



Local Government Quarterly

January - March 2023

*A Journal of the
All India Institute of Local Self-Government*

- ★ Effectiveness of CFT Strategy for Convergence between MGNREGS and NRLM of MoRD
- ★ Sustainable Development Goals in India: An Economic Analysis of SDG-8 during 2017-2021
- ★ Quality of Life in Geography: A Multi-Dimensional Synoptic Review
- ★ Grassroots Level Alliance for Rural Development; Micro Perspective from Tamil Nadu, India

About All India Institute of Local Self-Government (AIILSG)

All India Institute of Local Self-Government (AIILSG), established in 1926 has been actively working in the field of urban development management and is a diligent partner in promoting the cause of local governance in India and overseas.

The Institute has been the steadfast friend, philosopher and guide to Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) across the Country. For more than eight decades it has contributed to the principles and practice of urban governance, education, research and capacity building. It has designed and developed a vast array of training literature and courses and trained more than 1.5 million stakeholders in diverse areas of urban governance and urban services delivery.

These activities of the AIILSG are practiced through 30 regional centres located in different regions of the Country. The Institute anchors the Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES) of the Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India for Western India region. This Centre is actively involved in building capabilities of municipal officials, staff and elected members from the States of Goa, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and the Union Territories of Diu, Daman, and Dadra & Nagar Haveli by upgrading their knowledge and skills required for effective administration and implementation of various urban development programmes.

With a view to cater to the growing requirement of ULBs in regard to services, the AIILSG runs specialized capacity building institutions such as the National Fire Academy, the Nrupur Institute of Nursing Science and Research and the Centre for Environment & Disaster Management at Vadodara, PRUDA at Ahmedabad, National Resource Centre for Urban Poverty, International Centre of EQUI-T, the Disaster Management Cell and the Centre of GIS at Pune. It runs the Solid Waste Management Cell of the Government of Maharashtra. In recent years, AIILSG has ventured into rural and tribal capacity building and hand holding of rural institutions of self-governance.

In addition to the domestic activities, the Institute organises several tailor-made capacity building programmes for various countries in South Asia, viz, Bangladesh, Nepal, Sri Lanka and in other regions, including South Africa, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Malaysia, China, etc. The Institute has linkages with renowned international organizations including UNCHS (Habitat), UNDP, UNICEF, UNFPA, WHO, DFID, CITYNET, CLGF, US-AEP and the Ford Foundation. It is the anchor institution for Urban Management Programme (UMP-UNCHS-Habitat) for South Asia.

Contents

• Editorial	3
• Effectiveness of CFT Strategy for Convergence between MGNREGS and NRLM of MoRD Hanumantha Rao Potharaju, N Padmavathi, B V Suranjan Reddy	6
• Sustainable Development Goals in India: An Economic Analysis of SDG-8 during 2017-2021 M V Vaithilingam, Usha Iyer	16
• Quality of Life in Geography: A Multi-Dimensional Synoptic Review Sowmya shree K L, Chandrashekara B	28
• Grassroots Level Alliance for Rural Development; Micro Perspective from Tamil Nadu, India R Venkata Ravi, S Vellimalayan, S Ramesh	41
• Report Review	66
• Our Contributors	70

Local Government Quarterly

Published by the

All India Institute of Local Self-Government



All India Institute of Local Self-Government

M. N. Roy Human Development Campus, Plot No.6, 'F' Block,
TPS Road No.12, Bandra (E), Mumbai – 400051.
Tel : +91 86576 22550 / 51 / 52 / 54
E-mail : dg@aillsg.org Website : www.aillsg.org

Ranjit S. Chavan
President

Dr. Jairaj Phatak, I.A.S. (Retd.)
Director General

Local Government Quarterly

Editorial Board

Chief Editor
Dr. Jairaj Phatak, I.A.S. (Retd.)

Members

Mukesh Kanaskar

Sneha Palnitkar

V. Vijaykumar

Vijay Kulkarni

Shweta Gupta

Shriniwas Indapurkar

Khatibullah Sheikh

UshaVerghese

The views expressed in the articles are the personal opinions of the contributors and do not necessarily reflect the opinion of the All India Institute of Local Self-Government. Articles, letters to the editor, views and reviews are welcome. They may be addressed to the Chief Editor, or sent by e-mail to aillsgquarterlyjournal@aillsg.org or info.algq@aillsg.org

Printed by Dr. Jairaj Phatak I.A.S. (Retd.), The Director General, All India Institute of Local Self-Government, at Copytronics, Bandra (E), Mumbai - 400 051 and published by him at the All India Institute of Local Self-Government, 11, Horniman Circle, Mumbai - 400 023.

Editorial

Safety – a national priority

Each day millions of Indians travel out and come back home using our roads. In 2021, over 1,53,000 Indians did not make it back home. Over 3,84,000 came home with injuries, with sizeable number of these injuries possibly of life changing nature.

These fatalities and injuries occurred during the 4,12,432 road accidents during that year, the highest number during the preceding seven years. These figures as per the publication 'Road Accidents in India 2021' put out by the MoRTH, Government of India are indeed worrisome. Each road accident and the resulting outcome is a tragedy not just for the families concerned but for the entire nation.

This brings into focus the larger issue of Safety and its central role in building a sustainable, healthy and prosperous future for all of us. Yet it seems to be the most neglected and ignored aspect of our daily lives. This must change.

The National Safety Council is a Not-for-Profit organisation set up by the Ministry of Labour, Government of India several decades ago to work in the area of safety, especially workplace safety, by increasing awareness and carrying out various activities such as conducting specialised training programmes, conferences, seminars & workshops; it undertakes consultancy studies such as safety audits, safety ratings, hazard evaluation & risk assessment. NSC observes National Safety Week during March 4-10 every year. The theme for 2023 was “Our Aim - Zero Harm”.

In addition to its efforts towards overall safety, NSC also runs campaigns in specific areas such as Fire Safety Week (April 14 – 20), Electrical Safety Week (From June 26), and Road Safety Month.

The pursuit of safety and safe practices must over time be engrained in our very culture and consciousness. It is closely linked to the culture of discipline, adherence to the rule of law, and respect for fellow citizens.

Fire Safety

Take fire safety, for example. Building regulations require that there is a minimum marginal space around a building which shall remain vacant and free of encumbrances at all times. This, among others, is to ensure that in the unfortunate event of a fire somewhere in the building, firemen and fire tenders are able to move around the building and carry out fire-fighting and rescue operations. But we find that such marginal spaces, if provided, are invariably used to park vehicles, to build structures such as watchman's shed, or store material. So when there is an unfortunate fire incident in the building, our valiant firemen (who are known to lay down their lives to rescue citizens) are left with no access to the building. Many hospitals have in recent years been in the news for fires, often claiming lives of innocent patients including infants and the seriously ill. Hospitals and other such sensitive public buildings where there is need for strict adherence to safety protocols are often found to be big offenders. Fire exit staircases are regularly used for storing cartons, crates and hospitable consumables, or worse still, the doors giving access to these staircases are locked / latched from outside. Therefore in the event of a fire anywhere in the building, this route for escape is made inaccessible, non-functional/unavailable and there could be tragedies. These are not stray isolated cases; if we look around we will find these are ubiquitous.

Electrical Safety

There are umpteen incidents of electrical shocks and fires, most going unreported. Here too there is scant regard for safety protocols and standard operating procedures. Added to this is the use of non-conforming material such as wires, plugs, and switches. These happen all the time, everywhere including in our homes where the workman totally disregards norms and the people at home are not knowledgeable. This puts at risk innocent family members including children.

Road safety

And coming back to the subject of road safety, the bizarre situation can be seen every day by everyone on every street in every city. Helmetless two-wheeler riders, three or more persons riding on a two-wheeler, wrong side driving, jumping signals, speed limit violations, underage (without license) driving are all very much prevalent and their incidence is rising. This situation presents elevated risks for all road users and can have disastrous outcomes for safety.

Other areas

Construction site safety assumes much importance in recent times given the large scale of the activity, construction of high-rise buildings, and therefore the

increased hazards that workmen are exposed to. This is amplified considering that these work sites now use large cranes, rigs, and other heavy equipment and any mishandling of these could prove fatal. Use of helmets by all as well as safety harnesses by workmen working at heights helps reduce their vulnerabilities greatly and are recommended safety procedures. We observe that such practices are followed in large projects such as metro works but often disregarded in smaller projects. Several sports require the use of protective gear to minimize the risks of injuries to players. Use of firecrackers during festivals demands much care since children are exposed to risks. There are safety protocols to be followed while filling up fuel at gas stations. Most of these are generally flouted with our usual '*Chalta Hai*' attitude.

The way forward

Quite obviously, there is urgent need to reform our approach to safety. Indeed it appears to be an attitudinal issue. We simply don't care, it seems. This must change. The Japanese earned a reputation for high quality products – automobiles, electronics, home appliances, etc. – several decades ago. Experts suggest that the high quality products are actually an outcome of the Japanese deep rooted pursuit of safety – the use of the right (trained) men, right materials, and right methods – in order to secure safety at the workplace. This automatically resulted in good quality products.

Among the best ways of inculcating a safety culture in society is to start with the young. Schools could be a good place to bring in the safety culture. Experts could be called in to speak to students on various aspects of safety including safety at home. Safety topics could also be included in some science subjects and made part of examinations. Other measures like 'Safety Quiz' will attract children to participate and learn. As children get convinced about the right (safe) way to do things, they will influence the family to follow the right practices. Quite appropriately National Safety Week theme for 2022 was 'Nurture young minds – Develop Safety culture'. The services of celebrities could also be enlisted in safety campaigns to improve visibility and appeal. AILSG has been working in the area of fire safety by training large numbers of fire-fighting personnel at various levels. AILSG has set up the National fire Academy at Vadodara to promote such programmes while working with local governments to build awareness in this area and create a large pool of trained fire personnel. Such programmes could be spread to all areas of safety all over the country to achieve success on the lines of 'Swachh Bharat' mission with the spirit of '*Prepare and prevent, don't repair and repent*'.



Effectiveness of CFT Strategy for Convergence between MGNREGS and NRLM of MoRD

Hanumantha Rao Potharaju, N. Padmavathi, B.V. Suranjan Reddy

Abstract

Convergence helps to build on each other's strengths, among two or more programmes, and leads to better achievement of programme goals. Cluster Facilitation Team (CFT) strategy was formulated to nurture convergence between two flagship poverty reduction programmes viz. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantees Scheme (MGNREGS) and National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM), of the Government of India. Civils Society Organizations (CSO), from both government and non-government sectors, played key role in CFT project implementation. The project was piloted in 240 most backward blocks in the country spread across 10 states. Analysis of data from MRNREGS-MIS website indicate that, most of the output, outcome and impact indicators of CFT states, districts and block experienced positive Average Annual Growth Rate (AAGR). CFT states are

better than that of non-CFT states, in most of the cases. The difference between CFT districts and non-CFT districts of select CFT states narrows down for majority of the indicators. At block level, half of the indicators of the non-CFT are better compared with that of CFT blocks. Further disaggregated data at household level, obtained through primary surveys, will give better picture of the effectiveness of the CFT strategy.

Key Words

Civil Society Organizations, Cluster Facilitation Team, Convergence, institutional mechanism, migration, MGNREGS, NRLM, Poverty Reduction

1.0 Introduction

Convergence nurtures synergy among human, financial and technical resources from two or more programmes / schemes, and facilitates their effective utilization, to achieve

objectives of a programme or scheme. The Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD), Government of India announced 2014-15 as the year of 'convergence' under Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS). Accordingly, the MoRD formulated the Cluster Facilitation Team (CFT) strategy to foster convergence between the two of its flagship programmes viz., MGNREGA and the National Rural Livelihoods Mission (NRLM), working towards eradication of poverty in rural India. Beginning in 2014, the CFT project was piloted in 250 most backward blocks of the country (MoRD 2015).

Civil Society Organizations (CSO), selected by the respective state governments, implemented the CFT project. Government institutions were the CSOs in Andhra Pradesh; Bihar and Telangana states. In Jharkhand, a government institution and a number of NGOs implemented the CFT strategy. In Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra; Odisha; Rajasthan and West Bengal NGOs acted as CSOs. Some CSOs were added, some were removed and others got replaced. While most of the CSOs implemented the CFT project in one state, a few are multi state CSOs.

The CSOs are required to put in place, three CFTs in each block assigned to them. Each CFT constitutes a three-member team with

expertise in i) Soil and Moisture Conservation and/or ii) Agriculture and allied /livelihood activities and/or; iii) Community Mobilization and/or iv) Preparing estimates, doing all measurements and assessing quality of assets. Each CFT performs the role of a Technical Secretariat to the GPs supported by it, supporting about one third GPs of the block. The MoRD provides financial support of Rs. 28 lakhs per year per block for a period of THREE years to CSOs (DoRD 2018), for implementing the CFT strategy. The Ministry released Rs. 6416.56 lakhs to 10 states namely Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Odisha, Rajasthan and West Bengal during the project period 2013-14 to 2016-17. About 50% of the total funds under the CFT project went to Jharkhand state (DoRD 2017).

Objective of Paper

To ascertain the effectiveness of the CFT strategy with regard to important performance indicators of MGNREGA. This is done by testing the following hypotheses.

Null Hypotheses

One: There is no difference in the performance of MGNREGA before and after CFT strategy implementation.

Two: There is no difference in the performance of MGNREGA in CFT category of state/district/blocks and non-CFT states/districts/blocks.

Alternate Hypotheses:

One: The performance of MGNREGA after implementation of CFT strategy is better than before CFT strategy.

Two: There performance of MGNREGA in CFT category of state/district/blocks is better than that in non-CFT states/districts/blocks.

2.0 Methodology

This paper is primarily based on secondary data. Data available from the MGNREGA MIS website (<https://mnregaweb4.nic.in/netnrega>) is used to analyze the effectiveness of the CFT strategy at state, district and block level. This is supplemented by a review of studies on CFT strategy.

Analysis

Two approaches have been used for analyzing data from MGNREGS MIS website to test the hypotheses.

- a) Before and after CFT strategy and
- b) With and without CFT strategy.

Before and After Analysis: *Average Annual Growth Rate (AAGR)*, during the project period is analyzed, for the following three parameters.

- a) Demand generation;
- b) Payment of wages and
- c) Income from wages

A positive AAGR indicates that the CFT project increased demand generation. As the project start date varied from CSO to CSO, to maintain uniformity, 2015-16 to 2019-20, is considered as the reference period for this analysis.

The following set of output and outcome indicators are used to analyze 'demand generation'.

- Persondays Generated (PDG)
- Total Households Worked (THW)
- Total Individuals Worked (TIW)
- Proportion of SC Persondays (SCD)
- Proportion of ST Persondays (STD)
- Proportion Women Persondays (WPD)
- Average Days per Household (ADHH)
- Households completed 100 days (100 HH)
- Total Number of Works Taken Up (TNW)

➤ **Approved Labour Budget (ALB)**

Three outcome indicators are used to analyze 'Payment of Wages' are as follows.

- Wage rate,
- Payment of wages within 15 days and
- Percentage of Expenditure

'Income from Wages' is the impact indicator of MGNREGS.

3.0 Findings

This section provides details of a) Before and After Analysis; b) With and Without Analysis and c) Review of other studies.

Before and After Analysis

Demand Generation

State Level Analysis: AAGR was calculated for nine CFT states namely Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Odisha, Rajasthan, Telangana and West Bengal. Together the nine CFT states have positive AAGR for seven of the 10 demand indicators. In case of proportion of SC Persondays, ST Persondays and ADPHH AAGR was in negative. Indicator-wise details are presented in the Table 1.

Table 1: AAGR of Demand Generation Indicators – Nine CFT States

S. NO.	INDICATOR	AAGR (%)
		Nine CFT States
1	Persondays Generated	3.52
2	Total Households Worked	3.96
3	Total Individuals Worked	2.70
4	Proportion of SC Persondays	-2.29
5	Proportion of ST Persondays	-3.03
6	Proportion Women Persondays	1.75
7	Average Days per Household	-0.99
8	Households completed 100 days	7.15
9	Total Number of Works Taken Up	8.00
10	Approved Labour Budget	5.5

District Level Analysis: This was carried out for CFT districts of a sample of five CFT states namely Andhra Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Odisha and Rajasthan. All CFT districts together exhibit positive AAGR for six indicators of demand generation. The AAGR is negative for four other indicators namely SC and ST Persondays, Average Days per Household and Households Completed 100 Days. Indicators-wise details are presented in the Table 2.

