans are set up, now the plans must be well informed and shared with the employees and managers expecting full commitment and trust. Finally, the plans must be carried out.
9. **Follow up action:** Obviously once a plan is carried out it generates certain output. The progress must be well monitored and managers need to check the progress of their plans so they can take necessary steps to improve the plans if needed.

1.1.6. Need and importance of planning for development.

- It helps managers to **improve future performance**, by establishing objectives and selecting a course of action, for the benefit of the organisation.
- It **minimizes risk and uncertainty**, by looking ahead into future.
- It **facilitates coordination of activities**. Thus, reduces overlapping among activities and eliminates unproductive work.
- It states in advance, what should be done in future, so it provides **direction for action**.
- It uncovers and identifies **future opportunities and threats**.
- It **sets out standards for controlling**. It compares actual performance with the standard performance and efforts are made to correct the same.

Planning is present in all types of organisations, households, sectors, economies, etc. We need to plan because future is highly uncertain and no one can predict future with 100% accuracy, as the conditions can change anytime. Hence, planning is the basic requirement of any organization for the survival, growth and success.

1.2. Development

1.2.1. Definition

1. The systematic use of scientific and technical knowledge to meet specific objectives or requirements.
2. An extension of the theoretical or practical aspects of a concept, design, discovery, or invention.
3. The process of economic and social transformation that is based on complex cultural and environmental factors and their interactions.
4. The process of adding improvements to a parcel of land, such as grading, subdivisions, drainage, access, roads, utilities.

1.2.2. Concepts

Development can be defined as a process of economic and social advancement in terms of quality of human life. It can be measured in terms of culture, wealth, education, healthcare, opportunities and can be commonly classified by the following terms: HDI- human development index, a UN standardised measure based on 3 factors: life expectancy, literacy/education, and standard of living. GDP- Gross domestic product, value of goods and services divided by the number of people in the country. Development has been traditionally classified into first, second, third world countries, or the global north/ south. However this is where we reach a problem. There is a 'development continuum'. This means that there is not a gap separating rich from poor countries, North from South. All countries are at different stages of development- the Asian Tigers, BRICS, America- how do you actually define the term if it incorporates so many different types, levels and stages? The second problem is that the term 'development' can be seen as 'western centric' - destructive to traditional cultures and ways of life, damaging to indigenous populations or sustainability. Therefore in conclusion, development is a complex and difficult to define term that requires unpicking and deconstructing, not simply taking for granted its meaning at face value.

1.2.3. Indicators

1. Gross Domestic Product (GDP)
2. Gross National Product (GNP)
3. GNP per capita
4. Total nominal Gross Domestic Product
5. Gross National Income per capita (PPP)
6. The percentage of people living on less money
7. The percentage of people living below the poverty line within a country.
8. The unemployment rate.

9. The Human Development Index score (HDI)
10. Progress towards the Sustainable Development Goals (overlaps with many other aspects)
11. School enrollment ratios
12. PISA educational achievement rankings
13. Percentage of population in tertiary education.
14. The infant mortality rate.
15. Healthy life expectancy
16. The gender inequality index
17. The global peace index
18. Total military expenditure
19. Carbon Dioxide emissions
20. The corruption index
21. The Happiness Index.

1.2.4. Types involved in development

- Social – relating to the development of the people of the place;
 - Birth Rates
 - Death Rates
 - Infant Mortality
 - People per Doctor
 - Literacy Rate
 - Life Expectancy
- Economic - relating to the finances and wealth of the place;
 - Gross Domestic Products
 - GNP per head
- Environmental – relating to the quality of peoples air, water, soil etc.
 - Access to safe water
 - Ecological footprint
- Political - relating to the political systems and freedoms afforded by the place.
 - Corruption perception
 - Human Freedom Index

1.2.5. Models

1. Western Liberal Model of Development:

In this model, it is held that all societies undergo changes from traditional, transitional and modern stages of development. It regards political development as the condition for economic development. It supports the autonomy, rights and self- interest of the individual as the basis of all development. It stands for rapid industrialization, technological advancement, modernization, full employment and continuous process of liberalization of society, economy and polity. The goals of development are to be achieved on the basis of free-market economy, competitiveness and all-round individual development.

2. Welfare Model of Development:

The welfare model of development accepts and strongly advocates the role of state in the economic sphere for promoting the socio-economic welfare and common interests of the society. It conceptualizes the state as a welfare state and advocates that state planning and organized efforts are essential for rapid industrialization, economic growth and socio-economic development.

(3) Socialist/Marxist Model of Development:

The Socialist model of development is a general model in which several socialist thinkers advocate several different views about development goals and means. Some socialists accept democratic means for securing socialist goals of development. However, the Marxist Socialists and the Revolutionary Socialists advocate revolutionary means and a centralized system of economic and political relations for rapid industrialization, progress and development.

(4) Democratic-Socialist Model of Development:

This model advocates development through the securing of socialist goals by using democratic means. India and several other Third World countries decided to adopt this model. In fact, these states combined the democratic socialist model and welfare state model for rapid industrialization, economic growth and development. Organised planning and democratic process of politics were adopted by them.

(5) Gandhian Model of Development:

Gandhian model of development is based upon the following salient features:

- i. It gives place of primacy to moral development and ethical view of socio-economic-political development. Truth and non-violence are advocated as the basis of all human activities and decisions.
- ii. It stands for complete decentralization of functions and powers with each village acting as a self-regulating and self-sufficient unit of development.
- iii. Development must ensure food, clothing, shelter, education and employment for all.
- iv. Strong reservation about mechanization and industrialisation.
- v. Emphasis upon cottage industries, handicrafts, agriculture and labour.
- vi. Total emphasis upon social equality, non-violence, truthful living, social responsibilities, dignity of labour and moral and spiritual happiness.
- vii. All development must ensure environmental health and happiness.
- viii. Gandhian view of a developed state is a peaceful, happy, non-violent state based on morality and respect for the equal dignity, worth and needs of all the people of society. .

(6) Sustainable Development Model:

Unprincipled and over-exploitation of natural resources; Air, Water, Soil and Sound Pollution; climate change and its adverse affect on human life; increase in radiation levels; depletion of ozone layer; and disturbances and pressures on the eco-systems, all have amply demonstrated the fact that the past socio-economic development has not been a real development.

1.2.6. Social development and planning as a major development thrust in India.

In the development path of India, it first undertook the policy of closed trade. This was to give a thrust to domestic industries and reduce dependence on foreign products and companies. Thus, India followed what is called the **import substitution strategy**. Trade and interaction with the outside world remained limited. This outlook continued till 1991 when India finally decided to open its borders to free trade and liberalized its economy by allowing foreign companies to enter the Indian economy.

A thrust was given to employment generation under the **Five-Year plans**. This was to make up for a rising population and lacking jobs to absorb the increased workforce size. Rural development was also given importance in India, for the important constituent it was of the Indian landscape. Poverty alleviation came as a corollary of rural development and a part of the development path of India. India inherited a poverty-stricken economy from the British rule, which had destroyed its resource base completely. Therefore, poverty alleviation programmes and policies formed a major part of election campaigns and party promises.

The public sector was given significant importance, Private companies and industries were subject to strict regulations and standards. It was believed that the government was the sole protector of the people and would work towards social welfare.

2. Participatory Planning

Participatory planning as defined here involves the systematic effort to envision a community's desired future and **planning** for that future, while involving and harnessing the specific competencies and input of community residents, leaders, and stakeholders in the process.

Participatory planning is a process by which a community undertakes to reach a given socio-economic goal by consciously diagnosing its problems and charting a course of action to resolve those problems. Experts are needed, but only as facilitators. Moreover, no one likes to participate in something which is not of his/her own creation. Plans prepared by outside experts, irrespective of their technical soundness, cannot inspire the people to participate in their implementation.

2.1. Participatory planning and development

The core aims of participatory development planning are to give people a say in the development decisions that may affect them and to ensure that development interventions are appropriate to the needs and preferences of the population that they are intended to benefit.

Participatory development planning can be undertaken by government agencies or other development agencies and CSOs at the national, regional, municipal or community level. Most of the methods and tools are inexpensive and simple to use and many have been designed for use with or by community members and do not require literacy.

The types of stakeholders participating in this approach can range from rural or urban local communities, community-based organizations and other CSOs in the for local development planning, to larger CSOs, international NGOs, the private sector, and the academia, in the case of national or even regional development planning. The level of stakeholder participation varies greatly depending on how seriously the approach is being taken, and can range from minimal i.e.involvement only in information-gathering or consultation to more active forms such as for e.g. in identifying, prioritizing and designing the development program/activities.

1 Jennifer Rietbergen-McCracken is an independent international researcher and expert on environment and development Category: Policy & Planning Tool: Participatory Development Planning 2 While participatory development planning is generally initiated by the government or development agency involved, there are also opportunities for CSOs to take the lead. For example, there are many instances where NGOs have organized and facilitated participatory action research to help development decision-makers learn about local needs and preferences in order to plan locally-appropriate interventions. Other CSO-led approaches that are outlined in the subsequent sections of this article include: awareness-raising and mobilizing of communities and citizens to encourage them to get involved in development planning processes; building the capacity of local-level stakeholders to participate in these processes; and campaigning for or against particular development interventions. In the best of instances, long-term working relationships develop between, for example local government offices and NGOs or development agencies and the communities in which they work, to enable the planning to benefit from the knowledge and experience of the different stakeholder groups. These linkages may take the form of formal partnerships between the parties involved or informal arrangements based on mutual trust.

There is a vast array of tools available for participatory development planning. The following list illustrates some of the more commonly used ones:

- ☐ Information-sharing tools: News and updates on a participatory planning process can be transmitted via traditional media such as newspaper, radio, and television or electronic media such as websites and emails or via meetings and presentations with the communities in a given geographical area.
- ☐ Consultation tools: Stakeholders who are either interested in or likely to be affected by the development decisions can be consulted through discussion forums such as round tables, public hearings, town meetings, community debates, focus groups, or electronic conferencing, surveys, opinion polls etc.
- ☐ Collaborative planning tools: These include: structural mechanisms such as stakeholder representation on decision-making bodies, establishment of locallevel planning committees, participatory budgeting, or finance schemes to fund community-managed development; technology-based tools such as participatory GIS (Geographic Information System) or 3-D modeling; and process methods like participatory action research and community planning based on Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) such as community mapping, priority ranking and wealth ranking.

2.2. History of participatory development in India

It is the oldest system of local government in the Indian subcontinent. The word “panchayat” literally means “assembly” (*ayat*) of five (*panch*) wise and respected elders chosen and accepted by the local community. Traditionally, these assemblies settled disputes between individuals and villages. British established local self-government in 1869 when they made a District Local Fund in Bombay. This was a nominated body. In 1882, Lord Ripon established local self-government in India with the setting up of district local boards. District boards and councils were established in Madras and Bihar.

The next important piece of legislation was the Bombay village panchayat Act 1920. Under this Act, the Panchayats were constituted into an elected body. Members were elected by adult male villagers and the Panchayat was entrusted with local functions, mainly of a civil nature. Panchayats were empowered to collect compulsory house taxes. The Bombay Village Panchayat Act 1920 empowered village Panchayats to take up various activities, including some social-economic functions, and gave the power to levy taxes and duties in order to increase their income.

