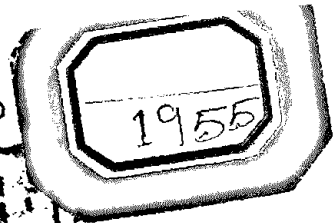
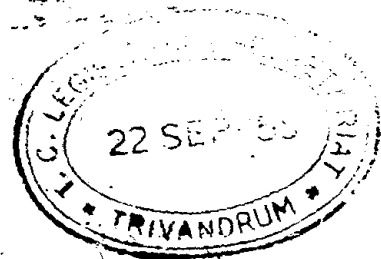


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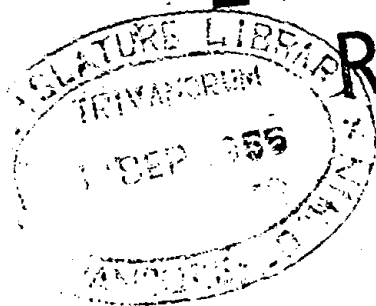


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# EVALUATION REPORT

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ON  
SECOND YEAR'S WORKING  
OF  
COMMUNITY PROJECTS

VOLUME I.

REFERENCE ONLY

APRIL 1955

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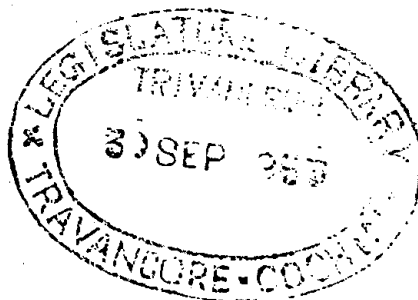
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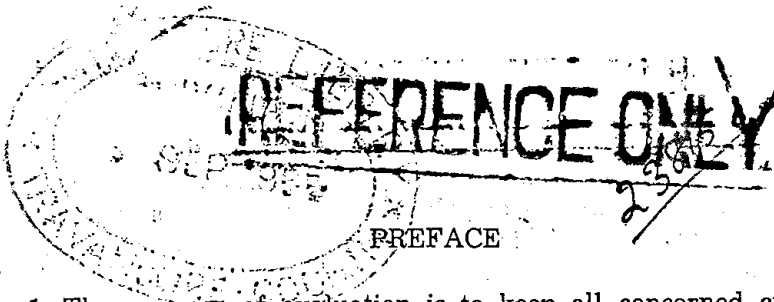
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**CONTENTS**

	<b>PAGES</b>
<b>PREFACE</b>	
<b>Part I: EVALUATION REPORT</b>	
SECTION I Community Projects and National Extension . . . . .	1—30
SECTION II Advisory Bodies . . . . .	30—31
SECTION III Cooperative Institutions . . . . .	31—35
SECTION IV Panchayats and <i>Ad Hoc</i> Bodies . . . . .	35—37
SECTION V Popular Participation . . . . .	37—42
SECTION VI Supplies and Extension . . . . .	42—45
SECTION VII Progress of Expenditure . . . . .	45—47
SECTION VIII Staff . . . . .	47—48
SECTION IX Records and their Use . . . . .	48—51
SECTION X Social Education . . . . .	51—54
SECTION XI Village Crafts and Industries . . . . .	54—56
SECTION XII Transition to National Extension Service . . . . .	57—58
SECTION XIII Extension and Reformation . . . . .	58—60
SECTION XIV Resume . . . . .	60—64
APPENDIX I Progress of Activities during the year . . . . .	65—70
<b>Part II : STATISTICAL NOTES AND TABLES</b>	
A. Composite Tables . . . . .	73—113
B. Preliminary Results of the Bench Mark Survey for Selected Evaluation Blocks . . . . .	114—136
C. A Note on the Impact of Development Programmes among Different Section of the Rural Community. . . . .	136—141



**REFERENCE ONLY.**



PREFACE

1. The purpose of evaluation is to keep all concerned currently informed about the progress of the programmes of Community Projects. The detailed operational and financial reporting on the activities of the several organizations concerned with the direction of this activity is done by the respective administrations as a normal routine. The Evaluation Report is concerned with indicating the broad trends of progress, and to appraise the several tendencies revealed by current experience. For this purpose the Evaluation Organization has to depend primarily on reports of current and special inquiries conducted through its representatives stationed in over twenty places, and on the results of observations and consultations held by its officers with several people in all parts of the country. The tendencies revealed and the remarks made are the result of a collective process of observation and discussion and they are sought to be made as objective as possible.

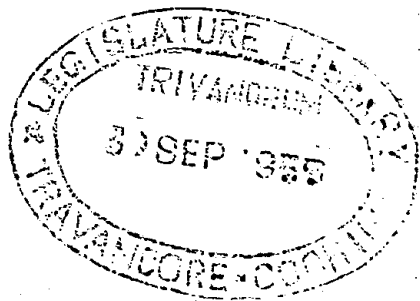
2. In an evaluation based on observed and recorded facts it is to a certain extent inevitable that in some cases reference should be made to particular areas and states. But the purpose is not so much to draw attention to the particular case as to indicate the operation, favourable or otherwise, of certain facts and tendencies in a given set of circumstances. The somewhat detailed reports on individual projects, in Part III, should also be treated as the case studies that they are, and not as representative of the total number of projects for a state. They are so many centres of developmental activity in the country operating under conditions representing different types of circumstances. The collective picture offered in the overall evaluation, in Part I, as also the composite tables given in Part II-A should therefore be received as indicators, rather than as accurate measurements, of the movement of things. Some of the more elaborate studies which have not been directly used in the body of this evaluation report are mentioned in Appendix I, and a conspectus of some basic factual data revealed by the Bench-mark survey is given in tables as Part II-B.

3. The contents of this report should be treated as a continuation of the First Report which was published a year ago. Some features which attracted prominent notice then have later become either a normal experience or have faded out as irrelevant. Reference to such is made in the current report only when it was directly relevant to do so. The Community Projects have stirred the mind of the

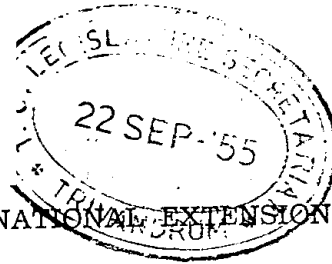
villager, especially the cultivator, more than anything in recent history, and it has made him definitely more hopeful and more progressive. The adjustments of policy and administration on the one hand, and of practices and institutional conduct on the other are the moving things which have to be studied so as to make them more and more effective as instruments of that cultural and material change which it is the objective of the Community Projects movement to achieve. This report concentrates attention on spotting and elucidating those significant features revealed by recent experience.

23815

PART I  
**EVALUATION REPORT**







## COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION

1. The programme of rural development which was initiated in October 1952 as Community Projects was broadened in its application under the name of National Extension. The objectives of both these programmes are, however, the same. One is less intensive than the other in terms of staff as well as expenditure. With the present resources of trained staff and material resource it is considered impracticable to bring all the villages in the country within the scope of the more comprehensive Community Projects scheme for several years to come. In the meanwhile, the needs for planned transformation in the countryside can hardly be ignored by a government which has to depend on the support of all. Thus a combination of a more extensive programme which can be introduced all over the country within a reasonably short period with another more intensive one which may be introduced as resources became available appeared to be most natural.

2. In October 1953, the National Extension Scheme was formally introduced. Care was, however, taken to see that the objectives of the whole programme are reemphasized to avoid any misconception as to the intentions of the Planning Commission and the National Development Council. These objectives are, it may be recalled, four in number. Pride of place is given to a transformation in the outlook of the people, so as to make them desire progress and welcome new knowledge by which to achieve it. Only next in importance was the inculcation of a spirit of self-reliance which would be strong enough to face every situation as it arose with confidence and vigour. The spread of a progressive outlook and of self-reliance among the people for the progress of all, it was expected, will naturally express itself in habits of cooperative action through appropriate popular bodies. Given self-reliant, cooperative action in the pursuit of progress through knowledge, it was expected that the life and living of all—men, women and children—would take on a new enlightenment, strength and hope.

3. When the first Evaluation Report was prepared only one year's experience of Community projects was available. With the passage of one more year, not only is a wider and firmer base of experience made available, but the introduction of the alternative form of national extension has added a new type of influence which is significant in itself, as also in its bearing on the tendencies already noticeable in the older form. The extension type in its pilot form was

available for study even earlier, but the wider and fuller experience of both the forms which has accumulated by now, may be taken to be adequate for an appraisal of methods as well as of probable results. It is only necessary to state again what was made clear in the first evaluation report, that the overall evaluation attempted in this part of the Report is more in the nature of a study of overall and long-term tendencies, than of localized and immediate reactions. Facts and figures bearing on areas where direct and continuous inquiries are made have been presented in Parts II & III. But in the overall evaluation much more that could be obtained by firsthand contact with all levels of participants in the movement for progress has been relied on.

### **Structure of Developmental Administration**

4. At the design stage of the community projects the special and out-of-the-routine character of the programme was specially emphasized. While the contents of the programme were by no means new their incorporation into a major movement sponsored by the Planning Commission and the Union Government was a new feature. While the ideals of the movement, it was felt, would be shared by the whole administration, at the Centre and in the States, the immediate responsibility of ushering it was placed on an organization which was specially set up. The Planning Commission acting as Central Committee and directing the Community Projects Administration was the top piece of this structure. In the States Cabinet Committees, Secretaries' Committees, District and Project Advisory Committees, and a selected band of Officers with the Project Executive Officer at the top and the Grama Sevak (so-called Village Level Worker) at the base were set up.

5. The Project Executive Officers were assisted by subject-matter specialists for all the important items of the programme, and Assistant Project Officers shouldered immediate responsibilities for each of the blocks in the Project area. With minor variations this organization was initiated in most of the States. The District Officer as Chairman of the District Development Committee was expected to help in every possible way. Departmental officers were also expected to assist in their respective spheres. But the emphasis was on popular effort organized under the leadership of a specially selected band of officers receiving cooperation from normal official agencies. While separateness was marked, cooperation did not in all cases flow at the right time and in right measure. The progress of project activities was held up at several points and in a few cases the confidence of the people in the whole scheme was weakening. Fresh thinking on the whole subject of relationships among the several

public agencies concerned with the programme had to be undertaken.

6. It was against this background that the First Evaluation Report concluded that unless the vital question of a suitable administrative structure is satisfactorily settled there can be no assurance that the existing plans of development will be carried out, much less that the new ones can be confidently undertaken. While the need for a firm unification at Cabinet level as also on the level of departmental heads was specially emphasized, the recommendation about drawing in the district Collector much more actively into the whole task of developmental organisation which had been made in the Reports of the Grow More Food Enquiry Committee and the Planning Commission was re-affirmed. At the most crucial point of a bloc or project officer open to members of more than one service would tend to emphasize that sense of corporate action among participants which is a *sine qua non* of any good administration, and especially of a community projects administration.

7. The Village Level Worker or the Grama Sevak was a new concept of a multi-purpose agent of State action at the basic level. Analysing his role and performance it was stated that, "the V.L.W. has no doubt proved his utility. It would of course be wrong to expect that the V.L.W. can with equal confidence discharge all his tasks. He is principally an agricultural extension agent ; other tasks such as health and education can be joined to his duties only as subsidiary. Whereas in respect of his agricultural extension duties the V.L.W. must be expected to act with some measure of professional competence, as regards his other duties he can only act as an informed layman. The V.L.W. will need expert support in all his duties, but very much more in regard to his non-agricultural than agricultural tasks. On the physical level agricultural extension is the most important part of community development programmes and the V.L.W. is expected to be the most effective agent of that process."

8. While all States tried to adopt the patterns of administration which had been outlined in the draft scheme of community projects, almost all of them had begun to realize the need of fitting in the new ideas and functions in the structure of established administration. In view of the fact that rural administration in most States was firmly identified with the revenue administration the first urge at normalization was by the process of integrating the new functions as far as possible into the general or 'revenue' administrative structure. The first Evaluation Report noticing these tendencies recorded as follows. "In some States, e.g., Bombay, definite attempts are being made to integrate revenue and general administration with the developmental staff in project areas. This subject requires a special study by itself. It can, however, be stated from experience

gained hitherto that integration, as distinguished from absorption, will have to take account of functions discharged by all departments, and of the special experience of officers connected with each."

#### Administrative Developments

9. All concerned with administering community projects and national extension have exerted themselves to the full to make as big a success of their programmes as possible. In doing so the special attributes of personality and tradition have been fully emphasized. Even more significant are the differences in interpretation and emphasis which have revealed themselves much more clearly during the second year than in the initial one. It is, however, noteworthy that many of the suggestions made earlier have now been translated into action. The Chief Ministers as heads of State Governments and as members of the National Development Council are taking more direct interest. In several States community projects are in the ministerial charge of the Chief Minister himself. Chief Secretaries have also been made responsible, in some cases as Development Commissioners, for top level direction and coordination. These steps have made for energy, speed and unity.

10. The important suggestion about making the Collector responsible for developmental work in the district has been universally accepted in principle, and is in the process of being fully implemented. Several circumstances have contributed to this end. The recognition that unless the District Officer was behind the organized programme of development it will not attain sufficient momentum with the people was not slow in coming. Moreover, the problem of inter-departmental coordination on a sufficiently responsible level could not be solved except through the mediacy of the Collector. More important than all these were the implications of the policy of decentralization which had to be followed so as to make project development sufficiently quick and elastic. As the Collector's sanction, administrative as well as financial, had to be invoked in a number of cases, he could not well be kept out of the process of making decisions. While there are still some noticeable differences of emphasis and practice, it would not be wrong to say that the Collector is well on the way to becoming the principal developmental and welfare officer of the District.

11. To make the Collector fully and actively responsible for welfare and development, to the extent, say, to which he is now responsible for law and order, or even famine relief, some further hurdles have yet to be crossed. The first, of course, is the relative estimation of developmental functions on the part of the Government itself. The classic interpretation of the new scale of estimate

is to be found in an address delivered by Pandit Govind Ballabh Pant, then Chief Minister of Uttar Pradesh, to a conference of Senior Administrative Officers held in October 1950. "The District Officer", said Shri Pant, "Will no doubt have to keep his eyes on the police and the magistracy, but I want him to make planning and constructive work now his main task, the one thing to which the best of his energy, his intellect and his enthusiasm must be devoted. Everything else must be regarded as secondary. There will be constant communion between the district officers and those in charge of planning at the headquarters and they will be constantly in touch with each other".

12. If the earnestness and relative valuation contained in this directive are steadily brought home to the district officers there is no doubt that all of them will shoulder active and continuous responsibility for developmental tasks, with the same alacrity and success, which characterize their better-known fields of activity. It will be too much to say that such a complete change has actually come over the Collector's routine of responsibilities. Besides the faint and intermittent nature of ministerial appraisal, which obtains in most places, the principal reason for the slow realization in practice of what has now been accepted by all, or almost by all, in theory, is the lack of personnel and of administrative reorganization of the total charge of a Collector. The separation of the judiciary from the executive, and the reduction in duties connected with supply have relieved the Collector of a part of his burdens in some States; on the other hand, developments in land policy have increased the burden in some. If the Collector is to be in fact, and not only in name, the principal Developmental Officer of his district a suitable strengthening and reorganization of his staff will have to be brought about. Taking the Collector's total responsibilities as they stand after introduction of the developmental programme, their distribution among his officers and other staff must be rationally worked out with due regard to the quality and quantity of work involved. It must be specially made clear that in his capacity as head of developmental organization he is expected normally to act through the staff, right down to village level, whose special responsibility it is to assist him in carrying out the developmental programmes. It should be as exceptional for the normal revenue staff below the Collector to be called upon to discharge developmental functions, as it would be for the developmental or extension staff to be called upon to discharge revenue functions.

13. The Collector's direct responsibility for development, his powers of sanction, and his chairmanship of the District Development as also District Officials' Committees, have helped him to ensure

much more of inter-departmental coordination than obtained during the first year. But it will be wrong to believe that the problem of inter-departmental coordination has been solved. Especially on the level of the block, which is the effective unit of action, considerable uncertainty and lack of coordination still obtain with regard to the relations between their superior officers and block level technical officers, and between these latter and the Block Development officer. Full administrative and technical control, full administrative and partial technical control, concurrent administrative and technical control, and only administrative and no technical control are the different varieties of relationship between the Block officer and his other departmental associates. In a few cases even within block areas staff responsible to the project block officer is working alongside of staff which is directly responsible to higher departmental officers. No satisfactory answer has yet been found to the question regarding coordination. From complete absorption by one department to toleration of parallel authorities all variants are being tried out.

14. There is one tendency which, however, is seeking yet to establish itself. In the first evaluation report reference was made to the advantage of appointing to the headship of a block or project officers drawn from more than one department. Actually in a few places officers of the Agricultural Department are serving as Block Development Officers. If success is to be measured by the progress of extension activity the normal record of these officers is creditable. But there are no signs that this practice will secure general acceptance. On the other hand, the practice of appointing officers of the revenue department to executive posts at block and project levels is getting confirmed. In a few States, not content with appointing revenue officers to executive posts of a developmental and extension character, the officers are being given developmental functions along with normal revenue and executive functions. There is every reason why the practice of appointing agricultural officers to the post of block development officers should be more widely followed. Ultimately the Block Development Officer would be the chief extension officer of the block, with agricultural extension as his major responsibility. For present efficiency and future transition it would be best to accustom competent agricultural officers to their wider responsibilities. This would be true of selected officers drawn from other development department as well. As a beginning it would be worthwhile fixing a certain quota of these posts which should go to officers drawn from developmental departments. To a corresponding extent the practice of appointing revenue staff to Block Development Officer's posts should be curtailed, and in any case the practice of attaching block officership as an adjunct to the other duties of revenue officers should be given up as essentially unsuitable.

15. While instances of personalities transcending the limitations of administrative relationships and forms might be treated as exceptional, the normal working of the executive-cum-developmental officer at the project or block level has yielded disappointing, but by no means unexpected results. The fact that the Collector has been made responsible for development, and that National Extension is to be the normal form of rural administration, has been interpreted in a few cases to represent a tacit approval of what are called 'revenue' methods. Thus the practice of securing public contributions in the shape of an unofficial, but no less obligatory, surcharge on land revenue is being freely adopted without feeling much restraint. The issue of tagai, as a formal device to divert public funds as popular contribution is also not unknown. These are only outstanding cases of a normal tendency of revenue officers working in the 'revenue' way unless they are suitably reoriented. Orientation is not an easy or automatic process. Not only a vigorous course of re-education but the creation of new habits are involved. If the revenue staff is charged with extension duties without first ensuring that such a major orientation has taken effect, the results in terms of a real change in the outlook and habits of the people are bound to be disappointing.

16. There has been a noteworthy improvement in the training of Grama Sevaks. Even now, however, there are quite a proportion of Grama Sevaks who are not trained. Of the inadequately trained there are very many more. Even confining attention to the major task of agricultural extension, not many are capable of even a slight adaptation to varying conditions. A fair number are unable to interpret correctly the full contents of the agricultural programme. While a quantitative increase in training establishments and in duration of training is being achieved, duration has not been sufficiently extended and training facilities, including quality of training personnel, have not been sufficiently improved to ensure a uniformly faithful, leave alone a resourceful, compliance with extension duties on the part of the village level workers. This is due to nobody's fault. The pace of expansion of blocks is so high that better quality cannot be ensured. The same applies to selection of trainees. Mature, well-educated and rurally inclined candidates are the first choice. But with increasing number of selections the lowering margins which are reached in all these respects sometimes fall below the limits of minimum efficiency. Development authorities at all levels are aware of these shortcomings and no efforts are being spared to remove them. One important lacuna in training arrangements is the absence of adequate inspection. Responsibilities in this sphere need to be more specifically allotted and the necessary staff arrangements need to be made. In fact the whole subject of training including content, organization, inspection and

evaluation needs comprehensive re-survey at the hands of an expert committee.

17. Second thoughts are apparently emerging in at least a majority of States on the subject of panchayats and village development councils, e.g., vikas mandals. For a time, officers connected with development programmes, apprehensive of the slow and allegedly factious operation of Panchayats, transferred their allegiance to ad hoc councils, mostly as a concession to expediency. It was pointed out in the first evaluation report that such bodies have no element of continuity and internal cohesion, and hence are unsuitable for creating a new and progressive way of life among the people. The truth of these inevitable limitations became more obvious as experience over a longer period was gathered. Moreover, by and large, ad hoc bodies worked well where there were no factions, and at least in some parts it was seen that with growing opportunities for constructive work factions yielded place to more cooperative relations. While it is too early to say that the full realization of the vital importance of popular bodies has begun to be firmly appreciated, it would be wrong to deny that second thoughts have begun to be entertained. In some States at least ad hoc bodies are being replaced by statutory panchayates.

18. An experiment attempted in a few States to appoint social workers of mature experience in responsible executive positions in connection with the community projects and national extension service has a lesson for the future. It cannot be said that in its present form this attempt is an unmixed success. To begin with it has not been tried on a sufficiently large scale to make an assessment really valid. It would be easily admitted that non-officials have a more intimate understanding of the problems of the people and that they tend to be firmer on the idealistic goals of social policy, whereas their official counterparts would often take idealistic declarations of policy with several grains of salt and would even claim, though more guardedly now than before, that some distance between them and the people is actually an advantage. The social workers, after appointment to executive posts, have in some cases failed to identify themselves with the organization in whose responsibility they have accepted a full share. They did not possess the organizational and procedural knowledge which is necessary for success in executive posts. Where the social workers had belonged to a particular political persuasion, they were acting under a special handicap in regard to members of the public not belonging to that persuasion. Old complexes all round take some time to be corrected and even with fellow officials it was with effort that the ex-social workers could establish a proper relationship. If selection



is made from among genuine social workers having a flair for organizational work, and if adequate training in procedures is given to the selected persons, and if those persons, after their appointment to official posts, indentified themselves with the discipline and loyalty of the service there is definite advantage in making appointments to the developmental service from among non-officials of proved merit.

### **Multipurpose Administration—Bombay Model**

19. As was indicated in the first evaluation report Bombay State was inclined, early in the first year of community projects, to pursue a line of integrating the revenue staff with the staff of some of the development departments. When the first steps along this path were taken there was nothing more than general principles and past experience on which to base one's appraisal. Since then more experience has been obtained and it has been possible to study the operation of the new arrangements at first hand. As a case study of an important administrative development the course of evolution of the so-called integrated system in Bombay is of great importance. The older administrative arrangements in many of the "A" States, and in some of the "B" States were comparable to those in Bombay. In their reactions to the new influences initiated by community projects some of these States are casting about for new improvisations. As one of the ways in which the administrative needs of the new social and economic policy are sought to be met the Bombay scheme of reorganization has a wider importance. In view of its significance for the whole scheme of community projects and national extension, and also in view of its influence on the administrative system of other States, a somewhat detailed appraisal of trends in the Bombay system will be justified.

20. Most of the administrative trends described earlier as being operative in the country as a consequence of the initiation of a new pattern of rural development were witnessed in Bombay as well. In respect of decentralization of powers to District Officers, Bombay went a long way to counteract the inconvenience and delays caused by the traditional system of departmental checks and balances. Partly as a result of this process, and partly as an accompaniment to the normal arrangements contemplated under national extension the Collectors began to be made more and more aware of their responsibilities regarding programmes of community development and extension. Progress was made in the sphere of training. All this was more or less in keeping with trends found in the rest of the country. What was noteworthy about Bombay was that they withdrew their fairly strong specialist staff of agricultural assistants

and replaced them by a larger number of Grama Sevaks (multi-purpose Village Level Workers). Later on they replaced even cooperative and revenue officers by a common cadre of multipurpose Grama Sevaks attending to all the three spheres of duty and operating under block and project officers who are also the corresponding revenue officers. These transformations raise basic issues of efficiency of administration and of the success of extension programmes.

21. It is worthwhile recalling a few facts of the normal administration in a Bombay district as it functioned before the introduction of the community project programme in October 1952. As in all others States the Collector-Magistrate was the pivot of the governmental organization in the district. Nothing could happen in the district either in the sphere of State or central government in which he was altogether uninterested. But the extent of his interest depended on the existence of other specialized agencies charged with specific responsibilities. With the multiplication and expansion of such departments, central as well as State, the area of the Collector's direct responsibility was steadily narrowing. During the war and the post-war period of shortages of all kinds and the consequent imposition of 'Controls' these functions were for a time expanded. But with the separation of the judiciary and the suspension of supply activities the Collector became more and more exclusively an executive magistrate and a Collector of revenue. In this latter capacity he was responsible for the recovery not only of land revenue, but of all dues of government. Maintenance of land records, tenancy and other rights and assisting in the recovery of dues of superior holders were also his responsibilities. He was also responsible for making tagai loans, supervising their use and arranging for their recovery. Powers of suspension and remission of land revenue were also vested in him.

22. The traditional leadership of the Collector among all officers in the district has always been undoubted. But the actual extent of the influence which he exercised over them has varied with his own responsibility for their respective spheres of action. Thus at one end is the District and Sessions Judge, who owes primary allegiance to the High Court, and who would sit in judgment over some of the magisterial acts of the Collector. Among superior officers, the District Superintendent of Police is at the other end, being a virtual assistant of the District Magistrate, who for purposes of directing the activities of the police force is its head. The Forest officer also is very much dependent on the Collector's authority for reasons of revenue as well as utilization. The Engineer cannot be said to be subject to the Collector's authority, except in matters like famine and minor irrigation which fall directly in the sphere of the Collector's responsibility. Agriculture, industries, co-operation, education, etc., represent technical service departments:

which for policy direction as well as for implementation have a separate State-level organization.

23. This is a very important distinction. Whereas revenue, police, justice, and ancillary services like construction belong to the sovereign State, welfare and developmental activities are primarily social activities. In their case, private, public and semi-public agencies, operating not through authority but through agreement, not through directives but through conventions, have to co-operate in a somewhat elastic manner. While these sectors of public activity have also a 'Government' organization, its structure is not always parallel to the District Organization. More often than not, the District level officer representing these departments is of a much lower status than the Collector. The normal relationship between officers of these departments and the Collector has been very thin and tenuous. While the Collector, in virtue of his superior position and on account of his own overall responsibilities would always keep an eye on their activities, and while for urgent or emergency purposes he would even order them about, normally he would prefer to deal with them through the superior officers of their own departments who would be more comparable in status.

24. The Sub-Divisional Officer, whether Assistant Collector or Deputy Collector, acted for a group of talukas on behalf of the Collector. The extent of his functions depended on the general or special delegation of the Collector. Though he held a territorial jurisdiction, he did not necessarily stay in his own area, which he visited only as a touring officer. In view of the growing importance of rural administration, as also on account of the increasing pressure of popular opinion from the villages, a steady tendency towards building up sub-division units has been visible. But this has not yet gone far enough to enable one to assume the existence of an internally cohesive charge of a sub-divisional officer. This is true especially in regard to his relations with officers of other departments, the areas under whose charge do not necessarily conform to those of the sub-divisional officer. While a general contact may be maintained as occasion arises, there is nothing in the prescribed major duties of the sub-divisional officer, or in his traditional position, to suggest any authority over, or any leadership among, officers of other departments. The position of the sub-divisional officer in the Bombay model is thus markedly different from that obtaining in, say, the Madras model.

25. The Mamlatdar (Tahsildar) in charge of a taluka is the executive officer *par excellence* of the general revenue and administrative organization. It is not without justification that he is described as the principal non-commissioned officer of the service. He has to prepare the groundwork for the orders of the

sub-divisional officer and the Collector, and to carry them out when they are issued. His duties include the Annewari, or the making of the revenue demand, taking into account the condition of crops. The brunt of the work of collection of land revenue and other Government dues, or of dues which under specific laws are to be collected as land revenue, falls on him. The Mamlatdar has been given enough coercive powers to enable him to carry out this responsibility. There can be no doubt that in the minds of the villagers the Mamlatdar, more than any other officer of Government, represents the coercive authority of the civil Government. He is the executive magistrate of the taluka. As such he has to keep an eye on all happenings in the taluka, including political happenings. He is also in charge of the sub-Jail.

26. The Mamlatdar's functions touch the financial and property rights of villagers at several vital points. From receipt of applications for tagai to its recovery the Mamlatdar's responsibility is more direct and real than that of any other officer. The Mamlatdar is primarily responsible for the administration of the Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act. Execution of decrees, disposal of assistance suits, enquiry into disputed cases of record of rights are the Mamlatdar's responsibilities. The Mamlatdar is expected to help officers of other departments in the execution of their duties. While, therefore, officers of all departments in a Taluka can be said to form a group, it cannot be asserted that the Mamlatdar exercises any leadership, much less an authority, over officers of other departments. In the procurement levies and grow more food campaigns the Mamlatdar had to play an active part. He is an Ex-officio Vice-Chairman of the Taluka Development Board, which was connected with the G.M.F., and of the Taluka Development Association, a body registered as a co-operative society and concerned with the general agricultural development of the Taluka.

27. In order to assist the Mamlatdar in exercising proper supervision over the village officers and to make local inquiries of every kind promptly, Circle Officers in the grade of Aval Karkurns, and Circle Inspectors in the grade of Karurns are appointed. There are generally two circle officers and two circle inspectors in each taluka. Their duties relate to:

- (1) Boundary mark inspection, inspection of crops including the estimating of their 'annewari', inspection of tagai works, and detection of illegal occupation of land;
- (2) Preparation of agricultural and other statistical returns, viz., crop statistics, cattle census, and water supply;

- (3) Supervision of the village officers in the preparation and maintenance of the record of rights, the mutation register and the tenancy register;
- (4) Examination of the Rayat's receipt books and supervision of the revenue collection;
- (5) Such other miscellaneous work as the Mamlatdar may from time to time entrust them with, e.g., enquiry into an alleged encroachment.

28. Thus the circle staff of the revenue department is an integral and operative part of the machinery of Government in all its aspects represented by the Mamlatdar, and especially in aspects connected with maintenance of property rights and collection of state dues. The village staff to be supervised by the circle staff consists mainly of the Patel and Talati (Patwari). The Patel has both revenue and 'police' functions, though in some villages these two sets of duties are discharged by two separate incumbents. The Patel normally acts through the Talati, who is the most active and important among village officials. His main duties, to be discharged for more than one village if the villages are small, are: (1) to maintain village accounts relating to land revenue, the record of rights and all other prescribed village forms; (2) to inspect crops and boundary marks, and to prepare agricultural statistics, which included levy lists, when they had a use; (3) to do the clerical work of the police patel, if he is illiterate; and (4) procurement of food grains as per levy, when this was prescribed by law. The Talati represents to the average villager the general authority of Government and his association with property rights and Government dues is firmly impressed on all.

29. For the administration of functions connected with co-operation and agriculture, Co-operative inspectors and agricultural Assistants, operating under their respective district officers, are appointed in each Taluka. The District Agricultural Officer has a number of assistant agricultural officers. Below them there are several agricultural assistants in each Taluka. Duties of the agricultural staff include: (a) demonstration; (b) crop protection; (c) supervision of crop-cutting experiments; (d) submission of season and crop reports; and (e) working of grow more food schemes. The agricultural assistants were responsible for helping with all these in their respective circles and especially with extension work, and demonstrations on the owner's fields. Management of seed depots and of distribution of fertilizers through Co-operatives were also looked after by the agricultural staff. Research farms were located in districts and the Agricultural Assistants kept in touch with them. Special organizations,

e.g., that of the Soil Conservation Officer, had their own staff which was spread out more thinly over a Taluka, than the general staff of agricultural assistants.