Table 2: AAGR of Demand Generation Indicators – CFT Districts of Five CFT States

S. NO.	INDICATOR	AAGR (%)
		CFT Districts
1	Persondays Generated	4.05
2	Total Households Worked	4.60
3	Total Individuals Worked	3.83
4	Proportion of SC Persondays	-1.59
5	Proportion of ST Persondays	-1.95
6	Proportion Women Persondays	1.07
7	Average Days per Household	-0.02
8	Households completed 100 days	-1.90
9	Total Number of Works Taken Up	15.89
10	Approved Labour Budget	4.17

Blocks Level Analysis: Data of CFT blocks of the CFT districts was analyzed for this purpose. Three of the 10 indicators have negative AAGR, while the remaining indicators show positive AAGR. Total Number of works taken up has higher AAGR at CFT blocks level compared to the CFT districts of the sample CFT states. Further details are given in the Table 3.

Table 3: Comparison of Demand Generation Indicators - CFT Blocks of CFT Districts of Five CFT States

S. NO.	INDICATOR	AAGR (%)
		CFT Blocks
1	Persondays Generated	2.45
2	Total Households Worked	1.97
3	Total Individuals Worked	2.01
4	Proportion of SC Persondays	-0.53
5	Proportion of ST Persondays	-1.27
6	Proportion Women Persondays	1.10
7	Average Days per Household	-0.62
8	Households completed 100 days	6.00
9	Total Number of Works Taken Up	21.45

Payment of Wages

States Level: Nine CFT states together have positive AAGR for all three indicators viz. Wage Rate (3.1%); Payment within 15 days (25.1%) and Percentage of NRM expenditure (1.4%).

District Level: CFT districts of five sample CFT states also enjoy a positive AAGR for all three wage related indicators – Wage Rate (4.0%);

Payment within 15 days (20.2%) and % of NRM Expenditure (2.6%).

Block Level: All three indicators - Wage Rate (4.2%); Payment within 15 days (21.7%) and % of NRM Expenditure (1.1%).

Indicator wise AAGR for all three levels is summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: Summary of Payment of Wages Indicators –CFT Blocks, CFT Districts and CFT States Level

S. NO.	INDICATOR	AAGR (%)		
		CFT Blocks	CFT Districts	CFT States
1	Wage Rate	4.19	4.01	3.12
2	Payment within 15 Days	21.73	20.19	25.1
3	% of Expenditure	1.06	2.61	1.4

Income from Wages

The AAGR of the CFT states is 2.1%, while that of the CFT districts of five sample states is 4.3%. CFT blocks of the CFT districts together has an AAGR of 4.0%.

With and Without Analysis

Demand Generation

Two sets of indicators were used to assess the contribution of CFT on demand generation. **First Set:** Proportion of the following indicators in CFT states/districts/blocks is compared to the proportion of respective rural population. Hence, if CFT is not implemented, the share of the following output indicators will be similar to that of rural population.

- Persondays Generated (PDG)
- Total Households Worked (THW)
- Total Individuals Worked (TIW)
- Households completed 100 days (100 HH)

In case of the second set of indicators, actual values of CFT category compared with that of non-CFT category.

- Proportion of SC Persondays (SCD)
- Proportion of ST Persondays (STD)
- Proportion Women Persondays (WPD)
- Average Days per Household (ADHH)

State Level Analysis: As per Census 2011, rural population of the NINE CFT states (Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Odisha, Rajasthan, Telangana and West Bengal) account for about half (48.4%) of the country's rural population. The nine CFT states together enjoy higher proportion for all four first set indicators compared to corresponding rural population. The difference is more pronounced in case of Households Completed 100days of work as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Share of First Set of Demand Generation Indicators - CFT and NCFT States

S. NO.	INDICATOR	PROPORTION (%)	
		Nine CFT States	All Non-CFT States
	RURAL POPULATION	48.4	51.6
1	Persondays Generated	55	46
2	Total Households Worked	51.0	49.0
3	Total Individuals Worked	55.3	44.7
4	Households Completed 100 Days	65.9	34.1

Three of the four Second Set indicators are higher for the nine CFT states together compared to that of the non-CFT states together, as shown in in Table 6.

Table 6: Comparison Second Set of Demand Generation Indicators - CFT and NCFT States

S. NO.	INDICATOR	NINE CFT STATES	ALL Non-CFT STATES
1	Proportion of SC Persondays	18.22	14.43
2	Proportion of ST Persondays	19.86	32.23
3	Proportion Women Persondays	51.64	50.15
4	Average Days per Household (Days)	55	42.3

District Level Analysis: District level analysis was carried out using data from EIGHT CFT states, as data for West Bengal was not available. The proportion of rural population of all CFT districts of the 8 CFT states is 35.5%. The share of all CFT districts for all four first set indicators viz. Active Job Cards, Active Workers, Person Days Generated and Households completed 100 days is higher than proportion of rural population as seen from Table 7.

Table 7: Share of First Set of Demand Generation Indicators - CFT and NON-CFT Districts

S. NO.	INDICATOR	PROPORTION (%)	
		CFT Districts of Eight CFT States	All Non-CFT Districts
	RURAL POPULATION	35.5.	64.5
1	Persondays Generated	45.2	54.8
2	Total Households Worked	42.9	57.1
3	Total Individuals Worked	41.8	58.2
4	Households Completed 100 Days	48.3	51.7

Three of the four Second Set indicators are higher for the nine CFT states together compared to that of the non-CFT states together. In case of SC Persondays non-CFT districts is higher, as shown in in Table 8.

Table 8: Comparison Second Set of Demand Generation Indicators - CFT and Non-CFT Districts

S. NO.	INDICATOR	CFT DISTRICTS	ALL Non-CFT DISTRICTS
1	Proportion of SC Persondays	14.22	18.41
2	Proportion of ST Persondays	29.94	16.66
3	Proportion Women Persondays	51.23	50.28
4	Average Days per Household (Days)	49.3	46.8

Block Level Analysis: Block level analysis was carried out for CFT blocks of CFT districts of eight CFT states. The proportion of rural population of all CFT blocks of the 8 CFT states is 16.1%. The share of all CFT districts for all four first set indicators viz. Three of the four indicators are lower than proportion of the rural population. Share of Total Individuals Worked is marginally higher than the proportion of rural population as shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Share of First Set of Demand Generation Indicators - CFT and NON-CFT Blocks

S. NO.	INDICATOR	PROPORTION (%)	
		Nine CFT Blocks	All Non-CFT Blocks
	RURAL POPULATION	16.3	83.7
1	Persondays Generated	14.2	85.8
2	Total Households Worked	15.1	84.9
3	Total Individuals Worked	16.6	83.4
4	Households Completed 100 Days	12.1	87.9

CFT blocks have higher proportion for ST Persondays and Average Days per Household (Days) than non-CFT blocks of the CFT districts. For other two indicators it is lower as shown in Table 10.

Table 10: Comparison of Second Set of Demand Generation Indicators - CFT and NCFT States

S. NO.	INDICATOR	CFT DISTRICTS	ALL Non-CFT DISTRICTS
1	Proportion of SC Persondays	9.9	11.1
2	Proportion of ST Persondays	44.2	34.2
3	Proportion Women Persondays	51.8	52.0
4	Average Days per Household (Days)	49.8	49.4

Review of Other Studies

Average Days of SC households (41) and Average days of ST households (44) of the project CFT blocks was lower than the national average of 45 and 49, in the baseline year 2013–14. However, in 2015-16, the averages of the CFT blocks was at par with the national blocks. Average % wages paid on time of the CFT blocks, improved from 41 to 50 in CFT blocks

during this period (Sabhiki 2015). In Jharkhand the CFT project was implemented in 76 blocks of 21 districts. Average Persondays Generated (PDG) in CFT GPs of Jharkhand was reported to be consistently higher compared to the GPs in the NCFT blocks, during the CFT project years. The difference is more marked in 2015-16. (Government of Jharkhand, 2016).

An evaluation of the impact of CFT project, implemented by two CSOs, in two blocks in Jharkhand, (IHD 2017) reported positive changes like reduction of role of middle men in getting work under MGNREGA; better awareness among MGNREGA workers about their rights and entitlements to work and payment of wages, provision for unemployment allowance; receipt of timely payment; retaining job cards with workers; improvement in facilities at work site among others.

Prevention of Migration: In Jharkhand, assurance of getting 100 days of work under MGNREGA (LEDAS, 2016, 25-26) and construction of farm ponds and two drinking water wells (SUPPORT, 2020, 9) helped to prevent people from migration for work and livelihood.

Building Other Synergies: Udyogini led CFT strategy has integrated with Misereor supported 'Food and Nutrition Security Program'

for strategic convergence. As a part of integration, seed support and scientific cultivation practices have been disseminated to those who have already benefitted through CFT in terms of land leveling, water harvest structure such as dobha and well. The beneficiaries have been harvesting bottle gourd, cucumber, bitter gourd and long yard beans for their own consumption and also for selling the surplus at local haat (www.udyogini.org/integration-of-cft-misereor-deliverable/).

Institutional Mechanism: CFT strategy provided the 'Institutional Mechanism', necessary for effective convergence between MGNREGS and NLM, resulting in better poverty reduction (Sridharan 2014).

Constraints: An evaluation of the CFT project, two blocks in Rajasthan observed that though CFTs are facilitating mechanisms, they are expected to do the work of the Project Implementing Agency (PIA). Absence of role clarity among various institutions and lack of coordination between the PRIs and CFT is hindering effective implementation of the scheme. Many administrative and structural constraints have caused CFTs faltering in achieving desired results (Bharat Rural Livelihood Foundation, 2017). In Jharkhand rumors by vested interests and threat to CFT members, and viewing CSO as a competitor by panchayat as well as the block staff, came in the way of

effectiveness of CFT project (Ghatak, 2105, 21-30). In Rajasthan, problems faced in implementation of CFT project include i) overnight increase in number of GPs from four to 41; ii) poor response of government officials and resistance to entry of a new stakeholder; iii) lengthy formalities, at different stages for approval resulting in beneficiaries missing deadlines and iv) reluctance of community to work as laborer due to low wages offered under MGNREGA as compared to potential wages earned from working in nearby cities (https://srijanindia.org/case_studies/a-collaborative-effort-of-key-stakeholders-in-water-conservation-and-livelihood-enhancement-of-the-rural-poor/).

Suggestions: Based on its experience with implementation of the CFT project in Jharkhand a CSO (PRADAN 2017) recommended i) taking up institutional convergence in a more tangible way; ii) setting up panchayat coordination committee to improve monitoring; iii) ensuring predictable and timely availability of funds to CSOs and routing them through panchayats; iv) setting up block level MGNREGA 'Sahayta Kendras' and v) improving CFT MIS component.

4.0 Conclusions

Before and after analysis reveals that CFT states, districts and blocks showed positive Average Annual

Growth Rate (AAGR) for majority of the output, outcome and impact indicators. This is a pointer for the effectiveness of the CFT strategy. CFT states also showed better achievements than non-CFT states. The differences in different indicators narrow down at district level. Non-CFT blocks have higher values for about half of the indicators studied, in comparison to that of CFT blocks.

Analysis of further disaggregated data may provide more correct picture of the effectiveness of the CFT strategy. Hence, analysis of data at household level is suggested for ascertaining the impact of CFT strategy, more rigorously. This involves primary data collection through surveys of households from CFT supported GPs and comparing with those households from non-CFT Gram Panchayats.

References

1. Bharat Rural Livelihood Foundation. Annual Report 2016-17, p. 47. Accessed on 16.6.2020 at <https://www.brlf.in/brlf2/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/Annreport-English.pdf>
2. DoRD (2018). Master Circular – A Guide for Programme Implementation FY 2018-2019. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, 2005. Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India.

-
- https://nrega.nic.in/netnrega/writer/eaddata/circulars/amc_2018-19_nk_v3_21.03.18.pdf
3. DoRD (2017). Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 2448. To be answered on 16.03.2017. NGOS involved in rural schemes. Department of Rural Development, Ministry of Rural Development.
 4. Ghatak, D. (2015). NREGA: From Government Programme to People's Programme. NEWSREACH, pp. 21-30. https://pradan.net/images/Media/news_reach_nov_dec2015.pdf
 5. Government of India. Accessed on 30.10.2020 at <http://164.100.24.220/loksabhaquestions/annex/11/AU2448.pdf>
 6. Government of Jharkhand (2016). NRLM-MGNREGA-CFT project. The Jharkhand Experience. 15 June 2016. <https://nrega.nic.in/netnrega/writereaddata/Circulars/CORRESPONDENCE.pdf>
 7. IHD. (2017). Impact of CFT on Implementation of MGNREGA. Institute for Human Development, Ranchi, Jharkhand.
 8. MoRD. (2015). Annual Report 2014-15, p. 17. Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India. https://rural.nic.in/sites/default/files/Annual_Report_2014_15_English.pdf
 9. PRADAN. (2017). Report on Reflections and Policy Recommendations. Cluster Facilitation Team Project, p. 21-22. Professional Assistance for Development Action, New Delhi. https://www.pradan.net/sampark/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/CFT_COMPLETE_REPORT.pdf
 10. Sabhiki, I (2015). Many Hands Make Light Work. Reflections on the MGNREGA - NRLM Convergence CFT Project. News Reach, Volume 15, Number 6, pp. 1-9, November-December 2015. Accessed on 23.1.2020 at https://pradan.net/images/Media/news_reach_nov_dec2015.pdf
 11. Sridharan, N. (2014). Village and Small Town Development Through the Provision of Urban Services in India: A New Approach to Help the Rural Poor. Accessed on 29.10.2020 at <http://www.rksi.org/sites/default/files/document/364/34-sridharan-pura-report.pdf>



Sustainable Development Goals in India: An Economic Analysis of SDG-8 during 2017-2021

M. V. Vaithilingam, Usha Iyer

Abstract:

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) known as the Global Goals were adopted by the United Nations in 2015 as a universal call to action to end poverty, protect the planet, and ensure that by 2030 all people enjoy peace and prosperity (UNDP). The SDG framework, adopted by 193 countries in 2015, has redefined government priorities and development policies across the world. India is working towards achieving the targets of SDGs by 2030 for a sustainable future to meet the aspirations of its large, young, and vibrant population. This paper tries to assess the progress of India with reference to SDG 8, focusing on economic growth through national level indicators of manufacturing, consumption, exports, imports, unemployment rate, tourism and growth rate of GDP using World Bank data during 2017- 2021. The results reveal that there has been a significant

increase in production, consumption, exports, imports, and GDP growth rate in all the years from 2017 to 2021 except for the year 2020 due to Covid-19 pandemic. There has been a decline in unemployment rate from 2017 to 2021 except in the year 2020 and spending on tourism has also declined in the same year due to Covid-19 pandemic. The conclusion is that India's commitment to SDGs has strengthened in the wake of Covid-19 pandemic and efforts are being made for a new course of development in the post pandemic future.

Keywords: Sustainable Development Goals, Economic growth, Covid-19 pandemic

* This paper was presented in the Bangkok International Conference on “UN Sustainable Development Goals: 2030 for Health, Education, and Economic Growth (SDG 3, 4, 8)” conducted by SIAM University, Thailand on 26 April 2023.

1 Introduction

India has been a shining light in an otherwise gloomy global outlook and is recognized as one of the fastest growing large economies of the world with a potential to be the engine of global economic progress. The size of the Indian economy in 2018-19 was estimated to be US\$ 2.72 trillion with a per capita income of \$ 2015 (in current terms) for 2018. Sustained economic growth has helped to lift millions out of poverty in the past few decades. India has embarked on the journey to attain the SDG goal 8, 'Decent Work and Economic Growth for all' through programs like Make in India, Startup India, Skill India, and Digital India, for creating employment opportunities for the country's youth. India is focused to achieving the goal of US \$ 5 trillion economy by 2025 through reforms in various sectors such as stabilization of GST regime, stimulating manufacturing and export sector and robust growth of the infrastructure and financial sector to retain a consistent growth rate.

2 Literature Review:

India has kept increasing its manufacturing output during the recent past. When many executives think about manufacturing, China is the first country that comes to mind. But there are other players grabbing a bit of that spotlight — like India. Despite the conventional wisdom that says India's

place in the global economy revolves around digital bits and services rather than material atoms, the country is starting to attract more attention for its manufacturing potential for a number of reasons: India is the third-largest economy in purchasing power parity after the U.S. and China, it has a large population of engineers and factory workers, its intellectual property is widely respected, and it is easy to find English-speaking managers here. While Narendra Modi's "Make In India" initiative to promote manufacturing in India was not taken seriously by some, North American executives are increasingly looking to expand their supply chains beyond China. To decide if India is a good candidate for one's operations, it's important to understand the opportunities of doing business in the country — as well as the challenges (Govindarajan and Gunjan, 2015). The consumption spending also has increased during recent years. The consumption story in India has multiple drivers. Firstly, there is emerging evidence of a revival in income growth. Rising income and expansion of the middle-income segment is likely to fuel future consumption growth. Secondly, India has a highly diverse population which has multiple requirements and needs. Further, with the rural-urban gap diminishing, consumption could get a further boost. Endorsing this is the fact that urbanization is increasing at a strong pace and India's urbanization rate is expected to improve to 40% by

2030. And finally, technology advancements are connecting people and businesses in multiple ways and enabling better information discovery and seamless transactions. There is evidence pointing towards steady consumption growth. But, as an investor, how can one benefit from this growth? For those with the wherewithal, investing in stocks that are likely to benefit from growth in consumption could be an option. However, this is easier said than done. Choosing the right sectors and stocks within the consumption theme can be very challenging and requires expertise. The optimal alternatives for retail investors especially could be Exchange Traded Funds (ETFs) and Mutual Fund schemes with a consumption theme or adequate exposure thereto (Kumar, 2021).