After the reorganisation of states in 1956, laws to introduce the Panchayat system in different states were gradually enacted. This process was almost complete in Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Mysore, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Bombay. The Bombay Village Panchayats Act was enacted in 1957 for seeking legal redress through judicial courts are both long and enormously complicated, and also involve considerable expenses. It is because of this that several different and newer ways of settling disputes both quickly and inexpensively have come up.

One such method is the **LokAdalat 1958**. Under the Act, a district village for the supervision and control of village Panchayats. These Mandals were, however, abolished in 1962. Apart from this enactment in various states, a direction is contained in the Constitution of India in **Article 40** which says that “The State shall take steps to organize village Panchayats and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government.

Under the new enactment, a Gram Sabha of adult residents in the village was constituted, and it was made obligatory on the Panchayats to hold meetings of the Gram Sabha within two months from the commencement of every financial year and to prepare an annual statement of accounts to be placed before such a meeting.

The administrative report, the proposed development programmes, annual report, compliance of adult objections and other such matters were also required to be placed before this meeting. Group Nyaya Panchayats were established, but later they were abolished.

Obligatory duties of the Panchayats were mainly of a civil nature that is, making provisions for sanitation, street lights and drinking water. The discretionary functions covered the fields of agriculture, cooperation, animal husbandry, self-defence and other such administrative and development works.

Village Panchayats are controlled and supervised by ZillaParishads, PanchayatSamitis and their officers. The state government also has direct control over Panchayats through the Collector of the district. District Village Panchayat officers work under ZillaParishads to supervise and control the village Panchayats, and are appointed by the state governments. There is however, no proper machinery for the public to air their grievances and control malpractice in ZillaParishads. Vested interests in the government have always been found to be sheltering corrupt elements in the system and they are now well entrenched. Government control over this institution has seldom proved to be effective and the poor masses at the grassroots level are yet to get benefit from the existing system of PanchyatiRaj. In view of these shortcomings, part IX, consisting of Article 243 to 243 was inserted by the Constitution (73 rd Amendment) Act, 1992.

2.3. Models and approaches

Models

1. Identify a clear problem and lead stakeholders
2. Engage stakeholders as early and often as possible
3. Create an appropriately representative working group
4. Gain trust and establish neutrality as a scientist
5. Know your stakeholders and acknowledge conflict
6. Select appropriate modeling tools to answer questions that are clearly identified. Keep it simple
7. Gain acceptance of modeling methodology before presenting model results
8. Incorporate all forms of stakeholder knowledge
9. Engage stakeholders in discussions regarding uncertainty
10. Develop scenarios that are both politically feasible and most effective
11. Interpret results in conjunction with stakeholders, facilitate development of new policy and management ideas, engage stakeholders in reporting results
12. Treat the model as a process

Approches

1. Sharing of knowledge and experience
2. Recognizing and encompassing different perspectives
3. Working in teams on practical tasks
4. The use of visualisation and analytical tools, imagination and drama
5. An open-ended creative learning process
6. The development of shared understanding and jointly owned plans or other products
7. The capacity for reflection and self-assessment

2.4. Participatory planning in Panchayati Raj institutions.

Panchayat Raj Institutions

Introduction: - The Panchayat or the institution of the village council is as old as India's history and is a part of her tradition.

Panchayat was a Unit of Local Government

In the Discovery of India Jawaharlal Nehru speaks about working of the village panchayat. Panchayat had vast powers both executive and judicial. Under the panchayat the village was a heaven of peace where the national culture developed.

According to Gandhi panchayat is ideal social political organization which has direct democracy and social cohesion. He also mentions in this structure composed of innumerable villages there will be ever-widening, ever ascending circles. Life is not pyramid that is supported by the bottom.

History:

- The Panchayat Raj institution has long history in our country. It was not known as Panchayat Raj but the elements of panchayat were there.
- The beginning of the Panchayat Raj institution goes back to the ancient, Vedic, and pre-Vedic period.
- In Vedas we find that the village looked by the person called 'Gramini'.
- In Gupta's period we find the references of 'Gramapathi' and 'Vishyapati' that were in charge of the village and district.
- The only different between the old and new Panchayat Raj institution is its elective element.
- The institutions generally broke up during the British rule. But after Lord Ripon there was an attempt to establish local bodies. They were mostly municipalities, district boards and taluka boards.
- Under the Montagu Chelmsford reforms in some states village panchayat is established.
- Article 40 of the Directive Principles says the state shall take steps to organize village panchayats and endow them with powers and authority and enable them to function as units of self-government.
- The report of the Shri Balwantray G Mehta in 1958 made Panchayat Raj institution to assume great importance and urgency.

Balwanthtrai Mehta Study Team

Community development program was introduced in India on October 2, 1952. The aim of the CDP is to develop the material and human resources in rural areas and to develop local leadership and self-governing institutions. In 1957 the ministry for Community Development was created. In the same year 16th of January the government of India has appointed the committee under the chairmanship of Balwanthtrai Mehta to study the CDP.

The committee submitted its report on 24th November, 1957. The entire report was based on two principles.

1. The CDP was the government's program with people's participation and therefore it must be the people's program with government's participation.
2. The government should give the duties and responsibilities to the local body to work in its jurisdiction.

The committee has recommended a three – tier system of local government named as Panchayat Raj by Jawaharlal Nehru.

1. Village Panchayat – At village level it must be formed on an elective basis with the reservation for SC/ST and Women.

2. Panchayat Samiti – At the Block level it is to be set up on an elective basis.
3. Zilla Parishad – At the district level. It composed of the presidents of panchayat samitis, MLAs and MPs and some district officers and having collector as the chairman. It is planning, coordinating and supervising body.

Based on this committee the Panchayat Raj system was introduced.

1. Rajasthan and Andhra Pradesh in 1959
2. Assam, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka in 1960
3. Maharashtra in 1962
4. Gujarat and West Bengal in 1963.

Ashok Mehta Committee

Though PRI is potentially dynamic still it is declining in most parts of the country. Therefore it was felt the need of the review of the panchayat raj. So committee was set up 1977 under the chairmanship of Ashok Mehta. The aim of the committee was to restructuring of the PRI and to secure its involvement in planning and implementation of the programs for the rural development.

The committee submitted the report in 1978 and which was approved by the conference of Chief Ministers in May 1979.

The Features

1. The committee recommended the concept of **Mandal Panchayats** comprising of 15,000 - 20,000 population and 10-15 villages. There will be cartographer, Geographer, agronomist, engineer and a credit planning officer.
2. This unit will be within the Zilla Parishad under the supervision of the chief executive officer.
3. Planning of the development programs will be the responsibility of zilla parishads and the implementation will be by the Mandal Parishads.

The concept of mandal panchayat was introduced and put to practice first in Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh.

73rd Amendment

April 24th, 1994 was a land mark in the history of the Panchayat Raj in India. In the constitution 73rd amendment was made to provide constitutional status to the Panchayat Raj institutions.

The three-tier system of local bodies were introduced

1. Village panchayat at grass root level
2. Panchayat union or block panchayat at intermediate level
3. District panchayats at apex level

There were 12619 Village Panchayats, 385 Panchayat Unions and 29 district Panchayats in Tamil Nadu as on 31 October 2001.

The Features

1. To provide 3 tier system of Panchayat Raj for all the states having population of 20 lakhs.
2. To have Panchayat elections regularly every 5 years.

3. To provide reservation to SC/ST and women.
4. To appoint state finance commission to assist Panchayats in financial powers.
5. To constitute district planning committee to prepare the development plans.

Powers of Panchayat Raj

According to the constitution the Panchayats shall be given the powers and authority to function as institutions of self-government. It has the Power to prepare the plan for economic development and social justice. Also to implement the schemes for economic development and social justice which are in relation to 29 subjects given in 11th schedule of the constitution.

11th Schedule subjects

1. Agriculture
2. Land improvement
3. Minor irrigation
4. Animal husbandry, dairy and poultry
5. Fisheries
6. Forestry
7. Minor forest produce
8. Small scale industry
9. Khadi, village and cottage industry
10. Rural housing
11. Drinking water
12. Fuel and fodder
13. Roads, bridges
14. Rural electrification
15. Non-conventional energy sources
16. Poverty alleviation program
17. Education
18. Technical training
19. Adult and non-formal education
20. Libraries
21. Cultural activities
22. Markets and fairs
23. Health and sanitation
24. Family Welfare
25. Women and child development
26. Social Welfare
27. Welfare of the weaker sections
28. Public distribution system
29. Maintenance of community assets

Goals

- To fill the organizational gap in the implementation of the policies related to rural development.
- To be the centre of conscientisation to instill confidence, to promote social and economic wellbeing of the poor, the oppressed and the exploited.
- To strengthen the democratic process at the grass root level.
- To built bridge between the officials and the non-officials.
- To be effective instruments of political education and training.

Functions

The functions are classified into 3 categories

1. Civic Amenities - Sanitation, Primary Education and Health
2. Social Welfare Activities – Women and Children
3. Development Work – Roads and Minor Irrigation

This includes:

1. Agriculture development and irrigation facilities
2. land reforms
3. Eradication of poverty
4. Dairy farming, poultry, piggery, and fish rearing
5. Rural housing
6. Safe drinking water
7. Social forestry, fodder and fuel
8. Primary education, adult education and informal training
9. Roads and building
10. Markets and fairs
11. Child and woman development
12. Welfare of weaker sections, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes

Some special provisions

1. Enforcement of prohibition
2. Protection of land
3. Minor forest product and water resources
4. Village markets
5. Development.

Functions in three levels

1. Village Panchayat
 - i. Sanitation
 - ii. Water Supply
 - iii. Construction
 - iv. Maintenance Of Roads
 - v. Lighting

- vi. Burial Grounds
- vii. Cottage Industry
- viii. Promotion Of Primary, Elementary Social And Health Education

2. Panchayat Samiti

- i. Family Planning
- ii. Training Of Gram Sevikas
- iii. Promotion Of Child And Women Welfare
- iv. Increasing The Employment
- v. Agriculture Production
- vi. Irrigation Wells
- vii. Promotion Of Cooperatives
- viii. Hostels For SC/ST
- ix. Tree Planting
- x. Health Facilities
- xi. Adult Education

3. Zilla Parishads

- i. Planning
- ii. Coordinating
- iii. Sanction Of Works
- iv. Approval Of Samiti Budget
- v. Distribution Of Funds
- vi. Evaluating

Resources

- 1. Taxes Imposed On The People
- 2. Fees And Charges Imposed
- 3. Income From Property
- 4. Assistance Received From Government
- 5. Public Contribution

Problems/limitations

- 1. State Government is reluctant to share the power
- 2. Class Conflict
- 3. Caste Constrain
- 4. Lack Of Leadership
- 5. Administrative Constrain
- 6. Lack Of Resources
- 7. Lack Of Professionalism
- 8. Negligence Of Weaker Sections
- 9. Dominated by the socially and economically privileged
- 10 Negligence of Philosophy of Panchayat Raj

Achievements/ Advantages

- 1. Provided The Link Between The People And Officials
- 2. Generated A New Leadership

3. Helps The People To Know Their Rights
4. It Has Given Political Consciousness To The People
5. Increased The People Participation
6. Helped In Promoting The Physical Infrastructure Essential For Development

Conclusion: - The Panchayati Raj Institutions in India are the prime instruments of decentralization of power at the grass-root level. It acts as vehicle in carrying back to the people, the power that really belongs to them. The initial enthusiasm of setting up the Panchayati Raj system in different states could not be sustained for long due to various reasons. Most State Governments had not been serious in maintaining these institutions and providing them continuity and durability.