30. Co-operation is also very widely organized. A district has three officers, an Assistant Registrar, a District Co-operative Officer, and a District Officer in charge of village industries. While the Assistant Registrar who is a Class II officer is in overall charge of the district the District Co-operative Officer is in special charge of rural co-operation, other than industrial, which is looked after by the special officer appointed for the purpose. The District Co-operative Officer has an Assistant who is specially interested in agricultural credit, multipurpose societies, and other primary institutions. The main responsibility of the supervision staff, which is also answerable to a District Supervision Committee, consists in detailed supervision over the working of all societies. They are expected to supervise every society at frequent intervals, to render assistance in the preparation of normal credit statements and assets registers and in arranging crop finance. On an average every Taluka has one Co-operative supervisor, who also acts as secretary of the Taluka supervising Union.

31. Taking revenue, agriculture and co-operation together this is the picture of a highly developed form of welfare administration which by quantity and quality should inspire confidence in its actual and potential usefulness.

32. When the Community Projects were introduced the structure of rural administration as described above remained unchanged over the whole State, except the few groups of villages which were transformed into project areas. In these areas the normal administration for departments other than those connected with the development programme continued as before. The Collector as head of the district administration presided over the meetings of the District Development Committee and kept a friendly eye on the progress of project activities. The direction of these activities was placed in the hands of an Executive Officer drawn from the revenue service who, however, had no functions other than those connected with the development programme. He had an Assistant, who as a matter of policy was chosen from among the ranks of social workers. In one area where the Executive Officer was himself chosen from among social workers, the Assistant was drawn from the revenue service.

33. The Project Executive Officer had the assistance and co-operation of 'subject matter' officers from the Public Works, Agriculture, Veterinary, Co-operative, Medical and Education departments. While those of the officers who were exclusively seconded

for service with the project acted under the administrative control of the executive officer, co-ordination with higher officers and with staff of other departments was secured through the Collector. The Agricultural Assistants who were doing extension work before the introduction of community projects were replaced by the new type of multipurpose village level workers who had to be trained to do their duties as per community projects programme. The newly installed Grama Sevaks discharged several duties connected with extension, e.g., distribution of seed, tagai etc., some of which were discharged earlier by the revenue staff. Making the Project Organization as self-contained as possible and freeing it from too much of higher control were steps in conformity with the expressed intentions of the Community Projects programme.

34. The introduction of National Extension Service in October 1953 was the occasion to move further towards substituting the specialist by the multipurpose principle. While the older community projects are still maintained as described above, in conformity with the original ideas about staffing contained in the scheme the declared intention now is gradually to introduce the new system all over the State. In the National Extension Service and Community Development blocks started in October 1953, and thereafter trained Grama Sevaks have been appointed to do revenue as well as extension duties at the level of group of villages. These Grama Sevaks were formerly either Agricultural Assistants or Co-operative Supervisors. In future also the staff of the Revenue, Agriculture and Co-operative Departments is to be pooled and given training in revenue as well as extension matters. Thus the circle staff of the revenue department and agricultural assistants and Co-operative supervisors will be 'integrated', trained and later appointed as Grama Sevaks in N.E.S. and C.P. blocks.

35. This policy of integration will gradually replace the Circle staff of Revenue, Agricultural Assistants of Agriculture, and Co-operative supervisors of Co-operative departments by the multipurpose Grama Sevaks throughout the State. This cadre of Grama Sevaks will be part of the normal establishment of the Collector. Grama Sevaks in this cadre will not normally have a claim to promotion in their parent departments, but instead they will be held eligible for promotion to higher posts of the three departments within Community Project and N.E.S. areas provided they possess the necessary qualifications and training. Considering that the Collector is now directly responsible for development, that the Sub Divisional Officer and Mamlatdar are, in addition to their normal duties, Project and Block Development Officers, and that in due course the whole State is to be covered by the new system,

the conclusion is inescapable that the field organization and implementation of programmes of rural development will be guided and controlled by the revenue department with the assistance of staff of other departments which is subject to its own control. Such a concentration of functions technical as well as administrative with the revenue officers inevitably tends to restrict the contact and the responsibility of higher staff of technical departments in respect of the actual administration and use of their services by the people

36. Side by side with this absorption of other development departments with revenue at the basic levels, it appears that another 'integration' is also proceeding. Bombay in common with most other States had the traditional hierarchy of rural self-governing institutions: panchayat at the base, a Taluka Local Board and a District Local Board. The history of these institutions is well-known. While emphasis on village panchayats has been steadily kept up, the District Local Boards have fallen into disregard, first on account of the Collector having ceased to be the chairman, and later on account of the setting up of an alternative organization called the Rural Development Board. Whereas the District Local Board represents the fundamental idea of democratic self-rule of and by the people of each area in respect of matters concerning themselves, the Rural Development Board represents the idea of State officers managing local affairs in consultation with some popular spokesmen. One is a purely democratic idea; the other is a bureaucratic concept tempered by popular association.

37. This difference has always been clear from the very inception of development boards. When during the period of the Second World War, the legislatures ceased to function on account of the Quit India movement, a purely *ad hoc* organization to enable the Section 93 Government to call into consultation some representatives of the people, and some constructive workers was thought of. This was the State Rural Development Board with corresponding bodies at lower levels. On the restoration of normal constitutional Governments in the States these bodies would ordinarily have been discontinued. But mostly on account of continuance of many of the problems regarding supplies, including food supplies, these bodies, and similar ones, were kept on. Now that all justification for the continuance is over steps are gradually being taken to reduce their number. The State Rural Development Board has already been abolished. Several of the minor *ad hoc* advisory committees at the district level have been merged into the District Rural Development Board.

38. But the District body is itself an *ad hoc* body. It is not a statutory body, nor is it a representative or a popular institution.



It cannot, therefore, function as a higher organizational centre for popular bodies at lower levels like the Co-operatively constituted Taluka Development Associations or the village panchayat. Bombay legislation on panchayats is a very advanced one, and while it is obligatory on Government to set up a panchayat only if the population of a village is 2,000 or more, there are provisions by which practically all decent sized villages or groups of villages can have a panchayat of their own. The schedule of duties, obligatory and optional, of the panchayats is so prepared that practically all aspects of rural life and development are covered. Between themselves the panchayats and the local boards exhaust all the field that is appropriate for rural welfare and development on a popular basis. The Development Board is, however, an *ad hoc* body without any roots and any popular authority.

#### Pause for Assessment

39. The administrative changes and adaptations that have been made under the impact of community projects and national extension vary from State to State. But the main outlines of these reactions are more or less common. In certain respects Bombay has taken things a little further than others. Altogether the time has arrived when the implications of these tendencies should be clearly analysed in the interest of the future success of these schemes introduced with so much enthusiasm, hope and support. It should be acknowledged without reserve that all concerned, from the Grama Sevak to the highest ministerial levels, are trying their best to carry out loyally and zealously the best purposes of the programme. Considerable initiative, energy and skill have been shown in facing up to difficulties, and in many cases impressive physical results have been produced. There is some risk, however, of field staff again relapsing, in spite of exhortations to the contrary, into a onesided and excessive concentration on demonstrable results. A periodic reappraisal of ideology, programmes and organization should, therefore, serve a useful purpose.

40. The most basic question of which it is more easy to lose sight in a democratic than in a bureaucratic form of Government is in regard to the popular character of the programme of community development. In a bureaucratic form of Government the distinction between popular and official is clear, and it is easy to say that anything which the people have not willed, have not planned, have not directed and have not voluntarily carried out is not popular. The bureaucratic and semi-bureaucratic schemes of rural development had no elements of vitality, dynamism and

creativeness in them for the basic reason that they were not popular in these respects. It is the realization of this truth that presumably marked the beginning of the community projects in their present form. For some time this realization seemed to be quite vivid. But as the principle of popular action was occasionally seen to work haltingly and sluggishly a reaction in favour of official drive seemed to have set in in some quarters.

41. It is exactly at this stage that the special implications of official action in a democracy begin by degrees to reveal themselves. It was only natural to expect that if executive officers are judged exclusively, or principally, by accomplishments of physical targets they should be led on almost imperceptibly to adopt the several items of the programme as their tasks and use their familiar methods to discharge them. Such developments did take place, but these could not have continued long without correction from Government, had not the Ministers concerned also been at least tacitly drawn into the decisions. Here it is difficult to make any statement which will cover all cases. But a very typical case is that of a minister who frankly shoulders responsibility for the acts of his officials, but states that if the people are sick and do not voluntarily take the medicine that is good for them, all methods short of violent coercion, which would carry the medicine to them and bring about a cure are justified both because of the responsibility of the ministers, and because of their character as people's constituted representatives.

42. The prevalence of these views was by no means confined to States where they were so specifically avowed. It is undeniable that for functions judged to be appropriate for a particular level of administration the corresponding governing authorities must act. In desperate cases it is equally true that to save a higher purpose, a lower purpose must be sacrificed. It is exactly here that in recent months some need seems to have arisen to reaffirm what appeared to be a clear judgment at the commencement of community projects. The Planning Commission's report stated in unequivocal terms that the lesson of past experience in the sphere of rural development points to the futility of super-imposed programmes of rural development. In other words the diagnosis on which community projects were based was that the lack of initiative and responsibility on the part of the people was the ailment, and the remedy prescribed was to activate the people by their own desire for progress to organize a Co-operative programme of community reformation.

43. The supreme consideration by which the success of community projects and allied programmes should be judged is the

extent to which they are programmes in the making and execution of which the concerned people have themselves contributed. At all stages it is the proper role of officials, and even of non-official outsiders, to assist people by supplying knowledge, materials and techniques to arrive at the most favourable decisions. But the programme has to be popular, with officials participating, not the other way round, an official programme in which the people are exhorted to participate, and in a few cases, are almost dragged in. The transition from a line indicated by old frustrations to one which will lead to new ones is yet not crossed. But, in at least a few places, it is about to be crossed, and the sooner leaders pause to appraise the likely significance of their acts the better for the future of community projects.

44. The arrangements made for the training of Block Development Officers are only a small palliative of an evil which though at present only inceptant is organic, viz., that of non-specialized coercive agency trying to build up a programme which should be based on the value of popular initiative, progressive outlook and community action. A few illustrations will suffice. Achievements such as digging of pits and making of roads tend in places to be command performances if the revenue staff are guiding and organizing it. Things like people's contribution can be collected as an additional cess on land-revenue, though it is easily made to appear as a voluntary request for collection along with land revenue. Tagai is distributed to people nominally and recovered as their contribution to community works, like wells, for which the remainder is directly contributed by the State as a subsidy. Whatever the future readjustments of the administrative system in the mofussil may be, it is quite clear that in Bombay below the level of the Collector, and in States where the sub-collectors hold an almost independent territorial charge, below the level of sub-collector, the programme of development must be kept in the hands of officers who do not possess any coercive powers.

45. The conclusion is emphasized by the experience of all the projects where block or project officers, devoid of revenue or magisterial authority, had a good idea of what they were out to achieve and where they obtained legitimate support from other branches of Government. They were received well by the people, who had begun to develop a sense of confidence in their leadership, and through them indirectly in the democratic aspirations of the State itself. But excessive emphasis at lower official levels on physical targets, rapid multiplication of blocks and a misunderstanding about the new role of the Collector—which is that of the Chief Development and Welfare Officer, not that of the captain of the revenue and magisterial team put into developmental action—

have in some places checked this healthy progress. The Block Development Officer, drawn from whatever service, has a legitimate role to play. The Mamlatdar or the Tahashildar on his side has his own role to play, though with changing conditions there would come suitable changes in the area and functions covered by him.

46. While it is legitimate to hope that at no distant future the revenue collecting and coercive bias of the general administration will vanish, it is not helping in the realization of this hope, prematurely to put developmental functions on that administration. Equally well, while local bodies like panchayats may in due course discharge all the functions that the revenue staff in villages is now expected to discharge, it would be wrong to disestablish the revenue and magisterial structure without giving time to popular bodies to cast their roots and to develop some experience. It is for this reason that it is always considered desirable to confer revenue, magisterial and judicial powers on local bodies by gradual but progressive stages, and to provide at each stage sufficient internal safeguards to insure the community against the risks of inefficient or biased administration. Progress towards reallocation of functions between local bodies and the State Government will naturally proceed in different States at a varying pace. As the functions now discharged by what is known as the revenue or general administration staff of the State governments are passed on to local bodies, their staff will appropriately take over the corresponding administrative responsibility. The local staff will also be drawn more and more into developmental functions. The interests and the controls will be eventually unified in the hands of the local body.

47. While the need for coordination among all departments is increasingly realized enough has not yet been achieved by way of effectively meeting the need. Personal achievements both among officers and at higher levels in smoothening the path of coordination are many. But in most cases the departmental heads do not feel fully satisfied. For instance, while agricultural extension accounts for a large portion of the programme of rural reconstruction the higher officers of the agricultural department do not feel that they have an adequate share of authority and responsibility for actively guiding the formulation and administration of the programme in the field. It is not only for the purpose of popularizing a pre-determined schedule of reforms that extension activity is needed. Making local and individual adaptations and correlating research with urgent problems arising in the field are vital steps in the operation of an extension service. Unless full technical control of field operations is vested in officers belonging to the respective

departments, leaving enough administrative powers with the block officer to ensure co-ordination among officers of different departments in charge of operations within the block, they will not feel sufficiently responsible and free to play their appropriate role. In substance this position holds good in regard to all departments whose work impinges upon the programme of development to be administered by the Block Development Officer. Administrative arrangements should be such as will ensure the maximum of technical competence with the least harm to the needs of coordination. Some further progress to achieve this goal has yet to be made.

48. It must be admitted that the 'multipurpose' idea has somewhat undermined the regard due to specialized competence. While at certain stages of the evolution of a system of public administration a combination of functions is appropriate, both on account of the quality of work involved, and of the availability of differentiated skills, normal progress is towards expansion and specialization. Thus in many States, where developmental departments were being newly organized supervision of panchayats and co-operatives was the responsibility of the same set of officers. This may have to be acquired in for some time in some places. But here again, as in the case of the multipurpose worker, if the combined job pattern was to be prescribed as a model, or was to be the one recognized for calculating central assistance, the cause of efficient and progressive administration will be retarded, and new inter-departmental problems will crop up. While ensuing coordination in developmental policy and plans at all levels the normal working of all departments through their own organization and staff should be encouraged. It is in this way that all departments will be geared to a developmental plan, not by bringing them under a common 'development' or 'general' control.

### **Trends in Bombay**

49. As Bombay seems to have carried the multipurpose idea, or mixing of jobs, further than others some trends noticed in Bombay may have general significance. As a rule the Collector in Bombay is a person who is capable of assuming leadership and inspiring confidence almost independently of his official powers. This has helped him not only to keep together the group of his official colleagues, but also to assume a direct—almost a personal—role towards the people and their organizations. This is as it should be, and it is in this confidence that the Collector's direct responsibility for developing is now being emphasized. The Collectors are receiving the unstinted cooperation of their own and other departmental staff at all levels, and the many problems which arise are

being faced in a realistic fashion. The decentralization of authority, administrative as well as financial, which is a striking feature of the Bombay system has helped in making the development programme a live one. An emphasis on activating popular initiative through popular institutions, and on drawing in other departments as equal and responsible participants deserves to be sustained among Collectors, even by making special efforts to that end.

50. In view of the fact that the sub-divisional or Prant Officer, has been made project officer in some cases it is necessary to state that the case in favour of this development will depend on two factors. As was indicated earlier, the building up of territorial sub-divisional units is a reform which deserves early attention. Round the sub-divisional officer, a number of corresponding officers of other departments would then normally cluster. There would be the usual centres of official and non-official activity converging on this unit. If such a development is actively promoted and if the sub-divisional officer is by training, background and individual capacity comparable to a Collector, he would without insuperable difficulty assume a similar responsibility. Apart from the effort at administrative reorganization involved in this, there is need to have a specific programme of orientation for all the staff connected with administration in rural areas—not only of the revenue but of all departments—in the basic moral and social values of the schemes of community development. The whole fabric of democracy and welfare state is based on some essential moral and social values. Except in situations where the very existence and freedom of the state are in danger, all other considerations must be held to be subordinate to the principle of preserving and promoting self-rule. How to administer their respective duties with efficiency as well as with due regard to these values is a problem in the solution of which officers old and new would need considerable enlightenment and advice. The high-minded leaders of the people, with the help of such others as they feel are worthy of their confidence, should organize systematic courses to enhance the usefulness of the services to discharge their new tasks. This need for orientation is quite distinct from the routine need for training. This, of course, is true for all States. In Bombay, which is already accustomed to occasional conferences of this type, such a course would immediately strengthen the many other favourable factors which have already been attended to.

51. It seems necessary to state that not only for the present, but practically for all time, the roles of the Mamlatdar and of Block Development or Extension Officers must be kept separate. The Mamlatdar in common with other rural officers must indeed have a

developmental bias, and he would carry out his traditional role of assisting all other departments as much as he can. But his functions as a magistrate and as a revenue officer are by themselves so specialized and voluminous that he would not really be able to attend to developmental functions with the requisite degree of continuity and concentration. Even if he were to try and do so, he would not be the best person to do it. The Mamlatdar is the 'Executive' *par excellence*. Promotion of group thinking and voluntary group action is not his forte. Even if at some distant future duties in regard to land reform, tenancy and land revenue lose their urgent and dominant importance, the duties of executive magistracy would remain. These may then be exercised by the Mamlatdar over an appropriate territorial charge. In any case this is not an early prospect.

52. Coming now to the circle staff of the revenue department their duties in connection with government dues, tenancy and the general administration, some of which are detailed earlier, would call for a concentration of effort which would not be consistent with an almost equal concentration needed for other jobs which it is now proposed to put on them. Enough of the working of the new system is by now known to indicate the emergence of some tendencies. The all engrossing character of 'revenue' duties proves too compelling and the Grama Sevaks tend for the most part to concentrate on them. This is bad enough for the agricultural and other extension effort, and also for the very responsible duties connected with cooperative supervision. But even for the quality of the revenue work turned out the 'multipurpose' incumbent does not by any means produce satisfactory results. Difficulties arise and they are no doubt put right. But in view of the growing complexity of land and tenancy duties it would be best to keep the circle staff to their own appropriate duties. Probably, it was the bringing in of Mamlatdar, which almost as a corollary brought in the circle staff. The main proposition itself about the Mamlatdars is of unproved validity, and hence it should be easier to allow the circle staff to concentrate on their general and revenue duties as hitherto prescribed.

53. Almost by logical compulsion the institution of multipurpose Grama Sevaks brought in the Talatis (Patwaris) as their effective assistants in villages. This is a natural and recognized development. It really puts the finishing stroke on the transformed picture where development, extension and organization of voluntary effort cease to be anybody's special responsibility, and merely by merging the two jobs of agriculture and cooperation with that of the circle staff extension programme is sought to be routinized. In spite of

the fact that at the higher rung of the block special officers to help in extension are appointed, this development would write 'finis' to all hopes of effective extension and free community action, on the village level, where extension will become one more among the already too numerous tasks of the talati. The talati, the circle staff and the Mamlatdar are important public functionaries for their own important duties. It does no good either to their traditional roles or to the new ones that are put on them to mix their tasks and responsibilities with those of agricultural assistance and cooperative supervision. The talati would no doubt like the new opportunities to be useful to the villagers, but he would most probably not be useful in the way in which the development planners want him to be.

54. Basically the same reasoning holds good with regard to duties connected with agricultural assistants and cooperative supervisors. The agricultural assistants have not made to deliver ready packets either of advice, information or supplies. A lively knowledge about the problems of almost each cultivator and a continuous contact with higher sources of technical knowledge are necessary. No amount of initial multipurpose training or later physical relief will compensate for the loss of efficiency sustained by lack of concentration and of effective and continuous contact with superior technical advice. The duties of the cooperative supervisor are indeed so important for the soundness of the whole structure of rural co-operation, that anything that makes for a non-specialized and occasional responsibility is fraught with the greatest danger to the movement. Even the present arrangements of cooperative supervision are by no means adequate, and the whole subject of providing for adequate and competent supervision is under consideration for some time. Further progress must be along lines of strengthening the supervision staff and bringing more professional competence to them. A weakening of quality and concentration at this stage would prove disastrous, especially as a major step forward in promoting comprehensive credit for national extension through co-operative agency is now in the offing.

55. For a developed and administratively progressive state like Bombay the proper course would be to go ahead with strengthening the specialist staff in keeping with increased burdens. The 'multipurpose' device would be unsuitable at the stage of administrative development which Bombay has already reached. What is important in the community projects and national extension service is that *additional staff*—not necessarily multipurpose—should be appointed to carry out a more systematic and extensive programme of rural development. Mixing up *existing staff* to do 'multipurpose' duties is not a compulsion, not even a suggestion, of the community project or



national extension scheme. Tenancy and land reforms, cooperative expansion and agricultural extension are all important items of the planned scheme of rural development. A strengthening of the quality as well as the quantity of staff dealing with these would appear to be a desirable step. How much would be contributed to this end by an internal reorganization, and how much by fresh addition of staff is a matter which only a more detailed inquiry can settle.

56. Some of the deeper implications of the scheme of 'integrated' Grama Sevak service deserve timely attention. As far as can be gathered at present recruitment to the three basic services, revenue, agricultural and cooperative, will be made through their respective departments. As, however, the purpose of these services will soon conform to the rural pattern in the whole State the extension authorities as users of the services of entrants to all the three departments will be entitled to have a say at recruitment. During training the development authorities will naturally assume charge. While the multipurpose staff is employed in the blocks—soon the whole state will be parcelled into blocks—it will be under the control of development officers. Promotions within the area—i.e., again very soon all over the state—to higher places in the three departments will be made among other things on the basis of their performance. This performance will be judged mostly by those under whom they work, i.e., by Development authorities. Thus the entire field staff upto the block level of the three departments, at recruitment, training, service and promotion, will pass under the control of the Development that is revenue department officers. The admission of the multipurpose notion in a form and at a stage for which it is not appropriate will thus upset departmental balance, and will affect the quality of service all round. The recommendation made by the C.P.A. that selected Village Level Workers should be capable of promotion to one of the subject-matter posts within the block, only meant that a successful Village Level Worker after further training could be made an agricultural assistant, or a cooperative supervisor. In effect he was to be eligible for recruitment to these departmental services at their lowest rung from which he would take his normal chance of further promotion. But where the lowest rung of all the three is merged into one, further promotion even within the block impinges upon the specialist and self-contained character of each department. The very principle of departmental organization would then have to be reviewed.

57. Most important of all is the need to bring the panchayats and other statutory local bodies into their own. The panchayat legislation in Bombay is among the most progressive. In all parts of the state there is a good tradition of local autonomy, local leadership and local initiative. More vigorous and sustained efforts to make

panchayats increasingly responsible for all items of general administration and of national extension would lead to a fulfilment of democracy as well as of community development. The plan of setting up *ad hoc* farmers' unions in villages, which would undermine all the beneficent purpose of panchayat and cooperative organisations is now reported to have been held in abeyance. This should in no case be pursued except perhaps as a prelude to the formation of a statutory panchayat. What the villagers cannot achieve for themselves by unaided action of their own panchayats, can be achieved as far as possible through the action of the higher local bodies upto the District Board. There are legitimate possibilities of the executive and technical staff of these bodies being used for the genuine purposes of community development and national extension. Advanced states like Bombay can be legitimately expected to give a further lead in carrying development projects more nearly to the people, than is perhaps possible in areas where the habit of organized popular action and the promulgation of progressive developmental policies are of more recent origin.

#### **Prospects**

58. In view of the many stresses and strains from which the community and extension programmes are at present suffering it would be desirable to regulate the pace of immediate expansion a little more cautiously. In spite of the fact that the central organization has frequently explained to the States that in matters of budget as well as of organization the maximum possible latitude will be left to the States, several among them seem to have placed too great a reliance on published proformas. The result has been a somewhat artificial and laboured attempt on the part of these state governments to twist their normal organization to fit in with what are incorrectly interpreted as central directives. A further definite and strong lead in favour of leaving greater freedom to state governments regarding areas, population, content of programme and organization appears to be necessary if the programmes are to be pursued in an atmosphere of natural and free action on the part of States.

59. The dilution of C.P. programmes, the formulation of National Extension Service and the adoption of a scheme of rapid multiplication of N.E.S. were adopted not so much on the strength of satisfaction with existing and prospective forms, and with their content and organization, but were pursued more under pressure of a type of popular demand for quicker progress. The public dissatisfaction at being excluded from what may be described as privileged areas, *e.g.*, the C.P. and N.E.S. blocks, can be easily understood. The most legitimate way of meeting this demand would be educating the electorate in the merits of a scheme of only gradually multiplying units of intensive and comprehensive programmes of community development. This was a deliberate decision taken by the Planning

Commission and the Government of India on the strength of earlier experience, culminating in the findings of the Grow More Food Committee's report. Nothing has happened since then to lead to a weakening of faith in the superiority, in fact the indispensability, of the intensive and comprehensive scheme of development introduced in community projects. Given this faith the usual means of political education should be trusted to carry the lesson to the whole nation, and for the rest the activities of the normal developmental departments should be intensified all over the place as far as resources would permit.

60. In effect, as stated earlier, this is exactly what is now tending to happen in all blocks. Instead of the intensive type of development promoted through a well-equipped and well-supplied organization, a diluted version which will in large part depend on the existing operations of departments is to be rapidly spread all over the country. The people at large will not gain much by this formal achievement of a welfare state. In the process of achieving a wide organizational coverage the chief merit of the intensive, comprehensive and democratic scheme, which the community projects undoubtedly were proving to be during the first year of their existence, is in danger of being lost. An emphasis on organizational compliance, and official responsibility is threatening to turn a state-induced popular movement of rural regeneration into an official programme of tasks in which the people are asked to participate. In their comprehensiveness and their emphasis on popular action the difference between C.P. and N.E.S. is not only of degree but of kind. The former is of the kind which after long trial and error was deliberately preferred to the latter.

61. It would thus be seen that in the interest of the ultimate success of a plan of rural reformation on which the country has staked so much a more pronounced emphasis on quality is of the utmost importance. It is equally necessary that States should work out the essential purposes of the plan according to their intrinsic priorities in the best possible manner. The plan, in its essence, is not a plan of appointing a certain number of officers bearing certain names, or even of achieving a series of physical targets. The plan is to set free the creative energies of the people so that they may build up through their own efforts and through their own institutions a richer and improving social life. Here the goal is essentially cultural and moral, though it has a physical basis and content. These priorities are so vital to the future of community projects as an instrument of building up of a democratic culture in this country, that any developments in their future planning and in administrative structure which endanger these priorities should be halted without loss of time.

62. A democracy cannot afford to lose faith in the people's capacity to organize their own life for progress. Losing such faith a democracy would lose its hope of survival. And yet the growing emphasis on official action in some states raises by no means unreasonable doubts about this very faith. Impatience with the working of one institution often leads to the formation of another *ad hoc* one. As, however, the people are the same in both sets of institutions, the newer bodies show up the same old seams and blots as their newness wears off. In the social order which the C.P. schemes were designed to build up action through popular bodies is essential even in the training stage, in fact even more essential in the training stage than after progress has been made. What is sought to be achieved is a tradition of continuous and corporate action of the people for their own betterment. If only all, officials as well as leaders, were to grasp that an active rural democracy is the only instrument of lasting rural regeneration the frequent swings of the pendulum between energetic official action and popular apathy would be avoided.

63. Fortunately there is enough evidence to show that people are becoming more and more appreciative of organized action. The general enlightenment that has come in the wake of independence is largely responsible for this collective self-confidence of the people. Community projects have contributed to guide this confidence into constructive channels in at least two ways. Whether it is education, health or cultivation, knowledge and means of attaining better standards of life are brought within reach of the people. This has created a new hope and a new determination. The age-long factions in our villages are crumbling before widening opportunities for constructive work and for a betterment of the lives of all. Never was a more hopeful outlook for building democracy from below available as when the Community Projects went into action. If we persist with the method, without straying into easy ways of formal official compliance and induced popular participation, a lasting service to the cause of democratic progress would be rendered. Popular leadership on which depends the success of community projects as well as of democracy cannot be called forth in any other way.

64. The processes of administrative decentralization and re-organization must necessarily be built into the programme of emphasizing the responsibility of local bodies for as large a sector of public functions as possible. All that now appears to be duplication or loss of prestige or of authority on the part of an established hierarchy of officials, will fall into proper democratic perspective

as soon as local self governing bodies are "brought into the picture" at least with the same determination with which the Collectors were sought to be made directly responsible. With growing emphasis on the responsibility of local bodies all staff operating in the rural areas, to whatsoever department it might belong, will have to be reoriented into its proper function in the context of rurally centered democracy. With proper training, orientation, and experience a new tradition of efficient service strengthening democratic processes will be created. The younger elements in the service will find it easier to imbibe and promote the essential purposes of the new regime. This tradition will certainly be no less worth having than the tradition of centralized bureaucratic administration which once had its admirers.

65. The apparent conflict, or at least continued friction, between departments is a relic of the bureaucratic age, when services shared authority and were more power-conscious than service—or utility-conscious. That is why a member of the magisterial cadre feels that there is something superior about him, and when he is asked to discharge a function, whether developmental or not, he instinctively assumes that it is his authority not his competence for which there is a call. At least to some extent the neglect complex which persists in the other departments is a continuation of their chagrin at being rated lower in prestige by the powers that be. If the experience of well run community projects for two years is any indication, it may be asserted with confidence that while people may still fear a magistrate more than an extension officer who is not a magistrate, they respect and confide in the latter to a much greater extent. A proper relationship between the people and the services generally, and between administrative and specialist services in particular will not be established till the process of a decentralized democratic administration is carried to its furthest limits. The community project areas are pre-eminently suited to achieve this most desirable goal.

66. In this respect a greater determination to place first things first could be expected from the state governments themselves. As stated earlier the programme and proforma prepared by the C.P.A. are illustrative. It is not expected that they should be complied with formally if the more essential values are thereby sacrificed. Each state according to its own conditions is free to suggest modifications of method, and even of pace, in so far as the latter is compatible with the overall position of central finances. In most cases such modifications for bonafide reasons should be capable of adjustment within the normal administrative processes of the C.P.A. In any case, there is the National Development Council which is a

body on the highest level to judge of the merits of bonafide efforts on the part of all authorities to implement the purposes and programmes of the plan. With a firmer emphasis on essential ideals, and with greater readiness to entertain changes of form and pace if necessary, the States as well as the C.P.A. ought to be equally free to promote rural progress through rural democracy in the best possible manner.

#### **Advisory Bodies**

67. Speaking about District and Project Advisory Bodies, consisting of district heads of departments and of prominent non-officials including local members of Central and State Legislatures and representatives of local bodies, the first Evaluation Report observed:

“But by and large the present pattern of district and project advisory committees cannot be said to have been a proved success. The main points for consideration are (1) whether advice is appropriately sought from representatives of district and project opinion or from legislators whose representative claims are based on wider and somewhat different grounds, and who in most cases are too much preoccupied to take a continuous interest in the development of particular project areas; and (2) whether departmental officers in the District and Project areas are given an opportunity to share authority with responsibility or they are merely expected to be collaborators of project officers. While further experience gained by trial and error can alone supply an answer to these questions there is no doubt that the manner of association of non-official opinion with project and developmental work, and the mutual relationship among departmental and administrative officers constitute two of the most important problems of developmental policy”.

68. The limited progress achieved in making officers of other departments participants rather than collaborators has been commented on in the previous section. The suitability of an ‘advisory’ body which is a group of representative persons, but has no representative character in the particular context of a planned programme of rural reconstruction has been called into further question by the generally disappointing experiences of the second year of its working. Project Advisory Committees continue to be ineffective and in many projects they are virtually non-existent. Meetings of the Committee do not take place for months together and when they do, they are confined mostly to routine business. The general attitude on the part of the members has been one of indifference and lack of interest, and where interest has been shown this is very often of a parochial, sectional or even personal kind which has proved more of an impediment than a help in the programme. The objective of securing participation in development

23815

work of representatives of the departments concerned on the one hand and of the people on the other for which these committees were constituted, is not being realized. The very large composition of most committees is partly responsible for their ineffectiveness. To get over this difficulty, measures like constitution of Project Executive Committees (Andhra, Madras), or formation of a Working Committee (Assam) have been attempted. Block Advisory Committees have also been constituted to help the Project Committee in one project (Orissa) but experience with these too has not been satisfactory.