3 Objectives:

The major objectives of this paper are: (1) to analyze the progress of India's economic growth towards achieving SDG-8; and (2) to review the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on India's economic growth.

4. Data And Method:

The study is based on secondary data, using statistics obtained from World Bank publications, recently published literature from government sources and relevant online sources. Bivariate analysis is adopted to analyze and arrive at conclusions.

5. Results And Discussion:

After 75 years of independence, India is entering its golden era - leapfrogging the United Kingdom to become the world's fifth-largest economy and on track to have a GDP of more than \$15 trillion to become the third-largest economy by 2047 (Siddharth and Ashish, 2023). India needs to be self-reliant in its pursuit of becoming a global superpower in the geopolitically sensitive world order.

(1) Production:

A thriving, self-reliant domestic manufacturing sector will give India a platform to reach its goals. The government recognizes this necessity, and significant efforts have been made for a wide-ranging push on manufacturing. The global value chain reconfiguration post-pandemic has added positive pressure and presented an opportunity for India to become a manufacturing superpower. The growth in manufacturing is a must if India wants to reach the projected target of \$20 trillion (NITI, 2019) by 2047. With the right measures and rigorous execution, India's manufacturing sector can reach \$4.5 trillion, taking its GDP share to 22 percent (Siddharth and Ashish, 2023). Manufacturing sector is vital for the economic growth and process of industrialization of the country. It is also essential for job creation. The table reveals that

manufacturing output has steadily increased from 2017 to 2021 except in the year 2020 due to the impact of Covid-19 pandemic. The manufacturing output in terms of US\$ (in billions) has increased from US\$ 398.2 in 2017 to US \$443.9 in 2021, an increase of 21.61% from 2020, which shows India's resilience and successfully overcoming the adversities of the pandemic towards economic growth (Table-1). Our Prime Minister Narendra Modi's 'Make in India' initiative to promote manufacturing has expanded our manufacturing supply chains with many countries of the world.

(2) Consumption:

India has shown a strong commitment towards Sustainable Development Goals Agenda to foster human development. India recently underwent two Voluntary National Reviews (NITI, 2019), and carried out a third round of stocktaking of progress in meeting the SDGs (NITI, 2019) providing SDG metrics, including at the state level. Numerous national flagship programs with ambitious development projects are linked to SDGs such as connecting villages to roads, and launch of initiatives to provide universal health coverage and sanitation. India's consumer spending increased from US \$ 1557 (in billions) in 2017 to US \$1,891.90 billion, an increase of 16.7% from 2020 (Table-

1). The table shows an increase in the growth rate of consumer spending by 7.91% in 2021 over 2020. The Covid-19 pandemic lockdown affected the psychology of the consumers, causing a change in consumption patterns and decline in consumer spending in the year 2020 (Rahul and Abdin, 2021). India would require an additional annual spending of 6.2% of GDP, to make substantial progress in critical SDG sectors by 2030 (Sharma, 2020).

(3) Exports:

For the first three quarters of 2021-2022, India's merchandise exports showed a higher growth rate than imports as compared to pre-pandemic levels. This is a positive trend driven by economic recovery from the pandemic compounded by growing external demand for Indian goods. The Union Minister of State for Commerce and Industry said, "India's economic recovery is expected to gain further strength in the remaining quarters of the financial year on the back of upbeat market sentiments, rapid vaccination coverage, strong external demand and continuous policy support by the government and RBI (Krishnankutty, 2023). The exports in terms of US\$ billions have increased from US\$ 498 billion in 2017 to US\$ 679 billion in 2021 with 21.4% of India's GDP an increase of 36.18% from 2020 (Table-1). The figures related to exports in the

table show an increase during 2017-2021 except for the year 2020 which had declined due to Covid-19 pandemic.

(4) Imports:

India's imports have steadily increased from US\$ 582 billion in 2017 to US\$ 758.8 billion in 2021 comprising of 23.89% of the GDP, an increase of 48.96% from 2020 (Table-1). The relaxation in lockdown policy and the start of economic activities after Covid-19 pandemic are the main reasons for the increase in demand for the goods and the imports. Oil imports increased due to the opening of the transportation sector. The rise in global trade has expanded the global supply chain activities and commerce.

(5) Unemployment:

The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines decent work as “productive work for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity.” In general, work is considered as decent when it pays a fair income; it guarantees a secure form of employment and safe working conditions. The unemployment rate has decreased in India since 2017 except for the year 2020 which shows an increase of 8% due to Covid-19 pandemic. India's unemployment rate for 2021 was 5.98%, a decline of 2.02% from 2020 and India's unemployment rate for 2020 was 8.0%,

an increase of 2.7% from 2019 (Table-1). The Economic survey 2022-23 of India (Government of India, 2023) emphasizes on inclusive growth while creating jobs. The employment levels have risen in the current financial year, as the Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) shows that the urban unemployment rate for people aged 15 years and above declined from 9.8% in September 2021 to 7.2% in September 2022. This is accompanied by an improvement in the labour force participation rate (LFPR) as well, confirming the emergence of the economy out of the pandemic-induced slowdown early in the financial year 2023 (Government of India, 2023).

By the end of 2030, India targets that every citizen of the country, male or female, including persons with disabilities, should have decent work contributing towards the GDP of the country. To meet this target, government has initiated several programs for generating employment opportunities, enhancing skill development, and accelerating economic growth for the masses. Some of the programs include - Prime Minister's Employment Generation Program (PMEGP), Start-up India, Skill India, the Pradhan Mantri Kaushal Vikas Yojana, etc. (Loksabha Secretariat)

(6) Tourism:

The World Tourism Organization defines sustainable tourism as “tourism

that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities" (United Nations). In the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development SDG target 8.9, aims to "by 2030, devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products." Spending on tourism had decreased in terms of US\$ from 27,878,000,000 in 2017 to 13,413,000,000 in 2020. (Table-1). India tourism statistics for 2020 was US \$ 13,413,000,000, a 57.64% decline from 2019 and for 2019 it was US \$ 31,661,000,000, a 8.64% increase from 2018. (World Bank, 2023). This clearly shows the Covid-19 pandemic has hit the tourism sector very badly. In 2021, Indians spent approximately \$12.6 billion in outbound trips, compared to \$22.9 billion in 2019. While the reason for decrease in spending could be due to the pandemic, these figures point out the huge value that can be captured from Indian outbound travellers (Times of India, 2022). Restarting tourism in a big way can only be through job creation, boosting economic growth and sustainability. Climate action and the green transformation of the tourism sector is necessary for the planet for boosting competitiveness and increasing resilience.

(7) GDP & Economic Growth:

Economic growth is one of the central tenets of SDG 8. India has been growing at the rate of 7.5% per annum. However, the aim is to grow at the rate of 9-10% per annum (NITI, 2019). An analysis of nearly five decades of data finds that India's long-term economic growth process has been steady, stable, diversified and resilient over a fifty-year period, without any prolonged reversals. While growth averaged 4.4 percent a year during the 1970s and 1980s, it accelerated to 5.5 percent during the 1990s and early 2000s, and further to 7.1 percent in the past one decade. The acceleration of growth is evident not just for aggregate GDP, but even more strongly for per capita GDP. The average pace of per capita growth was 5.5 percent a year in the last decade. Interestingly, when compared with some of the world's largest emerging economies, this steady acceleration of growth stands out as being unique to India (Gupta and Florian, 2018). The Gross Domestic Product has increased from US\$ 2651 billion in 2017 to US\$ 3176 billion in 2021. The per capita GDP rose from US\$ 1958 in 2017 to US\$ 2257 in 2021 with a percent change of 19.8 and 15.2 respectively. The growth rate of GDP has increased from 6.80% in 2017 to 8.68% in 2021. (Table-1, Appendix-2).

India's GDP for 2021 was US \$3,176.30 billion, a 19.07% increase from 2020. In 2020 it was US

\$2,667.69 billion, a decline of 5.79% from 2019 merely because of the lockdown and Covid-19 pandemic (World Bank, 2023).

India's growth has been driven by an increasing share of investment and exports, with a large contribution from consumption. Growth has also been characterized by productivity gains - both in labor productivity as well as in total factor productivity. India's growth has been broadly resilient to shocks, both domestic and external. The resilience of India's growth can be attributed to the country's large and spatially diversified economy, as well as to its diversified production structure, diversified trading patterns wherein a slowdown in any one part of the world will not result in a large impact on India (Gupta and Florian, 2018).

By the end of 2030, India targets that every citizen of the country, male or female, including persons with disabilities, should have decent work contributing towards the GDP of the country. To meet this target, government has initiated several programs like Prime Minister's Employment Generation Program (PMEGP), Start-up India, Skill India, and the Pradhan Mantri Kaushal Vikas Yojana for generating employment opportunities, enhancing skill development, and accelerating economic growth for the masses.

6. Conclusions:

All the national level economic indicators reveal the downtrend of the Indian economy in 2020, a slowdown imposed by the lockdown during Covid-19 pandemic. Though the Indian economy has been hit hard by the Covid19 pandemic, it has emerged out of the slump with remarkable resilience in the year 2021, and the post pandemic years are reassuring for India's rapid economic growth. India has embarked on the journey to attain the SDG goal 8 'Decent Work and Economic Growth for all'. Programs like Make in India, Startup India, Skill India, and Digital India have the underlining objective of creating employment opportunities for the country's youth. India is committed to attain the targets set forth and it is employing the two-pronged strategy of growth and employment to achieve the same. To attain the goals, India needs to focus on two aspects: Urbanization and Manufacturing. The Covid-19 pandemic has taught that the resilience of a nation is tested during unprecedented adversities. We have less than ten years to realize the ambitious targets under the 2030 agenda on sustainable development for which the efforts of the entire community, the government, private sector, and citizens is the need of the hour.

References

1. Government of India. (2023). Economic survey 2022-2023. New Delhi: Ministry of Finance, Department of Economic Affairs, Economic Division. <<https://www.indiabudget.gov.in/economic-survey/doc/echapter.pdf>> 1 March 2023.
2. Govindarajan, Vijay, and Gunjan Bagla, (2015). Understanding the rise of manufacturing in India. Harvard Business Review 18 September. <<https://hbr.org/2015/09/understanding-the-rise-of-manufacturing-in-india>> 17 April 2023.
3. Gupta, Poonam & Florian Blum. (2018). This is the story of India's economic growth. World Economic Forum 12 April. <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2018/04/india-s-remarkably-robust-and-resilient-growth-story> 1 March 2023.
4. Krishnankutty. PIA. (2022). Why India's exports bucked trend, showed higher growth than imports in 3 quarters of 2021-22. The Print 21 January. <<https://theprint.in/economy/why-indias-exports-bucked-trend-showed-higher-growth-than-imports-in-3-quarters-of-2021-22/808444>>
5. Kumar, Ashok. (2021). Consumption and the India growth story. The New Indian Express 1 November. <<https://www.newindianexpress.com/business/2021/nov/01/consumption-and-the-india-growth-story-2378198.html>> 17 April 2023.
6. Kumar, Rahul & Mohd. Shahnawaz Abidin. (2021). Impact of epidemics and pandemics on consumption pattern: evidence from Covid-19 pandemic in rural-urban India' published in Asian Journal Economics Banking 5 (1): 2-14. <<https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/AJE-B-12-2020-0109/full/html>> 1 March 2023.
7. Lok Sabha Secretariat. Research Note on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Achievements of India. Delhi: Research and Information Division. <https://loksabhadocs.nic.in/Refinput/Research_notes/English/04122019_172212_102120495.pdf> 1 March 2023.
8. NITI. (2019). 8 Decent work and economic growth. <https://www.niti.gov.in/sites/default/files/2019-01/Report_SDG-8.pdf> 1 March 2023.
9. Sharma, Yogima Seth. (2020). India needs 6.2% additional

-
- spending of GDP to achieve 2030 development goals: NITI. The Economic Times 13 July. <<https://economictimes.indiatimes.com/news/economy/policy/india-needs-6-2-additional-spending-of-gdp-to-achieve-2030-development-goals-niti/articleshow/76936583.cms?from=mdr>> 1 March 2023.
10. Times of India. (2022). India's outbound tourism to surpass \$42bn by 2024: Report. Times of India 7 August. <<https://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/business/india-business/indias-outbound-tourism-to-surpass-42-bn-by-2024-report/articleshow/93407481.cms>> 1 March 2023.
11. United Nations. The SDGs in Action. UNDP- United Nations Development Programme. <<https://www.undp.org/sustainable-development-goals>> 1 March 2023.
12. World Bank. (2023). India 2023. Consumer spending <<https://www.macrotrends.net/countries/IND/india/consumer%20spending>> 1 March 2023.
13. World Bank. (2023). India 2023. Exports <<https://www.macrotrends.net/countries/IND/india/exports>> 1 March 2023.
14. World Bank. (2023). India 2023. GDP: <<https://www.macrotrends.net/countries/IND/india/gdp-gross-domestic-product>> 1 March 2023.
15. World Bank. (2023). India 2023. Imports: <<https://www.macrotrends.net/countries/IND/india/imports>> 1 March 2023.
16. World Bank. (2023). India 2023. Manufacturing <<https://www.macrotrends.net/countries/IND/india/manufacturing-output>> 1 March 2023.
17. World Bank. (2023). India 2023. Tourism: <<https://www.macrotrends.net/countries/IND/india/tourism-statistics>> 1 March 2023.
18. World Bank. (2023). India 2023. Unemployment: <<https://www.macrotrends.net/countries/IND/india/unemployment-rate>> 1 March 2023.



APPENDICES
Appendix-1: Table

Table-1
National level Indicators of Economic Growth, India, 2017-2021

Year	Manufacturing output		Consumer spending			Exports'		Imports	
	US\$ (In Billions)	% of GDP	Spending (US\$ in Billions)	Per Capita (US\$)	Growth Rate (%)	US \$ (in Billions)	% of GDP	US\$ (in Billions)	% of GDP
2021	443.91	13.98	1,891.90	1,158	7.91	679.68	21.4	758.87	23.89
2020	*365.03	13.68	1,621.12	1,081	-6.00	499.10	18.7	509.43	19.10
2019	381.51	13.47	1,726.04	1,162	5.21	529.24	18.7	602.31	21.27
2018	402.24	14.88	1,602.52	1,115	7.09	538.64	20.0	640.30	23.69
2017	398.20	15.02	1,557.08	1,053	6.24	498.26	18.8	582.02	21.95
	Unemployment rate and Annual change		Spending on Tourism and % of Exports		Economic growth				
	Unemployment rate (%)	Annual change (%)	Spending on Tourism (US\$)	% of Exports	GDP (US\$ in Billions)	Per Capita (US\$)	Growth (%)		
2021	5.98	-2.02	NA	NA	3,176.30	2,257	8.68		
2020	8.00	2.73	13,413,000,000	2.77	2,667.69	1,910	-6.60		
2019	5.27	-0.06	31,661,000,000	5.80	2,831.55	2,047	3.74		
2018	5.33	-0.03	29,143,000,000	5.43	2,702.93	1,974	6.45		
2017	5.36	-0.07	27,878,000,000	5.70	2,651.47	1,958	6.80		

Source: World Bank <<https://www.macrotrends.net/countries/IND/india>>
Note: NA - Not available.



Appendix-2 Some important concepts

Manufacturing refers to industries belonging to International Standard Industrial Classification of all Economic Activities (ISIC divisions 15-37). Value added is the net output of a sector after adding up all outputs and subtracting intermediate inputs. It is calculated without making deductions for depreciation of fabricated assets or depletion and degradation of natural resources. The origin of value added is determined by the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC), revision 3.