At present this system has gained momentum and introduced in every system of our country. The Panchayat as a unit of decentralized administration carried out its functions within the framework established by the provisions of the constitution of India. The institutional strategies have been formulated in the eighth five year plan to strengthen these peoples' institutions at the district; block and village level so that the people could be the 'real actors' in the national reconstruction.

3. Agriculture

3.1. Government's plan for Agricultural development

Important Government Schemes & Programmes in Agriculture

Government of India is giving more priority for welfare of the farmers. In this regard it is implementing several farmers welfare schemes to revitalize agriculture sector and to improve their economic conditions. Therefore, the government has rolled out new initiatives, schemes, programmes and plans to benefit all the farmers.

1. Soil Health Card Scheme

Launched in 2015, the scheme has been introduced to assist State Governments to issue Soil Health Cards to all farmers in the country. The Soil Health Cards provide information to farmers on nutrient status of their soil along with recommendation on appropriate dosage of nutrients to be applied for improving soil health and its fertility.

2. National Mission for Sustainable Agriculture (NMSA)

NMSA is one of the eight Missions under National Action Plan on Climate Change (NAPCC). It aims at promoting Sustainable Agriculture through climate change adaptation measures, enhancing agriculture productivity especially in rainfed areas focusing on integrated farming, soil health management, and synergizing resource conservation.

NMSA as a programmatic intervention caters to Mission Deliverables that focuses mainly on conservation agriculture to make farm sector more productive, sustainable, remunerative and climate resilient by promoting location specific integrated/composite farming systems.

Schemes under NMSA

- Rainfed Area Development (RAD): RAD is being implemented by RFS Division.
- Soil Health Management (SHM): SHM is being implemented by INM Division
- Sub Mission on Agro Forestry (SMAF): SMAF is being implemented by NRM Division
- Paramparagat Krishi Vikas Yojana (PKVY): PKVY is being implemented by INM Division

- Soil and Land Use Survey of India (SLUSI): Being implemented by RFS Division
- National Rainfed Area Authority (NRAA): Being implemented by RFS Division
- Mission Organic Value Chain Development in North Eastern Region (MOVCDNER): Being implemented by INM Division
- National Centre of Organic Farming (NCOF): Being implemented by INM Division
- Central Fertilizer Quality Control and Training Institute (CFQC&TI): implemented by INM Division

3. Neem Coated Urea (NCU)

This scheme is initiated to regulate use of urea, enhance availability of nitrogen to the crop and reduce cost of fertilizer application. NCU slows down the release of fertilizer and makes it available to the crop in an effective manner. The entire quantity of domestically manufactured and imported urea is now neem coated. It reduces the cost of cultivation and improves soil health management.

4. Pradhan Mantri Krishi Sinchai Yojana (PMKSY)

It was launched on 1st July, 2015 with the motto of 'Har Khet Ko Paani' for providing end-to-end solutions in irrigation supply chain, viz. water sources, distribution network and farm level applications.

PMKSY not only focuses on creating sources for assured irrigation, but also creating protective irrigation by harnessing rain water at micro level through 'Jal Sanchay' and 'Jal Sinchan'.

Micro irrigation is to be popularised to ensure 'Per drop-More crop'. PMKSY adopts State level planning and projectised execution that allows States to draw up their own irrigation development based on District Irrigation Plans and State Irrigation Plans.

Components:

- Accelerated Irrigation Benefit Programme(AIBP): implemented by Ministry of Water Resources, RD & GR.
- PMKSY (Har Khet ko Pani): implemented by Ministry of Water Resources, RD & GR
- PMKSY (Watershed): implemented by Department of Land Resources.
- PMKSY(Per Drop More Crop - PDMC)

5. Paramparagat Krishi Vikas Yojana (PKVY)

It is implemented with a view to promote organic farming in the country. To improve soil health and organic matter content and increase net income of the farmer so as to realise premium prices. Under this scheme, an area of 5 lakh acre is targeted to be covered through 10,000 clusters of 50 acre each, from the year 2015-16 to 2017-18.

6. National Agriculture Market (e-NAM)

It provides e-marketing platform at national level and support creation of infrastructure to enable e-marketing.

This innovative market process is revolutionizing agriculture markets by ensuring better price discovery. It brings in transparency and competition to enable farmers to get improved remuneration for their produce moving towards 'One Nation One Market'.

7. Micro Irrigation Fund (MIF)

A dedicated MIF created with NABARD has been approved with an initial corpus of Rs. 5000 crore (Rs. 2000 crore for 2018-19 & Rs. 3000 crore for 2019-20) for encouraging public and private investments in Micro irrigation. The main objective of the fund is to facilitate the States in mobilizing the resources for expanding coverage of Micro Irrigation.

MIF would not only facilitate States in incentivizing and mobilizing resources for achieving the target envisaged under PMKSY-PDMC but also in bringing additional coverage through special and innovative initiatives by State Governments.

An Advisory Committee has been set up to provide policy direction and ensure effective planning, coordination and monitoring of the Micro Irrigation Fund.

8. Agriculture Contingency Plan

Central Research Institute for Dryland Agriculture (CRIDA), ICAR has prepared district level Agriculture Contingency Plans in collaboration with state agricultural universities using a standard template to tackle aberrant monsoon situations leading to drought and floods, extreme events (heat waves, cold waves, frost, hailstorms, cyclone) adversely affecting crops, livestock and fisheries (including horticulture).

Total 614 district agriculture contingency plans are placed in the ‘farmer portal’ of the Ministry of Agriculture and Farmers Welfare, Government of India (<http://www.farmer.gov.in>) and also in the ICAR / CRIDA website (<http://www.crida.in>) for downloading the full plan by stakeholders for operational use.

9. Rainfed Area Development Programme (RADP)

Rainfed Area Development Programme (RADP) was implemented as a sub-scheme under Rashtriya Krishi Vikas Yojana (RKVY).

Aim

- To improve quality of life of farmers’ especially, small and marginal farmers by offering a complete package of activities to maximize farm returns.
- Increasing agricultural productivity of rainfed areas in a sustainable manner by adopting appropriate farming system based approaches.
- To minimise the adverse impact of possible crop failure due to drought, flood or un-even rainfall distribution through diversified and composite farming system.
- Restoration of confidence in rainfed agriculture by creating sustained employment opportunities through improved on-farm technologies and cultivation practices
- Enhancement of farmer’s income and livelihood support for reduction of poverty in rainfed areas and

10. National Watershed Development Project for Rainfed Areas (NWDPA)

The scheme of National Watershed Development Project for Rainfed Areas (NWDPA) was launched in 1990-91 based on twin concepts of integrated watershed management and sustainable farming systems.

Aim

- Conservation, development and sustainable management of natural resources.
- Enhancement of agricultural production and productivity in a sustainable manner.

- Restoration of ecological balance in the degraded and fragile rainfed eco-systems by greening these areas through appropriate mix of trees, shrubs and grasses.
- Reduction in regional disparity between irrigated and rainfed areas and;
- Creation of sustained employment opportunities for the rural community including the landless.

11. Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana (PMFBY)

PMFBY is an actuarial premium based scheme under which farmer has to pay maximum premium of 2% for Kharif, 1.5% for Rabi food & oilseed crops and 5% for annual commercial/horticultural crops and remaining part of the actuarial/bidded premium is shared equally by the Centre and State Government. One of the objectives of the scheme is to facilitate prompt claims settlement. The claims must be settled within two months of harvest subject to timely provision of both yield data and share of premium subsidy by the State Government.

12. Livestock insurance Scheme

It aims to provide protection mechanism to the farmers and cattle rearers against any eventual loss of animals due to death. The scheme also demonstrates the benefit of the insurance of livestock to the people and popularizes it with the ultimate goal of attaining qualitative improvement in livestock and their products.

13. National Scheme on Welfare of Fishermen

This scheme was launched to provide financial assistance to fishers for construction of house, community hall for recreation and common working place. It also aims to install tube-wells for drinking water and assistance during lean period through saving cum relief component.

14. Scheme on Fisheries Training and Extension

It was launched to provide training for fishery sector so as to assist in undertaking fisheries extension programmes effectively.

15. Gramin Bhandaran Yojna

Objective of this Scheme:

- Create scientific storage capacity with allied facilities in rural areas.
- To meet the requirements of farmers for storing farm produce, processed farm produce and agricultural inputs.
- Promotion of grading, standardization and quality control of agricultural produce to improve their marketability.
- Prevent distress sale immediately after harvest by providing the facility of pledge financing and marketing credit by strengthening agricultural marketing infrastructure in the country.

3.2. Agricultural productivity

Since the introduction of economic planning in India, agricultural development has been receiving a special emphasis. It was only after 1965, i.e., from the mid-period of the Third Plan, special emphasis was laid on the development of the agricultural sector. Since then, a huge amount of fund was allocated for the development and modernization of this agricultural sector every year.

All these initiatives have led to:

- (a) A steady increase in areas under cultivation;
- (b) A steady rise in agricultural productivity; and
- (c) A rising trend in agricultural production.

Growth in Area:

In India the growth in gross area under all crops has increased from 122 million hectares in 1949-50 to 151 million hectares in 1964-65 and then it increased to 168.4 million hectares in 2008-09. Further, gross area under all food grains has increased from 99 million hectares in 1949-50 to 118 million hectares in 1964-65 and then to 123.2 million hectares in 2008-09. Similarly, the gross area under all non-food-grains has also increased from 23 million hectares in 1949-50 to 33 million hectares in 1964-65 and then to 45.2 million hectares in 2008-09.

In India, out of the total cultivable area of 186 million hectares, the net sown area is estimated at 143 million hectares. Moreover, the areas under cultivation of all crops have increased by 0.25 per cent during the period 1980-81 to 1995-96 as compared to 0.51 per cent during 1967-68 to 1980-81. Again the area under food-grain cultivation has decline by 0.32 per cent per annum between 1980-81 to 1995-96 as compared to an increase in the area of the tune of 0.38 per cent between 1967-68 and 1980-81.

During the pre-green revolution period, i.e., during 1951-65 additional area including marginal lands, fallow lands, waste lands and forest lands were brought under cultivation. The annual rate of growth in area under crops during the period 1950-65 was quite substantial.

All crops: 1.6 per cent, Food grains: 1.4 per cent and Non-food grains: 2.5 per cent. But in the post-green revolution period, i.e., during 1965-95, area under all crops could not increase significantly and the annual growth rate in area was also quite minimum—All crops: 0.3 per cent, Food-grains: 1.2 per cent and Non- food-grains: 0.7 per cent.