69. The whole concept of the composition of these committees, though not of their functions, which as the last Evaluation Report pointed out should in fact extend to full participation in project or block planning, would seem to require revision. In keeping with the emphasis on organized democratic action the only appropriate nucleus round which the Advisory Committees can be built up should be the executive committee of the corresponding territorial unit of local self government. This should be further strengthened by the addition of suitable official members, and co-opted or invited members from among legislators and the other categories of members who are now represented on the advisory bodies. It would be a good practice not to confine the presidentship of this Committee to the collector, but to throw it open to chairmen of local bodies concerned. Making local bodies principally responsible for all local planning and execution has an abiding value. The formation of Advisory Committees built round their Executive Committees would underline their responsibility and would make for some regularity and realism in their operation. At least in a few places this pattern is well worth a trial.

### Cooperative Institutions

70. The spirit of self-help and corporate action which is intended to be developed by the community and extension schemes is properly institutionalized in cooperative societies. Hence as a pointer to real progress experience about cooperatives has a special significance. During the second year good progress was made in some States. Bombay, Andhra, and Uttar Pradesh, among the older, and Saurashtra and Madhya Bharat among the newer States showed evident signs of a determined policy of associating cooperatives with project efforts. Kolhapur, in Bombay, which was already a cooperatively developed area, succeeded in drawing cooperatives into its production as well as social programme. In the sphere of credit the societies followed a policy of extending credit on the basis of production needs, thus serving a large number of medium

and small sized farmers than was possible under the older ideas about creditworthiness. Women were encouraged to join cooperatives. Some progress continued to be made in the other States as well.

71. While progress in quantitative terms cannot be said to have been striking in any area the lines of progress and the variety of tasks attempted by cooperatives are such as should strengthen a feeling of confidence. The multipurpose type of village society is gaining ground, though there is need to make it clear once again that a 'Multipurpose' society is a credit and allied purposes society. It is not intended to be an all-purposes society. That way lies danger. Making societies responsible for things which would strain their resources, interests, capacities and loyalties beyond a reasonable limit is plainly inviting discomfiture. What a multipurpose society is normally expected to do is to supply credit, in cash and kind, according to estimated productiveness of the borrower, keep a watchful eye on the proper use of these loans, and help in marketing the produce on an agency basis, advancing reasonable payments against stock on sale. Anything that engages the general resources of the society in trading, production or construction has to be avoided. It is true, and in fact it is an encouraging sign, that the spirit of cooperative endeavour fostered by one kind of activity is helpful in guiding that endeavour into other kinds as well. But it will do none of these activities any good to mix up either financial or operational responsibilities.

72. The responsibility of indenting for distribution of seed, fertilizers, implements and other aids to improved agriculture is being more regularly placed on cooperatives, and the societies are discharging these functions quite satisfactorily. Marketing, however, must be treated as an important activity by itself, and in small and large Mandi centres suitable cooperative organizations, equipped with the requisite storage, transport and credit facilities must be set up. The draft outline of the Community Projects programme had provided for some of these developments, but except in States where already some progress had been made in the field of cooperative marketing there is no planned activity to promote new cooperative marketing societies. As the whole of this subject of developing rural credit facilities and allied cooperative services is now attracting wide attention, it is worthwhile recording that in the absence of adequate service for credit and marketing the success of the technical or production aspects of national extension is seriously hampered. Only a small section of the people can take advantage of them, and even they would do so much more enthusias-



tically and steadily if better marketing and credit facilities were made available.

73. There are two other types of agricultural cooperatives which have a close bearing on extension programmes. The prospects of assured and continuous water-supply are obviously very vital to successful farming. The putting up and maintaining of bunds often needs investment which exceeds what one person or a handful of people can put together. Even if the investment is found by a few well-to-do people, it is desirable that smaller holders also are enabled to participate in an advantage, which is really a natural asset. The installation of power-lifts and their service and maintenance are further stages of lift irrigation schemes in which unless institutional action is channelized through cooperatives, there will either be no progress, or the progress will be limited to a few well-to-do people. In States like Andhra, having good prospects of lift irrigation cooperatives have been deliberately chosen as instruments of extension effort in that field. The adoption of intensive methods of cultivation and greater employment in agriculture have been promoted in this way.

74. Another type of cooperative society in respect of which the community and extension programmes could have been expected to do something is the cooperative farming society. The general case for cooperative farming with a view to increase the unit of cultivation to its optimum size under prevailing conditions of tillage is now well-known. It is also well-known that the Planning Commission attached great importance to undertaking experiments in cooperative farming and land-management. Although in two or three States some beginning in co-operative farming has been made, there is hardly any development block or project in which co-operative farming figures as an important item of the programme. Neither the executive nor the technical officers seem to have attached much importance to this aspect of agricultural progress. While too rapid an advance in such a developed form of cooperation as is represented by farming cannot be either expected or desired, it is reasonable to expect that in so far as augmentation of the size of a cultivating unit beyond the actual size of holding is considered to be economically advantageous steps at establishing an appropriate form of joint farming should be regularly encouraged. It is only out of demonstrable experience gathered through such experiments that the future place of cooperative farming in any extension programme can be specifically determined.

75. It would perhaps be best to refer to another type of cooperative about which much is said but not so much is done, viz., industrial or artisans' cooperatives. The whole area of village industries is really an unoccupied area so far as community projects and

national extension are concerned. This is so for no fault of those who are responsible for either shaping or guiding these programmes. Whereas, in the case of agriculture, health or education there is some proved programme which the developmental and extension organization can adopt, in the field of industry, except perhaps in the case of Khadi, there is no proved programme. Unless on the basis of an assigned sector of estimated total demand production of village industries is fitted into the overall national programme of employment, investment and production, conditions cannot be said to be ripe either for industrial extension or for cooperation. When this stage is reached industrial cooperatives will be a suitable agency for a gradual transformation and improvement of the non-agricultural sector of village economy.

76. It is a depressing thought that in by far the larger number of States little should have been done in promoting cooperation even in the more familiar channels of rural credit. It is surprising how even now in some of the best administered States two departments of state activity can go on in almost complete indifference, if not hostility to one another's objectives. While the old 'take it or leave it' attitude of the developmental departments of the state was the order of the day, it was natural that cooperatives, acted as select clubs, even more so than joint-stock companies whose shares could be freely traded in. It was also natural that howsoever assessed the amount of loans actually made should be based on the real or personal disposable security offered by the borrower. But when a high-powered, multi-pronged and nation-wide effort at bringing the desire and knowledge of improved practices to all the villagers was launched through a special organization, that many of the cooperatives should still function as privileged and subsidized associations of the better-to-do was astounding. Many societies in cooperatively developed areas were too exclusive to touch the medium and small men. In the cooperatively under-developed areas there were few cooperatives and few members. Thus the extent of the social as well as physical success of the extension programme has been unnecessarily restricted by the fact that principles and practice of cooperation were not brought into line with planning and extension which were adopted as national policy. As is well-known a new outlook on these issues is now being popularized and perhaps a more assured place for cooperative efforts may be found in later years. In a few exceptional cases, as that of Bombay noted above, first steps to move in the new direction have already been taken.

77. On account of excessive selectiveness and a narrow and individualistic interpretation of the nature of credit, societies did not admit many members. Naturally the financing agencies also had

not much to do for a long time. Gradually, they had lost vigour and fallen in public esteem. It is, therefore, by no means rare to find in development areas and blocks, that there are no societies, what few there are have not many members, what members there are cannot get adequate funds, because the financing agencies are working with very meagre resources. Unless an overall strengthening of the institutional structure of credit and allied activities is urgently undertaken extension activity will not reach below the upper layers of social and economic influence in villages.

78. In the vacuum created by the absence of a widespread and well-endowed cooperative system direct State assistance in the shape of tagai loans has filled the need to some extent. This is a valuable service which the Union and State Governments have rendered. Its favourable influence on the success of the extension effort was proved when tagai was distributed in the form of fertilizer loans. Such loans must continue as an accompaniment to extension and they should be made available to as large a section of the people as possible. In fact they should be disbursed by preference to persons of limited means. But for obvious reasons the state cannot indefinitely continue to lend moneys through its executive departments. For a proper choice of borrowers, assessment of needs, supervision of use, follow-up by sale of produce and timely recovery an appropriate public institution must be utilized for this purpose. The unsuitability of departmental agency for operating a regular issue and recovery of loans on a wide scale is already being revealed in the form of large arrears. The cooperatives offering their services to all, who are ready to participate in the development programmes, and acting in harmony with social policy are obviously the appropriate type of institutions to figure in schemes of development and extension.

#### **Panchayats and Ad Hoc Bodies**

79. With the exception of Madhya Pradesh no State tried to duplicate or alternate the organization of statutory panchayats with that of *ad hoc* bodies like Village Development Councils. In Madhya Pradesh itself further experience showed that after the first glow of a new start and a new hope is dimmed the normal conditions of a village tend to re-establish themselves. Rarely does it happen that a village with a bad panchayat has a good Vikas Mandal for long. In fact in stray cases their *ad hoc* character permits of the existence of more than one Vikas Mandal in one and the same village. In villages which are either too small for the formation of a statutory panchayat, or for other reasons not ripe for the establishment of a statutory body the informal operations

of a developmental group have been valuable as a first step in institutional progress. As a conscious beginning towards the creation of basic units of self-government development councils have a usefulness of their own.

80. There is another more practical purpose which the *ad hoc* bodies have helped to achieve. Even where a panchayat is in being its legal and practical competence to undertake some essential functions of development, *e.g.*, undertaking the construction of buildings on a contributory basis is occasionally in doubt. The Panchayat law and the procedure of execution of public works are being suitably altered in several States. But where a developmental programme touches rural life at several points, and where the main emphasis is on people organizing themselves to achieve the means of their own progress the formation of discussion and operational groups to popularize and execute projects of reform must be encouraged as a healthy sign. Not every act of the panchayat affects the village as a whole, nor is every item of community action appropriate for a statutory body, which operates within recognized limits of regulated procedure, to undertake. Spontaneity of institutional growth is a feature of progress which should be encouraged.

81. It is seen that the *ad hoc* bodies flourished when the contributory programme of construction was active. With the attainment of these limited objectives the group tends to be dormant, to be called into action again if need arises. In this form non-statutory 'panchayats' have been in existence in almost all parts of the country, and sometimes they are seen to exercise an influence which is even greater than that of a statutory panchayat. There need, therefore, be no criticism of spontaneous or traditional forms of group association. It is only when developmental staff attaches superior importance to the formation of an association, almost completely ignoring the reality of voluntary action that the risk to lasting progress along lines of popular action arises. Enough experience has by now been obtained to indicate the weaknesses as well as the merits of *ad hoc* bodies. Spontaneous and popularly conducted bodies have a recognized place in the institutions of democratic progress. Non-official auxiliaries created by officials and maintained as a formal channel for official acts is a pretence which has nothing to recommend itself. This lesson now seems to have received almost universal acceptance.

82. It used to be said that the justification for the formation of new *ad hoc* bodies is to be found in the state of village factions. As the existence of village factions has often been treated as an obstacle to introducing democratic forms of organization in rural areas

it is worthwhile drawing on experience of panchayats, statutory as well as traditional, and *ad hoc* bodies in community project areas during the last two years. Wherever opportunities of collective action were opened out both traditional village groups, as in Assam, West Bengal and Orissa, and statutory Panchayats as in Bombay and Saurashtra, have been seen to be active in a constructive way in spite of factions. There is reason to say that in the process of evolving and utilizing a new agreement long-standing factions have been weakened. Broader and more significant interests have made for new alignments, which are a sign of healthy life. On the other hand, officially created *ad hoc* bodies have, as a rule, failed to keep together members of rival groups, and they have in several cases given rise to new causes of friction and division. Formation of suitable institutions for collective action is a natural and healthy process so long as it is spontaneous and is in pursuit of ideas and programmes which are consistent with the moral and material content of the national plan of development.

83. Statutory panchayats have by now been set up in almost all States, and where they have not already been set up necessary legislation is under consideration. There is also a general readiness to confer on these bodies as many functions of developmental administration as possible. In fact, sometimes the desire to avoid or divide responsibility in regard to urgent needs of the people, which are many and for which resources are limited, may hasten the process of decentralization beyond the capacity of local bodies to do justice to their new tasks. But if functions are matched by resources, provision for expert and trained services is made, and internal strengthening and safeguards are provided within the hierarchy of local self governing bodies any move towards building up strong basic institutions in villages must be wholeheartedly welcomed. The strengthening of the resources of panchayats and other bodies in local areas has not gone as far as is necessary to make a success of a system of rural self-government. It is only natural and proper that States are experimenting in this sphere in their own way. Experience of developments such as those in Saurashtra where land-revenue is collected by the better among the panchayats and the Grama Sevak is Secretary of the Panchayat will deserve further study and attention.

### **Popular Participation**

84. The concept of public participation tends to have different meanings. Initially participation was intended to imply popular initiative and sharing in the whole process of development of a rural community. As, however, the governmental organization became

the most noticeable outward expression of the developmental effort, and as proformas of schemes intended to be illustrative came to be put to people as suggestions, plans took the character of state or governmental rather than community or local plans. This development, which in most cases happened naturally and imperceptibly rather than as the result of any deliberate intent on the part of officers, gave to public participation the restricted meaning of contributing to the execution of a state plan approved by the people of a village. The shift of emphasis from popular to state activation is sought to be corrected by constant admonitions from the top-level leaders of the community movement. In several places this insistence was already practised and in others it is being reemphasized. But the relative balance between the two concepts, *viz.*, popular plans carried out with state participation, and state plans carried out with popular participation has not yet been completely corrected in favour of the former.

85. Even in its restricted application participation has come to mean different things for different people, and hence either qualitative or quantitative measurement and comparison in the aggregate is ruled out. Thus, in some places the expenditure that an individual villager incurs on his own land or house by way of constructing a well or a soak-pit according to a programme of reform advocated or assisted by the State is counted as public participation. In one or two places the proceeds of a labour tax levied by the panchayat is counted as public participation. Where schemes of compulsory land consolidation are in progress, and as a part of them some fraction of each holding is claimed for collective use in a suitable area the process has been described as public participation. Subscriptions collected in one place, an urban centre, for assisting developmental projects in another place, a village, have also come under public participation. Contributions to works of social amenity received from panchayats, cooperative societies and other bodies have also been added to the account.

86. All these methods are legitimate ways of mobilizing the resources of the community for utilization in planned development. By and large, not only do the people react favourably to their stimulus, but they have a fairly clear perception of both the individual and collective aspects of benefit and burden. In view, however, of the extreme importance of encouraging the augmentation of available resources for democratic planning the central idea of public participation deserves to be clarified. Obviously participation has to be voluntary, if it is to be something more than a tax in cash or kind which would normally go into an estimate of available public resources. Secondly, the contribution even when voluntary must

be in addition to resources already available for a purpose. Thus if the Panchayat whose duty it is to make a road or a tank contributes out of its balances some amount to an *ad hoc* body to get the work done more cheaply than through normal channels, it is not the panchayat's contribution which constitutes public participation, but it is the margin of sacrifice which the participants in the *ad hoc* effort have suffered that is entitled to be counted as public participation.

87. Even a voluntary additional effort if made for one's own individual betterment, howsoever enlightened and socially beneficent such an act may be, should not count as public participation, which has to be public not only in the sharing of burdens but also in the sharing of benefits. The other aspects of participation are by no means unimportant and deserve every encouragement. But when descriptive or quantitative assessments are made the nature of the participation should be clear. In this context the relative emphasis placed on local labour and resources, as distinguished from that on skilled labour and better material which have to be imported from other places within and without the country varies from place to place. In some areas great importance is attached to this distinction between a policy of making the best use of all local resources of material, talent and personnel on the one hand, and that of raising local financial resources to promote works which mostly utilize materials and skills imported into rural areas on the other. Wherever the former policy is actively promoted popular contribution to a real augmentation of resources is very significant. The balancing considerations of satisfactory quality and the extent of development have also to be kept in view. If only the risk of a dominant local group or official sweeping people off their balance is kept out such variations in concept and design would be seen to be natural and on the whole beneficent.

88. A point often discussed with regard to popular participation refers to the part played by officers in initiating and organizing the same. It is wrong to treat every act of official initiative, encouragement and organization as a coercive act. The development officers have been specifically exhorted to assume leadership in a programme which is designed to bring forth popular leadership. In suggesting an idea and in backing it by their influence the developmental authorities do but their duty. It is only when influence attains the substance of coercion, which is pressure with a sanction, that the risk of a higher value, that of promoting the democratic progress of the people, being sacrificed to a lower one, that of obtaining a merely material result, clearly arises. Sanctions may range all the way from a refusal of a normal benefit like a taccavi or a forest permit

to some arbitrary action in regard to revenue demand or property rights. It is so difficult for one and the same person to forget his disappointment as a development officer while administering his discretionary authority as a revenue or a magisterial officer that it is better to rely more and more on the influence of officers whose main responsibility is that of development.

89. Within their own proper sphere of action development officers, who can easily and normally fit into the natural prestige scale of a village community, can play an important part in inducing progressive action on the part of hesitant elements. Sometimes these elements need to be reassured as to the merits of a proposal; they are occasionally more responsive to a detached source rather than one which may have got mixed up in the local tangle of prejudices. Moreover to be doing something which the government, that is now the popular leaders on high, have indicated as a desirable line of behaviour is a legitimate source of civic satisfaction. Considering all these things it must be admitted that official leadership and participation in the process of evoking and organizing public support to community causes ought not to be ruled out. On the other hand, the wholesome principle enshrined in a service rule to the effect that no government servant should collect contributions for private purposes must not be lost sight of. The more reliance is placed on development officers, and the more local bodies are themselves drawn in to initiate and organize an effort the legitimate nature and extent of official participation in a predominantly popular effort will be more satisfactorily ensured.

90. For works like construction or repair of a road or of a tank of drinking water which obviously serves a common purpose spontaneous public support is generally forthcoming. For much of other work there is need to get together money contributions and then make payments out of the fund for material as well as services and labour. In the relative shares of different classes of the village community in money contributions the principle of progression, i.e., of the better-to-do contributing at higher rates than the less well-to-do, is receiving broad acceptance. The poorer sections who contribute by way of labour are in many cases remunerated at less than standard rates, thus providing for a sacrifice margin which is the measure of their contribution. As the standard rates adopted for purposes of estimates and calculation are the P.W.D. rates for labour, to be hired and employed by a contractor, the employment offered by community works is at a fair rate, especially in the off season. If the purpose is such that it would normally find a place in the developmental programme of the nation these methods of execution



must be considered to have both an educative and economic advantage.

91. Labour, mostly unskilled labour, land and material, are all contributed by people. The proportion of these varies from work to work and block to block. In the sample villages of one of the blocks the relative magnitude of these contributions was; labour, Rs. 12,000, land and materials, 6,000; and cash, Rs. 3,000. In areas where people are on the whole well-to-do and better employed, as for instance in the irrigated area of East Godavari district (Andhra), the people as a rule prefer to make a cash contribution. Sometimes in well-developed areas there is resistance to the whole idea of voluntary contribution as it is felt that even for local works the resources of local bodies like panchayats and local boards to which people make contributions should be considered as adequate. It is here that the utility of *ad hoc* bodies formed for planning and executing particular works is the greatest. The process has to start from converting the people to the special need and suitability of a project. This a special organization of the people themselves can do better than any official or semi-official organization.

92. There can be no doubt that the people of all classes are realizing the importance of turning to productive use what is called the hidden wealth of the unemployed and under-employed manpower of the country. The works done hitherto have served an educative purpose not only in bringing home this truth to all, but also in emphasizing the conditions in which it will be possible to organize a major project based on voluntary unremunerated or partially remunerated labour. Distance is no doubt an important determinant. Psychologically the conditions in the country as a whole cannot be said to be ripe for inducing large numbers of people to be far away from their normal habitations for a long period to go to work on a national project. The extension of the boundary of the village say to a district seems to be within the limits of practical possibility. Inquiries made in areas where schemes of voluntary labour have shown a good response would lend support to this hope.

93. On the district level the principal difficulty would be firstly to select a project which has suitability to the employment and benefit of the people of an area. For roads having local and regional benefit which pass through a number of villages, and for bunds and channels which benefit more than one village a joint organization of voluntary labour has already been used in several places. It can be improved in scope where circumstances permit. The benefit to the participants must be clearly stated and to the extent to which the benefit is indirect some material compensation will have to be

offered to the less well-to-do and the poor. The idea of a 'famine of employment' is easily understood by villagers, so also the need to bring about economic progress for the country as a whole. If confidence is inspired in a plan, if the non-exploitative character of the project is made clear, and if the executive organization can be trusted to be efficient it appears that fairly large works on something like a district or regional level can be organized as voluntary labour works in almost all parts of the country.

### Supplies and Extension

94. Whether it is improvement of agriculture, or of animal husbandry, or of communications, or of health and sanitation, along with the popularization of a new way of doing and living goes the function of making the requisite means available. Unless supply lines keep pace with extension programme both the educational and material advantages of the effort would be lost. Seed, fertilizers, implements, improved strains of breeding cattle, road-making equipment, medical apparatus etc. are all needed for demonstration as well as for normal use. As extension activity proceeds within the same area, and as new areas are being added to the extension-blocks the strain on the supply lines deserves special study. This is all the more so, as the reputed success of new methods is already taken for granted by people everywhere, and how soon all areas will benefit by the 'new agriculture' is now a matter more of organizing the supplies, than of setting up an administrative or purely extension machinery.

95. While there is an all round improvement in regard to almost all items of supply, the problems in regard both to quality and quantity which are raised by the progress of the scheme are assuming special importance. Taking the quality of seed, as an illustration, two problems have come to the forefront. In every major State, for almost all important crops there are areas in which what was once considered good and improved seed has by now been well-established. In new areas this very seed is propagated, but the older areas are asking for better seed, for which some well-planned research and multiplication arrangements are needed. That these have to be planned on a regional basis is made evident by the fact that often a proved and tested seed is seen to be unsuitable in particular regions or circumstances. Taking seed as one important item in extension programme as an illustration it is seen that for improvement, maintenance and adaptation of quality a network of seed-farms operating at different levels is an urgent necessity if the progressive character of the extension movement is to be maintained.

96. As regards quantity there is almost a universal complaint of shortage. Wheat, paddy, bajra, jowar, groundnut, cotton are all in short supply in almost all areas. This is so in spite of the fact that total supplies have as a rule gone up, but they have not gone up as fast as the increase in demand. In some cases to meet the demand created by direct effort and by indirect results of these efforts seed has been purchased in the market. While this enables the extension organization to maintain its time and quantity schedule, the resulting harm to popular confidence in the merits of the change is a serious risk. The same to a large extent is the experience with regard to fertilizers. The total quantity is said to be in good supply, but if ammonium sulphate is needed it is in short supply, and superphosphates are available but are not in demand. In areas where monsoons provide the major supply of water demand both for seed and fertilizers, but especially for fertilizers, tends to be erratic. In addition to the overall strains on supplies, those caused by seasonal factors have also to be provided against.

97. The unsatisfactory state of supplies is caused as much by a total scarcity as by a local shortage which results from faulty distribution and transport. Where monsoon conditions affect demand, and at the same time make movement difficult the best way to plan effective distribution is to have as many centres, as near the people, as possible. While progress has been registered in this respect much further remains to be done by way of increasing the number of departmental and project seed stores as also by utilizing a larger number of cooperatives. Both these agencies are proving increasingly successful, especially the cooperative as they make for less formality, and more intimate contact. In the field of fertilizers the introduction of private distributors has caused a general dislocation, resulting in late and unbalanced supplies. Extension is planned developmental action in which supply and distribution of an essential aid like fertilizer occupies an important place. Handing over its supply to private agencies is likely to weaken the regularity and the strength of the extension movement.

98. Two features of overall policy and institutional organization which influence the effective distribution and use of supplies have been emphasized by events during the last year. The first is the fall in agricultural prices unaccompanied by a comparable fall in non-agricultural prices, or even in the prices of producers' aids, e.g., seed, implements, fertilizers, pumps, engines etc., supplied to the agriculturists. The farmers are by now sufficiently educated in the significance of relative price-level and net advantages of cultivation. But they cannot naturally feel enthusiastic about further investment in cultivation at high rates when prices are falling.

The lack of adequate credit facilities for facilitating the purchase of the means of productive development by the middle and poorer peasants is also unduly restricting the progress of extension. A certain measure of inequality tends to emerge if the poorer sections are drawn into burdensome participation but are left out from productive sharing. In attempts to avoid this the wide distribution of credit facilities among the smaller cultivators must take a high place.

99. Reports on the handling of supplies, especially of seed and fertilizers, reveal that the lack of adequate and satisfactory facilities for storage is a major obstacle to successful distribution. This indeed is one of the principal reasons why the number of stores and co-operative societies handling these supplies cannot be increased. At least one good multipurpose society in each Grama Sevak's charge ought to be functioning as a fully equipped centre for the distribution of essential supplies. To enable these societies to operate to their fullest capacity assistance to build storage space should be forthcoming. A chain of institutionally operated storage facilities will help not only in promoting extension but also in developing a number of other essential features of national planning. Credit, supplies, marketing and prices all depend, in an important measure, on an institutionalized storage and transport system. The state and cooperatives ought to join their efforts in promoting such an integrated system of extension activity.

100. Health vans and appliances, audio-visual aids and projectors, road rollers, power-drills, microscopes, refrigerators, pumping sets and other supplies which were from the dollar resources at the disposal of community projects were arriving much more regularly during the second than during the first year. Jeeps, which are always in great demand, also came in in fairly large numbers. While the speed and ease of movement rendered possible by fast-moving conveyances cannot be lightly set aside, two side-effects need to be specially counteracted. Jeep-borne personnel can see more country and more people, but the tendency is to see these superficially. Secondly, instead of using the jeep as a supplement to other local means, it has come to limit the radius of the movement of officers, as it is rare for officers now to travel beyond the range of a jeep. This is not to say that the jeep should be done away with, but it is clear that to get full benefit out of it the conditions of its use should be more strictly elaborated than at present.

101. In view of the increasing demand for supplies of all kinds the situation appears to be more than ever strained. But actually the absolute quantities of most of the producers' goods are going up. The situation in regard to superphosphates and cement, at least in

regard to their timely supply in the mofussil, is not improving as well as is the case with seed and other fertilizers. States which had poor sources of their own for the supply of seed are gradually becoming more self-reliant. In regard to quantitative measurement of progress, however, some difficulty is experienced on account of a faulty system of records and an inadequate arrangement for check and inspection. The more responsibility the state takes on itself or puts on auxiliary institutions such as cooperatives, it becomes most vital to the efficiency of the whole organized effort to have a sound system of accounting, checking, inspection and follow-up. Substitution of private by public effort makes vigilance more necessary, not less. The figures for the recovery of taccavi loans in some areas should also suggest the urgent need for an early review of the whole process of checking on the contractual and business sides of extension activity.

### Progress of Expenditure

102. The permissible extension of the period of the first set of Community Projects to four years, and in extreme cases to four and a half years, has produced good results. The picture of incomplete staffing and almost skeleton expenditure on development has changed for the better. For the most part staffing is now full, and normal developmental expenditure is on the rise. The situation, however, varies from state to state. Some states especially in the Eastern region do not appear to have set in motion a full scale programme of developmental investment. The short-fall, it is significant, is more noticeable under the utilization of loan funds than under operational expenditure. This variable feature is due partly to the absence of plans for irrigational and other economic investment and partly to the general loan position of the states concerned. A revision of the typical extension budget into a basic common programme of development which would be intensive but will be financed out of expenditure budget, and another which will be of productive investment in works depending on the prospects of productive investment in each sphere having a wider area of operation and a separate source of finance is now called for.

103. As a rule irrigation, reclamation, bunding and other anti-erosion and conservation measures which are of extreme importance do not easily fit in with either the financial or administrative and technical pattern of community projects and national extension. These are field operations but in their planning and execution, as also in their finance, the entire machinery of state, and occasionally of the Union governments has to be active. The two or three levels of planning for rural development—bloc, state and the nation—must be more clearly integrated so as to ensure that largesized projects are

appropriately planned and financed, and that they suitably support the work done in project area. Concentration on block programmes and budgets is sometimes apt to push more long-term considerations out of sight. The extension of period has given a fresh opportunity to redraw the targets and to rearrange them as between project and state responsibilities.

104. Works like schools, dispensaries and hospitals entail a recurring expenditure for maintenance. Before the requisite programme is sanctioned by the State Government it has to make sure about its own general policy and budgetary provision. For instance, in regard to basic schools in several states not only is the general educational policy hesitant about their merit, but the pattern of primary and secondary schools in relation to population set for the state as a whole is found to differ from what the community project programme provides. Under stress of circumstances the states are readjusting themselves partly by modifying the 'basic' pattern and partly by giving a priority to the extension areas in the state schemes of administrative expansion and improvement. For the long term as well as for current operations the liability of state governments is being realized to a greater extent, and hence an attempt to incorporate the extension programmes into the normal administrative and financial patterns is more systematically pursued. So long as the intensity and comprehensiveness of the programme are kept intact and the people's own initiative and participation are carefully nursed this development should be treated as both normal and desirable. The extension of the period has helped in facilitating the reconciliation between project plans and the normal expansion plans of each state. This is as it should be. The only caution needed at this stage is to ensure that the reconciliation is made on the basis of the intensive programme of community project development spread over an adequate number of years and not on one which is more quickly achieved but differs little from what the respective departments are achieving without reference to any comprehensive and concentrated plan. Reconciliation must be obtained by generalizing the community project plan, minus development works which have a regional or statewide significance.

105. Progress of expenditure and its more even distribution among the different items has been helped by several factors. The appointment of adequate staff and the completion of preliminary steps have come naturally with the passing months. But the decentralization of financial powers has also contributed to quicker decisions. Another noteworthy development is that of reducing the percentage of minimum contribution by the people, and of relating it not to each work but to the total works expenditure in the block or area. These liberalizations, which were due to pressure of circumstances, are

being operated differently in different states. With the best of efforts it is difficult to define in each case what the public contribution should be, in what consists public contribution, and how one can say in advance as to what the total popular contribution to all the works in the block would be, when much of that programme is still to be planned and executed. An easing of conditions has, however, made for quicker expenditure.

106. The timely announcement of the decision to extend the initial period has produced a stabilizing effect on programme of expenditure. At one stage it appeared that the performance of block officers would be judged primarily by the amount of money they were able to spend. Though nobody suggested that expenditure should be incurred in disregard of procedure or of considerations of quality, excessive concentration on one aspect threatened to produce looseness in others. In some states execution of works is done through particular departments of states. In some of these expenditure of project funds took the form of transferring the allotment to the department concerned against a commitment of later expenditure on the indicated purpose. Such ledger transactions would now have less justification as a more adequate period has been vouchsafed.

#### **Staff**

107. The position with regard to staff has definitely improved. There are fewer unfilled vacancies and training arrangements are expanding. A few features call for further action. Even among the existing staff, overseer staff, and medical and public health staff, especially women, is difficult to obtain. In view of the programme of expansion lying ahead, the schemes for instituting appropriate special courses for technical personnel in rural areas deserve early implementation. While post-appointment training arrangements, as for Grama Sevaks, Social Education Organizers and Block Development Officers have improved, they still continue to be too quick and short, and therefore, too superficial. The structure of curricula is adequate, not to say ambitious. But the actual instruction is, almost of necessity, too fleeting to be absorbed. The training staff also has great difficulty in getting thoroughly imbued with the requirements of the new movement and to be able to pass both the spirit and the skills on to the trainees in the short time at their disposal. Where training is imparted in English there is the further difficulty arising out of inadequate knowledge of the language, especially on the part of the subordinate trainees.