- 1) Household final consumption expenditure (formerly private consumption) is the market value of all goods and services, including durable products (such as cars, washing machines, and home computers), purchased by households. It excludes purchases of dwellings but includes imputed rent for owner-occupied dwellings. It also includes payments and fees to governments to obtain permits and licenses. Here, household consumption expenditure includes the expenditures of nonprofit institutions serving households, even when reported separately by the country.
- 2) Exports of goods and services represent the value of all goods and other market services provided to the rest of the world. They include the value of merchandise, freight, insurance, transport, travel, royalties, license fees, and other services, such as communication, construction, financial, information, business, personal, and government services. They exclude compensation of employees and investment income (formerly called factor services) and transfer payments. Data are in current U.S. dollars.
- 3) Imports of goods and services represent the value of all goods and other market services received from the rest of the world. They include the value of merchandise, freight, insurance, transport, travel, royalties, license fees, and other services, such as communication, construction, financial, information, business, personal, and government services. They exclude compensation of employees and investment income (formerly called factor services) and transfer payments.
- 4) Unemployment refers to the share of the labor force that is without work but available for and seeking employment.
- 5) International tourism receipts are expenditures by international inbound visitors, including payments to national carriers for international transport.

These receipts include any other prepayment made for goods or services received in the destination country. They also may include receipts from same-day visitors, except when these are important enough to justify separate classification. For some countries they do not include receipts for passenger transport items.

- 6) GDP at purchaser's prices is the sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products. It is calculated without making deductions for depreciation of fabricated assets or for depletion and degradation of natural resources. Data are in current U.S. dollars. Dollar figures for GDP are converted from domestic currencies using single year official exchange rates. For a few countries where the official exchange rate does not reflect the rate effectively applied to actual foreign exchange transactions, an alternative conversion factor is used.



Quality of Life in Geography: A Multi-Dimensional Synoptic Review

Sowmya shree K. L, Chandrashekara B

Abstract:

The reviews in the paper explore the concept of Quality of Life (QOL) in Geography, focusing on the multidimensional nature of QOL and the various factors that influence it. The review provides a brief historical background on the development of QOL as a research topic and its roots in philosophical, sociological, and psychological theories. The paper discusses the importance of QOL assessments in understanding the spatial distribution of well-being and social inequalities within and between regions, and how these assessments can inform policies and interventions to improve the well-being of people living in different regions. The review also highlights the use of objective and subjective measures to assess QOL, and provides examples of studies in spatial analysis, urban planning, rural development, environmental studies, and regional development. Overall, this review demonstrates the importance of

QOL as a lens through which geographers can examine the complex interplay between people and their environment and contribute to creating more equitable and sustainable societies.

Key Words: Quality of Life, Development, Spatial Analysis, Urban planning, Geographer

1.0 Introduction:

In recent years, the concept of quality of life (QOL) has gained significant attention in the field of geography. As an interdisciplinary study, geography strives to understand and analyze the complex interactions between humans and their environment. While traditionally focusing on physical aspects such as landforms, climate, and natural resources, contemporary geography has expanded its scope to encompass social, economic, and cultural dimensions. In this context, the

exploration of quality of life has emerged as a pivotal research area, as it seeks to comprehend the multifaceted nature of human well-being and its spatial variations.

The concept of quality of life refers to the overall satisfaction and happiness experienced by individuals or communities within a given geographical context. It encompasses various aspects, including but not limited to health, education, income, social relationships, environmental conditions, and cultural opportunities. Consequently, understanding quality of life requires a comprehensive and multidimensional approach that considers both objective and subjective indicators.

This research paper aims to provide a comprehensive review of the existing literature on quality of life in geography. By synthesizing and critically analyzing previous studies, this paper intends to shed light on the current state of knowledge, identify research gaps, and propose future directions for research in this domain. Moreover, it seeks to highlight the significance of studying quality of life in geography and its implications for policy-making, urban planning, and sustainable development.

The paper will be structured as follows: firstly, it will present a conceptual framework that defines and

operationalizes the concept of quality of life in a geographical context. This framework will consider different theoretical perspectives, measurement approaches, and key indicators commonly used in quality of life research. Secondly, the paper will delve into the various dimensions of quality of life, exploring how geography influences and interacts with each dimension. This exploration will encompass physical, social, economic, and cultural factors, elucidating their spatial patterns and interdependencies. Thirdly, the paper will critically review existing empirical studies on quality of life, highlighting methodological approaches, data sources, and findings. This review will emphasize both global and local perspectives, aiming to provide a comprehensive understanding of quality of life dynamics at different scales.

Ultimately, this research paper aims to contribute to the ongoing discourse on quality of life in geography by synthesizing existing knowledge and stimulating further research in this field. By examining the spatial variations and determinants of quality of life, it strives to inform policy-makers, planners, and practitioners about effective strategies for improving well-being and achieving sustainable development goals. Through this endeavor, it is hoped that a deeper understanding of quality of life in

geography will be fostered, leading to more inclusive, equitable, and livable communities.

1.1 Background of QOL:

The conceptual background of quality of life is rooted in various philosophical, sociological, and psychological theories. One of the earliest frameworks was proposed by Aristotle, who emphasized the importance of eudaimonia or "human flourishing" as the ultimate goal of human existence. In the 20th century, sociologists like Max Weber and Emile Durkheim focused on social factors that influence quality of life, while psychologists like Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers highlighted the importance of individual psychological needs and self-actualization.

In the 1960s and 1970s, quality of life gained traction as a research and policy topic, particularly in the health care field. The World Health Organization (WHO) defined health as "a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity," which helped to shift the focus from a narrow biomedical perspective to a more holistic view of health and well-being. Since then, various multidimensional frameworks have been proposed to capture the complexity of quality of life, such as the WHO Quality of Life (WHOQOL)

model, which includes physical, psychological, social, and environmental domains.

Geographers define Quality of Life (QOL) as a multidimensional concept that includes various aspects of people's lives such as their physical, psychological, social, and economic well-being. QOL is influenced by factors such as access to basic services, employment opportunities, education, health care, environmental quality, safety, and social support. Geographers often use a combination of objective and subjective measures to assess QOL, including indicators such as life expectancy, income, education levels, crime rates, and self-reported happiness and satisfaction with life.

1.2 Reviews of Quality of Life in Geography:

There have been numerous research studies on quality of life (QoL) in geographical studies. Some of the key areas of research in this field include spatial analysis, urban planning, rural development, environmental studies, and regional development. Here are a few reviews of studies in each of these areas:

1.2.1 Spatial Analysis and QOL:

Spatial analysis can be used to examine QOL through the use of GIS. GIS is a tool that allows geographers to visualize and analyze geographic data

in a spatial context. Therefore spatial analysis and GIS tools, geographers can gain a better understanding of how different factors affect QOL in different locations and help to identify interventions that can improve QOL in specific areas.

Garg N and Nauriyal D.K (2015), Saravanakumar R.K and Balachandran S (2018), and Shetty A.D. and Shinde R R (2017) have used spatial analysis tool to analyze the QOL in Chennai, Mumbai and Delhi cities respectively. They found that, the QOL index varied significantly across different neighborhoods having much higher QOL than others.

Chitra et al (2019) used spatial analysis techniques to analyse the QOL in four southern states of India - Kerala, Karnataka, Tamilnadu and Andhra Pradesh. The authors found that, Kerala is having the highest QOL index and Andhra Pradesh the lowest. They also identified spatial clusters of high and low QOL index values, which could help policy makers target resources more effectively.

1.2.2 Rural Development and QOL:

Research studies in rural development have examined the impact of socioeconomic factors on QOL in rural areas, including access to healthcare, education, and employment opportunities. Some studies by Mark Brennan and John

McGrath (2015) provide a comprehensive review of the literature on QOL in rural areas, including the factors that contribute to QOL, such as access to services, social capital, and natural amenities. Also discussed are the challenges that rural areas face in terms of QOL, such as demographic changes, economic decline, and environmental degradation. Another study by Sreedevi V. and K. Ramachandra (2016) examines the relationship between QOL and rural development, and identifies the key factors that contribute to QOL in rural areas, such as access to basic amenities, health care, education, and employment. The study also discusses the challenges that rural areas face in terms of achieving sustainable rural development and improving QOL.

The study by Zhen, Hui Wang, and Jihong Yu (2018) explores the relationship between QOL and community development in rural areas, and identifies the key factors that contribute to QOL, such as social capital, community engagement, and access to services. The study also highlights the importance of community development in promoting sustainable rural development and improving QOL. Katircioglu and Sert (2018) investigated the determinants of QOL in rural Turkey, finding that education, income, and healthcare access were all significant factors affecting QOL in these areas.

Maria Karamanis and Vasiliki Kazantzi (2019) study examines the relationship between QOL and rural development in Greece, and identifies the key factors that contribute to QOL in rural areas, such as access to services, social capital, and environmental quality. The study also highlights the importance of rural development policies that take into account the unique characteristics and needs of rural areas.

These studies suggested that QOL is an important aspect of rural development, and that policies and programs aimed at promoting sustainable rural development should take into account the factors that contribute to QOL in rural areas

1.2.3 Environment and QOL:

Some research studies in geography have examined the impact of environmental factors on QOL, including air and water quality, access to green spaces, and exposure to natural disasters.

Studies by Vitor Braga, Paulo Reis Mourao, and Ana Paula Barreira (2018) examine the relationship between QOL and environmental sustainability, and identifies the key factors that contribute to QOL, such as environmental quality, access to green spaces, and public transportation. The study also highlights the importance of environmental sustainability in

promoting sustainable QOL. Ana-Maria Popescu and Arianne Reis (2019) made a comprehensive review of the literature on QOL and the natural environment, and identify the existing indicators that measure the relationship between QOL and the natural environment, such as air quality, water quality, and access to green spaces. The article also discusses the challenges of measuring QOL in relation to the natural environment, such as the lack of consistent and comparable data across different regions and countries.

Laura Constanza Lopez and David Al-Dabass (2020) explore the role of green space in urban design for QOL and sustainable development, and identify the key factors that contribute to QOL, such as access to green spaces, biodiversity, and ecological connectivity. The study also highlights the importance of incorporating green space into urban design to promote sustainable QOL. Shi et al. (2021) investigated the relationship between air pollution and QOL in urban China, finding that exposure to high levels of particulate matter was associated with lower QOL scores.

Another study by Zhihua Li and Jiansheng Qu (2021) examines the relationship between environmental quality and QOL in China, and identifies the key factors that contribute to QOL, such as air quality, water quality, and access to green

spaces. The study also highlights the importance of environmental protection in promoting sustainable QOL in China.

All these studies suggest that QOL and environment are closely intertwined, and that policies and programs aimed at promoting sustainable QOL should take into account the factors that contribute to environmental sustainability.

1.2.4 Regional Development and QOL:

Quality of life (QOL) in regional development is an important topic in Geography. It refers to the level of well-being and satisfaction of individuals and communities in a specific region. There are numerous research studies on this topic that have been conducted over the years. These studies in regional development have examined the impact of regional policies and economic development on QOL in different regions.

Rodwin L & Gusmano M. K. (2002) examines the relationship between regional development and health care in the Rochester, New York, region. The authors argue that regional collaboration and planning can improve health care access and quality of life. In 2003 Pacione, M. explores the links between urban environmental quality and quality of life. The author argues that access to green space and

other environmental amenities can improve human well-being and that urban planning can play a key role in creating these spaces.

Ray. C (2004) provides an overview of different approaches to development theory, including modernization theory, dependency theory, world systems theory, and post development theory in the book. The author argues that a critical approach to development is necessary to address issues of inequality and social justice.

Power A (2006) examines the relationship between urban development, poverty, and spatial justice. The author argues that urban policies should prioritize the needs of low-income residents and that spatial planning can play a key role in reducing inequality. Haase A, Steinführer A & Kabisch S (2007) used geospatial analysis to examine the ecological sustainability of different regions. The authors argue that regional planning should prioritize sustainability and that this can improve quality of life for residents.

Kondaiah. K. C. and K. V. Rao (2012) provide an overview of regional planning in India and examined the relationship between regional planning and quality of life, focusing on key issues such as infrastructure development, economic growth, and social welfare. Raman K. V. and S. S. Pillai (2014) examined the impact of regional planning on the quality of life

in Kerala, focusing on issues such as infrastructure development, social welfare, and environmental management.

Sengupta S (2014) provides a review of literature on quality of life in Indian cities. The author argues that factors such as housing, transportation, health, education, and social capital are critical for improving quality of life in urban areas. Shabnam Ishaque, Shafiqur-Rehman et al (2016) compares the QOL of urban and rural communities in Pakistan and finds that QOL is generally higher in urban areas. Zikhali and Mcebisi Zikhali (2017) examine the QOL of rural communities in South Africa and identify factors that contribute to QOL, such as access to basic services, infrastructure, and social support. A study by Kok and Hertogh (2018) examined the impact of regional economic development on QOL in the Netherlands, finding that economic growth was positively associated with QOL in some regions, but not in others.

Finally these research studies on QOL in regional development in Geography demonstrate the complexity of this topic and the importance of considering a wide range of factors when evaluating and promoting QOL in different regions

1.2.5 Urban and QOL:

Research studies in urban planning have focused on the impact of urban design on QOL, including the role of

green spaces, walk ability and public transportation.

Sirgy.M. J. et al. (2005) also examines the factors that influence QOL in urban areas, including economic, social, and environmental factors. Goel N.K and S. K. Saha (2006) analyze the impact of urbanization on the quality of life of residents in Delhi, and propose measures for improving the living conditions of urban residents. The study finds that urbanization has led to improvements in some areas such as access to education and healthcare, but has also exacerbated issues such as pollution and traffic congestion.

Venkatraman M and M. Bhaskaran (2007) analyze the relationship between urbanization and quality of life in six cities in India, and suggest strategies for improving quality of life in rapidly urbanizing areas. The study finds that urbanization has both positive and negative impacts on quality of life, and suggests strategies for improving quality of life in rapidly urbanizing areas.

Ewing, R. and Handy, S. (2009) examines the relationship between urban form and QOL, including physical activity, social interaction, and access to services. The authors conclude that compact, mixed-use, and transit-oriented development can lead to improved QOL.

Frank, L. D. et al. (2010) investigates the link between urban design, walkability, and public health, including obesity, cardiovascular disease, and mental health. The authors suggest that urban design that encourages physical activity and social interaction can improve QOL.

Chauhan K.S and S. R. Chauhan (2011) examine the quality of life of residents in Mumbai, focusing on factors such as housing, health, education, and transportation. The study finds that while Mumbai has made progress in improving quality of life in some areas, there is still much work to be done to address issues such as slum housing and inadequate transportation.

Another study by Kabisch, N. et al. (2015) found the relationship between green spaces and QoL, including physical health, mental health, and social cohesion. The authors suggest that green spaces can provide important benefits for urban residents, including stress reduction and social interaction. Taylor, R. B. (2013) examines the relationship between urban design and social equity, including access to services, employment, and education. The author suggests that urban design can play an important role in promoting social equity and improving QOL for all residents.

Sharma N.K and R. Kumar (2013) examine the relationship between urbanization and quality of life in Jaipur, and suggest strategies for improving the quality of life in the city. The study finds that while Jaipur has made progress in areas such as healthcare and education, there is still a need for more investment in infrastructure and public services.

Sivakumar. R and S. Srinivasan (2013) analyze the quality of life of residents in Chennai, focusing on factors such as air quality, water quality, and sanitation. The study finds that while Chennai has made progress in some areas, there is still a need for more investment in infrastructure and public services to improve the quality of life of residents.

A study by Kruk and Czepkiewicz (2021) conducted a comprehensive analysis of the relationship between green spaces and quality of life (QOL) in urban areas of Poland, using data from the European Quality of Life Survey and geospatial analysis techniques. The study found that the availability and accessibility of green spaces are positively associated with QOL in urban areas, and that green spaces contribute to improving the physical and mental well-being of urban residents.

Overall, these studies provide important insights into the complex

relationship between urbanization and quality of life of different places and suggest strategies for improving living conditions in rapidly growing cities. All these geographical studies form a diverse and interdisciplinary field that encompasses a wide range of topics and approaches.

1.3 Conclusion:

The concept of Quality of Life (QOL) is of great importance in geography as it allows geographers to understand the spatial distribution of well-being and social inequalities within and between regions. QOL assessments provide valuable insights into the factors that influence people's well-being, including access to resources, employment opportunities, education, healthcare, environmental quality, safety, and social support. Geographers use objective and subjective measures to assess QOL, and employ various research methodologies such as spatial analysis, urban planning, rural development, environmental studies, and regional development to study QOL in different contexts.

The reviews presented in this paper highlight the multidimensional nature of QOL and its relevance in different areas of geography. Spatial analysis and the use of GIS tools allow geographers to analyze the spatial

distribution of QOL and identify areas in need of interventions. Studies in rural development emphasize the impact of socioeconomic factors on QOL in rural areas and the importance of sustainable rural development. Environmental studies explore the relationship between environmental factors and QOL, including air and water quality, green spaces, and exposure to natural disasters. Research on regional development investigates the link between regional policies, economic development, and QOL. Finally, studies in urban planning examine the impact of urban design on QOL, with a focus on factors such as green spaces, walkability, and public transportation.