Agricultural Productivity:

By the term agricultural productivity we mean the varying relationship between the agricultural output and one of the major inputs such as land. The most commonly used term for representing agricultural productivity is the average yield per hectare of land.

After the introduction of modern agricultural technique along-with the adoption of hybrid seeds, extension of irrigation facilities and application of intensive method of cultivation in India, yield per hectare of all crops has recorded a steep rising trend. Table 3.1 shows the trend in agricultural productivity in India, i.e., the average yield per hectare.

TABLE 3.1. Trend in yield per hectare of principal crops in India since independence

<i>Items</i>	<i>Yield per hectare</i>			<i>Annual Growth Rate (%)</i>	
	<i>1949-50</i>	<i>1964-65</i>	<i>2008-09</i>	<i>1949-50 to 1964-65</i>	<i>1964-65 to 2008-09</i>
All foodgrains (quintals)	5.5	7.6	18.98	1.4	2.4
Rice (quintals)	7.1	10.8	21.86	2.1	2.3
Wheat (quintals)	6.6	9.1	28.91	1.3	3.4
Coarse cereals (quintals)	4.3	5.1	11.76	1.3	1.3
Pulses (quintals)	4.0	5.2	6.55	0.2	0.5
All Non-foodgrains	—	—	—	0.9	1.6
Oils seeds (quintals)	5.2	5.6	10.16	0.1	1.6
Cotton (kgs)	95	122	419	2.0	2.4
Sugarcane (tonnes)	34	47	62	1.0	1.2
Potato (quintals)	66	84	180	1.6	3.0
All crops				1.3	1.9

The Table 3.1 reveals that in India the average yield per hectare for all food-grains has recorded an increase from 5.5 quintals in 1949-50 to 7.6 quintals in 1964-65 and then to 18.98 quintals in 2008- 09 showing an annual growth rate of 1.4 per cent during 1950-65 and 2.4 per cent during 1965-2007.

Moreover, the average yield per hectare in respect of rice and wheat which were 7.1 quintals and 6.6 quintals respectively in 1949-50 gradually increased to 10.8 quintals and 9.1 quintals in 1964-65 showing an annual growth rate of 2.1 per cent and 1.3 per cent in respect of rice and wheat respectively.

Again during the post-green revolution period (1965-2009), the average yield per hectare in respect of rice and wheat has again increased to 21.86 quintals and 28.91 quintals respectively showing a considerable annual growth rate of 3.4 per cent in respect of wheat and 2.3 per cent in respect of rice. But the annual growth rate of coarse cereals increased by only 1.3 per cent and that of pulses of only 0.5 per cent during the period 1967-2009. Moreover, the annual growth rate of yield per hectare of all crops went up to 2.49 per cent during the period 1980-81 to 1993-94 as compared to that of 1.28 per cent during 1967-68 to 1980-81.

Among the non-food-grains, cotton and sugarcane achieved a modest growth rate of 2.0 per cent and 1.0 per cent respectively during 1950-65 and again to the extent of 2.4 per cent and 1.2 per cent respectively during 1967-2009.

Moreover, potato has recorded a considerable increase in annual growth rate from 1.6 per cent during 1950-65 to 3.0 per cent during 1967-2009. Again, taking all crops together, the annual average growth rate of all crops rose from 1.3 per cent during 1950-1965 to 1.9 per cent during 1967-2009. Thus the above data reveal that the green revolution and the application of new bio-chemical technology have become very much effective only in case of wheat and potato but proved ineffective in case of other crops.

Moreover, if we compare the average yield per hectare of various crops in India with foreign countries then we find that India lags far behind the other developed countries of the world. In 1990- 91, the annual average yield of rice per hectare was only 17.5 quintals in India as against 41 quintals in U.S.A., 61.9 quintals in Japan and 54 quintals in China. Again, the annual average yield of wheat per hectare was only 22.7 quintals in India as against 68 quintals in Germany, 61 quintals in France and 30 quintals in China.

Trends in Agricultural Production:

Agricultural production in India can be broadly classified into food crops and commercial crops. In India the major food crops include rice, wheat, pulses, coarse cereals etc. Similarly,

the commercial crops or non-food crops include raw cotton, tea, coffee, raw jute, sugarcane, oil seeds etc.

In India, total agricultural production has been increasing with the combined effect of growth in total cultivated areas and increases in the average yield per hectare of the various crops. Table 3.2 reveals the trend in total agricultural production in India since independence.

TABLE 3.2. Trends and Growth rate of production of Agricultural crops since 1949-50

Items	1949-50	1964-65	2008-09	Annual Growth rate (%)	
				1949-50 to 1964-65	1967-68 to 2008-2009
1. All foodgrains (m tonnes)	55	89	233.9	3.2	2.21
Rice (m tonnes)	24	39	99.2	3.5	2.20
Wheat (m tonnes)	6	12	80.6	4.0	5.0
Coarse cereals (m tonnes)	17	25	44.8	2.2	0.6
Pulses (m tonnes)	8	12	14.7	1.4	-0.2
2. All non-foodgrains	—	—	—	3.5	2.6
Oil seeds (m tonnes)	5	9	28.2	3.3	1.9
Sugarcane (m tonnes)	50	122	273.9	4.3	2.5
Cotton (m bales of 170 kg. each)	3	6	23.2	4.6	1.4
Potato (m tonnes)	2	4	28.5	4.3	4.9
3. All Crops				3.1	2.4

The Table 3.2 reveals that total production of food grains had increased from 55 million tonnes in 1949-50 to 89 million tonnes in 1964-65 and then increased to 176 million tonnes in 1990-91. But in 1991-92, total production of food grains came down to 167 million tonnes mainly due to fall in the production of coarse cereals and in 1993-94, the production was around 184 million tonnes.

In 2002- 03, total production of food grains has further decreased to 174.8 million tonnes. As per advance estimates, total production of food grains has again increased to 233.9 million tonnes in 2008-09. Thus in the pre-green revolution period (1950-65) the food grains production had experienced impressive annual growth rate of 3.2 per cent and in the post-green revolution period (1967-2007), the same annual growth rate was to the extent of 2.7 per cent.

The major cereals like rice and wheat recorded a high growth rate, i.e., 3.5 and 4.0 per cent respectively during the first period (1950-65) and again to the extent of 2.2 and 5.0 per cent respectively during the second period (1967-2007). But the growth rate in coarse cereals and pulses remained quite marginal.

Total production of rice and wheat have increased from 24 million tonnes and 6 million tonnes in 1949-50 to 39 million tonnes and 12 million tonnes in 1964-65 and then to 99.2 million tonnes and 80.6 million tonnes respectively in 2008-09. In respect of non-food grains the trends in production in respect of potato and sugarcane were quite impressive and that of cotton and oilseeds were not up to the mark.

The table further shows that the new agricultural strategy could not bring a break-through in agricultural output of the country excepting wheat and potato which recorded about 4.8 per cent and 6.7 per cent annual growth rate respectively during the post-green revolution period. The growth in output in respect of all other crops remained low and that of coarse cereals and pulses were only marginal where the annual growth rates were only 0.4 and 1.04 per cent respectively.

From the above analysis we can draw the following important observations:

- (i) In the pre-green revolution period, the growth of output has mainly contributed by the growth or expansion in area but in the post-green revolution period, improvement in agricultural productivity arising from the adoption of modern technique has contributed to growth in output.
- (ii) In spite of adopting modern technology, the growth rate in output, excepting wheat could not maintain a steady level.

(iii) During the post-green revolution period the growth rate in output was comparatively lower than the first annual growth rate in food grains was maintained at the level of 2.7 per cent in the second period.

(iv) The growth rate in output of oil seeds, pulses and coarse food grains declined substantially in the second period as the cultivation of these crops have been shifted to inferior lands.

(v) Although agricultural production attained a substantial increase since independence but these production trends have been subjected to continuous fluctuations mainly due to variation of monsoons and other natural factors.

3.3. Causes and problems of agriculture in India

Cause # 1. Overcrowding in Agriculture:

The real problem of Indian agriculture seems to be that there are too many people who depend on agriculture.

The natural increase in population—from about 35 crore in 1947 to 113 crore in 2007— over 3 times could not be absorbed in industries.

Moreover, dependence on agriculture increased due to the decline of handicrafts.

Over-crowding and the consequent pressure of population on land have led to subdivision and fragmentation of holdings, decline in the area of land per capita, disguised unemployment and almost zero marginal productivity of labour. The area of cultivated land per hectare between 1901 and 1991 declined from 0.43 hectare to 0.22 hectare.

Cause # 2. Unhealthy Rural Atmosphere:

The Indian farmers, generally speaking, are illiterate, ignorant, superstitious, and conservative and bound by old customs and institutions such as the caste system, and the joint family system. Superstition and belief in fate are the curse which keep the farmers totally satisfied with their primitive system of cultivation.

They are just happy if they manage to get two square meals a day. They have non-experimental outlook and are hardly motivated by considerations of economic progress.

Cause # 3. Inadequate Non-Farm Services:

Indian agriculture has suffered because of the inadequacy of such non-farm services as provision of irrigation, seed, finance, marketing, etc. Irrigation facilities in India are inadequate. Even after 60 years of planning, gross irrigated area as percentage of cropped area stands at 40.3 p.c. in 2003-04. This means 60 p.c. of the cropped area are rain-dependent.

If the current trends in irrigation expansion by less than 1 million hectare per annum persist, we are afraid that more than half of the cultivated land would remain un-irrigated even by 2012. Indian farmers are yet to learn intensively the use of improved seed-fertilisers.

Agricultural credit arrangements are inadequate. Institutional sources of credit are mostly directed to the rich farmers. Problems get multiplied once the question of marketing of agricultural produce becomes dominant. Marketing facilities are extremely inadequate.

Cause # 4. Size of Holdings:

The average size of holding in India is very low, less than 2 hectares or 5 acres. Not only agricultural holdings are small but they are fragmented too. So no scientific cultivation with improved implements, seeds, etc., is possible.

Cause # 5. Insecurity of Land Tenure:

A potent force behind low agricultural productivity has been the absence of proper incentives. The cultivator does not often own the land; he has no security of tenancy; and he may be turned out of his land at any time the landowner desires. So the landless worker has little, if any, desire to increase productivity.

It is true that through various land reform measures semi-feudal agrarian structure had been broken to provide a greater fillip to agricultural productivity. The land reform measures are yet to break the semi-feudal rural structure.

Landlordism in a different garb still prevails; eviction of tenants from land is still continuing. Rack-renting is not uncommon; ceiling laws have been violated. Thus, land reform measures not only failed to ensure social justice but also productivity of land could not be raised.

Cause # 6. Investment Inadequacy:

Low productivity in Indian agriculture may be attributed to low volume of governmental investment compared to the industrial sector. In the First Plan (1951-1956), investment in the agricultural sector stood at 31 p.c. It declined gradually to 19 p.c. by the Ninth Plan Period (1997- 2002).

Further, the possibility of resource mobilisation in the agricultural sector is rather bleak. Income generation in the form of land revenue and income tax is rather low. On the contrary, agricultural sector is largely subsidized. All these result in low volume of investment in the agricultural sector. In recent years, investment has declined to 1.3 p.c. of GDP. This is attributed to stagnation in public investment in the reform years.