108. Even where the present complement of staff is fully employed there is a case for further strengthening and improvement in two respects. While it is difficult to generalize, and while there is no

use in having an extension staff if there is nothing to extend, the number of Grama Sevak does need a review. So much is expected of the Grama Sevak, for instance, contacting every family and helping it to have a plan, that unless his charge is suitably adjusted and arrangements for adequate guidance and supervision are made, he may settle down to a routine of formal compliance, relieved by occasional spurts to suit the tempo of official programme, much in the same way as the talati has done.

109. As the whole of the area of a State is to be progressively brought under the National Extension Service the special grouse of staff employed in the villages of existing blocks will gradually cease. But there is still a case for having a programme for housing and other amenities for the extension staff at all levels including the Grama Sevak. The quality of these amenities and conveniences must indeed not exceed too much what would be available to the more progressive among local residents. In fact, such amenities can and should be used as a nucleus of a programme of reformation for the whole area. Steps have already been taken in some States to improve staff amenities in rural areas, but a more comprehensive and systematic programme is called for.

110. The personal touch with physical as well as the human aspects of extension work is very important, as in every project area considerable time elapses before the developmental staff succeeds in establishing a full understanding. When the developmental process has gone far enough and the people themselves have become more active than what they are today in most places the change of an officer will not make very much difference either to the efficiency of his own work or to the acceptance and advantage of the people. This stage has not yet been reached, and in a way development activity is still a bit of an adventure, and it is intended as somewhat of a 'mission'. In these circumstances, it is most undesirable to change key personnel in the project staff except on grounds of inefficiency or unsuitability. Officers who have proved themselves should not as a rule be moved during the initial period of three years or so.

### **Records and Their Use**

111. As the extension programme is a part of the scheme of planned development of the country its implementation and progress should be capable of quantitative measurement at fairly frequent stages. To make this possible quantitative records have to be maintained. In most cases these are in the nature of noting down the implications of the activities of the extension staff itself. What



is needed here is only an appreciation of the importance of quantitative record and the regularity of habit to maintain it. The feeling that maintenance of records is an unnecessary bother imposed by unimaginative theorists on practical men is gradually yielding place to a readiness to maintain what are conceded to be essential records. A series of relevant forms and registers have accordingly been approved by the Developmental authorities and these are awaiting actual adoption in selected areas. The sooner this step is taken, and the more the basic records are relied on for all quantitative reporting the better will it be for the planners and administrators themselves.

112. Where the actions of the extension staff affect the fortunes of village people the maintenance of records becomes more difficult, but on that account not less necessary. For instance, in almost every item of the developmental programme great reliance is placed on the method of demonstration on the cultivator's own farm or premises. Unless full records of these demonstrations are maintained they cannot be utilized for all they are worth. A new method often affects both the expenses and proceeds—the inputs and outputs—of an operation. Unless full details about these are available the extension staff will not be able to determine in a specific way the net advantages of an improvement. In several cases as for instance the use of a particular form of fertilizer what is available is only the quantity issued to the farmer and the instructions about its use. Whether the fertilizer has actually been used in the manner in which its use was recommended has to be watched if the 'demonstration' value of an experiment is to be retained. This, of course, is done in most cases, but there is no uniform insistence on it.

113. What is aimed at in most demonstrations is the broad visual effect—e.g., relative heights or look of two ways of raising a crop. This effect is good enough as a beginning but no more. The net advantage of an improvement cannot be assessed unless all the incidental disadvantages and advantages are carefully recorded and compared. Moreover, the comparison has to be carried on from year to year, as many effects are cumulative in character. It is true that the primary responsibility for such accounts keeping should be with the farmer himself, and in future while making a selection of persons on whose farms demonstrations are held their capacity and readiness to cooperate in maintenance of records should be an important consideration. People are becoming more factual and quantitative minded themselves, and it will not be very difficult to get persons who are otherwise suitable and are also in a position to afford the service of record keeping. Even the yield figures are not always very carefully collected, and the expense figures—cash, kind and labour—are maintained only in exceptional cases. In Uttar

Pradesh so long as a Special Assistant Project Officer was put in charge of Statistics and Rural Survey this part was better attended to. Similar arrangements need to be continued in U.P. and they should be introduced where they do not obtain at present.

114. Quantitative reporting, when it is resorted to, often tends to be very inexact. Thus while any work for which full or partial payment has to be made is normally measured and checked by technically qualified personnel there are several degrees of inaccuracy in some of the reported items. Thus the number of participants in voluntary labour is more a cumulative calculation of man-days, without too much insistence on the length of the working day or the quality of work. Even when work is measured by the piece some departures from approved methods are resorted to which vitiate the calculation of work done. Sometimes work is inferred from a standard table of items, like say a well, and their equivalent in hours of labour. Or instead of measuring earthwork from the size of the pit an estimate of quantity spread or used is made. Whatever the method used may be some clear directions for use of the method should be given and its operation should be checked. Progressively more standardised methods of measurement should be adopted. Without such data the planning and organization of works based on voluntary labour cannot proceed a long way.

115. Several items of programme normally reported on have ceased to have any significance at all. The compost pits are an extreme example, especially in their description as 'newly dug and remodelled'. Almost as a general experience these particular figures are not checked, nor is there any systematic follow-up to ascertain the extent and causes of disuse. The production value of this improvement is very real, and if the degree of disuse had been recognized in time a further probe into its causes followed by an appropriate educative campaign would have been undertaken. Even now rather than treating this programme as one of the lighter sides of the extension movement, efforts should be made to educate the villager in its ultimate advantage and to offer constructive suggestions to meet all the valid objections which the villager may have to raise.

116. A more important case is that of reclamation and irrigation. The ultimate advantage of both these reforms is that they add to the quantitative and qualitative resources of agricultural production. The estimate of area benefited by these should, therefore, be based on the firm prospect of use for cultivation. Actually, estimates range, all the way from what is termed 'command area', that is area physically capable of receiving water from the source, to a mere 'guess-estimate'. There are really very few projects for reclamation, and hence inaccurate reporting does not affect the progress

reports very much. While there is no harm in any of these estimates so long as their basis and nature are made plain, it is desirable to have a reasonable common measure to be verified by a technical scrutiny. For irrigation, both command and served area, giving details of crops, and for reclamation, area and crop would appear to be necessary. It should also be specifically stated that the reclamation consisted in the transformation of hitherto uncultivated land, into cultivated land, and not merely in a rotational recultivation of land which was temporarily fallow.

117. A more appreciative and constructive approach towards quantitative records is necessary. We would then not take so much liberty with them. We would also use them more positively both in our plan making and in our extension. More and more the enlightened farmers will want to know about costing, prices, employment etc. Extension is a continuous and steadily improving process. Records, quantitative and others, are an indispensable aid to guiding the extension planning at all stages. A more appreciative approach to maintenance of records, and a readiness to welcome special staff as was represented by the Assistant Project Officer, Statistics and Village Surveys, in Uttar Pradesh are needed.

#### Social Education

118. The Social Education Organizer was a comparatively late addition to the battery of 'catalytic' agents arranged on the side of community projects development. Much of the service that later came to be expected of him was earlier included in the duties of the Grama Sevak, or the Village Level worker himself. Extension was said to be an educational process and the Grama Sevak was its most accessible agent. The earlier training and briefing of Grama Sevaks was based on this theory. The variety and weight of his burdens were, however, so heavy that he was mostly preoccupied with making contact with the people, ascertaining their needs, explaining the lines of development available through community programmes and encouraging them to organize themselves to take advantage of these. What may be called social and cultural aspects of progress tended to take second place by comparison with the more urgent needs of material welfare. Moreover, even for wide acceptance of the developmental programme a broadening of outlook, an awareness of new opportunities and an alertness to move forward were needed. The Grama Sevak often lacked the background and training needed to supply these features to the thinking of the rural population. Hence it was felt that as a strengthening to the Grama Sevaks a class of social education organizers should be created. As a rule entrants into this cadre came from higher social and educational rungs and were more frequently urban than rural. They were trained in short courses arranged in special training establishments, and after

completion of these courses they were sent into the field with a long job-chart which contained items ranging from adult literacy to changing the outlook of people and making them progressive minded.

119. In the initial stages there prevailed considerable misunderstanding about the role of the social education organizers who themselves, more often than not, found themselves to be completely frustrated. A very general feeling about the social education organizers was that they were a fifth wheel to the coach. The duties on which they normally seemed to concentrate were adult literacy, recreation and community programmes, e.g., festivals. The Grama Sevaks were already promoting these, in addition to their more material services. Literary work was also done by school teachers. It was, therefore, not unnatural that the people generally, and the Grama Sevaks and the project staff, in particular should be at a loss to make out the particular role of social education staff. The project officers in some States, tried to use social education officers as odd job men. The more practical purpose of social education, that of educating the villagers in the ideology of community projects and national extension and of preparing the ground for particular items of their programme came to be recognized only gradually. Even now outside Bihar and Uttar Pradesh the social education staff cannot be said to have secured complete acceptance. But the situation is gradually improving in all parts.

120. To some extent at least the social education staff was itself responsible for its very partial acceptance in the initial stages. Instead of weaving their own programme round the items of development and extension they kept either in the beaten tracks of adult literacy and recreation, or engaged themselves in programmes of general propaganda and enlightenment. In a few States, especially in Bihar, an attempt was made to get the social education officers closely allied to the rest of the extension staff. Preparing the ground for the main extension programme and utilizing their special skills to educate the **public in the merits** of new reforms were a service which the project staff and the people very easily appreciated. In Uttar Pradesh the social education staff worked through subject-wise committees for popular participation set up in the villages. The results of this intimate association between social education and other project programmes in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh have been widely appreciated.

121. The situation in other States is slowly improving, though one or two circumstances still act as a disturbing influence. In keeping with the general trend towards departmental integration social education officers have been put in many States under some sort of

control exercised by the normal educational authorities. These latter, even where they have special departments of social education, tend to equate it more specifically with adult literacy. In any case, they have inadequate appreciation of the comprehensive and long-term purpose of social education as an accompaniment of extension movement. In a few cases, the social education staff has also been given some duties in regard to the normal educational activity in the area. Thus in a way the social education staff has been detached from the team of project officials. In other respects, however, the two are really coming closer together. The help received from social education officers is better appreciated. While the superior technical guidance coming from educational authorities is to be welcomed, anything standing in the way of a greater integration of purpose and usefulness between the social educational officers and the rest of the project staff must be scrupulously avoided.

122. The real testing ground of the merit and usefulness of the social education officer is to be found in the villages. Where the social education officer is working in pursuance of the same general and particular objects which the Grama Sevak has in view a concord between the two is easily established. The villagers themselves are shrewd enough to sense the situation, and if the two are working in harmony, as is prominently the case in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, villagers respect both almost equally. Where such an understanding is lacking, all manner of complexes develop and the villagers themselves develop some peculiar attitudes. While the social education officers develop a superiority complex, especially towards the Grama Sevak, the villagers often look upon the Grama Sevak as the more useful among the two. It is not improbable that at some stage in the future the two roles will tend to merge with one another, perhaps each, in that process, shedding part of duties to some other more specialized agency. Till then the only normal role for social education is that of a participant in the actual popularization and implementation of the programme of community projects and national extension.

123. Even if we were to confine ourselves to the two most common activities of social education organizers, viz., adult literacy and recreation, the people normally react well to both of these. Indeed, there are strict limits within which adult literacy can be effectively promoted among villagers. Often these attempts start very well, but what with the hour, which is usually the late evening or early night, or with the initial sense of boredom regular attendance of adults is only a fraction of registration. It is often the teen-ager who sticks out the course better than the adult. Certificates of literacy, especially if they are the basis on which the adult-school teacher is remunerated, may appear to substantiate a more hopeful

story. But that is only apparently so, and it is now clear that important as adult literacy is, it is by no means the most promising means of spreading enlightenment among grown-ups in rural areas. Recreational programmes are calculated to serve a better cultural and educational purpose if they are done in a manner actively to draw in local participation, psychologically as well as physically. The attainment of success in this sphere is not only a matter of long and specialised training but also of special talent. If it concentrates on the routine jobs like adult literacy and recreation alone social education may exhaust its appeal much sooner than its protagonists at present think possible.

#### Village Crafts and Industries

124. Within the experience of the evaluation centres there have been no really noticeable cases of improvement of the position of village crafts other than hand pounding of rice in Andhra, sericulture in Assam, and brick-kilns in Uttar Pradesh. Smaller evidences of successful effort on the part of project leaders to rehabilitate village arts and crafts may be found in some other centres as well. Moreover, it may be merely an accident that no highly localized village industry has been in existence in the evaluation blocks. A direct query regarding hand-spinning and weaving elicited the fact that except among women in Pusa (Bihar) and among Harijans in Erode (Madras) hand-spinning did not obtain on a noticeable scale. At least in the latter case the spinning was actively encouraged by the Khadi workers who constituted the market for the produce of the hand-spinners. While the possibility of a satisfactory and progressive situation among village artisans in developmental and other areas in the country cannot be ruled out, the evidence of facts as obtaining in the twenty odd evaluation centres in as many States indicates a by no means active or successful programme for promoting the employment, production, organization or welfare of rural artisans and craftsmen.

125. This lacuna in the occupational coverage of the programme of rural development is now more or less freely recognized by planners and project staff. Some of the explanations and extenuations which are offered are of course superficial. That specialist and departmental staff is not available, and that enough provision for easy credit facilities is not made are two such explanations. These are valid as far as they go. But that they are not anything like a full explanation is proved by the fact that other centres where these facilities are provided in full are really not proving much more serviceable to their artisans than is the case with the less endowed centres. Some block authorities are satisfied with having established a fair number of production-cum-training centres for village

artisans. Some of these centres, it is true, are spreading valuable education about use of better instruments and adoption of better designs. For instance, the work done by the production-*cum*-training centres in Bihar has improved the knowledge and techniques of artisans engaged in a number of occupations. The record of attendance and of gainful employment of the trainees of these institutions is, however, **generally not very reassuring, and only provokes** the thought that unless a deeper analysis of the prospects of reorganizing village artisans and village industries is attempted there would be no firm programme of development which may be entrusted to an extension organization.

126. Two experiences which have been increasingly brought home to observers of changing conditions in rural areas generally, and in project and extension areas in particular, would suggest some lines of further useful investigation. Everybody—the artisan, the trainer, the financier, the officer, the salesman—agrees that the great difficulty is that there is no market. For instance, accustomed to making good sales in days of a cloth famine the thoughts of some at least among the hand-loom weavers turn to having a secured market provided for them by State action if necessary. But the change in the tastes and demand of the people is also an uncertain factor which must be taken into account in considering the large variety of goods produced by village artisans. How to assure an effective demand for at least the major products of rural industry is the first question which must be satisfactorily answered before a programme for their rehabilitation and expansion can be drawn up. Here the implication is not only that of legal restriction, or of satisfying individual tastes, but of meeting the needs of an expanding economy and a rising standard of life.

127. Even now the rise in agricultural productivity and the increasing investment of funds in rural areas are augmenting private and public demands for a number of things which the local artisans cannot at present supply. It is, of course, a relevant consideration that even as it is there is no special effort to see that the project and extension purchases, of material as well as of services, are made as far as possible out of local resources. Under the most patronizing policy, however, with the present skills and organization available to rural artisans they can hope to meet only a part of that growing demand which economic progress is bound to create in the country—both in urban and in rural areas.

128. It is here that another strong trend of thought among the artisan classes themselves becomes vitally relevant. It would be

wrong to suggest that artisans carrying on their business according to traditional pattern will not be only too glad if a remunerative monopoly is created for their products. They would not be human if they did not jump to the temptation. But it would be equally wrong to assume that the artisans desire to have no better ways of doing things than they are accustomed to or are at present enabled to use. The example of improving agriculture in which modern and scientific methods are being freely propagated and used is not lost on them. What they see of improved methods of production in their own lines is generally not repugnant to them. They would rather desire to have an opportunity to do things, in many cases the things that they have been accustomed to do, in a better, more scientific and a more productive way. If alternative employments were available they would much rather change their occupation and do a more skilled and remunerative thing than be 'preserved' in their traditional employments. It is not in many that such thoughts are fully articulated, but inquiries made leave no doubt that the psychology of the artisans themselves is moving in this direction. This is an unmistakable part of the general enlightenment and progressiveness which have come over the country after independence and as the result of a solemn recognition of a status of equality among all citizens.

129. No plan for village artisans and rural industries which ignores the inevitable changes in demand consequent on economic expansion, and the broadening of mind and expectations of the artisans themselves can now hope to possess any validity. The employment of non-agricultural village population, along with their resources and skills, must be treated as a part of the overall programme of gainful employment for the people of the country as a whole. Village industries ought not to remain a tolerated and subsidized section of the nation's economy. In the national plans for economic development a programme of progressive technological change consistent with provision of full employment at all stages must be drawn up. Such a programme would impinge on all aspects of economic life and on several of the directive principles of the Constitution, including social justice and avoidance of concentration of economic power. These are considerations which the highest among planning and governmental authorities must weigh. A workable programme of development, which takes into account all the significant features of the problem of non-agricultural employment must first be formed and promulgated. It is only then that the extension organization can set itself to its non-agricultural task with the same determination and hope with which it is now attending to its task in regard to the agricultural sector.



### Transition to National Extension Service

130. The present scheme of community projects and national extension service contemplates a two way transition. Some of the national extension service areas will be selected for more intensive development *a la* Community Project Pattern if they evince enough public response and if the state resources permit of the additional investment. On the other hand, the Community Project Areas will at the end of their period of intensive development be turned into the national extension service pattern which is said to be the normal system of developmental administration. This latter transformation would mean presumably that the Project level staff would be discontinued, and all aspects of development other than agriculture and allied activities, local works, social education, co-operation and rural industries, will revert to their respective departments. The number of Gram Sevaks will be reduced by half. With the exception of a yearly liability of Rs. 1.5 lakh for recurring expenditure, which the Government of India and the State Governments will share half and half there will be no specific obligation on Government either for investment or for outright expenditure.

131. It will be seen that for the most part the national extension service pattern is a purposeful reorganization of the administrative system and its strengthening for the purpose of rural extension. But it is not as full or as high powered as the Community Projects and its investment complement is very limited. The advisability of this dilution has been touched upon earlier and it need not be gone into further. When a Community Project is transformed into a national extension block the responsibility of not only caring for the works already constructed but also of keeping up of the tempo of community development must devolve on somebody, if the occurrence of a relapse or a vacuum is to be avoided. The only reasonable method of such a transition would be to entrust the work to an appropriate local body *viz.*, panchayat or co-operative society at the village level and appropriate local bodies at higher rungs of organization. In States where these bodies are somewhat developed a hope is being expressed that they will play an active part in developmental work in the new circumstances. But hardly anywhere—Orissa seems to be an exception—is a planned transition being arranged. It would indeed be difficult to arrange such a transition unless the attitude of State Governments towards panchayats and other local bodies, and towards co-operative societies were more positive and determined. As the day of transition to national extension service draws near it becomes very clear that in all development areas unless an institutional structure of panchayats and co-operative societies is built up there will be little spontaneity and continuity in the developmental process. In fact there would be a

serious danger of retrogression and neglect setting in, and undoing of all the hopefulness and progress built up in the project areas during the initial period. This is one of the fundamental features of democratic growth which ought not to be ignored any more.

132. Fortunately the rate of progress in most of the community project areas has latterly risen, thus creating a hope that by the end of the period of four years or so almost every village will have been brought under the influence of the developmental process. This, however, must be treated as a beginning not by any means as the end. The actual participation of all villagers in the varied aspects of development and their realization of a confident and progressive community life is the goal to be attained. Orderly and well-planned measures of transition may be prepared and put into effect well in time. Creation of local leadership and activation of local institutional life as sharers in the national effort of planning for welfare, and as the normal means of promoting development, should, therefore, be never lost sight of. If this truth was not clear to everybody at any earlier stage, now that we know how the transition constitutes a challenge to the designers of the whole effort, we ought to be more than ever convinced that nothing will last which the people have not done for themselves.

#### **Extension and Reformation**

133. Extension is a phrase which has latterly been made current to express a two way process of reformation. In matters affecting the business and welfare of people there is always room for some improvement, and it ought to be somebody's job to be studying the ways of bringing about such improvement. This is the research job for which suitable institutions have to be provided. Such institutions can at best be few and they have to be located in selected places, where experts carry on their researches and arrive at proved methods calculated to bring about the change for the better. To enable these centres to work most effectively they have to be kept in touch with conditions in the field at both ends of their activity. The need for improvement, the problem faced in the field, has to be brought to the notice of the researcher, and the solution discovered by him has to be conveyed and made acceptable to the person who has to face the problem.

134. This is in essence the extension process, though it depends for its success on the competence of the researcher as also on the efficacy of the organization or service set up to carry out the process. Unless supplies needed to make the utilization of the researcher's discovery wide-spread are easily available, the organizing of a

distributional agency becomes a necessary adjunct to extension. Further, when extension is undertaken as a part of a national plan for rural reconstruction and development provision of means to persons of limited resources becomes equally necessary. Whether it is agriculture, and one of its allied activities such as animal husbandry, or it is health, in the Indian context the extension service ceases to be only a communication service. It is a comprehensive and well-endowed public organization for enabling the mass of the people to find solutions to their problems, and to attain by stages higher and higher steps of welfare.

135. In our conditions the so called extension movement has been in operation for two years and over. It is now possible to build our action for the future on experience gained hitherto. Even confining ourselves to the physical service of a two-fold communication, it is found that few of the official staff, excepting some of the highest among them, are aware of the importance of the field-to-laboratory part of the process. Needless to say at the lower levels, in particular at the Gram Sevak level, this awareness is as good as non-existent. At least in some cases the researchers themselves appear to have resented the representations of field-workers, mistaking them as accusations of ignorance, instead of treating them as challenges to their ingenuity. This attitude on the part of researchers is all the more surprising when it is realized that all they have now ready to go into the extension channel is mostly a few generalized improvements. Lacking adequate appreciation at researcher and high official level, the sensitivity of the field staff to the scientific and technical interest of their work has been stunted. One of the advantages of bringing the specialist services in closer touch with the field organization would be to create favourable conditions for a more realistic appreciation of the place of research in an extension programme.

136. If we add to this discouraging atmosphere the further fact that by and large the training of the Gram Sevak, even in agriculture, has been very superficial we shall see why even as a carrier of a proved advice and directive he has only limited suitability. Even a small adaptation to soil, climate, rain fall etc. is often above him. And he is not encouraged either to notice these for himself or to bring them to the notice of higher scientific staff. The people on their part are becoming only slowly aware of the scientific nature of the whole process. For the moment they feel that these things are something like replacement of oil by electricity, a once for all affair. With the spread of further education the extent of scientific awareness will no doubt improve. But almost immediately it is

necessary to build well-equipped research centres in close proximity to the people. Both the scientists and the people will be better for this reform. In fact without it the elementary conditions necessary for the operation of an extension service will not be created in our country.

137. There are some features of our economic and social backwardness which need a more fundamental remedy than mere extension, which presupposes a generally developed state of a people. Inquiries made in several parts prove beyond a doubt that whether it is agriculture, health or education, the gulf between acceptance, which is easy, and adoption, which is difficult, is caused by paucity of initial equipment of material means or of education. The majority of people do not possess even the minimum which is needed to benefit from new instruments of betterment. This is true not only in regard to the possession of physical capital and land, but also, and more especially, in regard to those important social advantages which consist in better education, better health and a better awareness of the possibilities of modern science. To put them in possession of these a community effort is necessary. This is why large scale schemes of social reformation affecting education, transport, health, distribution and credit have to be undertaken to create favourable conditions for the success of 'extension'. It is rather a long-range and comprehensive 'extension' which we need at this stage. That is why the Five Year Plan has incorporated Community Projects and National Extension Service in its comprehensive scheme of national reformation.

#### Resume

138. Those who have been responsible for the direction of community projects and those others who have taken a deep interest in them have often asked to be informed as to how far some of the major objectives of that effort have been realized. For convenience, these objectives may be enumerated as follows:—(1) Progressive outlook; (2) Greater production; (3) Greater employment; (4) Habits of co-operative action including membership of co-operative societies; (5) Participation in local works; (6) Number of families participating in development programmes; and (7) Women's and young men's interest in the programmes of development. It is not yet possible to answer these questions in quantitative terms. The Programme Evaluation Organization has recently finished a Bench Mark Survey which covers most of these points. Data bearing on some of these items has been presented in tabular form in Part IV of this report. It will be some time before the whole process of tabulation and reporting is finished. Even then these reports will indicate the position as it stood at the end of a year, or in some cases a year and a half, after the projects commenced their working. The nature

and extent of progress consequent on the introduction of Community Projects and National Extension Programmes will be more specifically assessed as further repeat surveys are held in later years.

139. For the present it is possible to answer some of the questions usually raised mostly in qualitative terms. The progress which has taken place in several spheres of activity, and which has been recorded throughout this report, would not have been possible without a real appreciation by the people of the need and possibility of improvement through knowledge and practice of better ways. So often it has happened that extension agents who thought that they were fighting an uphill battle against popular prejudice and apathy actually discovered that they were preaching to the converted, almost to the impatient. What people were waiting for in most places was not the prophecy but its fulfilment. Better cultivation, better education, better industrial techniques were almost enthusiastically welcomed. This does not mean that all people have in all respects appreciated the essentially rational or scientific basis of modern civilization. Two illustrations should suffice to indicate the leeway which has yet to be made. While it will be true for almost all areas where the developmental organization has reached to say that people have become medicine minded, they have as yet not fully appreciated the importance of environmental hygiene and preventive medicine. Then again even in the agriculturally progressive parts, like Andhra for instance, it is still possible to come across some well-to-do farmers who suffer from an inhibition against the use of chemical fertilizers. These illustrations underline the need for intensive, comprehensive and sustained efforts at mass education, which is the foundation of national extension.

140. The principal field of economic activity which is influenced by community projects and national extension is that of agriculture, which under the favourable influence of good monsoons has latterly done very well. It is equally true, however, that the measure of added production has risen considerably by means of better seed, fertilizers, better tillage, insecticides, better implements, irrigational aids etc. Here again it would be rash in the absence of sufficiently representative and accurate statistics to give a quantitative measure, but the obvious success attending on major schemes of seed and fertilizer distribution has touched almost all States. As regards greater employment no data on a wide scale is yet available. The extent of new land brought under cultivation, added employment created by more intensive and more continuous cultivation, improvement in some village industries in a few places, employment in extension activities themselves, and the indirect effects of all these would add up to a considerable total. But more specific answers to inquiries regarding the extent of improvement in employment opportunities

will be forthcoming only when results of surveys which are in hand are made available.

141. As regards habits of co-operative action, the whole burden of much that is said in this report is to state that more emphasis must be placed on ensuring progress through collective and institutional action by the people. So far as the people themselves are concerned they are reacting well, at least as well as can be expected, to all opportunities for collective action. Whether it is a discussion group, or a project based on some participation or an adult literacy class, or a festival people are found to initiate, organize and lead group action. All the normal aptitudes and reactions of active community life are in full evidence in the panchayats, in *ad hoc* bodies and in co-operatives. In many places factions are forgotten or transformed in the changing context of an expanding life for all. This is highly encouraging, and if for nothing else at least for having opened out an opportunity for local leadership and constructive local co-operation community projects should be welcomed and kept going.

142. As regards the more institutionalized forms of co-operation, e.g., co-operative societies, there is, as already noted, no great emphasis on this form of extension organisation yet. This is one of the directions in which further progress of extension must be guided. The great need for urgent progress in this sphere will be indicated by actual experience of the co-operative movement as it affected the people in ten of the evaluation centres. It is interesting to study some of these figures in view of the recent interest roused by the report of the All India Rural Credit Survey Committee.

143. The reports for the year 1953-54 received from the Evaluation Officers indicate that some headway has been made in the organization of co-operative societies, but, judging from the Bench Mark data for ten blocks, it would appear that, generally speaking, the membership has still remained at a low level. For example, the report from Saurashtra indicates that almost a saturation point has been reached with regard to the setting up of co-operative societies, but the percentage of households having any member of the family as member of a co-operative society is only about 4.25. In the selected villages of Morsi also. (Madhya Pradesh), there are a fair number of co-operative societies but the percentage of households participating in this movement is only slightly above 6 per cent. It is also noticed that in 2 other Blocks the percentage of households having members of their families in co-operative societies is less than 5; in 3 Blocks it is between 5 and 10 per cent.; in 3 other Blocks it is between 10 and 15 per cent.; and in one block (Samalkot, Andhra), it is about 28 per cent.; whereas in Kolhapur (Bombay) it is 42 per cent. While the extent of membership is variable and

generally small, it will be seen that in States which are sympathetic towards co-operative organizations they are becoming more and more widely serviceable. Even now, however, it is mostly the better to do among farmers who are served by co-operatives, and the other sections have yet to be brought within the sphere of the co-operative movement.

144. The general situation in regard to public participation is very encouraging. The extent of participation in local works varies considerably from one evaluation block to another and also from one selected village to another within any particular evaluation block. Several factors including nature of works, nature of contribution, people's attitude and official leadership are responsible for these variations. Subject to these there has been a uniformly favourable response from the people to all really useful schemes of betterment in which the burdens and the benefits were equitably distributed. As regards the nature of participation experience indicates that where labour contribution is substantial, participation is quite high; but where the only type of contribution or, say, the more substantial part of the contribution is in terms of money, the extent of participation is low. Again, where the programme of road construction has been taken up, the labour participation forthcoming is substantial. This is to be expected since in other programmes, such as school construction, construction of drinking-water wells, etc., after a certain stage of work, skilled labour is required and the scope for public participation is restricted. It is impossible to get away from these physical limitations, but the people's enthusiasm has in some places even achieved that, leaving the leaders in no doubt as to the extent to which the people are prepared to go in realizing collective welfare by collective effort.

145. One of the requirements in planning from below is that every family has to have a plan. In practice, however, nowhere are family plans yet found on such a scale. It is, therefore, difficult to assess the progress of the development programmes in term of proportions of families having plans for themselves. One can, however, assess the extent to which households participate in various important programmes.

146. Taking the use of improved seed as an important item of useful participation, one finds a very encouraging degree of acceptance in almost all areas. For instance, the percentage of cultivating households using improved seeds to total cultivating households is highest in Batala (93 per cent.), with Kolhapur (66 per cent.), Rajpur (54 per cent.) and Bhadson (46 per cent.) following in that order. In some of these regions, like Batala and Kolhapur, improved seeds are being used for a long time.

147. As regards the impact of the programme on women and children the most outstanding features are health and maternity centres, schools, young men's club, and recreation centres. Specific programmes for women and children are undertaken only in a few blocks. But the position in regard to activities affecting women is such as should give ground for hope in a more systematically planned programme. There is no doubt that efforts are being made in different projects to interest women in the comprehensive programme of rural reconstruction by organising women's clubs, Bhajana Mandalis, knitting classes, literacy classes, etc. Programmes such as introduction of smokeless chulas also bring women into direct contact with the development activities. However, in most of the places, lack of clear-cut programmes for women is the main reason why they remain more or less untouched by these activities. Except, perhaps, the areas where women are still somewhat secluded, they have shown a distinct awareness and appreciation of, the general programme of improvement and of health, hygiene and education in particular.