Overall, the reviews demonstrate the complex interplay between people and their environment in shaping QOL. They emphasize the need for holistic approaches that consider various dimensions of QOL and highlight the importance of creating more equitable and sustainable societies. By understanding the factors that influence QOL and using this knowledge to inform policies and interventions, geographers can contribute to improving the well-being of people in different regions. QOL remains a key area of research in geography as it continues to evolve and adapt to the changing needs and challenges of society.

Bibliography

1. Ana-Maria Popescu, and Arianne Reis. (2019). Measuring the quality of life in relation to the natural environment: A review of existing indicators. *The Journal of Environmental Management*, Vol. 232, pp. 831-839.
2. Bacsi, Z, & Kemeny, L. (2017). Measuring Quality of Life in Cities: A Review of Literature. *European Spatial Research and Policy*, 24(2), 5-22.
3. Chauhan, K .S. and Chauhan S. R, (2011). Quality of Life in Urban India: A Study of Mumbai City. *Journal of Geography and Regional Planning*, vol. 4, no. 4.
4. Chitra K.T and et al. (2019). Spatial analysis of Quality of Life in India: A case study of four Southern States. *Journal of urban management*. Vol.8, No.2.
5. Ewing, R., & Handy, S. (2009). The impact of urban form on the quality of life in cities. *Journal of Urban Health*, 86(6), 805-813.
6. Frank, L. D., et al. (2010). Urban design, walkability, and public health. *Downtown Research and Development Center*, University of Maryland.
7. Freshwater, D., LeBlanc, P. J., & Crompton, J. L. (2002). Evaluating Quality of Life in Rural Communities: A Case Study of the Appalachian Region. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 20(2), 63-78.
8. Garg, N. and Nauriyal, D. K, (2015). Spatial Anlysis of Quality of Life in Delhi, India. *International Journal of Emerging Research in Management and Technology*. Vol.4(11).
9. Goel, N. K, and Saha S .K, (2006). Urbanization and Quality of Life in Delhi. *Annals of the Association of Geographers India*, vol. 26, No. 1.
10. Haase, A., Steinführer, A., & Kabisch, S. (2007). Ecological footprint and biocapacity: A geospatial analysis of sustainability of regions. *Ecological Indicators*, 7(4), 702-711.
11. Ishaque, S. S., & Rehman, S. U. (2017). Quality of Life in Urban and Rural Communities: A Comparative Study. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences*, 11(3), 982-996.
12. Jena P.K and S. K. Mishra. (2017). Regional Planning and Quality of Life in East India: A Case Study of Odisha. *The Journal of Regional Development and Planning*, Vol. 6, No. 1, pp. 75-92.

-
13. Kabisch, N., et al. (2015). Green spaces and urban quality of life. *Urban Science*, 7(1), 1-15.
 14. Katircioglu and Sert. (2018). Determinants of QOL in rural Turkey. *The Journal of Developing Areas*, Vol. 52, No. 3, pp. 67-80.
 15. Kondaiah and K. V. Rao.(2012). Regional Planning and Quality of Life in India: A Review of Current Trends and Future Directions. *The Journal of Regional Development and Planning*, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp. 1-22.
 16. Kruk, C., & Czepkiewicz, M. (2018). Does green space contribute to quality of life in urban areas? *Social Indicators Research*, 137(1), 1-30.
 17. Kumar, M., & Sharma, R. (2017). Geographical Analysis of Quality of Life in India: An Empirical Study. *Indian Geographical Journal*, 92(2), 59-73.
 18. Kumar, S., & Rai, R. K. (2017). Spatial Disparities in Quality of Life in Rural India: A Case Study of Bihar. *Journal of Rural Development*, 36(2), 265-283.
 19. Li, Z., & Qu, J. (2021). Environmental quality and quality of life in China: Evidence from the 2014 Chinese General Social Survey. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 18(2), 660.
 20. Maria Karamanis and Vasiliki Kazantzi. (2019). Quality of life and rural development: The case of Greece. *The Journal of Rural Studies*, Vol. 65, pp. 88-99.
 21. Mark Brennan and John McGrath. (2015). Quality of life in rural areas: A review of the literature. *The International Journal of Rural Studies*, Vol. 22, No. 1, pp. 1-17.
 22. Mathiesen, S., & Trondsen, N. (2009). Quality of Life in the Arctic: An Overview of Research Results and Methods. *Social Indicators Research*, 93(2), 243-257.
 23. Negi S.S and S. S. Sharma. (2015). Regional Planning and Quality of Life in North India: A Case Study of Himachal Pradesh. *Journal of Regional Development and Planning*, Vol. 4, No. 2, pp. 21-38.
 24. Pacione, M. (2003). Urban environmental quality and human well-being: A social geographical perspective. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 65(1-2), 19-30.
 25. Patil S.A and S. S. Patil.(2019). Regional Planning and Quality of Life in West India: A Case Study of Maharashtra. *The Journal of Regional Development and Planning*, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 37-50.
-

-
26. Power, A. (2006). Urbanism, poverty and spatial justice. *Urban Studies*, 43(2), 283-297.
27. Raman K.V and S. S. Pillai. (2014). Regional Planning and Quality of Life in South India: A Case Study of Kerala. *The Journal of Regional Development and Planning*, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 71-84.
28. Ray, C. (2004). *Development theory: Four critical approaches*. Routledge.
29. Rodwin, L., & Gusmano, M. K. (2002). *Communities and health care: The Rochester, New York, region*. *The Milbank Quarterly*, 80(3), 507-559.
30. Saravanakumar, R. K, and Balachandran, S. (2018) Spatial Analysis of Quality of Life in Chennai city, India. *Environment and Urbanization ASIA*, Vol.9, issue.1.
31. Sengupta, S. (2014). Quality of life in Indian cities: A review of literature. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention*, 3(9), 2319-7714.
32. Shabnam Ishaque, Shafiq-ur-Rehman., et al. (2016). Determinants of household savings in rural and urban areas: The Case of Chitral District, Pakistan. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*. Vol.6, No.3.
33. Sharma N. K, and Kumar, K.(2013). Urbanization and Quality of Life: A Study of Jaipur City. *Journal of Urbanism: International Research on Place making and Urban Sustainability*, vol. 6, No. 1.
34. Sharma, S., & Misra, P. (2017). Spatial Analysis of Quality of Life Indicators in Mumbai City, India. *International Journal of Applied Environmental Sciences*, 12(10), 1339-1356.
35. Shetty, A. D. and Shinde, R. R. (2017). Spatial Analysis of Quality of Life in Mumbai City, India. *International Journal of Applied Environmental Sciences*, 12(5).
36. Shi et al. (2021). Relationship between air pollution and QOL in urban China. *The Journal of Environmental Pollution*, Vol. 280.
37. Sirgy, M. J., et al. (2005). Assessing the quality of life in urban areas. In *Handbook of environmental psychology* (pp. 183-199). John Wiley & Sons.
38. Sivakumar, R. and Srinivasan, S. (2013). Quality of Life in Urban India: A Case Study of Chennai City. *Journal of Environmental Science and Engineering*, Vol. 55, No. 2.
-

-
39. Sreedevi V. and K. Ramachandra. (2016). Quality of life and rural development: A review of literature. *The Journal of Rural Development*. Vol. 35, No. 3, pp. 297-313.
40. Srivastava, R., & Das, U. (2017). Geography of Well-being in India: An Exploratory Analysis. *Social Indicators Research*, 132(3), 1043-1064.
41. Taylor, R. B. (2013). The relationship between urban design and social equity in cities. *Journal of Urban Design*, 18(4), 559-575.
42. Venkatraman, M. and Bhaskaran, (2007). Urbanization and Quality of Life: A Study of Selected Cities in India. *Geographical Review of India*, vol. 69, no. 2.
43. Vitor Braga, Paulo Reis Mourao, and Ana Paula Barreira (2018). Quality of life and environmental sustainability: An empirical analysis. *The Journal of Environmental Management*, Vol. 218, pp. 85-95.
44. Zhen, Hui Wang, and Jihong Yu. (2018). Quality of life in rural areas: The role of community development. *The Journal of Rural Studies*, Vol. 59, pp. 231-239.
45. Zikhali, P., & Zikhali, M. (2017). Assessing the Quality of Life in Rural Areas: A Case Study of KwaZulu-Natal Province, South Africa. *Journal of Human Ecology*, 58(3), 225-234.



For submission of papers/contributions, kindly note the changed e-mail IDs

aiilsgquarterlyjournal@aiilsg.org
or
info.algq@aiilsg.org

Grassroots Level Alliance for Rural Development - Micro Perspective from Tamil Nadu, India

R. Venkata Ravi, S. Vellimalayan, S. Ramesh

Abstract

Decentralization emphasizes the need for network or alliance among the grassroots organizations. The village level panchayats as local self-government institutions are responsible for the planning and implementation of various activities for socio-economic development in rural areas. The NGOs are working for the development of rural areas by executing various development programmes of the government and non-government agencies. The Community Based Organizations (CBOs), as Users Groups, have been working to protect their interest through participatory management of the resources. In this context, these organizations are expected to work together for the cause of development. In the case of these organizations, their nature and origin differ from each other, but they have a common goal of development and their own interest.

The local self-government is a constitutional authority, while the NGOs are registered societies working as development catalyst, and CBOs are associations of users of various resources and services. Collaboration among these organizations is necessary for achieving sustainable development. The success of the rural development programmes depends upon the active participation and willing cooperation of the rural people through Local Self-Government, Self-Help Organizations and Voluntary Agencies. In recent years, the voluntary agencies have greater importance and significant roles in the development of grassroots people.

Kay Words – Collaboration, social capital, partnership, local self-government, stakeholders

Decentralized Rural Development involves devolution of authority and resources to the grassroots organizations,

like Local Self-Government, Community Based Organizations (CBOs) and NGOs. In India, NGOs have emerged as the channel for social mobilization and play a significant role in development initiatives as they are operating closely with the local rural community. The CBOs have emerged as channel for community involvement in management of local resources and services. These organizations have emerged as significant stakeholders in the development sector that has strong community ties, social capital and capacity to mobilize the people for the development activities¹.

Democratic decentralization through Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRIs) facilitates emergence of local leadership and elected people's representations along with devolution of development administration at rural level². A Constitutional Amendment in 1992 has strengthened the PRIs that are responsible for preparing plans and management of rural development within their boundaries. The PRIs are mandated constitutionally to work as local self-government at the district level and below. They are crucial grassroots level organizations for social mobilization and facilitating people's participation in the process of rural development³. As the decentralization policies are being considered as instruments for promotion of participatory development at grassroots level, it is

necessary to strengthen their organizations to effectively play their role in the development process. All these organizations are aiming at participatory development within their sphere of influence.

Rural development had been adversely affected by top-down approach and has become "supply-driven" in many countries. On the contrary, recent developments in decentralization advocate a "demand-driven" strategy and have the merit of considering the specific demands, priorities and potential of each local community. The local Government institutions and local community organizations could establish a collaborative partnership in undertaking the responsibility for developing a local vision, strategy and planning; allocating resources; and implementing and monitoring / evaluating of development activities that would cater to the local needs. They would also jointly become the driving force towards development with shared responsibility to develop a "sense of shared ownership" and become "managers" of their development initiatives⁴.

Overview on NGOs:

The evolution of NGOs role could be traced from charity in 1960s to welfare and relief works during 1970s to development initiatives in 1980s to

1 Rajkumar (2002), "Capacity Building of Panchayats for Rural Development: Some Emerging Areas for NGOs", *Man & Development*, 24(1), March, pp. 64-72

2 Pari Baumann and John Farrington (2003), "Decentralizing Natural Resource Management: Lessons ...from Local Government Reforms in India", *Natural Resource Perspective*, No. 86, June (accessed ...from www.panchayats.org).

3 Joshi R.P and Narwani G.S. (2002), "Panchayat Raj in India: Emerging Trends across the States", Rawat Publications, New Delhi.

4 Report of the APO Seminar on Role of Local Communities and Institutions in Integrated Rural Development held in Islamic Republic of Iran, 15-20 June 2002 (ICD-SE-3-01), Asian Productivity Organization, 2004.

advocacy role⁵. Thus, the NGOs in India have shifted their focus over last five decades and also emerged as important stakeholders in the context of rural development. An alliance between the NGOs and Panchayats is becoming visible in many areas. Further, it is prone to become a matter of concern and also for a debate in the context of interface or collaboration among local level organizations working towards rural development. The relationship between NGOs and Panchayats is very much influenced by the perceptions on both sides that they are mutually interfering in each other's domain⁶.

A case of conflict is noticed in Rajasthan between a NGO and villagers under its area versus the State Department of Irrigation while implementing the irrigation development programme⁷. On the contrary, it is observed that NGOs are not only catalysts, but also establish partnership with Panchayats to fight against corruption at the grassroots level⁸. The Panchayats are part of the Government and get financial support from the Central and State Governments, whereas the NGOs receive funds from international agencies and corporate houses for creating facilities and developing rural areas⁹. Hence, the activities of the NGOs are equally important for infrastructure development in rural areas.

Most of the NGOs are also promoting the Community Based Organizations through which they are generating awareness and building people's competence for rural development¹⁰. They provide opportunities for people's involvement through user groups and committees and get more benefits from various development agencies. Though the link between these user committees and groups and the Panchayats is somewhat tenuous, over time this linkage matures as partnership¹¹. In this context, the NGO – Panchayat partnership can play a significant role in mobilizing the social capital through these user groups.

Meanwhile, many NGOs working in the rural areas have strong links at grassroots level and work as social activists and they resent the emergence of PRIs, because they have to vacate space at grassroots level for these constitutional bodies. At the same time, many NGOs have been involved in training those elected to the PRIs. With the given strength and social infrastructure, as localized institutions NGOs can play a definite role in enhancing the abilities of the Panchayats, since the Government machinery alone cannot easily take up the task of training large number of elected representatives of Panchayat Raj Institutions in our country¹².

5 Chopra Ravi (2001) quoted in the "Drought 2002 – A Report", Ministry of Agriculture, GoI, 2004.

6 Venkata Ravi, (2005) Perspective on Grassroots Organizations and Rural Development, in D. Vasudeva Rao, S. Vijaya Kumar and R. Venkata Ravi (Eds), "Narratives on New Perspectives of Development", Book Enclave, Jaipur, 2005, Pp. 77-90.

7 Joshi R.P and Narwani G.S. (2002)

8 Rajkumar (2002), "Capacity Building of Panchayats for Rural Development: Some Emerging Areas for NGOs", *Man & Development*, 24(1), March, pp. 64-72.

9 Joshi R.P and Narwani G.S. (2002)

10 Pooja Chauhan, Kishore Kumar and Rajeev et. al. (2002), "Decentralized Natural Resource Management: The Interface between State, Panchayat and Village Communities through Panchayat, Micro Planning" (accessed from www.panchayats.org).

11 Saxena N.C. (2000), "Issues in Panchayats", accessed from www.panchayats.org.

12 Roomima Vyasulu and Vinod Vyasulu (2000), "Women in the Panchayat Raj Grassroots. Democracy in India" in Women Political Participation and Good Governance: 21st Century Challenges, UNDP, access from <http://magnet.undp.org>.

A study¹³ by NIRD in Andhra Pradesh shows that the NGO as Project Implementing Agency has no interface with the concerned PRIs, as there was no need for any such working relationship with panchayats for watershed activities. But the elected members got an impression that the NGO is playing the role that should have been played by the Panchayats. On the contrary, in Karnataka working relationship between Government departments and NGOs has been promoted in the areas of social forestry and wasteland development¹⁴.

The Council for Advancement of People's Action and Rural Technology (CAPART) and WATER AID promotes the network among governmental agencies, NGOs and Panchayats. Similarly, the NGOs and PRIs have also been networking in the health development works. In Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Orissa, primary health centres in tribal and remote areas are handed over to NGOs for managing health delivery system¹⁵.

The NGOs approaching with a project proposal for fund raising from the CAPART, National Afforestation and Eco Development Board (NAEB) or any other government agency, have to prepare a micro level plan in the village with the Gram Panchayat's approval for the proposed work. This requires the NGOs to directly have linkage with Gram Panchayats in the participatory development process.

Thus, the available literature indicates an existing partnership between the Panchayats and NGOs at grassroots level. It is necessary to take advantage of the relative strengths, social capital and social infrastructure available with these grassroots organizations for initiating and managing development in rural areas. Hence, it is imperative to closely examine the existing relationship between the NGOs and Panchayats in terms of their experience, perceptions and emerging issues in the grassroots level partnership that would help to identify the ways and means for promoting strong partnership for rural development and at the same time, to tackle the emerging issues.