Cause # 7. Poor Techniques of Production:

The Indian farmers have been using old and inefficient methods and techniques of production generation after generation. Increase in production is possible only if proper and adequate manures are used. But, in India, the use of both farmyard manure and chemical fertilisers is mostly inadequate compared to our needs.

The importance of good quality seeds to increase agricultural productivity hardly requires any emphasis. But, Indian farmers have been using seeds of very poor quality for decades.

With the launching of the New Agricultural Strategy in the mid-60s, the agricultural sector has witnessed a remarkable increase in production and productivity during the last three decades. Still then, it is inadequate compared to the country's needs.

For instance, modern agricultural technology has had little spread effect among Indian farmers due to a variety of reasons. And, because of slower diffusion of knowledge of improved technology, its applicability is limited and, therefore, productivity differs from region to region. Some regions exhibit higher productivity compared to other states where new agricultural technology is used selectively.

Cause # 8. Inadequate Irrigation Facilities:

One of the proximate causes of the weaknesses of Indian agriculture has been that most of the farmers throughout the country have to depend upon rainfall and very few of them can enjoy the

facilities of artificial irrigation. It is the inadequate spread of irrigation facilities that acts as the main barrier for the adoption of HYV seeds.

It is to be noted here that irrigated area in India generally tends to be used for rice and wheat cultivation while the other crops are grown mostly in rain-fed and un-irrigated condition. This demands spreading of irrigation facilities to all crops.

Even after about 60 years of planning, Indian agriculture is highly monsoon-dependent. Roughly 40 p.c. of the total agricultural land is irrigated. This amounts to saying that the Indian agriculture is deficient of investment, though agriculture is the backbone of the nation.

Such a step-motherly attitude towards agriculture, of course in a covert manner, has a deleterious effect on productivity and profitability. During the decade of reforms, the agricultural profitability has fallen by 14.2 p.c. Investment in this sector must be stepped up.

All these suggest that a proper long-term strategy for agricultural development had not been undertaken by the government. Truly speaking, a national agricultural policy had never been drawn up by the government. A national agricultural policy has just now been checked out, say after 58 years of planning.

In addition, another disturbing factor is the neglect of capital formation in agriculture. All these have an impact on agricultural production in the future years.

National Agricultural Policy (2000) and Tenth Plan have given higher priority on raising agricultural productivity to promote faster growth of the agricultural sector as well on promoting the growth of the rural non-farm sector.

A centrally sponsored scheme on National Food Security Mission set up in 2007 aims at increasing food grains production through area expansion and productivity enhancement; restoring soil fertility and productivity; etc.

Suggested Remedies:

After identifying the causes of low productivity, we may now suggest some remedies for the same. Prima facie, attempts are being made to find alternative employments for rural population and to change the occupational structure in such a way that less than 45 p.c. of people continue to depend on agriculture.

On the institutional front, the Government is trying to solve the problems of agriculture through land reforms. On the technological front, a modest beginning has been made in converting farmers to the use of improved implements, seeds, chemicals, manures, etc. Green revolution illustrates the point. Irrigation facilities are being increasingly made available.

Double cropping, better rotation of crops, fighting plant diseases and pests, etc. are given due emphasis. However, it may be noted that “productivity enhancing investment in agriculture, however, depends not only on the state of knowledge but also on conditions governing the adoption of technology; it depends on the land tenure system which determines how the agricultural produce is divided between owners of land and agricultural labour; on the terms of trade between agriculture and industry, which determine the relative cheapness of industrial inputs vis-a-vis agricultural produce; and on the level of demand of agricultural produce.”

It is only through an integrated measure of a policy/programme that the challenges facing Indian agriculture can be squarely met. The objectives of government policy should be to develop effective system and provide similar benefits to agriculture as does industry experience.

Unfortunately, one finds a declining trend of investment in the agricultural sector. In view of this, prognosis for the future will be of dubious nature.

3.4. Marginal and small farmers

Agriculture forms the backbone of Indian economy. It is the largest industry in the country where 70-75% of the populations are engaged on it for their survival/livelihoods.

Agricultural labour:

A person without any land, but with homestead and deriving more than 50 per cent of his income from agricultural wages is an agricultural labourer.

Small farmers:

A cultivator with a land holding of five acres or less is a small farmer. In the class I irrigated land, as defined in the State Land Ceiling Legislation, a farmer with 2.5 acres or less will be considered a small farmer.

Marginal farmer:

A person with a land holding of 2.5 acres or less is considered as a marginal farmer. In case of Class I irrigated land, the ceiling will be one acres.

Agricultural labour is provided mostly by economically and socially backward sections from the tribes and other lower caste population.

Agricultural laborers

1. Landless labours who completely attached to land lords.
2. Landless labours that are personally independent but extremely depend on other persons for livelihoods.
3. Farmers who have economic holdings, who have one or more sons depend on others and working for others prosperous farmers.

Causes for the poor economic conditions of agricultural labours:

- 1) No proper irrigation system.
- 2) Low social status.
- 3) Unorganized sector.
- 4) Seasonal employment
- 5) Paucity of Non-agricultural job.
- 6) Rural indebtedness.

Programmes to improve the life standards of marginal and small farmers:

- 1) **The Indian constitution:** It has abolished any type of agrarian slavery, forced labour and any other inhuman practices that prevailed in Zamindari system. Moreover, enactment of Tenancy laws and Land Ceiling Act have protect the interest of the agricultural labours
- 2) **Minimum wages Act:** It was passed in 1948. According to it every State has to fix minimum wages for agricultural labour.
- 3) **Organization of labour co-operation:** by the end of second Five –Year plans the govt. of India help the farmers to organize co-operative society from village to national level.
- 4) **Employment guarantee scheme:** under this scheme the State has to take responsibility of providing work on demand for the unemployed people in the rural areas.

3.5. Agricultural problems and strategies to solve them.

Major Agricultural Problems of India and their Possible Solutions

Some of the major problems and their possible solutions have been discussed as follows. Indian agriculture is plagued by several problems; some of them are natural and some others are manmade.

1. Small and fragmented land-holdings:

The seemingly abundance of net sown area of 141.2 million hectares and total cropped area of 189.7 million hectares (1999-2000) pales into insignificance when we see that it is divided into economically unviable small and scattered holdings.

The average size of holdings was 2.28 hectares in 1970-71 which was reduced to 1.82 hectares in 1980-81 and 1.50 hectares in 1995-96. The size of the holdings will further decrease with the infinite Sub-division of the land holdings.

The problem of small and fragmented holdings is more serious in densely populated and intensively cultivated states like Kerala, West Bengal, Bihar and eastern part of Uttar Pradesh where the average size of land holdings is less than one hectare and in certain parts it is less than even 0.5 hectare.

Rajasthan with vast sandy stretches and Nagaland with the prevailing 'Jhoom' (shifting agriculture) have larger average sized holdings of 4 and 7.15 hectares respectively. States having high percentage of net sown area like Punjab, Haryana, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Karnataka and Madhya Pradesh have holding size above the national average.

Further it is shocking to note that a large proportion of 59 per cent holdings in 1990- 91 were marginal (below 1 hectare) accounting for 14.9 per cent of the total operated area. Another 19 per cent were small holdings (1-2 hectare) taking up 17.3 per cent of the total operated area.

Large holdings (above 10 hectare) accounted for only 1.6 per cent of total holdings but covered 17.4 per cent of the operated area (Table 22.1). Hence, there is a wide gap between small farmers, medium farmers (peasant group) and big farmers (landlords).

The main reason for this sad state of affairs is our inheritance laws. The land belonging to the father is equally distributed among his sons. This distribution of land does not entail a collection or consolidated one, but its nature is fragmented.

Different tracts have different levels of fertility and are to be distributed accordingly. If there are four tracts which are to be distributed between two sons, both the sons will get smaller plots of each land tract. In this way the holdings become smaller and more fragmented with each passing generation.

Sub-division and fragmentation of the holdings is one of the main causes of our low agricultural productivity and backward state of our agriculture. A lot of time and labour is wasted in moving seeds, manure, implements and cattle from one piece of land to another.

Irrigation becomes difficult on such small and fragmented fields. Further, a lot of fertile agricultural land is wasted in providing boundaries. Under such circumstances, the farmer cannot concentrate on improvement.

The only answer to this ticklish problem is the consolidation of holdings which means the reallocation of holdings which are fragmented, the creation of farms which comprise only one or a few parcels in place of multitude of patches formerly in the possession of each peasant.

But unfortunately, this plan has not succeeded much. Although legislation for consolidation of holdings has been enacted by almost all the states, it has been implemented only in Punjab, Haryana and in some parts of Uttar Pradesh.

Consolidation of about 45 million holdings has been done till 1990-91 in Punjab, Haryana and western Uttar Pradesh. The other solution to this problem is cooperative farming in which the farmers pool their resources and share the profit.

2.Seeds:

Seed is a critical and basic input for attaining higher crop yields and sustained growth in agricultural production. Distribution of assured quality seed is as critical as the production of such seeds. Unfortunately, good quality seeds are out of reach of the majority of farmers, especially small and marginal farmers mainly because of exorbitant prices of better seeds.

In order to solve this problem, the Government of India established the National Seeds Corporation (NSC) in 1963 and the State Farmers Corporation of India (SFCI) in 1969. Thirteen State Seed Corporations (SSCs) were also established to augment the supply of improved seeds to the farmers.

High Yielding Variety Programme (HYVP) was launched in 1966-67 as a major thrust plan to increase the production of food grains in the country.

The Indian seed industry had exhibited impressive growth in the past and is expected to provide further potential for growth in agricultural production: The role of seed industry is not only to produce adequate quantity of quality seeds but also to achieve varietal diversity to suit various agro-climatic zones of the country.

The policy statements are designed towards making available to the Indian farmer, adequate quantities of seed of superior quality at the appropriate time and place and at an affordable price so as to meet the country's food and nutritional security goals.

Indian seeds programme largely adheres to limited generation system for seed multiplication. The system recognises three kinds of generation, namely breeder, foundation and certified seeds. Breeder seed is the basic seed and first stage in seed production. Foundation seed is the second stage in seed production chain and is the progeny of breeder seed.

Certified seed is the ultimate stage in seed production chain and is the progeny of foundation seed. Production of breeder and foundation seeds and certified seeds distribution have gone up at an annual average rate of 3.4 per cent, 7.5 per cent and 9.5 per cent respectively, between 2001-02 and 2005-06).

3.Manures, Fertilizers and Biocides:

Indian soils have been used for growing crops over thousands of years without caring much for replenishing. This has led to depletion and exhaustion of soils resulting in their low productivity. The average yields of almost all the crops are among the lowest in the world. This is a serious problem which can be solved by using more manures and fertilizers.

Manures and fertilizers play the same role in relation to soils as good food in relation to body. Just as a well-nourished body is capable of doing any good job, a well nourished soil is capable of giving good yields. It has been estimated that about 70 per cent of growth in agricultural production can be attributed to increased fertilizer application.

Thus increase in the consumption of fertilizers is a barometer of agricultural prosperity. However, there are practical difficulties in providing sufficient manures and fertilizers in all parts of a country of India's dimensions inhabited by poor peasants. Cow dung provides the best manure to the soils.