148. These are no more than sidelights on the important issues raised by those who have a deep interest in the progress of developmental projects. More and more exact answers will be forthcoming as the work of survey and reporting progresses from stage to stage. But from what has been made available hitherto it is clear that in regard to the intellectual, social and economic transformation of the countryside the community projects are playing a significant part. Further progress so as to cover all sections and all classes, and to draw in the people themselves through their own institutions into the process of building a better life for themselves is clearly called for. But no one is more conscious of this need than those who are participating in the effort. While experience gained over the last two years inevitably suggests the need for further modifications in design and in execution, it confirms, even more emphatically, the sense of confidence and hope among the leaders and officers, and above all, among the people themselves.



23815

## PROGRAMME EVALUATION ORGANIZATION

(Planning Commission)

### APPENDIX

#### PROGRESS OF ACTIVITIES DURING THE YEAR

During this year (1954-55), coverage by intensive evaluation was increased somewhat by taking on a few newly started NES blocks as evaluation centres. This was done in order to have a more adequate and representative idea of working of this type of development blocks with which the entire country is proposed to be covered within the next few years. An additional evaluation centre was also started at the Sonepat community project near Delhi. At this centre, pre-tests of various field surveys and enquiries are carried out before these surveys are conducted on a country-wide scale. Also, certain intensive methodological studies are being conducted here. Including these new centres, the PEO's field staff is now stationed in 24 locations of which 15 are community projects or blocks and 9 NES blocks.

2. In the initial stages of evaluation work, current appraisal of programmes formed the most important part of the evaluation officers' work. However, after some time emphasis was progressively shifted to more intensive and detailed enquiries about specific aspects of the development programme or its social and economic impact upon the rural population. Even during the first year, some specific subject studies had been undertaken (e.g., Man-Power Mobilization in Uttar Pradesh), and a programme of field surveys had been initiated. During this year, the organization conducted a series of detailed field surveys on various aspects of the programme or its social and economic impact. These enquiries, it is felt, will enable the Organization to begin to answer such questions as the following; to what extent are rural people participating in particular development programmes; what factors lead them to such participation; what types of experience have they had with adoption of improved practices or with participation in development efforts of collective benefit; what social and economic effects can be related to the adoption of such practices, etc.

#### Current Evaluation:

3. The First Evaluation Report which was published in May 1954 was followed by a briefer Six Monthly Report which was presented to the National Development Council in November 1954. This report which dealt with the period—October 1953 to September 1954, brought to the notice of the Planning Commission, the Community Projects Administration, the State Governments and other concerned, some of the more important features of working of the community development and extension projects during these six months. By this time, most of the initial difficulties and delays which had characterised the working of these projects during the first year had begun to be overcome, the tempo of extension activity had risen significantly and an idea of how the projects would function under more or less normal conditions had begun to be obtained. The second Evaluation Report again reviews the entire programme over the whole year.

4. Besides this general review of the overall progress of the programme, more intensive studies of particular parts of the programme have been undertaken from time to time. Two important parts of the programme (i) agricultural extension activities during the Kharif season, 1954 and (ii) programmes involving people's participation, were selected for more intensive study during this year. The objective of these studies is to bring out more fully than is possible in a general review and illustrating wherever necessary with the specific instances and case histories from particular villages, the organization and methods followed in these programmes in different areas, the relative degree of success achieved and the difficulties and problems encountered. These studies were conducted in all evaluation centres. In each centre, besides studying the methods of planning and conduct of the programme at the project level, the manner of functioning of the programmes in six to eight villages was studied. Interviews were conducted with key respondents in these villages to obtain their experiences and reactions towards the programmes. The field work for these studies has been completed and the reports are under preparation.

5. Special studies are also made from time to time of a particular programme in an individual State or project when it is felt that the results would be of wider significance, and would be of help to those engaged in similar programmes elsewhere. Two such studies undertaken during the year were concerned with (i) programmes of training selected villagers for assistance in development activities in Bhopal and (ii) the working of Production-cum-Training Centres in Bihar. The report of the first study has been published.

### Field Enquiries: Bench-Mark Survey.

6. The most important among the field surveys undertaken during the year was the Bench-Mark Survey. This survey was initiated in the evaluation centres from February 1954, and was completed in most centres by the end of June 1954. The objectives of the survey were to obtain information on (i) the extent of people's participation in improvement practices especially agricultural improvement practices and in works of community development; and (ii) the effects of adoption of such practices upon production, income, employment and levels of living of the rural population. Data on economic and social conditions closely related to the development programme were also obtained. It is proposed by means of repeat surveys conducted at stated intervals to measure the changes in such conditions. This data, it is hoped, would not only give a more detailed picture of conditions in the community development areas, but also make possible assessment of the changes occurring in them from time to time and the effect of the development programme upon these. In each centre, six to ten villages were selected according to a carefully prepared sampling design. From 1,000 to 1,500 families were contacted for purposes of the survey in each centre.

7. Of the various aspects of economic and social life in selected villages on which information has been collected the most important are:

- (i) Occupation, literacy and employment pattern;
- (ii) The incidence of important types of illness;
- (iii) Pattern of land holdings and crop production;
- (iv) The extent to which improved practices with regard to crop production, animal husbandry and land improvement are being adopted;
- (v) The extent of participation by people in community development work and in development bodies like the Panchayats, Cooperatives etc.

Data has been obtained on a more selective basis (from about 60 to 100 families in each block) also on the following items:

- (i) Assets and liabilities position;
- (ii) Capital formation in agriculture;
- (iii) Practices regarding production and disposal of crops; and
- (iv) Employment and earnings position of agricultural labourers.

The tabulation and analysis of the data collected by the survey is now in progress. Selected data for about 10 blocks, which has become available is being presented along with this report (in Part II-b) to give an idea of the type of information that will be available in the survey Tables and Reports which are under preparation.

### ACCEPTANCE OF PRACTICES ENQUIRY

8. The Bench-Mark Survey will bring out, among other things, the extent of adoption of improved agricultural practices or participation by people in works of collective benefit. The purpose of this enquiry is to probe further, and by more intensive questioning of a smaller number of respondents, to throw light on such points as the following: -

- (i) the reasons or incentives for adoption, partial adoption or non-adoption of particular programmes sponsored by the project;
- (ii) attitudes of the people towards specific programmes which they have adopted; whether their experience has been one of success and satisfaction or otherwise; whether adoption is likely to increase or decrease in future as a result of their past experience;
- (iii) facilities obtained by people for adopting these programmes and facilities desired by them for effective adoption in the future.

9. This study was also conducted in all evaluation centres in the same villages in which the Bench-Mark Survey had been done. In each centre, about 250 families, comprising of about 25 per cent of the total number of families were canvassed. The field work for the enquiry has been completed and the data is being analysed.

### INPUT REQUIREMENTS STUDY

10. The object of this study is to obtain data regarding the agricultural input of a current nature (excluding capital investment) in relation to certain important crops to which the agricultural development programme is closely related. At the same time for each of these crops and each of the selected villages, a budget of resources required for the current input per acre would be constructed by discussion with knowledgeable farmers. On the basis of this survey, input data will be used also to establish a base line position as prevailing at present with regard to the use of different items such as

seed, manure, labour, water etc. so that in future studies, the same can be compared and the changes can be assessed. The study has been extended to 9 blocks in respect of specified crops as follows:

Paddy in Samalkot, Kolhapur, Mandya, Bhadrak and Bhathat; cotton in Morsi and Bhadson; wheat in Batala; sugarcane in Kolhapur; and Potatoes in Kufri Narkanda in Himachal Pradesh. A sample of about 60 cultivators growing the crop concerned has been selected for this purpose in each block. Field work for the study has been completed and the data is being analysed.

### SOCIOLOGICAL SURVEYS

11. The work on study of social organization, factions and leadership, and the impact of the development programme on village social life which had been initiated with the sociological study of a North Indian village near Delhi was continued by taking up a similar study of a South Indian village in Mysore State. Field work for this study has been completed and the report is ready to go to the press.

### EVALUATION OF TRAINING PROGRAMMES AND INTENSIVE ANALYSIS OF THE FUNCTIONING OF VLWs.

12. The need for undertaking evaluation of the vast programme of training of Gram Sevaks and other personnel for the community development and extension projects has been felt by the Community Projects Administration for some time. Particularly urgent has been the need for a study on "what type of persons (i.e. with what background, experience, and personality traits) make good Gram Sevaks, and what types make poor Gram Sevaks", so that the criteria and methods for selection of future Gram Sevaks may be suitably modified. A study of this problem has been recently undertaken. This study is being conducted in all community projects and Blocks (of the 1952-53 and 1953-54 series), in 14 States, with active participation by project officers, subject matter specialists and the Gram Sevaks themselves. Field work on the first phase of this study is nearing completion.

### STUDY OF HEALTH AND LEVELS OF LIVING

13. In order to make more detailed and specialized enquiries into the health and levels of living of the rural population in community projects areas, arrangements for investigations to be made by composite teams of medical and sociological researchers of the relevant university faculties have been thought of, and a study in the Kolhapur community project undertaken by a Poona University team is under way.

## MANUAL OF VILLAGE RECORDS

14. As an accompaniment and necessary instrument of planned development in villages maintenance of records is essential. Some records are already being maintained; some have to be maintained as a bye-product of new activities; and some have to be specially maintained for guidance of policy. The States were meeting these requirements in their own way. In due course the need for a simple uniform minimum of village records was badly felt. The PEO at the request of the C.P.A. undertook the responsibility of examining the existing forms of records and of suggesting a scheme of their rationalization. This has now been done and a Manual of Development Records for Villages is being supplied to the States.

23815-



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**PART II**  
**STATISTICAL NOTES AND TABLES**

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*A Note on the Tables*

1. Statistical information for the purpose of the report was called for from all the twenty Evaluation Centres located in nineteen States. Fifteen of these centres are community project blocks and the remaining five, national extension service blocks. Except for Ladpura NES block in Rajasthan, other NES blocks were previously pilot extension blocks but converted into NES blocks since April 1954. Compared to the blocks included in the last year's evaluation report, two additional blocks, namely, Sonepat in Punjab and Ladpura in Rajasthan, have been considered for the current annual evaluation report.

2. On the basis of this information, the two types of tables set out in the last year's report are also incorporated in the current report. The composite tables are attached to this note whereas project tables for each centre are attached to the respective project reports. Fifteen composite tables have been prepared for eleven major activities in eight fields, staff and finance, with a view to provide comparative picture of the progress made in the various projects or blocks in different fields of development activity. Within each major activity table, only some important sub-activities have been stated.

3. Some common features relating to the tables may be noted here. First, in a table for any given activity, names of only those blocks in which this activity is sponsored to some extent are given. Secondly, for comparative purpose, wherever possible percentage figures are given. Absolute figures of achievements, etc., not found in the composite tables can be found in project tables. Thirdly, while it is possible from the set of tables to comment on the progress of the programmes during the second year in different regions and compare the achievements, etc., of the second year with those of the first year, it is not so in the case of Ladpura block, as it started functioning only in 1953. In the case of other four NES blocks also, it may be noted that comparisons may be affected to some extent due to their conversion from the status of pilot extension blocks to that of the NES blocks.

4. Generally speaking, the composite tables follow the pattern of the last year's report except that new tables for finance, co-operation and artificial insemination, have been added and those relating to compost pits, land reclamation, castration, disinfection, construction of latrines and soakage pits have been dropped.

5. This note seeks to focus attention on some general aspects of the community development programme. As in the last year's report, comments have been made in the name of the States rather than in the name of the project. But this should not be construed



as an attempt at generalisation of particular features observed in a small area in a State for the whole of that State.

### *Finance*

1. Tables on *Finance* are prepared only for the fifteen Community Projects, for which comparable figures are available. Table I(i) gives the progress of overall expenditure in different States. In terms of absolute amount spent, Batala in Punjab comes first, whereas the least amount is spent in Assam (column 6). In terms of percentage of total amount spent upto September 1954 to the total sanctioned amount for the project period, Uttar Pradesh comes first having spent about 44 percent of the sanctioned amount. The percentages for Madhya Pradesh, Punjab (Batala project), and Saurashtra vary between 30 and 35. There are four other States for which these percentages vary between 22 and 29. The least percentage expenditure is noticed in Hyderabad. The tempo of overall expenditure can be seen from figures given under column 8 of the table. These figures show that in as many as 9 States, 80 percent or more of the expenditure was incurred during the second year.

2. Table I(ii) gives the total amount spent upto September 1954 according to different programmes. The corresponding sanctioned amounts are also shown. In agriculture and animal husbandry, Madras has spent the largest amount which exceeds its sanctioned amount. The lowest expenditure occurs in Madhya Bharat which is of the order of Rs. 6,000. In Irrigation, Batala in Punjab and Madhya Bharat have incurred substantial amounts both in absolute terms and in relation to targets. Assam and Bihar have spent least amounts under this head. The position in regard to expenditure for reclamation can be summarised by saying that expenditures are everywhere low. Only in Madhya Bharat and Bombay, some appreciable amounts have been spent. In the field of health and sanitation, Batala in Punjab has spent the largest amount, with Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Madhya Bharat, Bihar and Assam following in that order. West Bengal shows the lowest amount spent. In Education, Saurashtra shows the largest expenditure; Hyderabad comes second. The figures for Andhra, Bombay, Orissa, Punjab and Madhya Bharat vary from Rs. 1,10,000 to 1,34,000. The lowest expenditure occurs in Assam. Absolutely speaking, the expenditure in social education is quite low; but again the targets fixed are correspondingly low. On the other hand, in rural arts and crafts, the targets fixed are substantial, but the expenditures are almost everywhere meagre. Only Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Bihar show some appreciable expenditure. Expenditure on communication shows considerable variation from State to State, where programmes like construction of pucca roads, bridges, etc. are

taken up, the aggregate expenditure tend to be higher than in those States where the main programme is construction of kutcha roads.

3. Table I(iii) gives percentages of expenditure during the second year to the total expenditure upto September, 1954 for different programmes. A glance at the table will clearly show that in almost all the States and for all the activities the major part of the expenditure has been incurred in the second year. In several cases all the amount spent so far has been spent during the second year. There are only two instances where the amount spent in the second year is less than the amount spent in the first year. They are, Andhra in respect of health and sanitation and Batala in Punjab under education.

#### *Staff*

1. The staff position shows considerable improvement during the second year. Table II shows that sanctioned staff has been more or less filled up everywhere. The fact that considerable recruitment was done during the second year can be seen from figures under 'C', which give differences between staff in position as on 30th September 1954 and as on 30th September 1953. Except for the basic school activity, the differences between the sanctioned strength for 1954-55 (item A) and the staff in position at the end of September 1954 (item B) cannot be considered very large. In the field of basic schools, it seems that sanctioned strength itself is being revised upwards. As an extreme case, example of Assam can be cited. In this State the sanctioned strength for basic school teachers for 1954-55 is 147 as against 8 for the year 1953-54. Consequently, one finds that recruited staff is much below the sanctioned strength. In Orissa also, the sanctioned strength is increased from 70 to 140 during the same period. While generally speaking the phase of intensive recruitment can be considered to have ended in most places and in most activities, this is not the case in the fields of 'rural arts and crafts' and 'cooperation'. In both these fields several States have not even sanctioned some staff at officers' or inspectorial levels.

2. It may be mentioned here that in Table II only some specific categories of staff have been mentioned. The auxiliary staff in each field is not shown. This was also the pattern adopted in the Six-monthly Evaluation Report for the period October 1953 to March 1954. A comparison of figures given in Table II of the present report and Table B(ii) of the six-monthly report for comparable categories of staff would indicate that a large part of the recruitment done during the second year was done during the first half of that year.

#### *Targets.*

1. Fixation of targets, i.e. formulation of quantitative goals, provides a basis for measuring the progress made in different fields.

Accordingly, in the composite tables targets for the project period have been generally shown. The fact that a large number of States now give targets shows that the importance of fixing overall targets is now being recognized by most States. Madhya Bharat, Punjab, U.P. and West Bengal have laid down targets for 8 to 10 of the 11 programmes considered in the composite tables. In several cases, targets have been fixed for the first time or their coverage extended to larger number of items.

2. Much, however, still remains to be done in this field. Out of the 20 evaluation centres only one, namely, Bihar has fixed targets for one or more activities in all the 11 programmes. On the other hand, 5 States, which include 4 Part B and C States and Andhra, no targets are available at present. Even in the major States of Bombay and Madras targets have been laid down only for 5 to 6 of these programmes. Considering the position according to programmes, it is noticed that at one end as many as 14 States have fixed targets for some irrigation programmes while, at the other end, only 5 States have got any targets for cooperative societies.

3. Breaking up of targets into smaller periods or areas has yet to make considerable headway, though it cannot be denied that the need for doing this is being increasingly realized and steps have already been initiated in some States to this end.

4. In several cases, original targets for the period have been substantially revised. For example, the target for paddy seed has been raised from 2,595 to 6,750 maunds in Assam, and for fertilizers from 3,000 to 6,000 maunds in Orissa. On the other hand, they have been substantially reduced in some cases. Thus, targets for fertilizers have been reduced from 30,645 to 2,000 maunds in U.P. In Saurashtra, the target for chemical fertilizers has been reduced from 2,730 to 1,000 maunds while that for manure mixture has been raised from 1 lakh to 1.5 lakh maunds. In Bihar, targets for construction of new drinking water wells and repair of such wells have been raised from 300 each to 500 and 900 respectively. In Assam, the target for the conversion of primary into basic schools has been revised from 16 to 180. These revisions may be due to the fact that original targets were fixed somewhat arbitrarily and that it is now becoming increasingly possible to set up more realistic targets in the light of experience gained so far. This process of correction is still going on for some activities in various States. Andhra is an outstanding example. Due to the revisions under process, targets for the period are not available for any activities in this State.

Fields of major activities.

(i) *Agriculture.*

1. The programme of *seed distribution* [Table III(i)] was extended to additional crops in several projects during the second year. The

selection of crops for this programme naturally varied in different States due to their varying crop patterns. Paddy continued to be most extensively distributed in the various centres, as can be seen from the fact that barring a few exceptions, namely, Madhya Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh and PEPSU, distribution of paddy seed formed an important programme. Wheat was next in importance, being found in 10 centres. Programme of introducing improved varieties of cotton occupies an important place in Madhya Pradesh, Punjab and PEPSU. Potatoes were sponsored in four States including Himachal Pradesh.

2. Percentages of achievement upto the end of the period to the project period targets, given in column 6 of the table show the degree of progress achieved in respect of the seed programme in various States. It would seem from the available figures that programme of distribution of improved seed can be considered to have made satisfactory progress in relation to targets in Madhya Pradesh (cotton), U.P. (Paddy, wheat, vegetables and barley), West Bengal (paddy) and PEPSU (cotton and gram). It is likely, however, that some States like West Bengal (paddy), the targets themselves were fixed low. In some cases achievements lagged behind the schedule. Examples of such cases are as follows. Wheat in Madhya Pradesh, peas in U.P., potatoes and sugarcane in West Bengal, paddy, wheat, jowar and groundnut in Madhya Bharat.

3. As is to be expected, by far the greater part of the total achievement was registered in the second year. This can be seen from col. 7 of the table. In a few cases, however, accomplishments during the second year were less than during the first year. The reasons for slowing down of the tempo for any specific activity would be due to several factors; but if it is not deliberate, reasons for the slower tempo of the activity concerned may deserve further examination.

4. In the field of *fertilizers and manures* [Table III(ii)] the main emphasis continued to be on chemical fertilizers this year as well. However, bonemeal and manure mixtures have also been sponsored in a few cases. Due to the absence of targets for the period, percentages of accomplishment to the targets cannot be given in several cases. From the available statistics, however, it would appear that achievement is low at many places. For example, it was only 28.2 percent for chemical fertilizers in Sonapat and 37.1 per cent in Batala, both in Punjab, 24.3 percent for fertilizer mixture in West Bengal, 24.7 percent and 26.7 percent for chemical fertilizers and organic manures respectively in Madhya Bharat. On the other hand, achievements have exceeded the targets in Bihar and U.P. The progress also appears to be good in Saurashtra and PEPSU. Judged by the absolute amounts of accomplishments the progress indicated by figures in col. 5 can be considered satisfactory in Andhra. Bihar,

Madhya Pradesh and Mysore, in respect of chemical fertilizers, and in Hyderabad and Saurashtra in respect of mixtures.

(ii) *Irrigation*

1. Under Irrigation [Table III(iii)] construction of new wells and repair of old wells and tanks have been generally taken up. Tube-wells and pumping sets also figure in quite a few cases. Andhra has made a conspicuous progress in filter-point tube wells and lift irrigation schemes. Bihar also shows considerable progress in sinking of tube-wells. The targets for new wells and repair of wells have also been exceeded in Madhya Pradesh. A large number of pumping sets have also been installed. Considering the poor facilities of irrigation in the Morsi Project in Madhya Pradesh, the progress can be considered noteworthy. Madhya Pradesh, Madhya Bharat, Saurashtra and PEPSU have more varied and intensive programmes.

2. As in the case of seeds and fertilizers, much of the progress made was in the second year.

(iii) *Animal Husbandry.*

1. The following programmes have been included in composite tables: (i) inoculation and vaccination of cattle and poultry [Table III(iv)], (ii) treatment of sick cattle [Table III(v)], and (iii) artificial insemination and supply of pedigree bulls and birds [Table III(vi)]. Targets for *inoculation and vaccination* have been rarely fixed. Consequently, accomplishments cannot be assessed in comparison with targets. The tempo of the activity has increased in the second year. In only two cases were the achievements slightly lower in the second year than in the first year. Similarly, in the field of *treatment of sick cattle* achievement has been satisfactory in several States.

2. *Artificial insemination* facilities have been extended in seven projects. From the figures of accomplishments, it would appear that the old prejudices against artificial insemination are gradually dying out. Where this programme is not initiated, pedigree bulls are generally being supplied, except in two cases where both activities have been taken up.

(iv) *Rural Health and Sanitation.*

Table III(vii) gives figures relating to the construction and repair of drinking water wells which constitute important programmes in this field at most places. Though this activity gained popularity from the very outset, no targets for the entire project period are available in several cases, like Andhra, Madhya Pradesh, Hyderabad, Mysore, Rajasthan and Himachal Pradesh. Considerable progress seems to have been made in this sphere in Bihar, Punjab, West

Bengal and Madhya Bharat. Much of the activity has taken place during the second year (col. 7).

(v) *Education.*

Opening of new schools and conversion of primary into basic schools constitute main programmes. The emphasis on the basic schools became more pronounced during the second year. However, basic schools do not figure in the educational programmes of some states, such as Mysore, Punjab, Vindhya Pradesh and U.P. In States like Madhya Pradesh targets fixed are so low that relative achievements (col. 6) are unduly inflated. In several other States also programme of setting up new schools has already achieved the target for the whole period. As in other programmes, in a number of States, achievement during the second year was higher than during the first year (Col. 7).

(vi) *Social Education.*

Social education programmes embrace a variety of items, such as adult education centres, libraries, community centres, youth clubs, etc. But the most widely adopted programme is that of adult education centres. Good progress has been registered in this direction in almost all projects. Libraries are also being started in increasing numbers. The figures, however, do not indicate as to how far advantage is taken of these facilities.

(vii) *Communications.*

Road construction was one of the earliest programmes to be taken up in many States. Batala in Punjab shows an achievement of 77 percent of the target in respect of kutchra roads, whereas Bihar has exceeded the target. In the latter case, however, repairs have also been included. Judged from Col. 8, in most of the States, activity relating to construction of kutchra roads had also progressed almost as much during the second year as in the first, but in the matter of pucca roads, at most places, the progress was made only during the second year. Madhya Pradesh shows outstanding progress in respect of pucca roads. Achievements have been generally behind schedule in respect of construction of culverts.

(viii) *Co-operation.*

Statistics regarding number of multi-purpose societies organised and converted from credit societies, etc. have been set forth in table III(xi). The failure to lay down targets in several cases is clearly in evidence. While some progress in respect of cooperatives is made, it is difficult to assess the same in relation to a planned programme in the absence of targets. Much of what has been accomplished is accomplished during the second year. Progress seems to be satisfactory in Bihar, Bombay, Punjab and Saurashtra, as can be judged from the numbers of societies organised.

## LIST OF COMPOSITE TABLES

Serial No.	Table	Table No.
<b>FINANCE</b>		
1	Summary statement . . . . .	I (i)
2	Statement showing (A) sanctioned amounts and (B) total expenditures . . . . .	I (ii)
3	Statement showing percentage of expenditure for the year ending September 1954 to total expenditure by programmes . . . . .	I (iii)
<b>STAFF</b>		
4	Staff position for some selected categories . . . . .	II
<b>AGRICULTURE</b>		
5	Distribution of seeds . . . . .	III (i)
6	Distribution of fertilizers and manures . . . . .	III (ii)
<b>IRRIGATION</b>		
7	Construction and repairs of wells, tanks and supply of pumping sets, etc. . . . .	III (iii)
<b>ANIMAL HUSBANDRY</b>		
8	Artificial insemination, supply of pedigree bulls and birds, etc. . . . .	III (iv)
9	Inoculation and vaccination of cattle and poultry . . . . .	II (v)
10	Treatment of sick cattle . . . . .	III (vi)
<b>RURAL HEALTH AND SANITATION</b>		
11	Construction and repair of drinking water wells, etc. . . . .	III (vii)
<b>EDUCATION</b>		
12	Opening of schools, conversion into basic type and construction of school buildings . . . . .	III (viii)
<b>SOCIAL EDUCATION</b>		
13	Adult education centres, libraries, recreation centres, etc. . . . .	III (ix)
<b>COMMUNICATIONS</b>		
14	Construction of roads and culverts, etc. . . . .	III (x)
<b>COOPERATION</b>		
15	Starting of new cooperatives, conversion into multiple purpose societies, etc. . . . .	III (xi)

TABLE I(i)—FINANCE (Summary Statement)

(In thousands of rupees)

Serial No.	State and Project/Block	Amount sanctioned for the project period:			Total Expenditure since beginning of project upto Sep., '54	% of amount spent since beginning of project upto Sept., '54 col. 5	% of amount spent from Oct., '53 to total expenditure from beginning of project to Sept., '54
		Other than loans	Loans	Total			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
<i>Community Development Projects</i>							
<i>Part 'A' States</i>							
1.	Andhra—Kakinada Peddapuram	2915	2976	5891†	1004	17.0	58.1
2.	Assam—Cachar	N. A.	N. A.	5214§	698	13.4	81.9
3.	Bihar—Pusa Samastipur Shakra	3361	1926	5284	1058	20.0	80.1
4.	Bombay—Kolhapur	3274	3024	6298	921	14.6	81.4
5.	Madhya Pradesh—Amraoti Morsi Daryapur.	N.A.	N.A.	5820	1811	31.1	85.5
6.	Madras—Lower Bhawani	3509	2991	6500	928	14.2	72.8
7.	Orissa—Bhadrak	3488	2129	5617	1429*	25.4	76.8
8.	Punjab—Batala	3090	2789	5879	2015	34.3	81.3
9.	Punjab—Sonapat	3492	2392	5884	897	15.2	79.9
10.	Uttar Pradesh—Bhathat	1143	997	2140	939	43.9	68.5
11.	West Bengal—Mohammad Bazar	1420	2499	3919	1115	28.5	89.7
<i>Part 'B' States</i>							
12.	Hyderabad—Nizamsagar	3434	2967	6401	779	12.1	83.2
13.	Madhya Bharat—Rajpur	3365	2914	6279	1803	28.7	80.0
14.	Saurashtra—Manavadar Vanthali	2884	3051	5935	1779	30.0	67.2
15.	Travancore-Cochin—Chalakudy	3249	2728	5977	1331	22.3	82.5

† A balance of Rs. 4.6 lakhs out of the total budget provision remains to be allotted under different items.

§ The total provision is 65 lakhs and the balance of Rs. 12.8 lakhs remains to be allotted under different items.

\* This excludes expenditure on State headquarters (Rs. 61,000) and equipments.

N.A.—Not available.



TABLE I(ii)—

Statement showing (A) the sanctioned amounts for the projects period and

Serial No.	State-Project/Block	Agriculture and Animal Husbandry		Irrigation	
		'A'	'B'	'A'	'B'
1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>Community</i>					
<i>Part 'A' State</i>					
1.	Andhra-Kakinada Peddapuram . . . . .	641	286	2055	100
2.	Assam—Cachar . . . . .	756	153	95	30
3.	Bihar—Pusa Samastipur Shakra . . . . .	560	214	1086	36
4.	Bombay—Kolhapur . . . . .	324	46	2036	216
5.	Madhya Pradesh—Amraoti Morsi Daryapur . . . . .	184	79	1750	545
6.	Madras—Lower Bhawani . . . . .	410	421	2025	103
7.	Orissa—Bhadrak . . . . .	467	69	1090	222
8.	Punjab—Batala . . . . .	415	99	2025	873
9.	Punjab—Sonapat . . . . .	365	101	1499	168
10.	Uttar Pradesh—Bhathatblock . . . . .	280	132	689	229
11.	West Bengal—Mohammad Bazar block . . . . .	433	173	..	..
<i>Part 'B' State</i>					
12.	Hyderabad—Nizamsagar . . . . .	606	71	1481	200
13.	Madhya Bharat—Rajpur . . . . .	638	6	1708	833
14.	Saurashtra—Manavadar Vanthali . . . . .	238	153	1632	568
15.	Travancore-Cochin—Chalakudy . . . . .	925	179	1100	151

'A'—Amount sanctioned for the project period.

'B'—Total expenditure since the beginning of the project upto September 1954.

\* —Includes social education also.

## FINANCE

(B) total expenditure upto September 1954 by programmes.

(In thousands of rupees)

Reclamation		Health & Sanitation		Education		Social Education		Rural Arts & Crafts		Communications	
'A'	'B'	'A'	'B'	'A'	'B'	'A'	'B'	'A'	'B'	'A'	'B'
7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
<i>Development Project'</i>											
..	..	417	73	470	114	100	25	450	2	1000	51
565	1	895	120	472	30	182	23	672	14	598	23
395	..	612	123	641	90	120	59	449	69	610	76
282	89	650	70	838	110	140	10	415	16	1009	24
175	10	709	145	540	48	61	25	360	93	1150	293
300	1.5	745	96	620	..	100	22	450	0.4	1150	31
300	39	589	158	423	114	175	45	450	77	1370	327
125	19	575	247	539	136	140	64	354	25	1035	221
300	4	627	132	391	134	140	49	277	19	1314	13
40	..	208	92	96	44	69	29	120	45	363	152
312	77	332	66	146	42	170	30	477	14	337	124
463	13	894	82	700	115	64	36	464	53	940	119
105	121	867	124	616*	120*	..	..	431	15	1115	359
825	50	681	201	389	232	140	69	400	22	1029	288
150	..	857	181	162	42	183	31	786	9	854	296

TABLE I(ii)—FINANCE

Statement showing percentages of expenditure for the year ending September '54  
 1. total expenditure from the beginning of project to end of  
 September '54, by programmes and by projects.