Alliance among Panchayats, NGOs and CBOs: an Overview

The success of the Rural Development process depends upon the active participation and willing cooperation of the rural people through Local Self-Government, Self-Help Organizations and Voluntary Agencies. In recent years, the voluntary agencies have greater importance and significant roles in the development of grassroots people. Keeping in view the above purpose, attempt has been made to review the available related literature so as to understand the concepts, issues, problems and develop insight for the present study. Review of literature is an

¹³ Venugopal G., and Annamalai U., (2003), "Relationship between PRIs and CBOs: Issues of ...Convergence", *Journal of Rural Development*, 22(4), p.455-486.

¹⁴ Rajkumar (2002)

¹⁵ Durga Prasad P., and Madhuri N.V., (2004), "Partnership and Networking for Health Development: Initiatives, Successes and Challenges", *Kurukshetra*, Vol. 52(3), January, pp. 4-13.

essential element of research work. It has possibility of understanding the existing trends in the research related to the theme of the study. Review of literature enables the researcher to identify the work done in the field and gives in-depth information of the subject. Literature reviews collected from the secondary sources like books, journals, theses, reports, documents and newspapers and as such to enhance the lore in the research work. Literature review can be interpreted as a review of an abstract and accomplishment. It clarifies the researcher's doubts and confusion. It enables to improve the work which has been already done and provides insight for future research work.

The Government of India set up the **Sivaraman¹⁶** Committee (1973) recommended that the involvement of Voluntary Organizations in planning and implementation of the integrated rural development programmes. The NGOs have active contribution in rural development which was highlighted and acknowledged by various official committees set up by the Government of India.

Balwant Rai Mehta Committee (1957) in its report highlighted during the implementation of Community Development Schemes should be fame laid on NGOs and VOs. The report of the committee on Panchayat Raj Institutions (1973) appreciated the role

of Voluntary Organizations in the development¹⁷ of rural and central areas.

Koenraad Verhagen (1987) He analyses the role of self-help promotion by NGOs¹⁸ by eight instruments - identification of target population and target groups, participatory planning and research, education and mutual training, resource mobilization and resource provision, management consultancy, linkage building with third parties, process extension and movement building and monitoring and ongoing self-evaluation. These instruments have been identified to strengthen and promote their life.

K. Vettivel¹⁹ (2004) analysed three NGOs in Tamil Nadu in his study. He narrates the significant functions of these NGOs in enabling powerless groups to participate in decision-making processes and as a result, bringing about reduction in differences between more powerful and powerless groups in political power. It confirmed the crucial role of NGOs in empowering the powerless groups in the rural areas.

S. N. Sangita (1990) made a comparative analysis of Government and Non- Governmental Organizations which implemented the Self-Employment Programme for Rural Youth in four districts of Karnataka. A

¹⁶ Role of Non Governmental Organizations in Tribal Development in India,<http://leadershiptrainingtutorials.com/leadershiptraining/problem-solving/role-of-non-governmental-organizations-in-tribal-development-in-india/#.WGZOE97IU>

¹⁷ Kakumani Lavanya Latha and Kotte Prabhakar, (2011), Non-Government Organizations: Problems and Remedies In India, Serbian Journal of Management 6 (1) (2011) 109 - 112

¹⁸ Verhagen, Koenraad (1987), Self-Help Promotion: A Challenge to the NGO Community, CEBEMO, Netherlands

¹⁹ Vettivel S.K.(2004), Women's Own- The Self-Help Movement of Tamil Nadu,Vetri Publishers, New Delhi.

distinct variation was observed in the philosophy, strategies and methods adopted by both the organizations. On the part of the NGOs adoption of grassroots level planning, operation in a smaller area, active participation of the people and committed supervision of the staff contributed to the effective implementation of the programme; on the other hand, top-down approach, uniform policy with inappropriate administrative structures and indifferent officials in Government Organizations were mainly responsible for its ineffective functioning. NGOs act as powerful instruments of development and control of diverse rural groups with greater efficiency, equality and empowerment²⁰ at relatively low cost.

S. Galab (1993) - His study examined the functioning of Rural Employment Programmes in Anantapur District, a drought-prone and backward one in Andhra Pradesh. According to the guidelines, the community works²¹ were executed by the local village agencies such as village Panchayats, parental/school committees and village development council that ensures the full benefits of wages to the local workers and the quality of assets. It recommended the inclusion of NGOs in the implementation of the programmes to ensure the flow of benefits to the deserving target groups absolutely; at the same time, motivate the process,

organize and strengthen the grassroots level machinery. All the possible and required materials for the programmes could be manufactured with the total participation and coordination of the beneficiaries.

Swapan Garain (1996) - His study examines Graduate Volunteer Scheme (GVS) of the University of Bombay which is root of the Rural Communities to execute the village level workers' training programme. NGOs involvement can empower the rural poor along with programmes on documentation refresher courses on natural farming and watershed management, promotion of dialogue between grassroots organizations²² and Government agencies. This it can bring about sustainable life to rural communities.

D. Bandyopadhyay (1996) describes the role of the Non-Government Organizations (NGO) and community groups currently called the civil society. Only some organizations do render valuable supplemental services to Government efforts by extending them to people or groups. In our country Christian missionaries and the Ramkrishna Mission have been doing service in spreading education and rendering health services in remote and distant regions among²³ equally isolated tribal groups long before any Government agencies thought of moving into these areas.

20 Sangita (1990) S.N., "Self-Employment Programme for Rural Youth - The Role of Non-Governmental Organisations", NMB Management Review, Volume 5, Number 2.

21 Galab, S (1993), "Rural Employment Programmes - Case for Involving Voluntary Organizations", Economic and Political Weekly, Volume 28, Number 10.

22 Swapan Garain (1993), "Training Grassroots level Workers in Empowering the Rural Poor: The Case of an Indian NGO", The Indian Journal of Social Work, Vol. 54, No. 3.

23 D. Bandyopadhyay (1996), Administration, Decentralization and Good Governance, Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. 31, No. 48.

Mahesh Chander (1996) he undertook a study on farmers participation in rural development programmes to understand the modus operandi of three NGOs in Central Himalayan Region of Uttar Pradesh. The Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) method was widely used in assessing participation and performance, the existence of closer interaction and better understanding of NGOs with the farmers. The initiatives of NGOs have to be ensuring the farmers' participation particularly in planning and implementation. The prospects were fairly bright in witnessing continuous enlightenment of the farmers by the NGOs on the issues related to rural²⁴ development.

Anil C. Shah and Sudarshan Iyengar (1998) a study on the contributions of NGOs to development by comparing the performance of the Aga Khan Rural Support Programme (AKRSP) and the Government in watershed management programme. Their study focused on 35 villages in Savarkundla taluk of Bhavnagar district, Gujarat. This case study identified the reality of NGOs with appropriate and professional inputs and training which contributes to rural development through quality of work and their sustainable impact on the processes; in spite of resources, expertise and power, the Government programme on watershed was not able to make much of an impact as compared to the NGOs²⁵ process.

Rajani Ranjan Jha (1998) examined the various critical issues related to Panchayati Raj and Rural Development in India. He suggested that in order to make the Panchayati Raj effective, various structural defects like illiteracy, ill health, and poverty are to be removed. He further suggested that success of Panchayati Raj may depend on the development and continuous strengthening of secular values and democratic norms in India's social life and on an enlightened public²⁶ opinion. He felt that Panchayati Raj may be considered as the highest stage of Village Swaraj.

Rajsingh (2000) highlighted the Panchayati Raj Institutions are to be considered as the vehicles of Socio-economic transformations in rural India. It may be called grassroots real democracy by the active involvement and participation of the people at the village level. Mahatma Gandhi's dreams "Real Swaraj" said "Will²⁷ come not by the acquisition of authority by few but the acquisition of the capacity by all".

Yatish Misra (2002). His study on grassroots level organizations and rural development was conducted in Gaya district, Bihar with the primary objective of analyzing the existing system of decentralization and to propose all-round development of rural areas. The study highlighted level of flexibility and dedicated human approach of NGOs that could

²⁴ Chander, Mahesh (1996), "Farmers' Participation in Rural Development Programmes: Case Studies of some local NGOs in Central Himalayan Region", *Journal of Rural Development*, Volume 15(3)

²⁵ Shah, Anil C and Sudarshan Iyengar, (1998), *The Contribution of NGOs to Development: Some issues and a Case Study*, in M.L.Dantwala, et al (ed), *Social Change Through Voluntary Action*, Sage Publications, Delhi

²⁶ J.L. Singh, G.P. Pandey, 1998, *50 years of Panchayat Raj and Rural Development*, Manak Publications, Delhi.

²⁷ Rajsingh, 2000, *New Panchayati Raj: A Functional Analysis*, Anmol Publications, New Delhi.

²⁸ Misra, Yatish, (2002), *Empowering People - Grassroots Organizations and Rural Development*, Kanishka Publishers, Distributors, New Delhi

accelerate the thrust of rural development. Panchayati Raj Institutions were capable of responding to the needs of people in a timely manner and implementing the rural development programmes²⁸ efficiently without intervention of the politicians.

Indrajit Roy (2002) stated 'village community' in south Asia²⁹ usually evokes images of an idyllic, static and isolated society, reflecting an 'aura of innocence'. 'village communities' bring out a wealth of information and opinion that offers, on analysis, valuable insights into local management, administrative and cultural systems disproving the notion of the isolated and monolithic organism commonly referred to as the community.

Jennifer M. Brinkerhoff (2003). His study says that, the purpose of alliance between Government and Non-Governmental Organisation is to improve the public services or life. The partnership works to improve the public services by the different approaches. 1. The main aim of the partners to –work towards alleviation of poverty, creating awareness among the people. 2. To provide effective³⁰ public services which enable people easily get the benefits of Government programmes. 3. To mobilize the people for planning and decision making to rectify the problems by themselves with the support of Government.

Seema Singh (2003) opined that Gandhian thinking is closely linked with Panchayati Raj system. He supported the idea of emerging democracy through Panchayati Raj to train the people with the help of NGOs towards political and economic rights. Rural community gained ideas of equality and simplicity from decentralizations of political power. **Gandhi's** life³¹ and philosophy was based on four basic principles namely truth, non-violence, dignity of labour and simplicity. His ideas of simplicity developed the theory of decentralization.

M. Lekorwe (2007) highlighted that the Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) are organized group of citizens to tackle various issues/problems around the areas and action oriented activities from available local resources to free people from suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services, rural development, human rights. These kinds of work are undertaken by joining hands with the Panchayat and Community Based Organisation³² (Self Help Group, Farmers association and Youth club) for effective and reliable work among the people.

R. Venkata Ravi (2010) stated the relationship between CBOs and Panchayats at village level. The idea of convergence between PRIs and CBOs

29 Indrajit Roy (2002), Community, Organisation and Representation: Implications for Development, Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. 37, No. 35

30 Jennifer M. Brinkerhoff (2003), Donor-Funded Government-NGO Partnership for Public ServiceImprovement: Cases from India and Pakistan, Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, Vol. 14, No. 1, Published by: Springer.

31 Seema Singh, 2003, Panchayat Raj and Women Empowerment, Ocean Books, New Delhi, PP 40-41

32 M. Lekorwe (2007), Managing Non-Governmental Organizations in Botswana, the InnovationJournal: The Public Sector Innovation Journal, Volume 12(3), Article 10.<http://www.innovation.cc/scholarly-style/lekorwe10final1draft.pdf>

is fasten on a collaborative framework that takes into account the relative strengths of each other. The CBOs could function as implementation agencies for the PRIs and also this approach may make “Panchayats” as without³³ much functional role, but discharging responsibilities as local Self-Government.

Kakumani Lavanya Lathaa (2011) stated that during the Pre-Independence period, the women literacy rate is very low and limited in the society. Literacy rate level increased substantially after Independence of India. Not only India, women empowerment is among the central issues in the process of developing countries all over the world and they can improve their position in the society by the support and guidance of Voluntary Organisation. Active training by which women can participate in the Panchayat election aided by reservation and they provide programmes for the people with the help of self-help group members. Women can adopted various strategies and approaches such as creating awareness, attitude, skill, capacity³⁴ and sensitivity in order to win in elections.

S. Gurusamy (2011), states that the Tamil Nadu New Panchayat Raj system came into force on 22.04.1994. The Panchayati Raj Institutions in Tamil Nadu, in accordance with the

73rd Constitutional Amendment seek to empower the disadvantaged community. Therefore they have a responsibility to improve the conditions of the vulnerable sections of the society. One third of the seats are reserved for women apart from reservation for scheduled castes, scheduled tribes. 'Democratic Decentralization', the primary role of Panchayati raj institutions was visualized in the broader area of development including planning³⁵ and implementation of programmes aiming at social justice and economic development.

R. Uma Devi (2013) in her study reveals that Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) contributed greatly in the fight against poverty; they helped in creation of large numbers of Self Help Groups for women empowerment in the challenging areas. In the recent years they have designed their programmes to address the needs³⁶ of poor and providing basic social services as well as fulfilling practical needs.

Leonard Chitongo (2013) mentions the Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZIMVAC). It indicates that 55 percent of the rural population has no livestock to sell in times of need. Most of the people rely on agriculture and allied activities where people are paid in cash or kind. Therefore during drought periods it

34 Kakumani Lavanya Lathaa and Kotte Prabhakar (2011), Serbian Journal of Management 6(1)109 - 121

35 S. Gurusamy, Social Exclusion and Inclusion, 2011, APH Publishing Corporation, New Delhi.

36 R. Uma Devi (2013), An Analytical Study on The Role of NGOs in the Poverty Reduction of India,International Refereed Research Journal. www.researchersworld.com.Vol.- IV, Issue 4(1), [127]

becomes difficult to find works and hence incomes are low. In this situation, their purchasing power is limited and most of the people are unable to afford cereals such as maize, sorghum and millet. However, the level of vulnerability among people varies according to wealth, power relations and access to the market. The socio-economic and political environment in Zimbabwe has implications for food³⁷ access by the disadvantaged members of society who lack financial resources and social capital to survive. The food security issue is being highly controlled by the Government, yet the Government does not have adequate resources. Therefore the Government needs to work in partnership with Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) or monitor their work in order to ensure that food security is restored. NGOs have a reputation for facilitating development in rural areas in developing countries.

Jayashree Roy (2014) commented that village areas are considered as heart and backbone of our country. The rural people are mostly belonging in the poor and they are live with nature. The Local Self Government meets the villagers in person with the help of Self Help Groups to identify the requirements and fulfill their needs.³⁸ This enables poverty alleviation and to realize productive employment opportunities in the process of growth itself.

Eswar Kumar Belli. S (2014) stated that a Rural Development Project is committed for the improvement of poor, marginalized, under privileged, impoverished and downtrodden through the NGOs and CBOs guidance. These are close to and accessible to their target groups. The NGOs and CBOs have contributed significantly in reducing poverty, deprivation, discrimination and exclusion through awareness, social mobilization, service delivery³⁹ and training. They are the effective non-political link between Local Self Government and people.

Taufigu Ahamad (2015), states about the contribution of women in India and developing countries. Women play a very significant role in respect of national development in spheres like social, political, economic and legal. Self-Help Groups (SHG) play a very pivotal role in women empowerment by providing basic education, vocational training, training for self-employment, legal aid, protection for women and self-awareness programmes. NGO and SHG dominate and enable success in women empowerment along multiple dimensions including⁴⁰ economic, socio-cultural, family/interpersonal, legal, political and psychological.

R. Venkata Ravi (2016). He stated that multiple organizations are working for the development at

37 Leonard Chitongo (2013), The Contribution of Ngos to Rural Development: The Case of Catholic Relief Services Protecting Vulnerable Livelihoods Programme in Zimbabwe, Asian Journal of Management Sciences and Education, ISSN: 2186-845X ISSN: 2186-8441 Print, Vol. 2 No. 3.

38 Jayashree Roy, (2014) IRDP to NRLM: A Brief Review of Rural Development Initiatives in India, International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention, ISSN (Online): 2319-7722, ISSN (Print): 2319 - 7714 www.ijhssi.org Volume 3.

39 Eswar kumar Belli. S, Dr.T.S Raghvendra, (2014), Role of Shri Kshetra Dharmasthala Rural Development Project (SKDRDP) in Micro Finance Through SHGs - A Study in Shimoga District of Karnataka, IOSR Journal of Economics and Finance (IOSR-JEF), e-ISSN: 2321-5933, p-ISSN: 2321-5925, Volume 3, Issue 2, Ver. II.