But its use as such is limited because much of cow dung is used as kitchen fuel in the shape of dung cakes. Reduction in the supply of fire wood and increasing demand for fuel in the rural areas due to increase in population has further complicated the problem. Chemical fertilizers are

costly and are often beyond the reach of the poor farmers. The fertilizer problem is, therefore, both acute and complex.

It has been felt that organic manures are essential for keeping the soil in good health. The country has a potential of 650 million tonnes of rural and 160 lakh tonnes of urban compost which is not fully utilized at present. The utilization of this potential will solve the twin problem of disposal of waste and providing manure to the soil.

The government has given high incentive especially in the form of heavy subsidy for using chemical fertilizers. There was practically no use of chemical fertilizers at the time of Independence. As a result of initiative by the government and due to change in the attitude of some progressive farmers, the consumption of fertilizers increased tremendously.

In order to maintain the quality of the fertilizers, 52 fertilizer quality control laboratories have been set up in different parts of the country. In addition, there is one Central Fertilizer Quality Control and Training Institute at Faridabad with its three regional centres at Mumbai, Kolkata and Chennai.

Pests, germs and weeds cause heavy loss to crops which amounted to about one third of the total field produce at the time of Independence. Biocides (pesticides, herbicides and weedicides) are used to save the crops and to avoid losses. The increased use of these inputs has saved a lot of crops, especially the food crops from unnecessary wastage. But indiscriminate use of biocides has resulted in wide spread environmental pollution which takes its own toll.

4. Irrigation:

Although India is the second largest irrigated country of the world after China, only one-third of the cropped area is under irrigation. Irrigation is the most important agricultural input in a tropical monsoon country like India where rainfall is uncertain, unreliable and erratic. India cannot achieve sustained progress in agriculture unless and until more than half of the cropped area is brought under assured irrigation.

This is testified by the success story of agricultural progress in Punjab, Haryana and western part of Uttar Pradesh where over half of the cropped area is under irrigation! Large tracts still await irrigation to boost the agricultural output.

However, care must be taken to safeguard against ill effects of over irrigation especially in areas irrigated by canals. Large tracts in Punjab and Haryana have been rendered useless (areas affected by salinity, alkalinity and water-logging), due to faulty irrigation. In the Indira Gandhi Canal command area also intensive irrigation has led to sharp rise in sub-soil water level, leading to water-logging, soil salinity and alkalinity.

5. Lack of mechanisation:

In spite of the large scale mechanisation of agriculture in some parts of the country, most of the agricultural operations in larger parts are carried on by human hand using simple and conventional tools and implements like wooden plough, sickle, etc.

Little or no use of machines is made in ploughing, sowing, irrigating, thinning and pruning, weeding, harvesting, threshing and transporting the crops. This is specially the case with small and marginal farmers. It results in huge wastage of human labour and in low yields per capita labour force.

There is urgent need to mechanise the agricultural operations so that wastage of labour force is avoided and farming is made convenient and efficient. Agricultural implements and machinery are a crucial input for efficient and timely agricultural operations, facilitating multiple cropping and thereby increasing production.

Some progress has been made for mechanising agriculture in India after Independence. Need for mechanisation was specially felt with the advent of Green Revolution in 1960s. Strategies and programmes have been directed towards replacement of traditional and inefficient implements by improved ones, enabling the farmer to own tractors, power tillers, harvesters and other machines. A large industrial base for manufacturing of the agricultural machines has also been developed. Power availability for carrying out various agricultural operations has been increased to reach a level of 14 kW per hectare in 2003-04 from only 0.3 kW per hectare in 1971-72.

This increase was the result of increasing use of tractor, power tiller and combine harvesters, irrigation pumps and other power operated machines. The share of mechanical and electrical power has increased from 40 per cent in 1971 to 84 per cent in 2003-04.

Uttar Pradesh recorded the highest average sales of tractors during the five year period ending 2003-04 and West Bengal recorded the highest average sales of power tillers during the same period.

Strenuous efforts are being made to encourage the farmers to adopt technically advanced agricultural equipments in order to carry farm operations timely and precisely and to economise the agricultural production process.

6. Soil erosion:

Large tracts of fertile land suffer from soil erosion by wind and water. This area must be properly treated and restored to its original fertility.

7. Agricultural Marketing:

Agricultural marketing still continues to be in a bad shape in rural India. In the absence of sound marketing facilities, the farmers have to depend upon local traders and middlemen for the disposal of their farm produce which is sold at throw-away price.

In most cases, these farmers are forced, under socio-economic conditions, to carry on distress sale of their produce. In most of small villages, the farmers sell their produce to the money lender from whom they usually borrow money.

According to an estimate 85 per cent of wheat and 75 per cent of oil seeds in Uttar Pradesh, 90 per cent of Jute in West Bengal, 70 per cent of oilseeds and 35 per cent of cotton in Punjab is sold by farmers in the village itself. Such a situation arises due to the inability of the poor farmers to wait for long after harvesting their crops.

In order to meet his commitments and pay his debt, the poor farmer is forced to sell the produce at whatever price is offered to him. The Rural Credit Survey Report rightly remarked that the producers in general sell their produce at an unfavourable place and at an unfavourable time and usually they get unfavourable terms.

In the absence of an organised marketing structure, private traders and middlemen dominate the marketing and trading of agricultural produce. The remuneration of the services provided by the middlemen increases the load on the consumer, although the producer does not derive similar benefit.

Many market surveys have revealed that middlemen take away about 48 per cent of the price of rice, 52 per cent of the price of groundnuts and 60 per cent of the price of potatoes offered by consumers.

In order to save the farmer from the clutches of the money lenders and the middle men, the government has come out with regulated markets. These markets generally introduce a system of competitive buying, help in eradicating malpractices, ensure the use of standardised weights and

measures and evolve suitable machinery for settlement of disputes thereby ensuring that the producers are not subjected to exploitation and receive remunerative prices.

8. Inadequate storage facilities:

Storage facilities in the rural areas are either totally absent or grossly inadequate. Under such conditions the farmers are compelled to sell their produce immediately after the harvest at the prevailing market prices which are bound to be low. Such distress sale deprives the farmers of their legitimate income.

The Parse Committee estimated the post-harvest losses at 9.3 per cent of which nearly 6.6 per cent occurred due to poor storage conditions alone. Scientific storage is, therefore, very essential to avoid losses and to benefit the farmers and the consumers alike.

At present there are number of agencies engaged in warehousing and storage activities. The Food Corporation of India (F.C.I.), the Central Warehousing Corporation (C.W.C.) and State Warehousing Corporation are among the principal agencies engaged in this task. These agencies help in building up buffer stock, which can be used in the hour of need. The Central Government is also implementing the scheme for establishment of national Grid of Rural Godowns since 1979-80.

This scheme provides storage facilities to the farmers near their fields and in particular to the small and marginal farmers. The Working Group on additional storage facilities in rural areas has recommended a scheme of establishing a network of Rural Storage Centres to serve the economic interests of the farming community.

9. Inadequate transport:

One of the main handicaps with Indian agriculture is the lack of cheap and efficient means of transportation. Even at present there are lakhs of villages which are not well connected with main roads or with market centres.

Most roads in the rural areas are Kutcha (bullock- cart roads) and become useless in the rainy season. Under these circumstances the farmers cannot carry their produce to the main market and are forced to sell it in the local market at low price. Linking each village by metalled road is a gigantic task and it needs huge sums of money to complete this task.

10. Scarcity of capital:

Agriculture is an important industry and like all other industries it also requires capital. The role of capital input is becoming more and more important with the advancement of farm technology. Since the agriculturists' capital is locked up in his lands and stocks, he is obliged to borrow money for stimulating the tempo of agricultural production.

The main suppliers of money to the farmer are the money-lenders, traders and commission agents who charge high rate of interest and purchase the agricultural produce at very low price. All India Rural Credit Survey Committee showed that in 1950-51 the share of money lenders stood at as high as 68.6 per cent of the total rural credit and in 1975-76 their share declined to 43 per cent of the credit needs of the farmers.

This shows that the money lender is losing ground but is still the single largest contributor of agricultural credit. Rural credit scenario has undergone a significant change and institutional agencies such as Central Cooperative Banks, State Cooperative Banks, Commercial Banks, Cooperative Credit Agencies and some Government Agencies are extending loans to farmers on easy terms.

There has been a steady increase in the flow of institutional credit to agriculture

4. Co-operative Movement in India

Definition

The Co-Operative Planning Committee 1946

‘Co-Operative is a form of organization in which persons voluntarily associate together on the basis of equality for the promotion of their common interest’

Elements

- Organization of the poor
- Voluntary
- Sharing common uses

Characteristics

- Organization of the poor
- Membership is voluntary
- Absence of exploitation
- The role of banks
- Subsidies

Objectives

- Timely credit
- No to money lenders
- Credit to all regions
- Special credit to large projects
- Credits for
 - Short term (upto 15 months)
 - Middle term (15 months to 5 years)
 - Long term (more than 5 years)

4.1. History

- There was so much exploitation by the Zamindars
- To stop it there came ‘Cooperative Credit Societies Act-1904’
- To remove the weakness of the ‘Cooperative Credit Societies Act-1904’ there came ‘Cooperative Societies Act-1912’
- 1914-‘Maclagan Committee’ was formed
 - To audit
 - To teach and train the members
 - As the result there was steady progress
- 1945-‘Cooperative Planning Committee’ was formed and the development was better

- 1951-RBI appointed a committee
- 1954-The report of RBI committee was submitted
- The recommendations of RBI committee
 - State government should be a partner in all the coop. Soc.
 - A central committee should be established for cooperatives' training
 - State government is responsible to implement
 - Funding
 - RBI
 - National Agricultural Credit Fund
 - National Agricultural Stability Fund
 - State Agricultural Credit Fund
 - State Cooperative Development Fund
 - State Cooperative Bank
 - Central Cooperative Bank
 - Central Land Mortgage Bank in state level
 - Primary Land Mortgage Bank in lower level
 - Primary Village Credit Societies (about 500 members)

4.2. Principles

- Open membership
- Democratic control
- Equitable distribution of profit
- Equitable utilization of resources

4.3. Legislations planning to cooperatives

1. State Cooperative Societies Acts of individual states
2. Multi-State Cooperative Societies Act, 2002 for the multi-state Cooperative societies with Area of operation in more than one State. A multi-state Cooperative Society means a society registered or deemed to be registered under the Multi-State Cooperative Societies Act, 2002 and includes a national Cooperative society or a Federal Cooperative.

In addition to this few States have enacted parallel progressive cooperative laws, and multi-State cooperatives are regulated by The Central Cooperative Law, namely Multi State Cooperative Societies Act 1984. There are currently about 27 cooperative laws that are in force in different states and union territories.

Cooperative Societies Act is a Central Act. However, 'Cooperative Societies' is a State Subject (Entry 32 of List II of Seventh Schedule to Constitution, i.e. State List). Though the Act is still in force, it has been specifically repealed in almost all the States and those States have their own Cooperative Societies Act. Thus, practically, the Central Act is mainly of academic interest. As per preamble to the Act, the Act is to facilitate formation of cooperative societies for the promotion of thrift and self-help among agriculturists, artisans and persons of limited means.