Serial No.	State-Project/Block	Agriculture & Animal Husbandry	Irrigation	Reclamation	Health & Sanitation	Education	Social Education	Rural Arts & Crafts	Communications
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>Community Development Projects</i>									
<i>Part 'A' States</i>									
1.	Andhra—Kakinada Peddapuram.	64.3	..	..	43.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2.	Assam—Cachar .	81.7	100.0	..	90.8	90.0	82.6	71.4	73.9
3.	Bihar—Pusa Samastipur Shakra.	71.5	91.7	..	85.4	98.9	93.2	98.6	100.0
4.	Bombay—Kolhapur	56.5	100.0	100.0	87.1	73.6	100.0	87.5	62.5
5.	Madhya Pradesh—Amraoti Morsi Daryapur.	59.5	100.0	100.0	66.2	85.4	68.0	95.7	98.0
6.	Madras—Lower Bhawani.	68.2	100.0	100.0	78.1	..	100.0	100.0	100.0
7.	Orissa—Bhadrak .	76.8	82.0	97.4	79.1	91.2	77.8	62.3	82.6
8.	Punjab—Batala .	69.6	92.2	100.0	87.8	30.9	76.6	100.0	93.2
9.	Punjab—Sonapat .	90.0	85.7	100.0	84.0	100.0	83.7	70.0	77.0
10.	Uttar Pradesh—Bhathat block.	79.5	86.5	..	67.4	63.6	58.6	77.8	59.9
11.	West Bengal—Mohammad Bazar block.	93.6	..	100.0	81.8	100.0	83.3	100.0	98.4
<i>Part 'B' States</i>									
12.	Hyderabad—Nizam-sagar.	77.4	86.0	100.0	82.9	75.6	91.6	88.6	87.4
13.	Madhya Bharat—Rajpur.	100.0	77.6	62.8	96.8	94.2*	..	100.0	88.0
14.	Saurashtra—Manavadar Vanthali.	89.5	51.8	66.0	79.6	72.8	87.0	86.4	66.0
15.	Travancore-Cochin—Chalakudy.	74.3	98.0	..	93.9	100.0	100.0	66.7	81.1

\*Includes Social Education.



TABLE III

FIELD: *Agriculture*MAJOR ACTIVITY : *Distribution of Improved seed*

Sl. No.	State and Project/Block	Type
1	2	3
<i>Part 'A' States</i>		
1	Andhra—Kakinada Peddapuram . . . . .	Paddy . . . . .
2	Assam—Cachar . . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . . (ii) Sugarcane cuttings . . . . . (iii) Vegetables . . . . .
3	Bihar—Pusa Samastipur Shakra . . . . .	Paddy, wheat, potatoes, jowar etc.
4	Bombay—Kolhapur . . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . . (ii) Wheat . . . . . (iii) Sugarcane Cuttings . . . . .
5	Madhya Pradesh—Amrooti Morsi Daryapur . . . . .	(i) Wheat . . . . . (ii) Cotton H. 420 . . . . . (iii) Cotton Buri 0394 . . . . . (iv) Jowar . . . . . (v) Groundnut . . . . .
6	Madras—Lower Bhawani . . . . .	Paddy, wheat, cotton, jowar and bajra.
7	Orissa—Bhadrak . . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . . (ii) Other seeds . . . . . (iii) Vegetables . . . . .
8	Punjab—Batala . . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . . (ii) Wheat . . . . . (iii) Cotton . . . . .
9	Punjab—Sonepat . . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . . (ii) Wheat . . . . . (iii) Gram . . . . . (iv) Potato . . . . . (v) Cotton . . . . .
10	Uttar Pradesh—Bhathat . . . . .	(i) Early paddy . . . . . (ii) Late paddy . . . . . (iii) Wheat . . . . . (iv) Barley . . . . . (v) Gram . . . . . (vi) Peas . . . . . (vii) Potato . . . . . (viii) Vegetables . . . . .
11	West Bengal—Mohammad Bazar . . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . . (ii) Potato . . . . . (iii) Sugarcane . . . . . (iv) Vegetables . . . . .

## ACTIVITIES

Unit	Target for the project period	Total accomplish-ments since beginning of the project	Percentage of col. 6 to col. 5	Percentage of accomplish-ments during the year Oct. '53 to Sept. '54 to col. 6
4	5	6	7	8
<i>sent Projects</i>				
mds.	..	N. A.	..	..
"	6,750	2,296	34.0	58.8
nbs.	..	16,200	..	100.0
pkts.	..	5,837	..	64.0
mda.	14,083	4,531	32.2	67.5
"	..	996	..	22.2
"	..	113	..	100.0
sets	..	17,000	..	100.0
mds.	5,292	52	1.0	100.0
"	13,580	22,699	167.2	57.8
"	4,368	7,115	165.2	48.9
"	2,744	442	16.1	41.8
"	..	3,248	..	100.0
"	..	4,441	..	49.2
"	83,000	7,524	9.1	77.1
"	1,500	226	15.1	77.4
acres.	500	663	132.6	73.6
mds.	Entire area	93	..	78.5
"	"	7,741	"	28.9
"	"	776	"	87.4
"	"	32	"	100.0
"	"	1,901	"	62.1
"	"	42	"	100.0
"	"	340	"	28.5
"	"	99	"	..
mds.	19,000	13,302	70.0	48.1
"	2,000	1,565	78.3	57.0
"	9,000	5,308	59.0	34.7
"	5,000	2,895	57.9	42.9
"	1,600	775	48.4	50.8
"	4,100	737	18.0	75.4
"	1,200	565	47.1	50.5
lbs.	480	248	51.6	73.4
mds.	400	400	100.0	58.5
"	900	170	18.9	100.0
"	3,150	180	5.7	100.0
lbs.	..	68	..	100.0

1	2	3
<i>Part 'B' States</i>		
12	Hyderabad—Nizamsagar . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . .
13	Madhya Bharat—Rajpur . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . . (ii) Wheat . . . . . (iii) Cotton . . . . . (iv) Jowar . . . . . (v) Groundnut . . . . .
14	Saurashtra—Manavadar Vanthali . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . . (ii) Wheat . . . . . (iii) Cotton . . . . . (iv) Jowar . . . . . (v) Bajra . . . . . (iv) Others . . . . .
15	Travancore-Coching—Chalakudy . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . . (ii) Seed multiplications . . . . .
		<i>National Extension</i>
<i>Part 'B' States</i>		
16	Mysore—Mandya . . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . . (ii) Ragi . . . . .
17	PEPSU—Bhadson . . . . .	(i) Wheat . . . . . (ii) Cotton . . . . . (iii) Jowar . . . . . (iv) Sugarcane . . . . . (v) Gram . . . . .
18	Rajasthan—Ladpura . . . . .	Wheat . . . . .
<i>Part 'C' States</i>		
19	Himachal Pradesh—Kufri Narkanda . . . .	(i) Wheat . . . . . (ii) Potato . . . . .
20	Vindhya Pradesh—Nowgong . . . .	(i) Paddy . . . . . (ii) Wheat . . . . . (iii) Gram . . . . .

† Includes 3,300 mds. by natural spread.  
N.A. = Not available.

	4	5	6	7	8
mds. (Rs.)	..	..	18,360	..	65.6
mds.	875	..	100	11.4	74.0
"	7,500	..	532	7.0	79.1
"	12,000	..	4,708	39.2	75.0
"	5,500	..	263	4.8	75.3
"	3,000	..	186	6.0	57.2
"	..	..	146	..	97.3
"	..	..	236	..	100.0
"	..	..	1,943	..	44.6
"	..	..	50	..	70.0
"	..	..	72	..	43.1
"	..	..	646	..	100.0
"	..	..	1,156	..	61.2
"	..	..	291	..	3.4
<i>Service Blocks</i>					
mds.	..	..	1,377	..	..
"	..	..	139	..	..
"	8,500	..	4,000	47.1	..
"	1,000	..	1,196	119.6	..
"	..	..	1,500	..	..
"	..	..	800	..	..
"	1,800	..	4,000	200.2	..
"	..	..	325	..	..
mds.	..	..	505	N.A.	..
"	..	..	7,900	..	..
"	N.A.	..	156	..	..
"	..	..	740	..	..
"	..	..	84	..	..



TABLE III (ii)—ACTIVITIES

FIELD : *Agriculture.*MAJOR ACTIVITY : *Distribution of fertilizers and manures.*

(Figures in maunds)

Sl. No.	State and Project/Block	Type	Target for the project period	Total accomplishments since beginning of the project	Percentage of col. 5 to col. 4	Percentage of accomplishments during the year Oct. '53 to Sept. '54 to col. 5
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Community Development Projects</i>						
<i>Part 'A' States</i>						
1	Andhra—Kakinada Peddapuram	Chemical fertilizers	..	47,292*	..	39.6
2	Assam—Cachar	(i) Chemical fertilizers	..	2,805	..	11.1
		(ii) Bonemeal	1,200	135	11.3	100.0
		(iii) Oil cakes	6,000	165	2.8	100.0
3	Bihar—Pusa Samastipur Shakra]	Chemical fertilizers & bonemeal	78,848	81,284	103.1	87.3
4	Bombay—Kolhapur	(i) Chemical fertilizers	..	3,416	..	..
		(ii) Organic manures	..	4,858	..	100.0
		(iii) Manure mixture	..	16,058	..	27.3
5	Madhya Pradesh—Amraoti Morsi Daryapur	Chemical fertilizers	144,452	51,246	35.4	23.1
6	Madras—Lower Bhanwani	Chemical fertilizers	..	33,747	..	49.3
7	Orissa—Bhadrak	Chemical fertilizers and manures	6,000	3,750	62.5	77.5
8	Punjab—Batala	Chemical fertilizers	60,000	22,254	37.1	60.8
9	Punjab—Sonepat	Chemical fertilizers	40,000	11,300	28.2	82.4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Uttar Pradesh—Bha- that . . . . .	(i) Chemical fertili- zers . . . . .	2,000	3,172	158.6	91.2
		(ii) Oil cakes & manure mixture . . . . .	500	878	175.6	96.7
11	West Bengal—Mo- hammad Bazar . . . . .	(i) Chemical fertili- zers . . . . .	16,500	6,090	36.7	63.2
		(ii) Fertilizer mixture . . . . .	8,400	2,044	24.3	27.4
	<i>Part 'B' States</i>					
12	Hyderabad—Nizam- sagar . . . . .	(i) Chemical fertili- zers . . . . .	..	63,563	..	95.0
		(ii) Paddy fertilizer mixture . . . . .	..	1,68,868	..	79.9
		(iii) Groundnut cake . . . . .	..	4,656	..	..
13	Madhya Bharat—Raj- pur . . . . .	(i) Chemical fertili- zers . . . . .	10,600	2,615	24.7	63.2
		(ii) Organic manures . . . . .	16,000	4,815	26.7	78.2
14	Saurashtra—Mana- vadar Vanthali . . . . .	(i) Chemical fertili- zers . . . . .	1,000	876	87.6	77.3
		(ii) Manure Mixture . . . . .	1,50,000	80,500	53.7	49.0
15	Travancore-Cochin— Chalakudy . . . . .	Chemical fertili- zers . . . . .	..	7,469	..	88.4
	<i>National Extension Service Blocks</i>					
	<i>Part 'B' States</i>					
16	Mysore—Mandya . . . . .	Chemical fertili- zers . . . . .	..	24,668	..	..
17	PEPSU—Bhadson . . . . .	Chemical fertili- zers . . . . .	8,175	6,610	80.8	..
18	Rajasthan—Ladpura . . . . .	Chemical fertili- zers . . . . .	..	440	..	..
	<i>Part 'C' States</i>					
19	Vindhya Pradesh— Nowgong . . . . .	Chemical fertili- zers . . . . .	4,000	749	19.0	..

\* Excludes fertilizers distributed by the Department and private firms.

TABLE III (iii)—ACTIVITIES

FIELD : *Irrigation*MAJOR ACTIVITY : *Construction and repair of wells, tanks, supply of pumping sets, etc.*

(Figures in numbers)\*

Sl. No.	State and Project/Block	Type	Target for the project period	Total shments since beginning of the project	Percentage of col. 5 to col. 4	Percentage of shments during the year Oct. '53 to Sept. '54 to col. 5
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Community Development Projects</i>						
<i>Part 'A' States</i>						
1	Andhra—Kakinada puram	(i) Tube wells (ii) Filterpoint tube-wells (iii) Lift irrigation schemes	.. .. ..	6 110 3	.. .. ..	100.0 14.5 33.3
2	Assam—Cachar	Small bunds	..	22	..	100.0
3	Bihar—Pusa Samastipur Shakra	(i) New Wells (ii) Tubewells (iii) Medium and minor Schemes	.. .. ..	200 94 42	53 88½ 57½	25.5 93.6 135.7
4	Bombay—Kolhapur	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of old wells (iii) Repair of tanks (iv) Smalldams (v) Weir-cum-bridges	.. .. .. 55 9	4** 92 52 3 2	.. .. .. 5.5 22.2	.. 73.9 46.2 100.0 100.0
5	Madhya Pradesh—Amraoti Morsi Daryapur	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells (iii) Pumping sets (iv) Small dams	.. .. .. ..	150 150 300 1	251 250 98 ..	167.3 166.7 32.7 100.0
6	Madras—Lower Bhawani	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of old wells (iii) Pumping sets	.. .. ..	50 75 200	7 .. 58	14.0 .. 29.0
7	Orissa—Bhadrak	(i) Deversion Weirs (ii) Tubewells	.. ..	12 10	4½ 2	33.3 20.0

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Punjab—Batala	(i) New wells	150	74	49.3	100.0
		(ii) Repair of wells	..	51	..	100.0
		(iii) Pumping sets	750	206	27.5	100.0
		(iv) Tube wells	15	1	6.7	100.0
9	Punjab—Sonepat	(i) New wells	800	189	23.6	86.8
		(ii) Repair of wells	..	200	..	61.5
		(iii) Pumping sets	150	6	4.0	83.3
		(iv) Tube wells	110	8	7.3	87.5
10]	Uttar Pradesh— Bhathat	(i) Wood-lined wells	732	115	15.7	62.6
		(ii) Masonary wells	200	74	37.0	81.1
		(iii) Pumping sets	..	8	..	100.0
		(iv) State tubewells	15	12	80.0	75.0
		(v) Persian wheels	50	28	56.0	67.8
11	West Bengal— Mohammad Bazar	Pumping sets	60	11	18.3	90.9
Part 'B' States						
12	Hyderabad—Nizam- sagar	(i) Repair of tanks	..	17	..	100.0
		(ii) Remodelling of distributaries	..	1	..	100.0
13	Madhya Bharat— Rajpur	(i) New wells	3,000	2,053	68.4	26.9
		(ii) Repair of wells	2,250	1,959	87.1	47.3
		(iii) Pumping sets	300	184	61.3	51.1
		(iv) Minor irrigation tanks	..	7	..	100.0
		(v) Persian wheels	50	27	54.0	100.0
		(vi) Lift irrigation de- vices	5	5	100.0	80.0
14	Saurashtra—Mana- vadar Vanthali	(i) New wells	900	423	47.0	36.2
		(ii) Repair of wells	1,000	321	32.1	16.8
		(iii) Repair of tanks	10	2	20.0	50.0
		(iv) Pumping sets	50	38	76.0	100.0
		(v) Pick-up-weirs	10	6	60.0	83.3
15	Travancore-Cochin— Chalakudy	(i) Repair of tanks	..	1	..	100.0
		(ii) Pumping sets	120	98	81.7	100.0
		(iii) Major lift irriga- tion schemes	10	11	..	..
National Extension Service Blocks						
PART 'B' STATES						
16	Mysore—Mandya	(i) New wells	..	42	..	..
		(ii) Pumping sets	..	1	..	..

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	PEPSU—Bhadson	(i) New wells	920	522	56.7	..
		(ii) Repair of wells	115	110	95.6	..
		(iii) Pumping sets	125	96	76.8	..
		(iv) Tube wells	25	13	52.0	..
		(v) Persian wheels	..	68	..	..
18	Rajasthan—Ladpura	(i) New wells	..	10	..	..
		(ii) Repair of wells	..	56	..	..
		(iii) New tanks	..	2	..	..
Part 'C' States						
19	Vindhya Pradesh— Nowgong	(i) Pumping sets	20	7	35.0	..
		(ii) Persian wheels	100	4	4.0	..
		(iii) New water channels (yds).	..	1,760	..	..

\* except where specified otherwise

\*\* 13 under progress.

† Excludes 17 works executed by other departments during Oct. 52 to Sept. 53.

‡ one is incomplete.

§=not energised.

π 3 undertaken—none completed.

N.A.—Not available.

TABLE III (iv)—ACTIVITIES

FIELD : *Animal Husbandry*MAJOR ACTIVITY : *Artificial insemination, supply of pedigree  
bulls & birds*

(Figures in numbers)

Sl. No.	State and Project/Block	Type	Target for the project period	Total accomplish-ments since beginning of the project	Percen-tage of col. 5 to col. 4	Percen-tage of accom-plish-ments during the year Oct, '33 to Sept, '34
I	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Community Development Projects</i>						
PART 'A' STATES						
1	Andhra—Kakinada Peddapuram	Artificial insemination centres	..	2	..	100.0
2	Assam—Cachar	(i) Pedigree bulls (ii) Poultry birds	3 ..	2 393	66.7 ..	.. 21.4
3	Bihar—Pusa Sam- astipur, Shakra	Artificial inseminations*	1,927	670	34.8	79.9
4	Bombay—Kolhapur	Poultry birds	..	190	..	87.9
5	Madhya Pradesh— Amraoti Morsl Daryapur	Poultry units	..	2	..	100.0
6	Madras—Lower Bhawan, N	Dispensary-cum-Artificial insemination centres	2	1	50.0	100.0
7	Orissa—Bhadrak	(i) Artificial insemi- nations* (ii) Pedigree bulls	.. 12	1,039 10	.. 83.3	80.1 ..
8	Punjab—Batala]	Pedigree bulls	60	20	33.3	35.0
9	Punjab—Sonapat	(i) Pedigree bulls (ii) Poultry birds	.. 1,540	35 339	.. 22.0	100.0 100.0
10	Uttar Pradesh— Bhathat]	(i) Cows inseminated (ii) Buffaloes inse- minated	.. ..	47 270	.. ..	100.0 100.0
11	West Bengal— Mohammad Bazar	(i) Pedigree bulls (ii) Poultry birds	20 500	20 250	100.0 50.0	50.0 48.6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PART 'B' STATES						
12	Travancore-Cochin— Chalakydy	(i) Artificial inseminations*	16,000	1,005	6.3	73.0
		(ii) Pedigree bulls and buffaloes	12	7	58.3	28.6
		(iii) Poultry centres	4	2	50.0	50.0
<i>National Extension Service Blocks</i>						
PART 'B' STATES						
13	Mysore—Mandya	Artificial insemination centre	..	1	..	..
14	PEPSU—Bhadson	(i) Artificial inseminations*	..	339	..	..
		(ii) Pedigree bulls	..	46	..	..
		(iii) Poultry birds	..	18	..	..
PART 'C' STATES						
15	Vindhya Pradesh— Nowgong	Pedigree bulls	100	6	6.0	..

\* indicates number of cattle inseminated.

TABLE III (v)—ACTIVITIES

FIELD : *Animal Husbandry*MAJOR ACTIVITY : *Inoculation and vaccination of cattle and poultry*

(Figures in numbers)						
Sl. No.	State and Project/Block	Type	Target for the project period	Total accomplishments since beginning of the project	Percentage of accomplishments to col. 4	Percentage of accomplishments during the year Oct '53 to Sept. '54 to col. 5
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Community Development Projects</i>						
PART 'A' STATES						
1	Andhra—Kakinada Peddapuram	Cattle inoculation	..	13,466	..	61.4
2	Assam—Cachar	Cattle inoculation	..	2,136	..	91.1
3	Bihar—Pusa Samastipur Shakra	(i) Cattle inoculation	1,88,592	78,607	41.6	59.7
		(ii) Poultry inoculation	11,727	7,755	66.1	44.4
4	Bombay—Kolhapur	Cattle inoculation	..	1,76,378	..	55.5
5	Madhya Pradesh— Amraoti Morsi Daryapur	(i) Cattle inoculation	..	1,21,912	..	42.5
		(ii) Poultry inoculation	..	7,129	..	93.4
6	Madras—Lower Bhawani	Cattle inoculation	..	11,527	..	98.2
7	Orissa—Bhadrak	Cattle and poultry inoculation	..	1,14,282	..	77.9
8	Punjab—Batala	(i) Cattle inoculation and vaccination	..	1,71,100	..	70.0
		(ii) Poultry inoculation	..	27,200	..	100.0
9	Punjab—Sonepat	Cattle inoculation	..	1,70,100	..	58.1
10	Uttar Pradesh— Bhathal	Cattle inoculation	43,000	1,08,655	272.1	53.8
PART 'B' STATES						
11	Hyderabad—Nizam- sagar	Cattle inoculation	..	32,618	..	47.0
12	Madhya Bharat— Rajpur	Cattle inoculation	1,25,000	1,35,500	108.4	66.8



1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Saurashtra—Manavadar Vanthali	Cattle inoculation	..	6,834	.. 100.0
					<i>National Extension Service Blocks</i>
	PART 'B' STATES				
14	Mysore—Mandya	Cattle and poultry inoculation	..	36,457	..
15	PEPSU—Bhadson	(f) Cattle inoculation and vaccination	..	501	..
		(ii) Poultry vaccination	..	232	..
16	Rajasthan—Ladpura	Cattle inoculation	..	888	..
	PART 'C' STATES				
17	Vindhya Pradesh—Nowgong	Cattle inoculation	..	300	..

TABLE III (iv)—ACTIVITIES

FIELD: Animal Husbandry

MAJOR ACTIVITY : Treatment of sick cattle

(Figures in numbers)

Sl. No.	State and Project/Block	Target for the project period	Total accomplishments since beginning of the Project	Percentage of Col. 4 to Col. 3	Percentage of accomplishments during the year Oct. '53 to Sept. '54 to Col. 4.
1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>Community Development Projects</i>					
PART 'A' STATES					
1	Andhra—Kakinada Peddapuram . . . . .	..	8,022	..	60.1
2	Assam—Cachar . . . . .	..	10,117	..	98.6
3	Bihar—Pusa Samastipur Shakra . . . . .	15,438	7,827	50.7	79.9
4	Bombay—Kolhapur . . . . .	..	60,471	..	54.7
5	Madhya Pradesh—Amraoti Morsi Daryapur . . . . .	..	15,287	..	80.7
6	Madras—Lower Bhawani . . . . .	..	4,862	..	56.8
7	Orissa—Bhadrakl . . . . .	..	90,350	..	87.6
8	Uttar Pradesh—Bhathat . . . . .	..	9,441	..	57.4
9	West Bengal—Mohammad Bazar . . . . .	4,800	3,774	78.6	77.3
PART 'B' STATES					
10	Hyderabad—Nizamsagar . . . . .	..	12,299	..	78.5
11	Saurashtra—Manavadar Vanthall . . . . .	..	73,000	..	84.9
12	Travancore-Cochin—Chalakydy . . . . .	..	13,333	..	72.2
<i>National Extension Service Blocks.</i>					
PART 'B' STATES					
13	Mysore—Mandya . . . . .	..	22,436*	..	
14	PEPSU—Bhadson . . . . .	..	6,130	..	
15	Rajasthan—Ladpura . . . . .	..	1,997	..	
PART 'C' STATES					
16	Vindhya Pradesh—Nowgong . . . . .	..	399	..	

\* Includes sheep and poultry.

TABLE III (vii)—ACTIVITIES

FIELD Rural Health and sanitation

MAJOR ACTIVITY : Construction and repair of drinking water wells etc.

(Figures in numbers).

Sl. No.	State and Project Block	Type	Target for the project Period	Total accom- plish- ments since begin- ning of the Project	Percen- tage of Col. 5 to Col. 4	Percen- tage of accom- plish- ments during the year Oct. '53 to Sept. '54, to Col. 5
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Community Development Projects</i>						
PART 'A' STATES						
1	Andhra—Kakinada Peddapuram	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells (iii) Filter point tube wells with hard Pumps	.. .. ..	1* 10 34	.. .. ..	100.0 100.0 100.0
2	Assam—Cachar	New wells	120	6	5.0	100.0
3	Bihar—Pusa Samasti pur Shakra	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	500 900	142 627	28.4 69.7	87.3 92.2
4	Bombay—Kolhapur	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	100 ..	7( 118	7(a) ..	85.7 39.8
5	Madhya Pradesh—Amraoti Morsi Daryapur	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	.. ..	75 102	.. ..	70.7 60.8
6	Madras—Lower Bhawani	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	229 240	6 65	2.6 27.1	100.0 63.1
	Orissa—Bhadrak	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	180 ..	80 23	44.4 ..	70.0 52.2
8	Punjab—Batala	(i) New wells (ii) Repair or remodel- ing of wells	20 450	13 252	65.0 56.0	100.0 73.0
9	Punjab—Sonapat	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	10 40	49 144	490 360	49.0 100.0
10	Uttar Pradesh—Bhathat	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	50 200	18 55	36.0 27.5	61.1 100.0
11	West Bengal—Mohammad Bazar	New wells	100	104	104.0	71.2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PART 'B' STATES						
12	Hyderabad—Nizam-sagar	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	.. ..	34(b) 3	.. ..	100.0 100.0
13	Madhya Bharat—Rajpur	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	100 2,000	69 120	69.0 6.0	82.6 67.5
14	Saurashtra—Manavadar Vanthali	Construction and repair of wells	190	91	47.9	27.5
15	Travancore-Cochin—Chalakudy	(i) New wells (ii) Tube wells (iii) Repair of wells	96 20 ..	41 1 2	42.7 5.0 ..	49.8 100.0 50.0
<i>National Extension Service Block.</i>						
PART 'C' STATES						
16	Mysore—Mandya	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	.. ..	N.A. N.A.	.. ..	.. ..
17	PEPSU—Bhadson	Repair of wells	..	23	..	..
18	Rajasthan—Ladpura	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	.. ..	4 5	.. ..	.. ..
PART 'C' STATES						
19	Himachal Pradesh—Kufri Narkanda	(i) New wells (ii) Repair of wells	.. ..	3 66	.. ..	.. ..
20	Vindhya Pradesh—Nowgong	(i) New wells and repair of old wells (ii) Reconstruction and repair of tanks	100 ..	21 6	21.0 ..	..

\* Works on 3 wells in progress.  
(a) Work on 20 additional wells in progress.  
(b) Incomplete as yet.

N.A.—Not Available.

TABLE III (viii)—ACTIVITIES

FIELD : Education

MAJOR ACTIVITY : Opening of new schools, conversion of schools into basic type and construction of school buildings.

(Figures in numbers)

Sl. No.	State and Project/Block	Type	Target for the project period.	Total accomplish-ments since begin-ning of the project	Per-centage of Col. 5 to Col. 4.	Percent- age of accom- plish- ments during the year Oct. '53 to Sept '54 to Col. 5
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Community Development Projects</i>						
PART ' A ' STATES						
1	Andhra—Kakinada Peddapuram.	(i) New school buildings	..	2	..	100.0
		(ii) Repairs of school building	..	42	..	100.0
2.	Assam—Cachar	(i) New basic schools	..	6	..	50.0
		(ii) Conversion of lower primary schools into basic type	30	16	53.3	81.2
3.	Bihar—Pusa Samas- tipur Shakra.	(i) New basic school (Junior)	21	21	100.0	85.7
		(ii) Conversion of schools into basic type (Junior)	55	34	61.8	94.1
		(iii) Conversion of middle schools into senior basic	4	2	50.0	100.0
4.	Bombay—Kolhapur	(i) New schools	5	26	..	57.7
		(ii) Conversion of schools into basic type.	26	..	..	..
		(iii) Construction of school buildings (rooms)	300	41	135.7	73.2
5.	Madhya Pradesh— Amraoti Morad Daryapur	(i) New primary schools.	9	50	555.6	..
		(ii) New [secondary schools	4	14	350.0	71.4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		(iii) Construction of school buildings	..	27	..	77.8
		(iv) Conversion of schools into basic type	..	13	..	100.0
6	Madras—Lower Bhawani	(i) New schools	106	21	19.8	100.0
		(ii) Conversion of schools into basic type	..	1	..	100.0
7	Orissa—Bhadrak	(i) New basic schools 'A' type	15	15	100.0	40.0
		(ii) New basic schools 'B' type	55	55	100.0	41.8
		(iii) Conversion of schools into basic type	60	65	108.3	44.6
8	Punjab—Batala	(i) New schools				
		(a) Primary (boys)	50	50	100.0	28.0
		(b) Middle (boys)	8	8	100.0	00
		(c) Primary (girls)	..	18	..	100.0
		(d) Middle (girls)	5	5	100.0	100.0
9	Punjab—Sonepat	New schools				
		(a) Primary	32	27	84.4	55.6
		(b) Middle	10	8	80.0	00
10	Uttar Pradesh—Bhathat	(i) New primary schools	2	3	150.0	100.0
		(ii) Construction of school buildings	..	4	..	100.0
11	West Bengal—Mohammad Bazar	(i) New primary schools	..	8	..	100.0
		(ii) Conversion of primary schools into basic type	40	10	25.0	100.0
		(iii) New junior basic schools	1	..	..	..
PART 'B' STATES						
12	Hyderabad—Nizam-sagar	(i) Conversion into basic type	..	42	..	64.3
13	Madhya Bharat—Rajpur	(i) New primary schools	200	103	51.5	76.7
		(ii) Conversion into basic type	40	21	52.5	52.4
		(iii) Construction of school buildings	90	45	50.0	91.1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Saurashtra—Manavdar Vanthali	(i) Opening of new schools . . . . .	..	38	..	57.9
		(ii) Conversion into basic type . . . . .	..	44	..	84.1
		(iii) New basic schools . . . . .	..	2	..	100.0
15.	Travancore-Cochin Chalakudy . . . . .	Conversion of primary schools into basic type . . . . .	10	4*	..	..
		<i>National Extension Service Blocks</i>				
PART ' B ' STATES						
16.	Mysore—Mandya . . . . .	(i) New schools . . . . .	..	9	..	..
		(ii) Construction of school buildings . . . . .	..	15	..	..
17.	PEPSU—Bhadson . . . . .	New schools . . . . .	..	77	..	..
18.	Rajasthan—Ladpura . . . . .	(i) New schools . . . . .	..	5	..	..
		(ii) Construction of school buildings . . . . .	..	1	..	..
PART ' C ' STATES						
19.	Vindhya Pradesh—Nowgong . . . . .	(i) New primary schools . . . . .	..	7	..	..
		(ii) Construction of schools buildings . . . . .	100	3	3.0	..

\*Construction of four buildings completed.

TABLE III (ix)—ACTIVITIES

FIELD : Social Education  
 MAJOR ACTIVITY : Opening of adult education centres, libraries, recreation centres, etc.

(Figures in numbers).

Serial No.	State and Block	Project/Block	Type	Targets for the project period.	Total accomplishment since beginning of the project.	Percentage of accomplishment to Col 4	Percentage of accomplishment during the year Oct. 1953 to Sept. 1954 to Col. 5
1	2	3		4	5	6	7
<i>Community Development Projects</i>							
PART 'A' STATES							
1.	Andhra—Kakinada	Peddapuram	(i) Adult education centres	..	100	..	100.0
			(ii) Recreation Centres	..	60	..	100.0
2.	Assam—Cachar		(i) Adult education centres	180	127	70.6	70.1
			(ii) Libraries	85	3	3.5	100.0
			(iii) Recreation centres	60	26	43.3	100.0
3.	Bihar—Pusa Samastipur	Shakra	(i) Social education centres	40	40	100.0	66.7
			(ii) S. E. Extension points	120	120	100.0	65.8
			(iii) Libraries	250	152	60.8	45.4
			(iv) Recreation centres	6	6	100.0	100.0
4.	Bombay—Kolhapur		(i) Adult education centres	..	366	..	57.1
			(ii) Libraries	..	36	..	63.9
			(iii) Gymnasium buildings	..	12	..	100.0
5.	Madhya Pradesh—Amraoti	Marsi Daryapur	(i) Adult education centres	150	101	67.3	43.6
			(ii) Libraries	60	32	53.3	96.9
			(iii) Community centres	20	38	190.0	97.4
			(iv) Sports clubs	75	40	53.3	92.5
6.	Madras—Lower	Bhawani	(i) Adult education centres	60	67	111.7	44.8
			(ii) New libraries	48	3	6.3	..
			(iii) Recreation centres	48	9	18.8	77.8





1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Nonal Extension Service Blocks</i>						
PART ' B ' STATES						
16.	Mysore—Mandya .	(i) Adult education centres . . . . .	..	45	..	..
		(ii) Libraries . . . . .	..	1	..	..
		(iii) Farmers' Clubs . . . . .	..	44	..	..
17.	PEPSU—Bhadson	(i) Adult education centres . . . . .	..	101	..	..
		(ii) Recreation centres . . . . .	..	2	..	..
		(iii) Young farmers' clubs . . . . .	..	27	..	..
18.	Rajasthan—Ladpura	(i) Adult education centres . . . . .	..	5	..	..
		(ii) Libraries . . . . .	..	7	..	..
PART ' C ' STATES						
19.	Himachal Pradesh— Kufri Markanda .	(i) Adult education centres . . . . .	..	6	..	..
		(ii) Libraries . . . . .	..	1	..	..
		(iii) Young farmers' clubs . . . . .	..	1	..	..
20.	Vindhya Pradesh— Nowgong . . . . .	(i) Adult education centres . . . . .	..	13	..	..
		(ii) Recreation centres . . . . .	..	7	..	..