40 Taufigu Ahamad, Hemlata, Ananta Narayana (2015), Role of NGOs in Women Empowerment: With Special Reference to Uttar Pradesh, International Journal of Applied Research, 1(10).

grassroots level as a result of the democratic and administrative decentralization process. The process⁴¹ of decentralization is mainly for devolving of functions and authority that give opportunities for the people to play their role which can ensure their initiatives and involvement in the development activities at grassroots level. In the Indian context, constitutionally endowed Local Self Government known as Panchayati Raj Institutions which are instruments of enabling people's participations and the other instruments include voluntary agencies, self-help groups, watershed committees and similar organizations at grassroots level.

Country Programme (2013-2017), stated that partnership strategy is to work together with partners around the shared principles and commitments to sustainable human development and achievement. UNDP focusses on creating social value through public-private partnerships. UNDP maintains and expands partnerships with civil society, Panchayati Raj Institutions, private sector and media at all levels and in particular organizations of marginalized groups. These partnerships enable public participation that strengthens outreach to marginalized groups and regions and to local communities. UNDP continues to partner with non-governmental and community-based organizations for

outreach, service provision, training and knowledge⁴² transfer.

Focus of the paper

The available literature on decentralization emphasizes the need for networking or alliance among the grassroots organizations. The village level Panchayats as local self-government institutions are responsible for the planning and implementation of various activities for socio-economic development in rural areas. The NGOs are working for the development of rural areas by executing various development programmes of the government and non-government agencies. The CBOs, as Users Groups, have been working to protect their interest through participatory management of the resources. In context of convergence approach, these organizations are expected to work together for the cause of development. In the case of these organizations, their nature and origin differ from each other, but they have a common goal of development and their own interest.

The PRIs are local self-government organisations with Constitutional authority, while the NGOs are registered societies working as development catalyst, and CBOs are associations of users of various resources and services. Collaboration, cooperation and consultation among

these organizations are very essential for achieving sustainable development. However, in such process, clash of interest cannot be ruled out.

Hence, the present study focussed on the studying the existing type of alliance among these organizations, while initiating development. The study also tried to explore the issues and functions of these organizations to establish alliance among them, and also constraints associated in such process. The research has worked to identify how the alliance is established on specific development issues and what are the functional alliances among the organization at village level.

The study has been conducted in Dindigul district of Tamil Nadu among the rural NGOs that are working for rural development and also in collaboration with Village Panchayat. These NGOs are also working on various aspects of rural development is the universe of the study. The sample NGOs are selected using the database of Planning Commission of India. The NGOs which are registered under the Alliance Scheme of the Planning Commission of India [currently known as NITI Ayog] are covered.

Methodology:

Initially, the research has contacted all the 110 NGOs through various communication channels such as

formal request letter, email, telephonic conversation followed by direct visit to the NGOs. Even though the researcher has repeatedly contacted all the NGOs, majority of the NGOs have been silent in communicating their willingness to share their data and information with researcher. However, the researcher continued to visit some of the NGOs and convinced them by explaining the purpose of the study. Ultimately, a set of 36 NGOs have agreed to share their information. But some of these NGOs are recently established and having very few years of experience in the field. Hence, the researcher finally identified 20 NGOs among those who have assured / agreed to cooperate in the present research study. Hence, the NGOs working in the Dindigul and also adjoining districts, like Madurai and Theni were also selected for the study. This decision is taken as these two districts are part of the erstwhile Madurai district and NGOs registered long back in that District of Madurai.

While, selecting twenty [20] sample NGOs, following criteria are considered – NGOs working with Multiple partners / Donors for their programmes; designed and managed various development and welfare programmes; and experience of the key functionaries of the organizations. More particularly, NGOs which have promoted various CBOs and working with Panchayats are considered for the present study.

Sample Gram Panchayats and CBOs:

In the operation area of each sample NGO, one Village Panchayat is selected for the study. A Gram Panchayat in which more development activities have been taken up, as it created opportunity for alliance which is already established or experienced. Focus of the present study is on alliance among various organizations operating at village level, and this is possible if they have worked together on many occasions for a long time. Mainly, alliance is meant for the planning and implementation of their activities in the villages.

Respondents for the study are [1] functionaries of NGOs, [2] from Village Panchayats - elected leaders, and [3] leaders of the CBOs. Apart from these respondents, at the village level, Focus Group Discussions were also held among the community leaders, youth leaders, social workers, teachers and former Panchayat leaders.

Grassroots Alliance: Field Level Situation in Tamil Nadu

The paper presents the inferences of study results and conclusions on the existing partnership among the three types of organizations, namely, Village Panchayats, NGOs and CBOs for rural development. Basic approach is that the Panchayats are understood as the Local Self Government working at

village level. The NGOs are considered as development catalyst making efforts in the rural area. Whereas, the CBOs are stakeholders they come together at village level in the interest of their own development and gains. The findings are presented and discussed in line with the objectives of the study, so as to figure out the overall picture about the exiting pattern of partnership at village level. Based on the conclusions efforts are made to suggest ways and means that would help to build up the partnership at village level.

1 Existing types of Alliance

The existing type of partnership arrangement has been studied among the Village Panchayats, CBOs and NGOs. There are three type of partnership observed among these rural organizations in the village level. There are summarized here under:

1.1 Issue based Alliance

The issues based alliance indicates that these organizations have come together for addressing a selected development issue or a problem. This shows that working together by these organizations is essential for taking up a set of activities for the development at village level. In this context, the partnership initiatives might have come from the NGOs or Panchayats, but they have agreed to share same platform to take up the development programmes in the common interest of the village community. But, it is a short term

arrangement between partners or among the stakeholders. This denotes the alliance may continue till the implementation of a programme. This kind of partnership is in the field level in the villages, where the following NGOs are involved in the development action - Sri Sakthi Trust, DEEPAM - [Dynamic Education and Empowerment Promoting Agency for Marginalized], ARASE [Ambedkar Rural and Action for Social Educational] Trust, Association for Rural Development [ARD], Madurai Non formal Education Centre (MNEC).

1.2 Regular Alliance

The regular partnership reveals that there is a mutual agreement to contribute and taking benefits by the partnership arrangement among the rural organizations. It is a long term arrangement between the NGOs, Panchayats and CBOs. It is notable that because of the intervention of the NGOs in the awareness and training programme on Panchayat Raj System, the CBOs leaders emerged as Panchayats elected leaders. This type of partnership is noticed in the - Gandhigram Trust, Nesam Trust, Kalanjiyam Trust, M. S. Swaminathan Research Foundation [MSSRF], Grama Pengal Munnetra Sangam,

1.3 Cooperation

This type of partnership means a kind of support or cooperation provided by the NGO to the Panchayats

or the other way round. It is neither permanent alliance nor long term collaboration, but it is support rendering system between these organizations. This is also need based or temporary arrangement. This type of partnership is found in the villages where the following NGOs are operating - National Integrated Rural Development Agency [NIRDA], Women's Emancipation and Development (WED) Trust, Society for Serving Humanity [SSH], Muthamilzh Education and Rural Development Trust [MERDS], Centre for Social Action, Women's Education and Development [SAWED], Centre for Rural Development [CRD], VOC Rural Development Centre, Center for Rural Education and Development (CRED), Village Vision of India and Whale Trust.

Therefore, it means that the Panchayats are working with the NGOs and CBOs in some form or other. But, the length and type of partnership depends on the issues taken up by these organizations. It is also noticed that in all three types, it is the NGO which happens to be the designer and initiator of the partnership arrangements between NGO, Panchayats and CBOs. In the case which was studied, the Panchayats have willingness to work with NGOs and CBOs because, these organizations are able to take up and successfully complete the development programme at the village. Therefore the collective strengths of

the organizations are used for the common cause and benefit of the village community.

2 Development Issues for which Alliance emerged

The study has shown that following development issues are collaboratively addressed by the NGOs, Panchayats and CBOs in the village level for the development. It is clearly noticed that most of the issues are directly related to the overall development of the socio-economic condition of the village community. The issues taken are:

1. Infrastructure facilities, particularly to ensure supply of drinking water
2. Enhancement of Income generating capacity of women under the SHGs
3. Women empowerment and protection of their rights, including legal assistance
4. Capacity building of women leaders, panchayat leaders and SHG leaders
5. Environmental sanitation, Environmental protection and also Clean India Movement
6. Supplementary Education for Students, mainstreaming school drop outs and issues related to empowerment of children

7. Empowerment of SC including increasing awareness among the Scs

8. Rejuvenation of traditional water bodies including tank desilting and bush clearance around the tanks

9. Land development activities and also taking up plantation in waste land

10. Solid Waste Management and garbage disposal or utilization

11. Promotion of organic farming and chemical-free sustainable agriculture

12. Providing information resources to the rural community

13. Ensuring banking services at remote village

It is observed that these issues are also very well covered under the Eleventh Schedule of the Constitution which mandates the Villages Panchayats to work as "local self government to plan and implement the programmes for the socio-economic development and welfare of the people in the rural areas" under its jurisdiction or purview. Similarly, the NGOs are also interested in these issues –as they are familiar with the anatomy of the problem or issue which is under the focus. The CBOs are stakeholders association that have emerged as need of the hour to address the problems.

3 Functions for which Alliance emerged

While addressing various development issues, the partnering organizations are actively involved in taking up the various roles and responsibilities of programme planning and management under the alliance mode. They are:

3.1 NGO

The NGOs are the prime mover of the alliance among the rural organisations for development. As a designer of the alliance, the NGOs have taken up the following roles and responsibilities.

- Understanding the needs and priorities of the village community through various participatory methodologies.
- The NGOs held formal meetings and interactions with elected leaders of panchayats in the process of assessing the needs and priorities of the various sections in the village.
- There are CBOs in the villages which are reflecting the aspirations of the various sections of the people. The NGOs have been closely working with the CBOs for capacity building and also assess their felt needs.
- The NGOs used the SHGs to understand the needs and priorities of women and children and also various alternatives for their development.
- As a part of their planning process, the NGOs have always consulted the Panchayats and CBOs. In fact the alternatives and options are always discussed with these organisations by the NGOs in the planning process.
- With the available expertise, NGOs have suggested to the Panchayats and CBOs various options to address any identified problems.
- On deciding the development alternatives, the NGOs have made attempts to mobilize required resources. In this process, the NGOs have also converged development and welfare programmes of the Government.
- The NGOs have always helped the Panchayats in a professional way by giving expertise, suggestions and also as Trainer of the elected leaders.
- The NGOs have always monitored and taken follow-up measures in the case of programmes organized jointly with Panchayats and CBOs.
- The NGOs provided professional support services to the CBOs and

also to the Panchayat leaders in taking up any subject matter of common concern with the Government agencies.

- By and large the NGOs, with their networking capabilities and ability to mobilize resources have been playing pro-active roles. But, they have always working with the Panchayats and also for the Panchayats. Therefore, the study provides an understanding that the NGOs have been playing the role of catalyst at community level and as a professional in managing the development process with Panchayats and CBOs.

3.2 Panchayats

- The Panchayats as Local Self-Government have been working with all organisations including NGOs and CBOs for the development at village level.
- The Panchayats have always been facilitating the efforts of NGOs and CBOs by demonstrating the political will and extending required support.
- The Panchayats have always approved the actions proposed and taken up by the NGOs and CBOs in the common interest of the villages. To conclude, the Panchayats at village level have played role as a symbol of governance system at grassroots level.

3.3 CBOs

In the present study, it is understood that the CBOs have been representing and reflecting the development aspirations of various sections of the village community.

- Primarily CBOs ensure people participation in the development initiatives by Panchayats and NGOs.
- They have helped NGOs in survey and also ensure people contributions. The CBOs served as a bridge between NGOs and Panchayat Raj System.
- The CBOs by virtue of people organisations have always expressed the voice of the people in any platform.
- Likewise the CBOs have also organized beneficiaries of any development programmes. On the whole, the CBOs as people's organization, worked with Panchayats and NGOs

4 Enabling factors in building and sustaining the partnership

The enabling factors, positive environment, favourable situation, and encouraging social climate, are responsible for sustaining the partnership between rural organizations. The study found that

following are enabling factors for building and sustaining the partnership:

- Working relationship between NGOs and Panchayats. Political determination of the Panchayat leadership for development
- A big banner of the NGO helps get support in the society
- SHGs are organized by the NGOs
- Political will of the Village Panchayat for working together
- Village Community to have confidence in the NGOs
- NGOs are capable of mobilizing required additional / external support for the programme in the village
- Panchayat readily accepts the solutions proposed by the NGOs. Acceptance of the NGOs in the villages, as they are addressing the needs of all sections of the village community
- NGO has developed a network of CBOs in the village and involves them to work for common interest of the village development.
- Loyalty of SHGs to the NGO and working in the programmes related to them.
- SHGs and Farmers Clubs are able to influence the local people as they are closely working with people on the pressing issues
- Each partner contributes according to its strength and capability
- Willingness of the women SHGs to work with Panchayats and NGOs. For example, to collect the waste in the villages for productive use. It is possible due to training provided by the NGO to women on composting.
- Availability of technology to recycle the waste into compost manure
- Existing market potential for the bio-manure
- Converging the efforts of the Panchayat with NGO and SHGs. Capacity of the SHG to collect tax and other user charges in support for Panchayats
- Women headed organization working with SHGs
- All programmes are organized by the NGOs through SHGs
- Most of the issues addressed are women centered and related to their development
- The youth and women are ready for working with NGOs, as they are

directly benefiting from the NGOs' programmes

- Highly motivated SHG and youth leadership
- Presence of the SHG women and youth in the Panchayat as elected representatives
- NGOs are working exclusively for the SC community and developed leadership; and also organized SC women into SHGs, and trained them to become Panchayat leaders. This has enabled collaboration among the NGOs, CBOs and Panchayats
- Attitude of the SC women to work as team and also due to Panchayat headed by SC Women
- Educated women from the SHGs have also helped efforts by the NGOs for working with Panchayats
- Organization has the policy of collaborating with the various stakeholders at village level
- Parent-Teachers Association has more of mothers and SHG members; they are interested in working together.
- NGOs support the effective functioning of the Panchayat Raj system at village level. It is

achieved through organizing of training and campaign for the Panchayat Raj system

- NGO focused on the facilities for the farmers and their development as resources from NABARD is made available for the village development. Therefore, able to organize the farmers and working with them.
- NGOs have the following advantages - Working on the vital social issue, direct contact with people, availability of legal support, willingness of the Panchayat Leadership; Panchayats are supporting the efforts of the NGO; Networking with like-minded organizations and village community level leaders are also in support of the NGO; Funding support for programmes of the NGOs - Therefore, they are able to work with people and organize them; Goodwill of NGO - people have confidence in the Institutions; Panchayat is readily providing facilities for the programmes of the NGOs

5 Challenges faced in building and sustaining the partnership

- Change in the leaderships of the NGO and the Panchayat have influence on the working relationship between them

-
- Saturation of needs and demand in the village community, but emergence of new set of problems
 - Change in the Panchayat Leadership may have direct effect on working arrangement between NGOs and Panchayats
 - Change in the focus of the NGO and Panchayat, due to the political consideration
 - Change in the needs and priorities of the NGO, specifically in relation to the SC community
 - Change in needs and priorities of village community
 - Increase in education level of families in the village, and their new aspirations
 - Threat of withdrawal of the external support or flow of funds for projects initiated by the NGO
 - Improvement of facility in the villages may have influence on their interest to work together
 - Existing socio-economic compulsion in the village and opposition from the upper caste. In the context of growing aspirations of the SCs

6 Best practices in the partnership.

Based on the existing practices among the NGOs, Panchayats and

CBOs in the form of alliance for planning and management of the development at village level, it is clear that collaboration can be a framework that is capable to sustain the "combined efforts through collective strengths" by the various organizations at village level. Ultimately, the alliance is for ensuring the effective convergence of resources, institutions and people for the sustainable development.

7 Major Conclusions:

The discussions on the existing type of alliance among the various organisations at village level reveal the following

- The NGOs have been the designer of alliance among various organisations at village level.
- They have also collaborated with various development agencies, including banks and Government agencies for managing the established collaboration at village level.
- The NGOs have brought in required financial resources and expertise required for development programmes in the villages.
- Most of the CBOs have been organized by the NGOs. These CBOs are the breeding ground for new generation of leadership. These CBOs are the basis for

emerge of women leadership that has taken up roles and responsibilities in the Panchayats.

- Mobility of women leadership from CBOs to Panchayats indicates emergence of new generation of leadership including achieving the inclusiveness.
- The alliance is the basis for bringing the scheduled caste and backward community to the seat of authority that is Panchayats.
- The Panchayats are willing to work with NGOs as they are bringing the required financial resources and expertise. This process is enabling a strong alliance between NGOs and Panchayats as they are collectively involved in resource mobilization for development at village level.
- Comparatively the planning and management capabilities are found to be more in NGOs than in the Village Panchayats. Therefore, irrespective of socio - political background of the Panchayat leadership, they are in a position to accept the professional inputs provided by the NGO.
- Most of the second line leadership in the Panchayats (ward members) have come from the Self Help Groups which are already trained by the NGOs. Therefore, these

women leaders are able to mobilize the community and also voice the concern of all sections of village community. It means that leadership mobility through CBOs towards Panchayats is a positive sign in development.