The Statement of Objects and reasons states as follows – (a) Cooperative Society can be established for purpose of credit, production or distribution. (b) Agricultural credit societies must be with unlimited liability. (c) Unlimited society is not best form of cooperation for agricultural commodities. However, the provision is continued as in several provinces (now States) such societies do exist and are working. It is not intended to give them undue encouragement, but to legalise their existence. (d) Unlimited society can distribute profits with permission of State Government.

4.4. Role and achievements of cooperative

Importance

- Renders financial help to the poor
- Abolishes exploitations
- Encourages mutual help
- Class conflict is avoided
- Abolishes burocracy, aristocracy
- Best suiting for agricultural country
- Best suiting for small scale and cottage industries
- Promotes planned growth of the country

Achievements

- Large amount of loan at low interest
- Cheaper than money lenders
- Sense of saving has taken place
- Promoted self reliance
- Better marketing system has evolved
- Better irrigation system has emerged
- Cottage industries and small producers have gained much
- Promoted moral values
- Promoted education
- Gives political knowledge
- Stopped wasteful expense of the people
- Drinking water, drainage system, hospital have improved

4.5. Problems and limitations of cooperatives

- There is politics in Cooperative Societies (caste, class...)
- Some cooperatives have family members in the board
- Some cooperatives have money lenders as members
- Some cooperatives have big farmers (land lords) as members
- Intervention by bureaucrats, officers of cooperative dept. and cooperative banks etc.

- Non payment of loans
- Could not fully eradicate money lenders
- Does not do much in urban areas
- Does not have much resource
- Savings of the members is very less
- Loans given are not used properly
- Members always look for loans
- Members do not learn to do without loans
- There is no proper management
- There is no proper leadership
- Favoritism prevails
- Self reliance is not possible, they depend always on outside resource
- A lot of overdue is pending
- It has not won the faith of the people
- People regard it as a government agency

4.6. Types of cooperatives

Types of Bank

1. Cooperative credit society
2. Land development Bank
3. Commercial bank of rural finance
4. Regional rural bank

Types

1. Credit co-operative societies
2. Consumer societies
3. Producers societies

Kinds of Societies

1. Agricultural Credit and Multipurpose Societies (1929-30)
2. Farmers Service Societies (1970)
3. Cooperative and Marketing and Processing Societies (facilities, loans, anti-poverty, marketing, seed, manure etc.)
4. Large Scale Agriculture Multipurpose Societies 1970 (for small and marginal farmers, tribal etc.)
5. Milk Supply Societies
6. Sugar Cooperatives

4.7. Role of Cooperatives to develop the poor.

Importance

- Renders financial help to the poor
- Abolishes exploitations
- Encourages mutual help
- Class conflict is avoided
- Abolishes bureaucracy, aristocracy
- Best suiting for agricultural country
- Best suiting for small scale and cottage industries
- Promotes planned growth of the country

5. Development of SC & ST

5.1. Concept

The **Scheduled Castes (SCs)** and **Scheduled Tribes (STs)** are officially designated groups of historically disadvantaged people in India. The terms are recognized in the Constitution of India and the groups are designated in one or other of the categories. For much of the period of British rule in the Indian subcontinent, they were known as the Depressed Classes. The people in scheduled castes are essentially the lowest part of Hindu society.

In modern literature, the *Scheduled Castes* are sometimes referred to as *untouchables*. The term Dalit, meaning "broken/scattered" in Sanskrit and Hindi, is still common having been popularised by B. R. Ambedkar (1891–1956), the economist, reformer, author of the Indian Constitution, and Dalit leader during the independence struggle, himself a Dalit. Ambedkar preferred the term Dalit to Gandhi's term, Harijan, meaning "person of Hari/Vishnu" (or Man of God). In September 2018, the government "issued an advisory to all private satellite channels asking them to 'refrain' from using the nomenclature 'Dalit'", though "rights groups and intellectuals have come out against any shift from 'Dalit' in popular usage".

The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes comprise about 16.6% and 8.6%, respectively, of India's population (according to the 2011 census). The *Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1950* lists 1,108 castes across 29 states in its First Schedule, and the *Constitution (Scheduled Tribes) Order, 1950* lists 744 tribes across 22 states in its First Schedule.

Since the independence of India, the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes were given Reservation status, guaranteeing political representation. The Constitution lays down the general principles of positive discrimination for SCs and STs.

5.2. Constitutional provision

Schedule castes are those who are economically, socially and politically backward classes of people who are kept at a distance by other higher castes. They occupied the bottommost rung of the social ladder. They are generally regarded as Untouchables and popularly known as 'Harijans'.

According to Article 366 (25) of the constitution says that scheduled tribes are the tribes or tribal communities or parts of or groups within such tribes or tribal communities which the Indian president may specify by public notification under Article 342(1). These people survived with

their unchanging ways of life for centuries. They are still in primitive stage and are far from the impact of modern civilization.

The Sc/St population of the country is considered as the weaker section. They constitute roughly 22% of the total population.

5.3. Problems and programmes for their development

- TRYSEM: A minimum of 30% of youth should belong to SC/ST.
- NREP/RLEGP: amongst the landless labour preference should be given to SC and ST for employment. 10% of the resources are earmarked for works of direct and exclusive benefits to SC and ST
- 20 Point Economic Programme (TPEP)—Justice to SC and ST.
- Appointment of a National Commission for the welfare of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes.: to safeguard the interest of SC/ST. the state governments have separate departments to look after the welfare of the Scand ST.
- Educational opportunities: Free coaching, Post-matric scholarship, construction of hostels, financial assistance, providing text books, etc.
- Expansion of employment opportunities and reservation: in order to enhance the economic position of the SC and ST the constitution has provided for the reservation in services.
- Development through Five-Year Plans: the government spent Rs.30 crores, Rs.80 crores, Rs.101 crores, Rs.172 crores and Rs.157 crores on tribal welfare activities during the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th Five-Year Plans respectively.

5.4. Central and state schemes

Constitutional mechanism for upliftment of SC

The deep concern of the framers of the Constitution for the uplift of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes is reflected in the elaborate constitutional mechanism set-up for their uplift.

- Article 17 abolishes Untouchability.
- Article 46 requires the State ‘to promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and, in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, and to protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation.
- Article 335 provides that the claims of the members of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes shall be taken into consideration, consistently with the maintenance of efficiency of administration, in the making of appointments to services and posts in connection with the affairs of the Union or of a State.
- Article 15(4) refers to the special provisions for their advancement.
- Article 16(4A) speaks of ‘reservation in matters of promotion to any class or classes of posts in the services under the State in favour of SCs/STs, which are not adequately represented in the services under the State’.

- Article 338 provides for a National Commission for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes with duties to investigate and monitor all matters relating to safeguards provided for them, to inquire into specific complaints and to participate and advise on the planning process of their socio-economic development etc.
- Article 330 and Article 332 of the Constitution respectively provide for reservation of seats in favor of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes in the House of the People and in the legislative assemblies of the States. Under Part IX relating to the Panchayats and Part IXA of the Constitution relating to the Municipalities, reservation for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in local bodies has been envisaged and provided.

The Constitution of India has prescribed, protection and safeguards for the Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs) and other weaker sections; either specially or the way of insisting on their general rights as citizens; with the object of promoting their educational and economic interests and removing social disabilities. These social groups have also been provided institutionalized commitments through the statutory body, the National Commission of SCs. The Ministry of Social Justice & Empowerment is the nodal Ministry to oversee the interests of the Scheduled Castes.

For more details,



ST

Important constitutional provisions

Several provisions have been incorporated in the Constitution for safeguarding and promoting the interests and rights of the Scheduled Tribes in various spheres so as to enable them to join the national mainstream. An overview of the provisions is as follows.

I.A-Definition and Specification of STs	
Art.	Title
Preamble	
342	Scheduled Tribes
366	Definitions
II.B - Educational, Economic and Public Employment-related Safeguards	
15	Prohibition of discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth
16	Equality of opportunity in matters of public employment
19	Protection of certain rights regarding freedom of speech, etc
46	Promotion of Educational and Economic interests of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other weaker sections
335	Claims of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to services and posts
II.C- Political Safeguards	
330	Reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the House of the People
332	Reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the Legislative Assemblies of the States
334	Reservation of seats and special representation to cease after sixty years
243D	Reservation of seats (in Panchayats)
243T	Reservation of seats
II.D- Agency for monitoring safeguards	
338A	National Commission for Scheduled Tribe

Article 46 of the Constitution provides that the State shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the society and in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation.

Reservation in educational institution has been provided in Article 15(4) while reservation in posts and services has been provided in Article 16(4), 16(4A) and 16(4B) of the Constitution.

Article 23 which prohibits traffic in human beings and beggar and other similar forms of forced labour has a special significance for Scheduled Tribes. In pursuance of this Article, Parliament has enacted the Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act, 1976. Similarly, Article 24 which prohibits employment of Children below the age of 14 years in any factory or mine or in any other hazardous activity is also significant for Scheduled Tribes as a substantial portion of child labour engaged in these jobs belong to Scheduled Tribes.

Article 243D provides reservation of Seats for Scheduled Tribes in Panchayats.

Article 330 provides reservation of seats for Scheduled Tribes in the House of the People.

Article 332 provides reservation of seats for Scheduled Tribes in Legislative Assemblies of the States.

Article 334 provides that reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the Lok Sabha and the State VidhanSabhas (and the representation of the Anglo-Indian Community in the Lok Sabha and the State VidhanSabhas by nomination) would continue up to January, 2020.

Other specific safeguards have been provided in Article 244 read with the provisions contained in Fifth and Sixth Schedule to the Constitution.

Other provisions applicable in specific states

- Article 164(1) provides that in the States of Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh and Odisha there shall be a Minister in charge of tribal welfare who may in addition be in charge of the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and backward classes or any other work.
- Article 371A has special provisions with respect to the State of Nagaland.
- Article 371B has special provisions with respect to the State of Assam.
- Article 371C has special provisions with respect to the State of Manipur.
- Article 371F has special provisions with respect to Sikkim.

5.5. Role of Professional Social Workers and NGOs in the development of SC & ST, Refugees and displaced.

There are three on-going schemes with the Ministry, which are open for participation of Voluntary Organizations and Non-Governmental Organizations.

- Grant-in-aid to Voluntary Organizations working for welfare of Scheduled Tribes (GVWST).
- Educational Complex in low literacy pockets for the development of women in tribal areas (ECLP).
- Vocational Training Centres (VTC).

In addition to above mentioned three schemes the Ministry has an exclusive on-going scheme for Voluntary Organizations/Non-Governmental Organizations for development of Primitive Tribal Groups (PTG).

A brief account of above-mentioned schemes is being given separately for the general information of all concerned in the field of tribal welfare in following pages.

I. SCHEME OF GRANT-IN-AID TO VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS WORKING FOR THE WELFARE OF THE SCHEDULED TRIBES (GVWST)

Objective

The prime objective of the scheme is to provide for an overall improvement and development of the target group. i.e. Scheduled Tribes through voluntary efforts working in the field of Education, Health & Sanitation, Environment, Drinking Water and legal Redressal Services as well as those need based socio-economic upliftment efforts.