FIELD : Communications  
 MAJOR ACTIVITY : Construction of roads and culverts.

Serial No.	State and Project/Block	Type
1	2	3
<i>Community</i>		
PART 'A' STATES		
1.	Andhra—Kakinada Peddapuram . . . . .	(i) Repair of pucca roads . . . . . (ii) Culverts . . . . .
2.	Assam—Cachar . . . . .	(i) Kutchra roads . . . . . (ii) Pipe culverts . . . . . (iii) Log culverts . . . . .
3.	Bihar—Pusa Samastipur Shakra . . . . .	(i) Construction and repair of kutchra roads. (ii) Culverts . . . . .
4.	Bombay—Kolhapur . . . . .	(i) Kutchra roads . . . . . (ii) Pucca roads . . . . . (iii) Culverts . . . . .
5.	Madhya Pradesh—Amraoti Morsi Daryapur . . . . .	(i) Pucca roads . . . . . (ii) Culverts . . . . .
6.	Madras—Lower Bhawani . . . . .	(i) Kutchra roads . . . . . (ii) Pucca roads . . . . . (iii) Culverts . . . . . (iv) Bridges . . . . .
7.	Orissa—Bhadrak . . . . .	(i) Pucca roads . . . . . (ii) Kutchra roads . . . . .
8.	Punjab—Batata . . . . .	(i) Kutchra roads . . . . . (ii) Pucca roads . . . . . (iii) Culverts . . . . .
9.	Punjab—Sonepat . . . . .	(i) Kutchra roads . . . . . (ii) Pucca roads . . . . . (iii) Culverts . . . . .
10.	Uttar Pradesh—Bhathat . . . . .	(i) Construction & repair of kutchra roads. (ii) Construction & repair of pucca roads (iii) Culverts . . . . .

## ACTIVITIES

Unit	Target for the project period	Total accomplish- ments since beginning of the project	Percentage of Co. 6 to Col. 5	Percentage of accomplish- ments during the year Oct. '53 to Sept. '54 to Col. 6
4	5	6	7	8
<i>Development Projects</i>				
miles.	..	4	..	100.0
nos.	..	7	..	100.0
miles.	..	61	..	50.8
nos.	..	78	..	25.6
"	..	6	..	83.3
miles	400	569	142.3	48.7
nos.	1500	174	11.6	90.8
miles	165	74	44.8	55.4
"	65	5	7.7	100.0
nos.	383	11	3.1	100.0
miles	60	49*	..	99.0
nos.	..	4	..	100.0
miles	281	61	21.8	49.2
"	140	1	0.7	100.0
nos.	220	33	15.0	100.0
"	12	2	16.7	100.0
miles	9	5	56.5	58.3
"	276	146	52.9	86.6
"	500	385	77.0	..
"	27	8	31.5	100.0
nos.	750	198	26.4	66.2
miles.	700	75	10.7	84.0
"	32	5	15.6	100.0
nos.	350	43	12.3	100.0
miles	100	29	29.0	48.3
miles.	15	..	..	..
nos.	50	9	18.0	88.9

1	2	3
11.	West Bengal-Mohammad Bazar	(i) Kutcha roads . . . . . (ii) Pucca roads . . . . .
<i>Part 'B' States.</i>		
12.	Hyderabad-Nizamsagar	Pucca roads . . . . .
13.	Madhya Bharat-Rajpur	(i) Kutcha roads . . . . . (ii) Pucca roads . . . . . (iii) Culverts . . . . .
14.	Saurashtra-Manavadar Vantthali	(i) Construction of kutcha roads . . . . . (ii) Repair of pucca roads . . . . . (iii) Construction of causeways and culverts.
15.	Travancore-Cochin-Chalakydy	(i) Kutcha roads . . . . . (ii) Culverts . . . . . (iii) Foot bridges . . . . . (iv) Pucca bridges . . . . .
<i>National Extension</i>		
<i>Part 'B' States</i>		
16.	Mysore-Mandya	(i) Kutcha roads . . . . . (ii) Culverts . . . . .
17.	PEPSU-Bhadson	Kutcha roads . . . . .
18.	Rajasthan-Ladpura	Kutcha roads . . . . .
<i>Part 'C' States.</i>		
19.	Vindhya Pradesh-Nowgong	Kutcha roads . . . . .

	4	5	6	7	8
miles		30	23	76.7	78.3
"		9	9	100.0	100.0
miles		..	5*	..	100.0
"		75	68	90.7	55.9
"		75	8	10.7	100.0
nos.		..	27	..	100.0
miles		50	23	46.0	34.8
"		..	4	..	50.0
nos.		40	47	117.5	68.1
miles		115	97	84.2	60.7
nos.		..	21	..	71.4
"		20	6	30.0	100.0
"		10	4	40.0	100.0
<i>Service Blocks</i>					
miles		..	N.A.	..	..
nos.		..	N.A.	..	..
miles		..	12	..	..
"		..	3	..	..
miles.		..	15	..	..

\* Under construction.

† About 40% of road mileage in village approach roads.

\* Construction of 10 internal roads and 1 link road in progress.

N.A. = Not available.

FIELD : Co-operation  
 TABLE III (xi)—ACTIVITIES

MAJOR ACTIVITY : Starting of new co-operative societies,  
 conversion into multipurpose societies.

(Figures in numbers)

Serial No.	State and Project/Block	Type	Target for the project period	Total accomplishments since beginning of the project	Percentage of accomplishments to Col. 4	Percentage of accomplishments during the year Oct. '53 to Sept. '54 to Col. 5
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Community Development Projects</i>						
<i>Part 'A' States</i>						
1.	Andhra-Kakinada peddapuran	1. Irrigation cooperative 2. Others	.. ..	3 6	.. ..	66.6 100.0
2.	Assam-Cachar	Multipurpose societies	..	10	..	100.0
3.	Bihar-Pusa Samastipur Shakra.	(i) Multipurpose societies. (ii) Industrial cooperative societies.	252 29	170 13	67.55 44.8	38.8 46.2
4.	Bombay-Kolhapur	(i) Multipurpose societies. (ii) Conversion of credit into multipurpose societies. (iii) Other societies	35 112 ..	31 97 14	88.6 86.6 ..	51.6 43.3 64.3
5.	Madhya Pradesh- Amraoti Daryapur. Morai	(i) Multipurpose and other types. (ii) Primary credit societies. (iii) Revitalisation of existing societies. (iv) Conversion of multipurpose into gram vikas mandals.	.. .. .. ..	9 10 14 4	.. .. .. ..	66.7 90.0 100.0 100.0
6.	Orissa-Bhadrak	(i) New multipurpose societies. (ii) Conversion of credit into multipurpose societies. (iii) New institutions	.. .. ..	8 5 30	.. .. ..	62.5 .. 50.0
7.	Punjab-Batala	(i) Credit societies (ii) Marketing societies	.. 1	72 1	.. 100.0	100.0 0

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Punjab-Sonepat	(i) Credit societies	260	138	53.1	93.5
		(ii) Marketing societies	1	1	100.0	100.0
9.	West Bengal-Md. Bazar	(i) Multipurpose societies	..	2	..	..
	<i>Part 'B' States</i>					
10.	Hyderabad-Nizam-sagar	(i) Multipurpose societies.	..	7	..	71.4
		(ii) Industrial and other societies.	..	5	..	80.0
		(iii) Rural banks	..	4	..	..
11.	Madhya Bharat-Rajpur.	(i) Multipurpose societies	15	5	33.3	80.0
		(ii) Lift irrigation societies.	10	3	30.0	100.0
		(iii) Industrial societies	20	13	65.0	100.0
		(iv) Primary credit societies.	100	3	3.0	100.0
12.	Saurashtra-Manavadar Vanthali.	(i) Cooperative societies	..	84	..	42.9
		<i>National Extension Service Blocks</i>				
		<i>Part 'B' States</i>				
13.	Mysore-Mandya	(i) New societies	..	1	..	..
		(ii) Revitalization of existing societies.	..	6	..	..
14.	PEPSU-Bhadson	(i) Multipurpose societies.	..	6	..	..
		(ii) Credit societies	..	13	..	..
		(iii) Tube-well societies	..	1	..	..
		(iv) Cooperative farming societies.	..	1	..	..
		(v) Conversion of credit into multipurpose societies.	..	2	..	..
15.	Rajasthan-Ladpura	Multipurpose societies	..	10	..	..
		<i>Part 'C States</i>				
16.	Himachal Pradesh-Kufri Narkanda	(i) Multipurpose societies.	..	3	..	..
		(ii) Cooperative fruit nurseries.	..	1	..	..
17.	Vindhya Pradesh-Newgong	(i) Multipurpose societies.	10	..	..	..
		(ii) Farming societies	10	1	10.0	..



**B—Preliminary Results of the Bench Mark Survey for Selected Evaluation Blocks****1. Introductory.**

The primary object in carrying out the Bench Mark Survey (B.M.S.) was to establish a 'base line' so that in future, through 'repeat' surveys, the nature and the extent of change taking place over a period of time can be assessed. Factors making for success or failure of specific programmes in different regions can then be studied.

The B.M.S. covered the period from May 1953 to January, 1954. It thus included one full kharif and part of the rabi of the 1953-54 agricultural season. Until the end of this period the tempo of development activity was low and hence the purpose of establishing a base-line just before the beginning of the development programmes was more or less served.

The first phase of establishing the base-line data has now been completed. Except in a few blocks, the field work which commenced in the February 1954 was completed by June, 1954. The data collected is being tabulated and so far results of the B.M.S. for ten blocks are available. It is expected that within the next three months tabulated data will become available for all the blocks in which the survey was conducted during the above mentioned period.

While detailed monographs for evaluation blocks are being written on the basis of the data collected in the B.M.S., it is proposed to present here in a nutshell some important bench marks for the ten blocks for which tabulations have been completed. The bench marks presented here can by no means be considered exhaustive and final. It is also realized that without detailed background information and additional supporting data, it may not be possible to completely grasp the meaning of the various figures appearing in the appended tables. In view of this consideration no attempt is made here to explain in any great detail the various aspects of the statistical data. Definitional aspects of various terms used here have been explained and attention is drawn to the salient features of the data. It is to be hoped that in spite of these limitations of the tables presented here, they will serve the purpose of underlining the wide variability in the initial impacts of different programmes in any given region and for any given programme in different regions.

**2. Plan of the B.M.S.**

The Survey was conducted in all the evaluation blocks except Kofah (Rajasthan) during the period of February to June 1954. In Rajasthan work was taken up in the middle

of December, 1954, and the field work was completed in February 1955. It has since been extended to four N.E.S. Blocks in April 1955 and the field work is expected to be completed by the end of June 1955. In each of these N.E.S. blocks, as also in the earlier evaluation centres, the bench marks will relate to the first year of the project, in which the tempo of development actually was very low. Each of these N.E.S. blocks is located near some selected evaluation blocks. In all these areas a more or less uniform pattern of selection of villages and canvassing schedules was followed. The broad outlines of the procedure followed in the ten blocks for which some tentative results are presented here are given below.

Selection of villages within an evaluation block was done on the principle of stratified random sampling. Villages which were too small compared to the average population of a village or too large and of urban type were excluded for the purposes of selection. Each village so considered for selection was then assigned to one of the geographical zones into which the block was stratified. It was also seen that all strata within a block had about equal population. Then from each stratum, one village was selected with chance proportional to the population of the village. Larger villages had thus proportionately greater chance of being selected.

In some blocks, like Bhadrak, the average village was itself small whereas in a few others, like Samalkot and Erode, the villages were generally very large. In the former case, wherever necessary, geographically contiguous villages were clustered to have an effective size of at least about 50 households in each cluster and then the selection of clusters was done. Thus, in Bhadrak, though 10 villages are selected, they constitute in fact 6 clusters. In the case of Bhadson instead of 6 villages, 8 were selected. In the case of areas like Samalkot and Erode, only those villages which were of an urban type, were excluded and after selection of villages in the same manner a sub-sample of 200 households in each selected village was selected. In this way, 6 villages or 1,200 households were selected.

A general schedule (Schedule V-2) was canvassed to each household in the selected village. In those areas where sub-sampling was done, the V-2 schedule was canvassed to the selected households. Besides this general schedule, a set of schedules was also canvassed to a very small sample with a view to studying intensively assets and liabilities position, capital formation during the period covered, and crop production and sales practices. The details need not be given here as the results presented here are based on the V-2 schedule only. The other data is still under tabulation.

Relevant village data on acreage, land utilization, irrigation, soils, climate, amenities, etc., were also collected to serve as background information.

The V-2 schedule covers various aspects of family life and cultivation practices. For each block, data have been tabulated in about 90 tables. The tables presented here give only some important fragments of bench mark information. It may be emphasized here that in presenting the figures here no attempt has been made at statistical estimation with a view to obtaining a picture representative of the blocks as a whole. All that has been done is to work out the percentages, etc., after straight aggregation of the data for all the selected villages in each block. The figures, therefore, represent only the selected villages. It must be noted, however, that where sub-sampling is done, the figures become representative of the block as a whole.

### 3. Explanatory notes on tables

The bench marks presented here have been arranged in nine tables as follows: (i) Population and Household data, (ii) Literacy, (iii) Health, (iv) Economic Status and occupation, (v) Unemployment, (vi) Cultivation holdings and Crops, (vii) Improved methods in agriculture, (viii) Participation in community works, and Membership in village organizations and (ix) Non-agricultural improvements. In the following notes, it is proposed to dwell on the definitional aspects of the various terms used in the tables and highlight some interesting features of the bench marks.

(i) *Population and household data.*—Table I indicates that the proportion of population of the selected villages to the total population of all villages included in the frame of section (item 2 c) is more than the proportion of number of selected villages to the total number of villages included in the frame (item i c). This is due to the fact that larger villages have a proportionately greater chance of selection. The change in the population of the selected villages after 1951 Census is noted for all blocks except Samalkot and Erode where sub-sampling was done, against item 2d(iii). It shows decreases in Morsi and Batala. The change in Batala in the north may be partly due to gradual scattering of the displaced persons. In Morsi, the tendency of decreasing population has been noticeable for a number of years. The average size of household varies from 4.20 persons per household in Morsi to 6.13 persons per household in Kolhapur. The household for the purpose of the Survey was defined to include all resident members of the family having a common

kitchen. It also included permanent servants staying with the household. If, however, two members of this type of family had two separate cultivation holdings, they were to be treated as two separate households. Item 4 relates to age distribution in different blocks. The important group of persons from the point of view of economic activity is the age group '15 years and above but below 55' though it is true that in rural areas considerable proportion of persons below 15 years of age and above 55 do gainful work. The table shows that over 50 per cent. of the population is found in the important age group of 15 to 55 years. In the northern centres of Batala and Bhadson it is somewhat less whereas in Bhadrak the percentage is as high as 61.

(ii) *Literacy*.—Persons able to read and write a simple letter have been considered as literates here. In this sense, the figures are comparable with the figures of the 1951 Census. This comparison (though not shown in the Table II) indicates considerable advance in literacy during the past three years. It also shows that in many areas, the increase in the level of literacy was at a faster rate among females than among males. To some extent this may be due to the special efforts made in some areas to spread education among women. The low level of literacy, however, still persists, particularly among women. Compared with other blocks, Morsi shows the highest percentage of literates, both males and females. Morsi, Rajpur and Manavadar show higher percentage of literates in the age-group '5 to 15 years' than in the next age-group of '15 to 30 years'. This perhaps indicates influence of new educational facilities. Morsi and Samalkot are also two blocks where percentages of children in the age-group 5 to 15 years attending school are as high 44.7 and 36.1 respectively. In other areas of low literacy, these percentages are also low (item 5b). Higher percentage against item 5b as compared with the percentages against item 5a(ii) would indicate that some children though attending school may not be yet literate in the sense defined above. Thus, in Samalkot out of every 100 children of that age-group, 36 go to school but only about 29 are literates. Others may be simply able to read or might have just started going to school. Where the differences of this type are considerable, one would expect literacy to advance at a rapid rate.

(iii) *Health*.—Table III shows that where the extent of reported illness is low, the average number of days of illness per reporting person [item 6b(ii)] is high. Thus, in Kolhapur, Erode, Manavadar and Mandya, the percentage of persons reporting illness to total number of persons [6(a)] varies from 1 to 6, whereas the average number of days of illness for these blocks varies from 87 to 111. In

cases where the extent of reported illness is high the number of days of illness per reporting person is somewhat low. This can be seen from the figures for Samalkot, Morsi, Bhadrak and Bhadson. This may be partly due to the tendency of reporting all sorts of illness in some blocks and of reporting only major ones in some other blocks. To this extent, inter-block comparisons may not be strictly valid. All the same items 6c(i) to (iv) underline the fact that in most of the areas malaria and water-borne diseases like dysentery, typhoid, etc. constitute major obstacles to a healthy life. In Samalkot, filariasis is the major disease. This again is transmitted by mosquitoes. It is in this light that the results of the health and sanitation programmes have to be viewed. The success of these measures should be reflected in the figures given in Table III. It may be observed that in item 6c (prevalence of disease), figures relate to cases of ailments and not to persons. A person may report more than one ailment during the period covered.

For unemployment due to illness, reference may be made to notes under (v) below.

(iv) *Economic Status and Occupation.*—Table IV shows three categories under economic status. A self-supporting person is one who earns enough to maintain himself. An earning dependent is one who has some regular income but not sufficient to maintain himself. A non-earning dependent is one who does not have any regular income whatsoever. In this classification, women who mainly do household work in their own homes but who casually help their family members on farm or some other gainful works, have been classified as non-earning dependents.

Further, the gainfully occupied persons are also classified as employees and non-employees. The latter class includes independent workers, employers and unpaid family workers. An earner is one who is either a self-supporting person or an earning dependent.

It will be seen that among males, the percentage of self-supporting persons varies between 32 and 38 in four blocks; between 43 and 55 in five blocks and is as high as 63.4 in one block, namely, Bhadrak. Generally speaking, one finds that this percentage varies more or less directly with the percentage of male population in age-group '15 to 55 years'. Instances also occur where the latter percentage is below the percentage of self-supporting persons, indicating that at least some of the self-supporting persons come from the younger or the older people. When one considers the percentages of self-supporting and earning dependents together and compare them to

the percentage of persons in the working age-group of '15 to 55.' conclusion is inescapable that at least some males outside this age-group are also required to participate regularly in economic activity.

Item 7(b) gives proportion of employees to total number of earners. Here one finds that among women earners, a large proportion is engaged in doing paid jobs as employees. In areas like Kolhapur, however, this percentage is low and one finds that earner-women do much of the work on their own farms as unpaid family work in gainful occupations. Considering the overall position, it is seen that in Samalkot, Morsi and Erode, over fifty-percent of the earners are employees. These areas also show substantial proportions of agricultural labourers who, by definition, are employees. Excepting Kolhapur, the average number of earners per household in different blocks varies in a range of 1.6 to 2.1 earners per household. In Kolhapur the high figure of 2.8 is due to the high figure of women earners.

Item 8(a) shows the pattern of principal occupations of the heads of the households, whereas item 8(b) gives the principal occupational pattern of all persons in the households. Both these patterns reveal varying features in different areas. They show that a sizeable proportion of the population belongs to the agricultural labour class in Samalkot, Morsi and Erode. From this point of view, Kolhapur, Rajpur and Manavadar can also be considered important, though the proportions of agricultural labourers are not as high as in the above-cases. A relatively small proportion of cultivators and a sizeable proportion of agricultural labour is the organizational pattern of cultivation in areas like Samalkot and Morsi. Between the two classes of mainly cultivating owners and mainly cultivating tenants the former class by and large is the more important. Only in Samalkot, Kolhapur, Bhadrak, Batala and Bhadson cultivating tenant class is somewhat important. In Samalkot, for instance, 17.4 percent of heads of households are mainly cultivating tenants as compared with the figure of 16.5 per cent. for mainly cultivating owners [items 8a(i) and (ii)]. In Kolhapur, Bhadrak, Batala and Bhadson the percentage of heads of households belonging to mainly cultivating tenant class varies from 16 to 22 but compared with the figures for mainly cultivating owner class in respective blocks, these figures are of less importance. In almost all centres, non-cultivating owners of land and artisans classes are not important so far as their numbers matter.

(v) *Unemployment.*—The term 'offering for employment' needs elucidation. A person who is an employee is by definition offering:

for employment. Among the self-employed persons or persons working as unpaid family workers, only those persons who seek gainful work outside their own business are considered as offering for employment. A cultivator who works on his farm but does not seek extra gainful work outside his own business does not offer for employment. Non-earning dependents seeking work are also to be treated as offering for employment. A person who may have offered for employment at least once during the period covered is to be considered as offering for employment. The number of persons offering for employment thus brings out the level of available wage-labour in a given region. It is against this volume of wage-labour that the extent of unemployment is to be measured.

The general level of persons offering for employment varies from 10.4 per cent. in Batala to 34.2 per cent. in Morsi. The level is much higher among males than among females. The level of offering persons varies also among different occupations of persons. Thus, one finds that generally, cultivating tenants offer in larger proportion than cultivating owners. The non-cultivating owners offer for employment in still smaller proportion. A large proportion of males with non-agricultural occupations [item 9b (vi)] offers for employment in Morsi, Erode, Bhadrak, Batala and Bhadson. The percentage in each case is 60 or more. The high percentage of offering-persons in this non-agricultural occupational class would indicate a relatively higher proportion than in other areas of self employed and unpaid family workers seeking extra gainful work or a relatively higher proportion of paid employees in this class or a combination of both. The proportion of persons with 'no occupation' offering for employment is negligible.

The term unemployment is also used in restricted sense. First, it is only related to persons who offer for employment during the period of the survey. Secondly, in counting days of unemployment, only those periods are taken into account in which unemployment is seven days or more. Periods of continuous unemployment which are less than a week in duration are, therefore, excluded. In spite of these restrictive definitions, the high proportions of persons who offer for employment and who report unemployment and also high figures of days of unemployment discussed below should underline the need for labour intensive projects in rural areas.

Item 9c gives percentages of offering-persons reporting unemployment to (i) total number of persons in the villages and (ii) total number of persons who offer for employment. These figures indicate

the volume of available wage-labour reporting unemployment at one time or another for periods of one week or more at a time. Since only a small proportion of women offer for employment, the figures for males become more important in the context of unemployment. In Samalkot and Morsi, 65.6 and 61.6 per cent. of offering-males report unemployment. In Kolhapur, Rajpur and Manavadar also the figure ranges between 59 and 57 per cent. Figures at 8(a) (iii) and (b)(iii) and those of item 9d show that in areas where agricultural labourers are in substantial numbers, the percentage of male employees reporting unemployment is generally large. Samalkot (63.5 per cent.), Kolhapur (57.1 per cent.), Morsi (62.7 per cent.), Manavadar (58.2 per cent.) and Rajpur (51.9 per cent.) are instances in point. Erode, however, appears to be an exception.

Item 9e shows the relative levels of causes of unemployment. Under this item, a person may give more than one cause of unemployment, so that percentages of persons reporting unemployment due to specified causes to total reporting unemployment will not necessarily add up to 100. In fact, in majority of the blocks, a reporting person gives more than one cause. It will be seen that in almost all the blocks the major reasons are slack season and work not available. It may be made clear here that the term 'slack season' refers to agricultural work whereas 'work not available' refers to non-agricultural work. While in most cases seasonal unemployment in agriculture is in evidence, in Batala 94 per cent. of unemployment-reporting persons lack work in non-agricultural sector.

Item 9f gives the average number of days of unemployment. As seen from 9f (i), Samalkot shows the highest extent of unemployment inasmuch as the *per capita* average is 19 days of unemployment in a period of 9 months. Mandya in the south and Bhadson in the north also indicate high level of unemployment as indicated by item 9f (i). Since unemployment relates particularly to persons who offer for work, item 9f(ii) becomes an important indicator of the extent of unemployment. Here Bhadson seems to be worst off with 83 days of unemployment per offering-person. Mandya (63.9 days), Samalkot (51.6 days), Batala (50.7 days) and Manavadar (52.2 days) also show considerable unemployment among those who seek work. Item 9f (iii) indicates the extent of unemployment among persons who report unemployment. It shows for instance that while the extent of unemployment in the population as a whole is highest in Samalkot [item 9f(i)], the number of days per person who reports unemployment is highest for Bhadson (159.5 days). Similarly, in



Batala also unemployed persons are exposed to unemployment for about 128 days or almost one half of the working days in a nine month period. An interesting point to be observed is that in several cases, unemployment period among females is higher than among males. Items 9f(iv) and (v) are indicative of unemployment in employee class. Item 9g gives the days of unemployment according to specified cause per person reporting respective causes.

There is little doubt that favourable changes in these figures would indicate the extent to which employment is provided to the very needy persons; particularly the class of persons who are unskilled labourers, and small cultivators and petty artisans who are compelled by circumstances to seek extra gainful work.

(vi) *Cultivation Holdings and Crops*.—Items 10a and 10b give the percentages of households owning land and cultivating land. The percentage of households owning land is highest in Mandya with, Kolhapur and Bhadrak following in that order. The lowest figures of owners of land occur in Samalkot and the figures are also below 50 per cent. in the case of Erode, Batala and Bhadson. In these blocks the proportion of cultivating households also cannot be considered high as compared with blocks such as Kolhapur, Bhadrak and Mandya. Item 10c indicates the distribution of cultivated holdings in these various blocks. It shows a large proportion of holdings below 5 acres each in paddy growing areas like Samalkot, Kolhapur, Erode, Bhadrak and Mandya; whereas the pattern is a little more even in the case of other blocks where the principal crops are other than paddy and sugar cane. This distribution also makes for very small average size of holdings in paddy growing areas, the lowest being in Kolhapur where it is about 2.5 acres. The proportion of irrigated land to the total cultivated land shown at item 10f also indicates that in highly irrigated areas the average size of holdings tends to be low. It is expected that the various measures of land reforms would bring about changes in the existing patterns and these changes will be ultimately reflected in the changes in figures given in this table.

The extent to which the cropped area has been brought under improved seeds is shown at item 11a. It is evident that there is wide variability from region to region in the extent of acceptance of this very important development programme. In Mandya, for instance, only less than one per cent of the area has been brought under improved seeds; whereas northern regions like Batala, Bhadson and Rajpur and the southern regions like Samalkot, Kolhapur and Morsi show considerably higher figures of percentage of area under improved seeds to the total cropped area. In

Samalkot and Kolhapur improved strains of sugarcane and in Batala and Bhadson improved types of wheat have been used for a long time. Where a real new beginning has been made by the Extension Services, the extent of area under improved seeds is seen to be low. It would also be relevant to examine the percentages of areas under improved seeds of specific crops. This has been done in item 10b against which these percentages for paddy, cotton and wheat have been shown. Largest proportion of area under improved varieties of paddy to the total area under paddy is found in Samalkot. Apart from Bhadson which has about 25 per cent of the paddy area under improved seeds, other blocks do not indicate any large areas brought under improved paddy. The percentage of paddy area under improved seed is extremely small in the case of Erode and Mandya which only perhaps reflects areas under demonstration plots for improved varieties of paddy. In regard to cotton, the progress upto the end of the year 1953-54 was not inconsiderable in Morsi, Erode, Batala and Bhadson. In Bhadson particularly, about 75 per cent of the area under cotton has been brought under improved strains. It may be of interest to mention that a separate report entitled 'Cotton Extension in PEPSU' has been recently published by this Organization. In case of wheat also there is wide variation from region to region, particularly because in areas like Batala and Bhadson improved strains have been used for a number of years. The figures about sugarcane have not been given here since in all the sugarcane growing areas improved strains are used to the fullest extent.

It would be interesting to see how the proportions of areas under improved varieties change in subsequent years as a result of intensive extension effort at present under way in those areas where the figures at present are not very high.

(vii) *Improved Methods in Agriculture*.—In table VII percentages of cultivating households using improved seeds, fertilizers, both improved seeds and fertilizers, and improved implements are specified. Further, the percentages of cultivating households employing different cultural methods have also been given under item 121(e). The percentages of cultivating households adopting improved methods of agriculture are also shown for some specific methods and the overall figures given in item (e) under 12 include other items not shown under items i to v as well. The absence of figures against any particular method may indicate the fact that the project may not be concerned with this method either because that method has already been in vogue for a long time or because project may not have introduced it. For instance in Morsi, even though line sowing is done by almost all cultivators and for all the crops no figure

has been given since the project has little scope for augmenting that programme.

It will be seen from the figures that in any given project, the programme which has been most widely accepted appears to be that of improved seeds. Except in a few blocks like Samalkot, Kolhapur and Batala, fertilizers have not been used to any great extent. The proportion of cultivators using both improved seeds and chemical fertilizers is naturally still lower. In Kolhapur which shows a higher acceptance of fertilizers, they have been in use for sugarcane cultivation for a long time. While these are the overall percentages, the impact of these programmes among different sections of the cultivating class calls for a much more detailed analysis. This type of analysis has been done for only a few blocks so far and the results indicate that at least in the initial stages the acceptance is largely confined to the bigger cultivators in these areas. Improved seeds and methods of agriculture have evidently not so far been accepted by the smaller sections of the cultivators. In this connection a note on 'the impact of development programmes among the different sections of the rural community' printed after this note may be of interest. Against item 12II figures relating to impact of programmes in respect of animal husbandry can be seen. Here also, while the overall percentages are given at item (a), the percentages of households effecting specified types of livestock improvements have also been given for three types of improvements, namely, castration of bulls, inoculation and vaccination, and artificial insemination. Figures relating to treatment of sick animals have not been separately given, as it is felt that changes in the figures for these three types of improvements should adequately reflect not only the changes in physical impact of the programmes but a change in the outlook towards cattle preservation and breeding. Programmes like castration of bulls and artificial insemination assume particular importance from this point of view. During the period covered by the survey the acceptance of these programmes has been evidently extremely low, except that to some extent inoculation and vaccination have been taken advantage of.

(viii) *Participation in Community Works, Village Institutions and Social Activities.*—Item 13 gives the various bench marks in respect of public participation in community works. It might be noted here that the exact measurement of the contribution for community works is made difficult because of the varying interpretations put in different blocks on what exactly constitutes a contribution and again on what exactly is a community work. The figures given here are based on what the households think as having made

a contribution towards works which they feel are community works.