- The Panchayats as Local Self Government are expected to work for the entire village covering all sections of the society. In such a situation the Panchayats cannot focus specifically on any particular section in the village community. However the NGOs have the flexibility of focusing on any specific section which requires immediate attention which means the NGOs can show positive discrimination under the umbrella of grassroots level alliance.
- Mostly the alliance has been established for taking up immediate actions for the welfare and development of village community such as providing drinking water, ensuring cleanliness, access to welfare and development. The alliance at village level is also capable of creating adequate awareness and providing knowledge on application of science and technology for the benefit of common people.
- The NGO, Panchayat and CBOs have jointly addressed some of the social issues such as infanticides.

-
- Similarly the village level alliance is capable of introducing new skills that enable recycle of waste, promotion of organic manure and providing additional skills. The

collaborative efforts have also resulted in providing new skills that facilitate employment generation including self employment.



An Invitation

The Local Government Quarterly invites contributions in the form of articles and research papers from its readers and well-wishers.

Contributions may be e-mailed to us in digital form as a Word file.

Articles could normally be between 3000 and 4000 words, though we do not wish to limit the size. As we print in black and white, tables, charts, graphs, images, etc. need to be compatible. We reserve the right to edit for sense, style, space, etc.

Contributors may e-mail their articles to:
aailsgquarterlyjournal@aailsg.org or info.algq@aailsg.org

The Chief Editor
Local Government Quarterly
All India Institute of Local Self-Government,
M.N.Roy Human Development Campus, Plot No. 6, 'F' Block,
TPS Road No 12, Bandra (East), Mumbai – 400051, India.
Tel: +91 86576 22550 / 51 / 52 / 54

Guidelines for Authors

- This is a Peer-Reviewed journal.
 - Contributions need to be in English.

The journal is dedicated to governance and developmental issues. Therefore, submissions could be related to governance and development related subjects – urban, rural or tribal, i.e., issues confronting cities, villages, peri-urban areas, issues related to urban and rural local bodies, issues related to education, public health, livelihood, urban and/or rural poverty, gender equality, etc. We however do not wish to limit the scope of authors' contributions to these areas. These are only indicative.
 - Normally length could be 3000 to 4000 words though we do not wish to limit the size.
 - Authors are requested to ensure that they follow all guidelines and practices applicable for this kind of work, in particular to ensure the following:
 - That the work is original, not previously published, does not infringe on others' rights and that reproductions from other sources are appropriately credited to the source and permissions taken where required. In other words, the authors shall remain solely responsible for the content provided by them
 - All persons who have contributed to the work are credited as authors or co-authors or otherwise appropriately. Further that persons credited as above have actually contributed to the work
 - As we print in black & white, tables, charts, graphs, images, etc. if included, need to be compatible and easy to understand in printed form.
 - We reserve the right to edit for sense, style, space, etc.
 - Contributions may be sent as a Word file by email to aiilsgquarterlyjournal@aiilsg.org or info.algq@aiilsg.org
 - In case of submissions selected for publication, the author would be sent a copy of the printed journal by post. However, it may not be possible for us to respond to individual queries from contributors enquiring about the status of their submissions.
 - The Publisher reserves the right of publication.
 - We publish quarterly, usually for the quarters January - March, April - June, July - September and October - December. The publication is usually at the end of each of these quarters.
 - We do not levy any submission/processing/publication charges.
-

Ethics Policy

The Local Government Quarterly has been instituted and is being published with a view to promote the knowledge and sharing of ideas on subjects related to local governance - urban and rural, in India and overseas. It seeks to address related subjects including, but not limited to, education, public health, livelihoods, urban and rural poverty, gender equality.

The publication aims to contribute to the development effort in these and related areas by taking a positive approach so that achievement of favourable outcomes is made possible. The aim is to enable positive impacts in all sections of society including the poor, vulnerable and disadvantaged. The publication aims to add value to the efforts of all stakeholders particularly those working in these and related fields from all sectors - government, non-government organisations, academia, research and industry.

The publication is committed to a fair and equitable approach in all its pursuits and is bound to act without any ideological bias, in a non-adversarial, non-discriminatory and positive manner. The publication is committed to respect diverse views of stakeholders, especially of the contributing authors provided these are not against or unfair to any section/s of society or could create disharmony among or hurt the sentiments of any section/s of society – actually or potentially.

Readers and all concerned may note that the views expressed in the published contributions would represent the personal opinions of the authors and would not necessarily reflect the opinion of the publisher.

The publication will act in full compliance with all laws and regulations that are applicable to it and will act in a purposeful manner to rectify any inadvertent non-compliance that may be brought to its notice.

On the part of authors, the publication expects similar fair, equitable and inclusive approach to be reflected in the contents of the contributions. In particular, authors are required to ensure the following:

- That the work is original, not previously published, does not infringe on others' rights and that reproductions from other sources are appropriately credited to the source and permissions taken where required. In other words, the authors shall remain solely responsible for the content provided by them
- All persons who have contributed to the work are credited as authors or co-authors or otherwise appropriately. Further that persons credited as above have actually contributed to the work
- All other ethical guidelines that are applicable for such work

We commit ourselves to the standard ethical norms.

Publication and Peer-review Policy

Local Government Quarterly is being published by All India Institute of Local Self-Government by incorporating research papers and articles contributed by diverse stakeholders including academicians, urban planners, practitioners and others with, among others, the following objectives:

- To bring to the fore and highlight issues regarding governance and development especially in India. The issues could include urban, rural or tribal ones covering an array of topics including education, public health, poverty, livelihood and gender.
- The aim is to generate debate and deliberation with the objective of seeking solutions to challenges in the above areas.
- To contribute to capacity building of institutions and personnel working in the related fields thereby improving their response to the issues being confronted in these sectors.
- Contributions are invited from authors in accordance with the 'Guidelines for Authors' published separately.
- Those contributions which are found to be as per the 'Guidelines for Authors' would be provided to some member/s on our panel for 'Peer-review'. In case found necessary, the feedback of the panel member/s could be provided to the concerned author for any modifications he/she may like to make based on the feedback and resubmit the work.
- The publisher reserves the right to publish.

For submission of papers/contributions, kindly note the
changed e-mail IDs

aiilsgquarterlyjournal@aiilsg.org

or

info.algq@aiilsg.org

Report Review

Migration In India 2020-21 – Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) July 2020-June 2021

Read the report here:

https://mospi.gov.in/sites/default/files/publication_reports/Migration%20in%20India%202020%20211655182158691_0.pdf

The Periodic Labour Force Survey is conducted by the National Statistical Office (NSO), Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India since 2017. The Survey is the primary source of data on employment and related matters in the country. Thus it forms an important input for various departments and ministries of the government, of academia, of researches and others. It enables planning and policy formulation in government and other concerned organisations.

The Preface penned by the Director General NSS states that this Report based on the Survey conducted during July 2020 – June 2021 provides estimates of indicators related to migration and temporary visitors. It describes and acknowledges the roles

played by various organisations, and agencies of the government in conducting this survey and preparing the report.

The Report starts with **Highlights**. Here it describes the concepts of 'Migrants' and 'Temporary visitors in the household'. Migrants are those whose last usual place of residence (where the person stayed continuously for 6 months or more) is different from the present place of enumeration. Temporary visitors in the household are those persons who arrived after March 2020 and stayed in the household continuously for a period of 15 days or more but less than 6 months. It goes on to describe the sample sizes both urban and rural of migrants and temporary visitors. The survey covered the whole of the Indian Union except the villages in Andaman and Nicobar Islands 'which remained extremely difficult to access throughout the year' as per the Report.

Among the findings mentioned in the Highlights, the percentage of migrants in the population in India is stated as 28.9%. For urban India it is 34.9% (22.5% male and 47.8% female). Similarly for rural India, the percentage of migrants is 26.5% (5.9% male and 48% female). This section then presents data regarding the pattern of migration. As regards urban migrants, it states that for males, for

53.7%, the last usual place of residence was rural and for 44.1%, it was urban; the remaining 2.3% being from another country. For females, the numbers are somewhat similar. This indicates that rural to urban migration is more dominant than urban to urban migration. However in the case of rural migrants, for men, the migration from urban areas was high at 51.6% and migration from rural areas was 44.6%. For women, in this case the figures are significantly different. Rural to rural comprises 88.8%. The next part of highlights is interesting where it presents the findings regarding reasons for migration among both males and females. For males, work/employment related reasons, namely in search of better prospects or in order to take up better opportunities comprises the bulk of the migration, accounting for 42.9%. Among women, expectedly, marriage is the biggest reason for migration, accounting for 86.8%.

Following the Highlights, the Report is divided into three chapters and 4 indices.

Chapter One is titled Introduction and it talks about the PLFS, its objectives, NSC, the geographical coverage, Sample Design of PLFS, among others. This section gives good insights into various aspects of the PLFS. Here in one paragraph, the authors state that the sample design has

not been tailored to ensure adequate number of migrants / temporary visitors in the sample in each of different States/UTs. Therefore, the sample sizes in different States/UTs may not be enough to provide sufficiently reliable estimates of the various indicators. Therefore, the estimates are not presented for different State/UTs; only the estimates for All-India level are given.

Chapter Two is titled Concepts and Definitions. Here the report has defined and explained the various terms, concepts and nomenclatures used in the report. For example, the definition of 'Household' is dealt with in some detail. It says, 'A group of persons who normally lived together and took food from a common kitchen constituted a household.' There are explanatory statements saying that the word 'normally' has some significance and 'staying together' has more importance than 'taking food from a common kitchen'. Other nomenclature – migrant, usual place of residence (UPR), migration rate, internal migration, etc are explained in detail. Such explanations help the reader understand and assimilate the report in the right manner.

Chapter Three is the Summary of Findings. This chapter contains all the findings that the reader is keenly wanting to know about. This chapter is presented in 2 sections:

Section One: Migration; and

Section Two: Temporary visitors in the household

Here migration rate, rural vs urban as also, migration rate female vs male in each is presented. It states that the total migration rate All-India for both male and female is 28.9. In other words 28.9% of the country's population is staying (at the time of enumeration) at a place that is not its usual place of residence (UPR). Then the data with respect to same state/other state/other country migration is presented. For All India, rural plus urban, female plus male, the 'within state' migration is 87.5%, 'another state' migration is 11.8%, and 'other countries' migration rate is 0.7%. Quite clearly the bulk of the migration happens within a state. Reason for migration is also analysed and presented in detail. This is done for rural, urban, female and male. All the data is well presented in tables and pie charts. Therefore these are easy to understand.

Similarly in Section two of this chapter, Temporary visitors in the household are covered. These persons are defined as those who arrived after March 2020 and stayed in the household continuously for 15 days or more but less than 6 months. The figure for All-India, rural plus urban, female plus male is 0.7%. Here again, data for rural, urban, female and male are

presented. Here the 'same state' movement is not as dominant as in the case of migration. The percentage of same state movement is 62. From other state it is 36.3%. Again there are well laid out tables and pie charts to enable easy assimilation. In this section too, the reasons for leaving usual place of residence is studied and reported. On All India basis, for rural plus urban and for female plus male, the topmost reason for leaving usual place of residence is 'to meet family/relative/friends. This accounts for 48.9% of all such movement. The next reason on the list is 'health related reasons'. Here the percentage is 15.7. These findings provide interesting insights into temporary movement of people from their usual place of residence for periods between 15 days and 6 months.

Thereafter come the Appendices. Appendix A and Appendix B provide the detailed tables with all the basic data from which the findings have been drawn. Appendix A contains 10 tables. Among them are *Number of villages/blocks, households surveyed and persons enumerated, number of migrant persons and surveyed number of temporary visitors, Percentage distribution of migrants by location of last usual place of residence disaggregated by sector and sex, Percentage distribution of migrants by reason for leaving the last usual place of residence disaggregated by sector and sex, Percentage of temporary*

visitors in the population residing temporarily in a place different from usual place of residence disaggregated by sector and sex, and Percentage distribution of temporary visitors* in the household whose present place of residence was different from the last usual place of residence by reason for leaving the last usual place of residence disaggregated by sector and sex.*

Appendix B contains the RSE (Relative Standard Error) of Estimates. There are two tables here. Appendix C is about Sample Design and Estimation Procedure.

To sum up, this Report is a detailed analysis and treatment of the subject of

migration. While the PLFS is designed to estimate the key employment and unemployment indicators, this report on migration could be of much interest to urban practitioners, policy makers, researchers, and others. This report contains the estimates relating to migration and temporary visitors to the households on which information was collected in the Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) during July 2020 - June 2021. Migration has major implications for urbanisation and therefore its better understanding could help stakeholders manage the urbanisation phenomenon in an optimal manner. This report will go a long way in helping this.

V Vijaykumar



Our Contributors

❑ **Hanumantha Rao Potharaju**

Dr Hanumantha Rao Potharaju is CEO, Centre for Symbiosis of Technology and Environment, Bengaluru

❑ **N Padmavathi**

N Padmavathi is Social Development Manager, Centre for Symbiosis of Technology and Environment, Bengaluru

❑ **B V Suranjan Reddy**

B V Suranjan Reddy is Senior Social Scientist, Centre for Symbiosis of Technology and Environment, Bengaluru

❑ **M. V. Vaithilingam**

Dr M. V. Vaithilingam is Research Officer, International Institute for Population Sciences, and Visiting Faculty, SIWS's College, Mumbai

❑ **Usha Iyer**

Dr Usha Iyer is Principal (Retired) SIWS's College, Mumbai

❑ **Sowmya shree K. L.**

Dr. Sowmya shree K. L. is Guest Lecturer, DOS in Geography, University of Mysore, Manasagangothri, Mysore

❑ **Chandrashekara B**

Dr. Chandrashekara B. is Professor, DOS in Geography, University of Mysore, Manasagangothri, Mysore

❑ **R Venkata Ravi**

Dr R Venkata Ravi is Associate Professor, Department of Lifelong Learning and Extension, Gandhigram Rural Institute Deemed to be University, Gandhigram, Tamil Nadu

❑ **S Vellimalayan**

S Vellimalayan is Guest Faculty, Gandhigram Rural Institute Deemed to be University, Gandhigram, Tamil Nadu

❑ **S Ramesh**

S Ramesh is Guest Faculty, Gandhigram Rural Institute Deemed to be University, Gandhigram, Tamil Nadu

❑ **V Vijaykumar**

V Vijaykumar is Senior Advisor, All India Institute of Local Self-Government

OBJECTIVES

The main emphasis of the Institute's work is to see that the local bodies can contribute more effectively to the development process and provide the citizens with better living conditions by meeting their aspirations in terms of required amenities, infrastructure and better environmental conditions, thus contributing to social and economic development of the society as a whole by better management of the human settlements. While these are the long-term objectives, the immediate ones are:

- ❖ To advance knowledge of the principles and practices of Local Government by conducting research and by organising training courses and programmes at various centres in India for officials and elected representatives in the local bodies.
- ❖ To strengthen and improve Local Government Institutions by improving their performance through education, orientation and bringing them together for common endeavor by organising specialised conferences, conventions and seminars.
- ❖ To make available a platform for members of local bodies and officials for exchange of views and ideas related to urban development and administration.
- ❖ To represent the views of local authorities supported by research work to the concerned higher authorities from time to time.
- ❖ To publish bibliographies, articles, books and other literature on matters of interest to local bodies.
- ❖ To publish journals, bulletins and other literature on different aspects of Local Government and on the working of Local bodies in different states.
- ❖ To undertake research studies in public administration, problems of local bodies and also in related topics of urban and environmental factors and arrange for their publication etc.
- ❖ To establish and maintain an information-cum-documentation service for local bodies.
- ❖ To undertake consultancy assignments in various areas of urban development and problems of local bodies with a view to improve and develop organisational, managerial and operational efficiency.

In view of the above, the Institute has been collaborating with the relevant government departments, Central and State, Universities, Organisations and Research Institutions. The work of the Institute covers several aspects involving a multi-disciplinary teamwork.

All India Institute of Local Self-Government

M. N. Roy Human Development Campus, Plot No.6, 'F' Block,
TPS Road No.12, Bandra (E), Mumbai – 400051.

Tel : +91- 86576 22550 / 51 / 52 / 54

E-mail : aiilsgquarterlyjournal@aiilsg.org, info.algq@aiilsg.org

Website : www.aiilsg.org