Any other relevant activity deemed appropriate and having direct beneficial impact on the target group.

II. SCHEMES OF EDUCATIONAL COMPLEX IN LOW LITERACY POCKETS

The Scheme was introduced in 1993-94 in 136 districts having below 10 percent literacy rate among ST females. It is implemented through:

- (I) Non-Governmental Organizations
- (II) Institutions set up by Government as Autonomous Bodies and
- (III) Registered Co-operative Societies.

Objectives

The primary objective of the Scheme is promotion of education among tribal girls in the identified low literacy districts of the country. The secondary objective of the Scheme is to improve the socio-economic status of the poor and illiterate tribal population.

Coverage

The Scheme covers 136 districts having ST female literacy below 10 percent (as per 1991 census) spread over 14 States namely Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Bihar, Chattisgarh, Gujrat, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, Uttaranchal and west Bengal.

III. VOCATIONAL TRAINING CENTRES

Objective

The need for vocational institution in tribal belts where left wing extremism rising felt for large scale of employment of tribal youth. The extremism is manifestation of frustration and lack of faith in the present development. It is necessary that both State and Central Government should make efforts weaning away the tribal youths from disruptive activities. Hence one of the major efforts is to establish such vocational training institutes for large scale employment of unemployed tribal youths.

• Development of Primitive Tribal Groups

Under this scheme cent per assistance is given to Integrated Tribal Development Projects, Tribal Research Institutes and Non Governmental Organizations for undertaking activities such as generation of awareness, confidence building, training for the skill development of tribal youth organizations of self help groups and provision of services/inputs not covered under any existing schemes for the development and welfare of Primitive Tribal Groups. This is a new scheme launched during the year 1998-99

Attention of NGOs receiving grant-in-aid

In keeping with its mandate, this Ministry supports and assists a number of projects in the field of welfare of the Scheduled Castes, Other Backward Classes etc, which are implemented through various Voluntary Organisations. To ensure transparency and accountability in the release of Grant-in-aid assistance to Voluntary Organisations and their utilization of these funds, the NGO Division of this Ministry has included an information summary in there website.

SCHEMES OF MINISTRY OF SOCIAL JUSTICE & EMPOWERMENT

The Ministry of Social Justice & Empowerment is implementing various schemes/programmes through non-governmental organizations and releases grant in aid to them based upon the inspection reports/recommendations from the States/UTs. (See format of recommendations) The details of such schemes are as follows:-

1. Scheme of Grant in Aid to Voluntary Organisations Working for Scheduled Castes
1. Construction of Hostel Building for SC Boys and Girls.
2. Coaching & Allied Scheme for SC/ST Students.
3. National Schedule Castes & Schedule Tribes Finance & Development Corporation (NSFDC).
4. National SafaiKaramacharis Finance & Development Corporation (NSKFDC).

5. Supporting project of All India Nature of SCs (Research & Training).

The details under some of the above Schemes are as follows:

• **Girls' Hostels for Scheduled Tribes**

The scheme of Girls Hostel aims at construction of hostel for Scheduled Tribe girls. Under this scheme Central Assistance is provided to the States on 50:50 basis and 100% to the UTs. The Scheme is intended to enable ST girls to continue education even though the educational institutions are away from their homes. The cost of constructions is based on the State PWD schedule of rates or local CPWD schedule of rates, whichever is less.

• **Boys' Hostels for Scheduled Tribes**

The scheme of Boy Hostel aims at construction of hostel for Scheduled Tribe boys. Under this scheme Central Assistance is provided to the States on 50:50 basis and 100% to the UTs. The scheme is intended to enable ST boys to continue education even though the educational institutions are away from their homes. The cost of construction is based on the State PWD schedule of rates or local CPWD schedule of rates, whichever is less.

• **Ashram School in Tribal Sub Plan Areas**

The Scheme of Ashram Schools in Tribal Sub-plan areas was launched in 1990-91 with an objective to extend education facilities through residential schools for ST students. The funding under the scheme is done on matching basis i.e. 50:50 for the States and cent per cent for the UTs for the construction of Ashram Schools. The scheme covers primary secondary and senior secondary level of education. Under the scheme teaching material and other facilities are provided by the States and UTs.

• **Grant in Aid to Voluntary Organisations for the Welfare of Scheduled Tribes**

The main purpose behind the scheme of grant in aid to Voluntary organizations for undertaking welfare work programmes for Scheduled Tribes was to improve educational and economic conditions of these communities through voluntary efforts. This scheme is in operation since the year 1953-54. a wide spectrum of activities is covered under this scheme. They include residential schools, hostels, medical units, computer training units, shorthand and typing training units, balwadis, libraries audio-visual units. The grant is generally restricted to 90% of the approved total cost of the project; the balance 10% is borne by the grantee organization. The scheme has been modified during 1999-2000 and the Voluntary Organisation working in Scheduled Areas have been made eligible to receive cent percent grant.

• **Research and Training**

Research and Training- The scheme of Research & Training has following four components:-

- a) Grant to Tribal Research to Institute – Fourteen Tribal Research Institute (TRIs) have been set up by the States of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh and Manipur. These institutes are being used by States and Centre Government for research, evaluation, collection of data training, Seminar workshops, professional input in the preparation of TSP etc.
- b) Award of Research Fellowship in Various aspect of tribal development – Twenty five Research Fellowship are annually awarded to Students/scholars who are registered with the University for working on tribal development programmes/problems. The Ministry of Tribal Affairs meets the Expenditure on cent per cent basis.
- c) Supporting Project of All India or Inter State nature – Under the scheme financial assistance is provided to reputed social science research agencies and universities which have necessary expertise and are willing to undertake the purposeful activities and hold seminars and workshops preferably on socio economic programme undertaken by government bodies.

d) National Institute for Research & Training in Tribal Affairs (NITA) – In order to project a national profile of needs of tribal people and tribal areas it has been decided to set up a National Institute for Research and Training in Tribal Affairs. Other important functions of this Institute would be to impart training to high-level government functionaries and also to undertake seminar/conferences at national or inter national levels. The institute will play a leading role in coordinating tribal research activities at national level.

- SCHEME OF PRE-EXAMINATION COACHING FOR WEAKER SECTIONS BASED ON ECONOMIC CRITERIA www.socioajjustice.nic.in/scd/contentsvol-I.htm
- GRANT IN AID TO VOLUNTARY ORGANISATION WORKING FOR OTHER BACKWARD CLASSES www.socioajjustice.nic.in/scd/contentsvol-II.htm
- GRANT IN AID TO VOLUNTARY ORGANISATION WORKING FOR SCHEDULED CASTES DEVELOPMENT www.socioajjustice.nic.in/scd/contentsvol-II.htm

Schemes for welfare of Scheduled Castes

Promotion of Voluntary Sector- 90% grant-in-aid for activities like education, vocational training support facilities-creches, medical units and balwadis, legal aid, client-services, human rights issues and environment related activities etc. during the year 1999-2000 an amount of Rs 26 crores was released to 376 voluntary organizations to take up the above activities

Scheme of Grant in Aid to Voluntary Organisation working for Scheduled Castes

The Backward Classes are those castes/communities that are notified as socially and educationally Backward Classes by the State Governments or those that may be notified as such by the Central Government from time to time.

The affairs of Backward Classes were looked after by the Backward Classes Cell (BCC) in the Ministry of Homes Affairs prior to 1985. with the creation of a separate Ministry of welfare in 1985 (renamed as Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment on 25.5.1998) the matters relating to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Other Backward Classes (OBCs) and Minorities were transferred to the new Ministry. The Backward Classes Division in the Ministry looks after the policy, planning and implementation of programmes relating to social and economic empowerment of OBCs. It also looks after matters relating to two institutions set up for the welfare of OBCs : National Backward Classes Finance and Development Corporation (NBCFDC) and the National Commission for Backward Classes (NCBC).

2. Assistance of Voluntary Organizations for the Welfare of OBCs

Objective:

The objective of the scheme is to involve the voluntary sector to improve educational and socio-economic conditions of the target group, i.e., Other Backward Classes (OBCs), with a view to upgrade skill to enable them to start income generating activities on their own or get gainful employment in some sector or the other.

Grant-in-aid is sanctioned for the new projects under the new scheme after the information is supplied as per the application form along with the recommendation including reports of the State Government/Union Territory Administration, National Commissions, Tribal Research Institute of the State Government and any other agency so designated by the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment for the purpose.

Role of NGO's in the development of Refugees and displaced.

According to UNHCR global trends report, there are approximately 36.5 million refugees worldwide due to wars and natural disasters (either natural or man-made). A refugee is a person who meets three general criteria, including being outside of their own country without the choice of returning home due to fear of persecution, or due to race, nationality, political opinion, membership of a particular social group or religion (Heptinstall et al., 2004). An asylum seeker is a person who has lodged an asylum claim with the Immigration and Nationality Directorate at the Home Office without a permission to leave the country until office's approval (Heptinstall et al., 2004; Burnett and Peel, 2001). For reasons beyond their control, the lives of refugees are interrupted and they are forced out of the safety of their home and country to become homeless. Poverty also drives families to migrate in search for a better life for themselves and their families. Regardless the reason, refugees and immigrants leave home, family, friends and childhood memories to the unknown with so many variables. Many non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are formed to take care of these disadvantaged individuals under severe circumstances. It is the hard work, knowledge, and dedication of humanitarians that make it possible for the hopeless to survive another day. The number of humanitarian projects and historic military missions is a continuously growing effect due to international instability (Drifmeyer et al., 2003). Most of these non-governmental organizations have a major portion that belongs to the health care, which in turn is run and managed by health care professionals such as physicians, nurses, and many other aides that work tirelessly and willingly in order to make a difference in improving the lives of refugees by preventing diseases and treating the sick.

The history of these non-governmental organizations started in the early 1970s and the greatest global expansion of these organizations occurred during the 1990s when the number of them went from 6,000 to 26,000. In addition, there was a dramatic increase in the number of international NGOs that were supported by the US Agency for International Development; it increased from 18 organizations in 1970 to 195 in 2000 (Pfeiffer et al., 2008). Parallel increase in NGOs inside the United States occurred during the same period to manage an African development effort. Non-state organizations funding originate mostly from large donors such as World Bank and European bilateral agencies and has significantly increased (350% between 1990 and 1999) to match a mounting number of refugees around the world (Pfeiffer et al., 2008). The humanitarian effort of these organizations is invaluable, without a doubt, very beneficial for millions of people worldwide. However it has been reported and it is worth noting that these organizations also have the tendency to lure governmental health workers, especially from third-world countries due to relatively high-paid jobs (5 to 20 times of their original salaries) and resulting in "brain drain" in those countries. This process of employing a small number of bright citizens of a poor country and enriching the lives of only these few individuals and their families leads to health-care management crises paralleled with morale and social problems for the populations left behind (Pfeiffer et al., 2008).

In this report, the role of pharmacists in the humanitarian effort of non- governmental organizations is examined. The hypotheses driving this project is that pharmacists have invaluable role in improving the relief effort by the NGOs on refugee camps pertaining to health care.