The extent of participation in local works varies considerably from one evaluation block to another and also from one selected village to another within any particular evaluation centre. Considering the extent of participation in different blocks on the basis of the tabulated B.M.S. data for ten blocks, it is seen that lowest participation occurs in Samalkot where less than 6 per cent of households participate in any activity relating to local works. At the other extreme, one finds that in Kolhapur over 94 per cent of households participate in public participation programmes. Batala, with 59 per cent of households participating in the programmes of community works, comes next to Kolhapur. In Erode, only about 10 per cent and in Morsi 24 per cent of households participate in these activities. In the remaining five blocks, viz. Bhadrak, Rajpur, Manavadar, Mandya and Bhadson, the percentages vary between 30 and 40 per cent. It may be of interest to note that in Mandya and Bhadson, which were Pilot Extension Projects during the period of the survey, people's participation in community works was of a higher level than in Samalkot and Erode which are Community Projects.

As regards the nature of participation, the B.M.S. data indicate that where labour contribution is substantial, participation is quite high; but where the only type of contribution or, say, the more substantial part of the contribution is in terms of money, the extent of participation is low. Thus, in Kolhapur contribution is as high as 267 man-days per 100 persons and in Batala the corresponding figure is 96 man-days per 100 persons. In both these blocks, the extent of participation indicated by proportion of households participating to the total is, as has been stated earlier, high. On the other hand, Samalkot shows that only money has been contributed (Rs. 15.4 per 100 persons). Similarly, in Morsi the money contribution has been as high as Rs. 72 per 100 persons, whereas labour contribution has been as low as 6.3 man-days per 100 persons. In both these blocks, as observed earlier, the extent of participation is low.

Again, where the programme of road construction has been taken up, the labour participation forthcoming is substantial. This is to be expected since in other programmes such as school construction, construction of drinking-water wells, etc. after a certain stage of work, skilled labour is required and the scope for public participation is restricted.

In so far as one of the main objectives of public participation programmes is to bring different communities together and inculcate in them a spirit of self-help, it would appear from the above

analysis that programmes like road construction which require unskilled labour in large numbers may perhaps be more effective than programmes in which undue emphasis on money contributions is placed.

As pointed out in the note on 'impacts of development programmes among different sections of rural community', public participation programmes sometimes tend to become burdensome to the smaller sections. These smaller sections remain more or less untouched by other development programmes in which facilities are extended to the people unlike works of community benefit in which some sacrifice is expected on the part of the participant.

Under item 14, figures relating to participation in village institutions have been given. Item 14a gives the overall percentages of households participating in one or more of several village organizations or social activities. The percentage of households participating in village organizations, etc. is high in the case of Kolhapur (53.2 per cent) and Bhadrak (45.7 per cent). In Samalkot, Mandya and Bhadson these percentages are varying from 28 to 35. In all other cases they are less than 16 per cent. While the high overall figure in Kolhapur is due mainly to a higher percentage taking part in co-operative societies, the high figure in the case of Bhadrak is due to the fact that as many as 35 per cent. of the households are participating in the Kirtan bhajan mandal.

The most important item of participation is the cooperative society. An increase in the percentage of households participating in co-operative societies would mean both a progressive change in the institutional pattern of rural life as also a change in the outlook of the people towards corporate action. While figures for village panchayats and Vikas Mandals are important, it is to be noted that the membership cannot be open to all the villagers and hence the percentage is bound to be low for all time to come.

(ix) *Non-agricultural improvement.*—Among the various items of non-agricultural improvement programmes, smokeless chulas, better ventilation, trench latrines, soakage pits, etc., are of considerable importance. The figures given in table IX indicate almost complete absence of any of these programmes or acceptance of these programmes, if introduced, in Samalkot, Erode, Manavadar and Bhadson. Some progress is indicated in areas like Bhadrak, Batala and Rajpur where smokeless chulas, ventilators, or trench latrines have been accepted in small measures. As benchmarks these low figures in items of environmental hygiene would be of considerable interest.

## SELECTED BENCH MARK SURVEY DATA

## - Index

<i>Contents:</i>	<i>Page:</i>
I. Population & Household Data .....	128
II. Literacy .....	129
III. Health .....	129
IV. Economic status & Occupation .....	130
V. Unemployment .....	131
VI. Cultivation Holdings & Crops .....	132
VII. Improved Methods in Agriculture .....	133
VIII. Participation in Community Work, Village Institution and Social Activity .....	134
IX. Non-Agricultural Improvement .....	136

I. Population & Household Data

ITEM	STATE BLOCK	ANDHRA			BOMBAY			MADHYAPRADESH			MADRAS			ORISSA			PUNJAB			MADHYA BHARAT			SAURASHTRA			MYSORE			PEPSU			ITBM			
		SAMALKOT			KOLHAPUR			MORSI			ERODE			BHADRAK			BATALA			RAJPUR			MANAVADAR			MANDYA			BHADSON						
<b>1. Villages</b>																																			
(a) No. selected		6			6			6			6			10			6			6			6			6			6			8			1. (a)
(b) No. in the Block considered for selection		76			86			61			56			150			116			66			47			12.77			6.90			6.45			(b)
(c) % of villages covered in the B.M.S.		7.89			6.98			9.84			10.71			6.67			5.17			9.09			12.77			6.90			6.45						(c)
<b>2. Population</b>																																			
(a) Of the block (1951 Census)		222308			73481			39514			129360			34121			63880			29979			40341			53850			52266						2. (a)
(b) Of the villages selected (in)		26467			6635			5293			23440			2719			4833			3905			59.83			59.83			59.83			10.08			(b)
(c) % of population covered in the B. M. S.		11.91			9.03			13.40			18.12			7.97			7.57			13.03			14.83			9.23			10.08						(c)
(d) Population of selected villages according to:		T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	(d)
(i) 1951 Census data		5341	2653	2688	6635	3331	3304	5293	2586	2707	4976	2539	2477	2719	1353	1366	4833	2658	2175	3905	1922	2003	5983	3090	2893	5893	2945	2898	5266	2396	2370	5476	3017	2459	(i)
(ii) B. M. S. data		..	..	..	7095	3586	3509	5184	2577	2607	..	..	..	2887	1454	1433	4403	2443	1960	4056	1998	2058	6360	3265	3095	5979	3047	2932	5476	3017	2459	..	..	..	(ii)
(iii) % increase (+) or decrease (-) over 1951 Census population		..	..	..	(+)	(+)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	..	..	..	(+)	(+)	(+)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(iii)
<b>3. Households</b>																																			
(a) Total No. in selected villages		1196			1157			1234			1145			685			802			738			1105			1194			978						3. (a)
(b) Average No. of persons per household		4.47	2.22	2.25	6.13	3.10	3.03	4.20	2.09	2.11	4.35	2.22	2.13	4.21	2.12	2.09	5.49	3.05	2.44	5.50	2.71	2.79	5.76	2.95	2.81	5.01	2.55	2.46	5.60	3.08	2.52				3. (b)
<b>4. Age-Group</b>																																			
(a) % distribution of persons in specified age-group:																																			
(i) Below 5 years		12.23	12.18	12.28	14.21	13.17	15.28	13.37	13.23	13.50	8.98	8.63	9.36	9.77	10.80	8.72	15.53	14.90	16.33	15.56	15.27	15.84	16.71	16.60	16.83	14.65	14.25	15.08	14.79	14.29	15.08	14.79	14.29	15.08	(i)
(ii) 5 to 15 years		26.44	27.78	25.70	27.41	28.75	26.05	23.81	23.60	24.02	25.12	24.34	25.93	19.43	19.19	19.68	27.05	27.50	26.48	27.66	28.43	26.92	23.70	24.87	22.46	25.63	25.42	25.85	23.13	22.76	23.26	23.13	22.76	23.26	(ii)
(iii) 15 to 55 years		53.17	51.75	54.58	50.01	49.94	50.07	54.03	54.33	53.73	56.45	56.99	55.89	61.24	61.55	60.92	48.43	47.48	49.59	50.20	50.10	50.29	51.73	51.00	52.50	51.40	51.73	51.05	48.22	47.99	47.99	48.22	47.99	47.99	(iii)
(iv) 55 years & above		8.16	8.29	8.04	8.37	8.14	8.60	8.79	8.84	8.75	9.45	10.04	8.82	9.86	8.46	10.68	8.99	10.12	7.80	6.58	6.20	6.95	7.86	7.53	8.21	8.32	8.40	8.02	10.27	11.06	10.02	10.27	11.06	10.02	(iv)

T: Total; M: Males; F: Females.

II. Literacy.

ITEM	STATE BLOCK	ANDHRA			BOMBAY			MADHYA PRADESH			MADRAS			ORISSA			PUNJAB			MADHYA BHARAT			SAURASHTRA			MYSORE			PEPSU			ITEM							
		SAMALKOT			KOLHAPUR			MORSI			ERODE			BHADRAK			BATALA			RAJPUR			MANAVADAR			MANDYA			BHADSON										
		T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F		
<b>5. Literacy</b>																																							
(a) % of literates (able to read and write) in specified groups, to total in the group:																																							
(i) All ages		22.34	29.51	15.25	13.31	21.81	2.56	33.66	49.63	17.87	11.48	18.75	3.90	23.07	38.10	7.82	13.42	18.46	7.14	15.41	26.28	4.86	19.01	31.52	5.82	17.32	20.45	1.84	13.04	20.02	4.47	15.04	20.02	4.47	5. (a) i.				
(ii) 5 to 15 years		28.54	32.56	24.15	17.84	29.68	4.49	53.00	64.66	41.69	12.88	19.74	6.17	22.99	36.30	9.93	16.96	21.73	10.79	20.94	33.98	7.58	26.14	40.64	9.21	15.98	27.10	4.62	17.31	20.31	7.00	17.31	20.31	7.00	5. (a) ii.				
(iii) 15 to 30 years		30.91	41.49	21.18	19.17	33.98	4.26	44.11	67.09	22.83	16.59	25.87	6.56	32.55	52.14	13.77	20.86	28.92	11.75	20.84	35.67	7.71	25.11	42.32	8.38	15.33	28.10	1.69	13.13	27.44	6.95	13.13	27.44	6.95	5. (a) iii.				
(b) % of persons attending schools in age-group 5 to 15, to total in that age-group		36.19	40.84	31.11	17.63	30.26	3.39	44.73	55.92	33.87	16.56	23.46	9.81	42.07	64.16	20.21	18.72	33.18	..	24.15	40.32	7.58	20.31	31.65	7.05	17.42	30.06	4.49	25.30	35.78	9.86	25.30	35.78	9.86	(b)				
<b>6. Health</b>																																							
(a) % of persons reporting illness to total No. of persons		11.78	12.66	10.90	4.82	5.69	3.93	12.19	12.77	11.62	1.71	2.21	1.19	19.19	21.53	16.82	9.02	9.82	8.01	11.93	13.51	10.40	4.66	5.42	3.84	5.49	6.96	3.96	18.92	20.72	16.21	18.92	20.72	16.21	6. (a)				
(b) Average No. of days of illness																																							
(i) per person		5.93			4.20			6.03			1.89			6.89			8.65			6.63			4.73			5.53			14.55			14.55			(b) i.				
(ii) per sick person		50.36			87.11			47.91			110.69			35.93			95.91			55.55			101.79			100.74			76.92			76.92			(b) ii.				
(c) % of cases of most prevalent diseases to total No. of cases of all reported diseases.																																							
(i) Malaria		7.47	9.82	4.78	40.35	40.69	39.86	51.90	53.80	49.83	15.29	12.50	20.69	44.90	48.39	39.15	35.52	37.92	31.85	20.04	21.85	17.76	25.68	23.16	29.41	28.96	32.55	22.41	26.45	29.44	21.90	26.45	29.44	21.90	(c) i.				
(ii) Dysentery etc.		5.88	6.55	5.12	19.88	24.11	23.04	6.01	7.60	4.29	11.76	8.93	17.24	6.29	6.97	5.43	5.04	2.92	8.28	5.79	6.67	4.67	4.73	2.26	8.40	8.54	7.55	10.34	5.02	6.24	3.16	5.02	6.24	3.16	(c) ii.				
(iii) Typhoid		3.02	2.98	3.07	3.22	3.43	2.90	9.02	9.73	8.25	2.35	3.57	..	1.02	1.52	0.39	2.78	4.58	2.55	2.89	3.70	1.87	0.34	..	0.35	4.88	5.66	3.45	3.76	3.52	4.74	3.76	3.52	4.74	(c) iii.				
(iv) Influenza, etc.		0.32	0.30	0.24	1.46	1.96	0.72	6.65	7.60	5.61	7.06	8.93	3.45	10.20	11.52	8.53	9.82	9.58	10.19	8.88	11.85	5.14	19.59	20.34	18.45	7.32	7.08	7.76	11.87	13.28	9.73	11.87	13.28	9.73	(c) iv.				







## VI. Cultivation Holdings and Crops

ITEM	STATE BLOCK	ANDHRA	BOMBAY	MADHYA PRADESH	MADRAS	ORISA	PUNJAB	MADHYA BHARAT	SAURASHTRA	MYSORE	PEPSU	ITBM
		SAMALKOT	KOLHAPUR	MORSI	ERODE	BHADAK	BATALA	RAJPUR	MANAVADAR	MADY A	SHADSON	
<b>10. Cultivation Holding :</b>												
(a) % of households owning land		41.39	89.54	53.81	47.60	8.01	44.26	67.48	55.93	90.54	47.24	10 (a)
(b) % of cultivating households		50.84	87.04	53.73	47.86	8.48	47.13	65.04	56.38	89.03	50.20	(b)
(c) % of cultivating households according to size of holding												
(i) Below 5 acres		81.41	87.69	34.69	59.86	6.77	15.87	10.62	6.26	63.50	16.04	(c) i
(ii) 5 to 10 acres		1.68	10.12	23.68	25.36	2.37	37.04	27.08	11.72	25.21	17.52	ii
(iii) 10 to 25 acres		1.76	1.99	23.23	12.04	10.27	42.06	47.92	52.17	10.25	54.53	iii
(iv) 25 to 50 acres		1.15	0.20	13.12	2.01	1.41	4.76	11.83	27.45	3.95	10.59	iv
(v) 50 & above		..	..	4.98	0.73	0.18	0.27	2.50	2.40	0.09	1.42	v
(d) Average size of cultivated holding (acres)		1.51	2.52	15.11	5.63	1.39	10.69	15.33	20.01	5.11	14.81	(d)
(e) Average size of owned land per owner (acres)		3.30	2.20	13.93	5.56	1.00	8.93	13.84	19.93	5.05	13.53	(e)
(f) % of irrigated land to total cultivated land		87.9	27.91	41.0	38.85	..	80.33	9.91	8.93	10.74	63.98	(f)
<b>11. Crops.</b>												
(a) % of total cropped area under improved seeds for all types of crops		37.1	29.49	16.73	9.86	9.05	37.63	25.98	3.86	0.37	36.54	11 (a)
(b) % of total cropped area under improved seeds for important Crops:												
(i) Paddy		74.7	2.94	..	1.30	1.89	6.77	9.79	..	2.20	25.75	iii i
(ii) Cotton		..	..	29.02	63.88	..	42.03	93.43	13.72	..	74.75	..
(iii) Wheat		..	17.94	0.17	..	..	96.00	18.30	8.17	..	92.45	iii

## VII—Improved Methods in Agriculture

ITEM	STATE BLOCK	ANDHRA	BOMBAY	MADHYA PRADESH	MADRAS	ORISSA	PUNJAB	MADHYA BHARAT	SAURASHTRA	MYSORE	PEPSU	ITBM
		SAMALKOT	KOLHAPUR	MORSI	ERODE	BHADRAK	BATALA	RAIPUR	MANAVADAR	MANDYA	BHADSON	
12. Improved Methods in Agriculture												
I. % of cultivating households :-												
(a) Using improved seeds . . . . .		73.03	65.74	28.21	24.64	12.21	92.86	82.71	20.71	1.41	90.84	12.
(b) Using Chemical fertilisers . . . . .		49.83	64.35	13.57	19.53	4.96	30.42	10.42	0.16	5.17	11.81	I (a)
(c) Using improved seeds & chemical fertilisers . . . . .		40.30	54.02	6.49	0.91	3.01	16.93	6.25	..	0.23	7.54	(b)
(d) Improved Implements . . . . .		..	54.72	17.19	..	0.35	17.72	5.63	5.14	1.03	66.60	(c)
(e) Employing other improved methods in agriculture . . . . .		25.99	26.02	21.01	11.31	..	6.08	57.50	5.62	..	91.24	(d)
(f) Japanese method . . . . .		..	0.89	..	0.91	0.88	..	0.21	..	..	..	i
(ii) Line sowing . . . . .		11.51	..	3.47	9.85	..	..	40.60	..	..	78.82	ii
(iii) Rogueing . . . . .		..	1.69	..	0.18	..	..	12.29	5.30	..	0.20	iii
(iv) Bund forming or Daulbandhi . . . . .		..	1.79	..	0.18	..	..	0.21	..	..	27.90	iv
(v) Land reclamation . . . . .		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	v
II. (a) % of households effecting live-stock improvements to total No. of households . . . . .		3.01	52.38	18.72	0.17	..	..	13.01	2.08	1.17	40.49	II(a)
(b) % of households effecting specified type of livestock improvement :												
(i) Castration of scrub bulls . . . . .		0.42	..	0.32	..	1.17	..	0.14	1.63	..	3.58	(b) i
(ii) Inoculation & vaccination . . . . .		1.76	52.29	18.64	..	15.91	..	13.14	..	..	3.43	ii
(iii) Artificial insemination . . . . .		..	..	..	..	0.15	..	..	..	..	..	iii

## VII—Improved Methods in Agriculture

ITEM	STATE BLOCK	ANDHRA	BOMBAY	MADHYA PRADESH	MADRAS	ORISSA	PUNJAB	MADHYA BHARAT	SAURASHTRA	MYSORE	PEPSU	ITRM
		SAMALKOT	KOLHAPUR	MORSI	ERODE	BHADRAK	BATALA	RAJPUR	MANAVADAR	MANDYA	BHADSON	
<i>12. Improved Methods in Agriculture</i>												
<i>I. % of cultivating households :-</i>												
(a) Using improved seeds . . . . .		73.03	65.74	28.21	24.64	12.21	92.86	82.71	20.71	1.41	90.34	12.
(b) Using Chemical fertilisers . . . . .		49.83	64.35	13.57	19.53	4.96	30.42	10.42	0.16	5.17	11.81	I (a)
(c) Using improved seeds & chemical fertilizers . . . . .		40.30	54.02	6.49	0.91	3.01	16.93	6.25	..	0.23	7.54	(b)
(d) Improved Implements . . . . .		..	54.72	17.19	..	0.35	17.72	5.63	5.14	1.03	66.60	(c)
(e) Employing other improved methods in agriculture . . . . .		25.99	26.02	21.01	11.31	..	6.08	57.50	5.62	..	91.24	(d)
(i) Japanese method . . . . .		..	0.89	..	0.91	0.88	..	0.21	..	..	..	(e)
(ii) Line sowing . . . . .		11.51	..	..	9.85	..	..	40.60	..	..	78.32	i
(iii) Roguing . . . . .		..	..	3.47	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ii
(iv) Bund forming or Daulbandhi . . . . .		..	1.69	..	0.18	..	..	12.29	5.30	..	0.20	iii
(v) Land reclamation . . . . .		..	1.79	..	0.18	..	..	0.21	..	..	27.90	iv
II. (a) % of households effecting livestock improvements to total No. of households . . . . .		3.01	52.38	18.72	0.17	..	..	13.01	2.08	1.17	40.49	v
(b) % of households effecting specified type of livestock improvement :												II(a)
(i) Castration of scrub bulls . . . . .		0.42	..	0.32	..	1.17	..	0.14	1.63	..	3.58	(b) i
(ii) Inoculation & vaccination . . . . .		1.76	52.29	18.64	..	15.91	..	13.14	..	..	5.48	ii
(iii) Artificial insemination . . . . .		..	..	..	..	0.15	..	..	..	..	..	iii

## VIII. Participation in Community Work, Village Institution &amp; Social Activity.

ITEM	STATE	ANDHRA	BOMBAY	MADHYA PRADESH	MADRAS	ORISSA	PUNJAB	MADHYA BHARAT	SAURASHTRA	MYSORE	PEPSU	ITBM
	BLOCK	SAMALKOT	KOLHAPUR	MORSI	ERODE	BRADRAK	BATALA	RAJPUR	MANAVADAR	MANDYA	BHADSON	
<b>13. Community work</b>												
(a) % of households participating in any type of community work . . . . .		5.69	94.3	23.66	10.31	38.83	59.23	31.57	30.32	32.33	35.99	13 (a)
(b) % of households participating in specified type of community work :												
(i) construction of roads . . . . .		0.59	94.38	1.94	9.96	18.39	59.23	18.70	28.60	12.73	35.07	(b) i.
(ii) " " schools . . . . .		5.10	0.86	10.37	0.17	17.52	11.22	6.10	1.72	13.32	6.13	ii.
(iii) Any other village benefit work . . . . .		..	21.09	12.48	0.35	15.91	20.45	11.79	8.69	11.56	1.33	iii.
(c) Cash contribution per 100 persons in community works (Rs.) . . . . .		15.43	8.89	72.11	..	30.69	28.93	45.76	25.46	15.30	2.50	(c)
(d) Labour contribution per 100 persons in community work (man-days) . . . . .		..	267.23	6.39	12.44	51.75	96.46	39.79	3.69	31.51	52.36	(d)
<b>14. Village Institution &amp; Social Activity</b>												
(a) % of households participating in any type of village organisation and social activity . . . . .		34.45	53.24	12.88	9.00	45.69	15.84	10.70	12.76	29.06	28.22	14 (a)
(b) % of households participating in specified type of village organisations :												
(i) Co-operative Society . . . . .		27.93	42.09	6.32	7.77	8.18	10.72	1.49	4.25	11.89	15.54	(b) i.
(ii) Village Panchayat Board . . . . .		1.42	1.30	1.94	0.70	0.73	3.12	2.03	5.16	4.49	3.58	ii.
(iii) Caste panchayat . . . . .		2.26	2.16	0.41	0.44	2.48	0.62	0.81	2.53	14.57	0.21	iii.
(iv) Vikas mandal . . . . .		..	1.99	4.54	..	..	..	0.54	..	..	0.10	iv.

## VIII. Participation in Community Work, Village Institutions &amp; Social activity—contd.

ITEM	STATE BLOCK	ANDHARA	BOMBAY	MADHYA PRADESH	MADRAS	ORISSA	PUNJAB	MADHYA BHARAT	SAURASHTRA	MYSORE	PEPSU	ITM
		SAMALKOT	KOLHAPUR	MORSI	ERODE	BHADRAK	BATALA	RAJPUR	MANAVADAR	MANDYA	BHADSON	
% of households participating in specified types of social activity, to total No. of households:												
(i) Missionary work	..	..	..	0.08	..	..	0.37	0.14	..	0.08	..	(c) i
(ii) Adult literacy circle	..	0.42	..	..	0.09	..	0.12	0.54	..	..	0.10	ii
(iii) Schools' committee	..	..	0.09	0.73	0.17	0.29	0.12	..	0.09	0.16	..	iii
(iv) Foot-ball club	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.14	..	..	..	iv
(v) Women's club	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	v
(vi) Kirtan Bhajan Mandal	..	..	5.10	..	..	35.33	..	3.12	..	3.52	..	vi
(vii) Dramatic Union	..	..	0.26	..	..	0.15	..	1.08	1.81	5.16	..	vii
(viii) Youth Club	..	..	..	0.08	..	0.58	..	..	..	..	..	viii
(ix) Religious activity	0.17	..	..	0.32	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ix
(x) Bhanga party, Folk dances, etc.	..	..	0.95	0.08	..	..	..	..	..	0.08	4.09	x
(xi) Social educational classes	..	..	..	0.08	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	xi
(xii) Village welfare society	..	..	..	0.08	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	xii
(xiii) Satya Shodhak Mandal	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	xiii
(xiv) Shikari Salakari Sangh	..	..	0.09	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	xiv
(xv) Village Defence Dal	..	..	0.26	..	0.17	..	..	0.27	0.18	..	0.82	xv
(xvi) Wrestling & gymnastics	..	..	2.59	..	..	..	..	..	0.09	..	..	xvi
(xvii) Welfare of harijans	..	..	0.17	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	xvii
(xviii) Go Seva Mandal	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.90	..	..	xviii





—A Note on the Impacts of Development Programmes Among  
Different Sections of the Rural Community

1. Introductory

1. It has often been asked as to what communities or sections of the rural people are materially affected by the programmes sponsored by the Community Development Projects, and in what measure different sections are called upon to contribute their share in carrying out works of community benefit. There has been some apprehension that the better-off sections are at present deriving the net benefits of development programmes in considerably larger measure than their counterparts, the economically and socially backward communities.

2. It is expected that to some extent the results of the Benchmark Survey and the Acceptance of Practices Enquiry will throw light on these and allied questions. It would then be of interest to examine the results of further 'repeat' surveys from the point of view of the differential rates of progress in the different sections of the people. For, if better-off sections derive the benefits at present it would be reasonable to expect that over a period of time the other sections will also show progress, perhaps at a faster rate than the sections which have already had the advantage of benefiting in the initial stages. This may be due to the changes in the methods of approach of the extension staff or to the growing awareness of the neglected sectors of village communities or both. For this more comprehensive and quantitative assessment, however, one has to wait until some time elapses and repeat surveys are done.

3. At present field work has been completed for both the surveys mentioned earlier in the evaluation blocks and the tabulation of the data is in progress. It is, therefore, not possible to make general comments on this aspect of the development programme until such time as detailed tabulated data are analysed. All the same, it may be of interest to confine such a diagnostic study to some specific evaluation block without any claim of generality. For this purpose, results of the Morsi block of the Anraoti-Morsi-Daryapur community development project have been analysed. The choice of Morsi block is mainly due to the fact that among the nineteen evaluation centres, this one happens to be one of those centres in which notable progress has been made. It would be realized that an analysis of differentials in impacts of development programmes would be fruitless in an area where good overall progress was not in evidence.

4. The emphasis of the development programme in Morsi block is naturally on the improvement of agriculture. To this end, cultivators are being approached for adoption of improved seeds—particularly of cotton and to some extent also of Jowar—fertilizers, pesticides, etc. Irrigation is an unimportant feature of this block. For other programmes of development in the spheres of animal husbandry, health and sanitation, and social education, the usual pattern of sponsoring programmes found elsewhere is also in evidence in this block with some local variations. The co-operative movement is weak and does not play a positive part of programmes in this block. In the direction of village organization, the project encourages formations of the ad hoc Vikas Mandals through which programmes of community works can be channelled. Village Panchayats are nominated bodies and these have not been used as effective vehicles of rural development programmes. The programmes of community benefits are principally those relating to construction of roads and school buildings and drinking-water wells.

5. It is to be expected that the cultivator class would be principally affected in this pattern of development programmes. In so far as the interest lies in the study of differential impacts, it would be of interest to see how far various classes of cultivators, the small, the medium and the large, take to programmes of agricultural improvements. In others, such as voluntary participation in community works, and membership in village organizations other sections have also some scope to make their contribution. There is also scope for Grama Sevaks and other staff to come into contact with non-agricultural sections of the rural people in their extension work for non-agricultural activities. The net effect of the efforts of the extension staff to approach persons of different sections on the one hand, and the effective appeal which these programmes have for people of different sections, possessing in varying degrees the means to benefit by extension advice, produce a pattern of differential impacts. For some specific programme this pattern may be examined on the basis of the results of two detailed inquiries.

6. It might be mentioned that the Bench Mark Survey covered a period of nine months from May 1953 to January 1954. As such it covered the kharif season of 1953-54 and some part of the rabi of that season. The project started operating in October 1952 but the progress during the first year was far from substantial. On the whole the expenditure incurred during the first year (October 1952—September 1953) was about 6 per cent. of the three-year period budget of the project. Even here, a substantial amount of expenditure was on the administrative staff and equipment. A

the end of September 1954, the percentage had gone up to 38, indicating considerable increase in the tempo of activity in the second year. The Bench Mark Survey covered essentially a period in which the tempo of the activity was yet to be stepped up to the desired level.

The Acceptance of Practices Inquiry was conducted sometime during the month of January 1955 to March 55 and by that time, the activity of the project had taken some definite shape and gathered some momentum, but all the same, the level of expenditure was less than the 'pro-rata' budgeted expenditure, though compared to several other projects in which evaluation centres are located, it was substantial.

7. In view of this, the analysis is related only to a few items which have been adopted to an extent which would make the analysis of differential impacts meaningful. Further, the analysis relates to the six villages selected for the B.M.S. These villages were selected randomly on the principle of stratified random sampling, and there is no reason to believe that any particular type of deliberate bias has been introduced in their selection. For the Bench Mark Survey, the villages were covered in their entirety; whereas for the Acceptance of Practices Enquiry, a sample of 240 households was taken at random. As the sample is small, the analysis is to be regarded as more or less of a diagnostic type.

## 2. Agricultural Programmes

1. In the field of agriculture the important programmes accepted by the cultivators to some extent are the following: (i) use of improved seed for cotton, (ii) use of ammonium sulphate, (iii) use of pesticides such as agrosan GN and copper carbonate, (iv) use of iron plough and (v) eradication of weeds. For all these programmes, the analysis shows that larger cultivators have accepted the improved practices in larger proportions. Whereas only about 16 per cent. of cotton-growing cultivators with holdings below 5 acres each have adopted improved cotton seed, about 50 percent of cotton-growing cultivators with individual holdings of 25 acres and above have adopted improved seed. The corresponding percentages for cotton-growing cultivators falling in the two size groups of holdings, viz., '5 and above but less than 10 acres' and '10 and above but less than 25' acres are 25 and 37 respectively. The proportion of area under improved cotton to the total area under cotton also increases with the increase in size of holding. The same pattern prevails in respect of use of ammonium sulphate, a fertilizer which is being sponsored by the project, and use of Kirlosker plough.

irrigation is the least important aspect of cultivation in Morsi so far, but a beginning appears to have been made in the shape of installation of pumps and engines. Here also the initial adoption is seen to have taken place in the larger group of cultivators.

2. It must be stated that in the initial stages of the development programme this pattern was perhaps inevitable. The larger cultivators by reason of their better economic position and superior knowledge and wider contacts could take to better practices quickly and without undue strain on their resources. In fact, the development programme affords them an opportunity for investment in scientific agriculture. Again, the project machinery would find it much easier to establish contacts with the bigger cultivators and perhaps also to induce them to take to these improved practices. However, it would seem that as time went by, contacts with the smaller cultivators would be established and the persuasive influence of the Gram Sevaks and other project staff would make itself manifest in the increase in the proportion of smaller cultivators adopting improved practices. From this point of view, of the results of the Acceptance of Practices Enquiry might be of considerable interest.

3. The Acceptance of Practices Enquiry covered a period roughly till the end of December 1954 and as such, compared to the period covered by the BMS, included one more kharif and rabi. But the passage of time did not apparently bring about any great change in the inequality of impacts. Over 80 per cent. of the largest twenty percent of cotton-growing cultivators were using improved seeds of cotton, but in the two smallest classes of forty-percent, only about one-third of the cotton growing cultivators had adopted them. A large part of those not adopting improved seed of cotton gave 'difficulty in securing the seed' as a principal reason for non-adoption. In the case of ammonium sulphate the use was confined to the larger section of the cultivators only. In this case, the three main reasons for non-adoption stated by a large majority of cultivators were 'no knowledge', 'no money to spare' and excessive cost'. These reasons should serve as useful pointers in the extension work.

4. It will be evident, therefore, that after two years, a large part of the smaller sections of the cultivators had yet to adopt improved practices. Further probing indicated that either lack of knowledge or lack of facilities constituted the main underlying causes for non-adoption.

### 3. Membership in village Organization

1. When one considers the pattern of membership in village organizations, be they co-operative societies, Vikas Mandals, Gram